



Home sweet home

Housing practices and tools that support durable solutions for urban IDPs

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March 2015

Acknowledgements

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Cover photo: Internally displaced woman from Pristina living in Leposavic/q camp, Kosovo, since 1999. She is one of the last families awaiting relocation from the lead-contaminated camp. Credit: IDMC/Nadine Walicki, December 2014

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Foreword

Current global trends such as urban migration, new and ongoing conflicts, natural disasters and changes in our climate, as well as development projects continue to trigger important internal displacement flows, pushing people from rural to urban areas and displacing those who already live in urban areas. This displacement often devastates lives, destroys livelihoods and leaves families traumatised, vulnerable and in need of essential support in urban environments that may be alien and inhospitable. Adequate housing provides the first and most essential element to giving internally displaced persons back their dignity, their hope and the secure foundations they need to begin to rebuild shattered lives.

As Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), in the course of my work I have seen how, in many regions of the world, displacement and unplanned urban migration represents significant dangers for IDPs and challenges for States alike. Often with few if any resources available to them, displaced persons are obliged to accept substandard housing and conditions which provide little or no security of tenure. This is often in informal settlements such as urban slums, where they are more vulnerable to evictions and may become “invisible” and difficult to assist as they join the masses of the urban poor. Out of sight and out of mind, IDPs may face neglect and often resort to living in hazard or violence prone locations, making them vulnerable to potential secondary displacement.

The human rights of internally displaced persons must be protected and guaranteed according to international standards. The right to adequate housing is key amongst those rights and requires that IDPs be provided with appropriate housing options that contribute to durable solutions. This will ensure that displacement does not add to the social pressure and precarious human conditions associated with rapid and unplanned urban migration.

While positive housing programmes exist, the scattered knowledge on what has been done so far in support of durable housing solutions for IDPs – what has worked and what has not in different contexts – clearly demonstrates the need for such a report as this one. This important report “*Home Sweet Home*” identifies examples of good practices in support of durable solutions for urban IDPs, notably with regard to housing, land allocation, tenure security and rental subsidies.

The report has two major welcome departures which push towards more human rights based durable solutions: first is an emphasis on city-wide, more integrative urban planning approaches to the problem of urban IDPs; and second, an emphasis on the right to adequate housing as a framework for evaluating the actions that are needed to effectively tackle the problem of urban IDPs.

The report combines the expertise of the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) and the Displacement Research and Action Network (DRAN) of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and makes a hugely important contribution to understanding different approaches to support the achievement of durable solutions for urban IDPs. While the practices identified in this study may not be replicable in all contexts, the report should be seen as a useful tool available to national Governments, policy makers and a wide range of practitioners that can guide and inform their response when designing, funding or implementing housing policies and programmes in urban contexts, based on the application of humanitarian and human rights standards.



Chaloka Beyani

Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons

Executive summary

Recent trends in displacement to urban areas as a result of conflict, natural hazards and other drivers show that half of world's internally displaced people (IDPs) now live in such settings. At the same time, protracted displacement is increasingly the norm. Most IDPs find themselves living in displacement for years or even decades, unable to achieve durable solutions and with ongoing needs related to their predicament.

Displacement to urban areas poses unique challenges for IDPs. The many who flee from rural areas are unlikely to have skills adapted to their new environment, and they may well have lost their social and economic networks. Urban housing costs are relatively high, and IDPs' access to livelihoods has a direct bearing on the quality of accommodation they are able to afford. Their housing options tend to narrow over time as they deplete their assets, leading many to join the ranks of the urban poor in slum-like conditions. Here they have little or no access to services, their health may be compromised and they are exposed to the risk of secondary displacement as a result of evictions and the impacts of natural hazards. Their chances of achieving durable solutions are also significantly reduced.

Displacement to urban areas also represents a challenge for humanitarians, who struggle to adapt programme models based on rural, camp-based responses and the provision of emergency shelter. Specific expertise is required to understand the regulatory framework applicable in urban areas, and building specifications and infrastructure requirements call for longer-term collaboration with the development sector and local government institutions. To facilitate IDPs' achievement of durable solutions, whether it be by local integration in urban areas, return to their place of origin or settlement elsewhere in the country, humanitarian and development initiatives need to be better coordinated and the gaps between them bridged.

The fact that urban IDPs tend to be widely dispersed is a further challenge for humanitarians, who tend to adopt a target-group approach. Given the difficulty they face in identifying and locating their beneficiaries, they struggle to design programmes to support them. Urban displacement also constitutes a significant challenge for authorities. Rapid urbanisation means that authorities are often already struggling to provide housing and services to the urban population. In this context, the influx of IDPs, the effect of conflict or disaster and the destruction of housing and infrastructure compound pre-existing housing shortage and affect the capacity of authorities to respond adequately.

There is a consensus on the challenges inherent in responding to urban IDPs' housing needs and rights, but knowledge of practices is limited. This report is a first step towards establishing analytical tools and practices that take into account the complexity of infrastructure and institutional, legal, political and policy frameworks which make urban areas far more difficult to work in than rural areas. It aims to guide and inform policymakers and practitioners when designing, funding and implementing housing policies and programmes that facilitate durable solutions for urban IDPs.

Not all practices may be replicable in all contexts, but they provide a variety of approaches that can be adapted. They offer examples of how national and international responders have succeeded in:

- Locating IDPs and identifying their specific needs through urban profiling and community enumeration and mapping
- Improving IDPs' tenure security through legal aid, incremental tenure, social housing, the regularisation of informal settlements, the upgrading of collective centres and the transfer of ownership
- Addressing urgent humanitarian shelter and longer-term housing needs in cooperation with authorities and affected communities, through a combination of cash assistance, tenure security measures and vocational training
- Adopting a multi-sectorial approach that corresponds to the aspects of the right to adequate housing beyond shelter, including access to basic and social services, income-generating activities, measures that make housing more affordable and improved resilience to natural hazards
- Improving the chances of evicted IDPs of obtaining compensation for their losses and allowing those threatened with eviction to assess potential losses using an eviction impact assessment tool
- Influencing authorities' practices and policies towards successful localised projects that have a broad impact

The report advocates for an area-based and inclusive approach to addressing the housing rights of urban IDPs and their host communities, because their needs are often similar. Such an approach should be combined with targeted approaches when IDPs' specific needs and vulnerabilities have been identified. It advocates for a human rights-based approach to housing programmes and policies across both humanitarian and development sectors, and among national and local responders.



Abandoned office building in Monrovia, hosting urban internally displaced persons. Photo: Christopher Herwig, June 2006

The criteria used to identify and analyse policies and practices are guided by human rights standards, in particular provisions and interpretations of the right to adequate housing in international law, the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, the UN basic principles and guidelines on development-based displacement and evictions and the IASC framework on durable solutions for IDPs (see annex). Through a matrix of 20 elements, the report identifies and reviews 18 housing approaches (practices and tools).

General recommendations:

- Humanitarian and development practitioners should base their responses on international human rights law, in particular the right to adequate housing, and on relevant guidelines such as the UN basic principles and guidelines on development-induced displacement and eviction.
- National, municipal and international entities involved in development activities should engage earlier during the humanitarian phase to ensure the continuity and coherence of short-term and longer-term interventions. These interventions should be integrated into broader urban planning and growth strategies.
- Governments should recognise displacement as a development issue for both IDPs and host commu-

nities. International organisations and agencies can help advocate for and shape national housing policies that service the needs of all vulnerable populations. Humanitarians' traditional focus on target groups such as IDPs needs to be complemented by broader development plans addressing these structural issues.

Specific recommendations on key findings

1. Responses should be more inclusive and address not only the housing rights of IDPs, but also those of the urban poor and the wider community.
2. Development practitioners should include IDPs, particularly those living in protracted displacement, among their beneficiaries in order to address their specific needs.
3. Various forms of tenure, including informal, should be acknowledged and recognised, because they are key to the progressive realisation of the right to adequate housing.
4. More systematic legal and administrative interventions should be undertaken in land administration systems to ensure that multiple forms of tenure are understood and codified.

5. Adequate protections from forced eviction should be put in place in order to avoid renewed displacement and increased impoverishment.
6. National and international interventions should adopt a multi-sectorial approach to facilitate adequate housing and the achievement of durable solutions. This means addressing elements such as tenure security, affordability, habitability, disaster risk reduction, access to basic and social services and employment (see full list in matrix).
7. Programmes that aim to improve tenure security and housing conditions should ensure that their eligibility criteria do not exclude IDPs. Those that include the possession of personal documents, permanent residency, or a specific number of years spent in a given place may constitute factors of discrimination against IDPs, and flexibility should be envisaged in such cases.
8. Legal aid should be offered to urban IDPs to inform them about issues that affect their tenure security, such as lease agreements and protection from eviction, and to advise them on legal and informal routes to conflict resolution and obtaining documentation and building permits.
9. More attention should be paid to affordable rented housing in lieu of home ownership schemes, given that most urban residents rent, particularly the poorer and more marginalised among them and including IDPs.
10. All options for providing affordable housing should be considered. These include the opening up of serviced land, investment in infrastructure, provision of affordable credit, refurbishment of abandoned property, allowing extra floors on existing housing structures, re-zoning land for residential use, increasing population density by encouraging in-fill, and subsidies for the upgrading of vacant and dilapidated housing stock.
11. Humanitarian relief work should be integrated with follow-up interventions as is the case with the Graduation approach where cash-based assistance is combined with livelihood programmes that also include vocational training and small business loans.
12. IDPs should participate meaningfully in housing programmes and interventions should be community-owned.
13. Programming should consider and understand IDPs and displaced households as economic agents who apply their own calculations when prioritising needs such as housing, food, education and health.
14. IDPs should not be viewed as a homogenous group, given that their economic status and resource levels can vary dramatically.
15. The profiling of urban IDPs should be used more systematically to provide valuable socioeconomic data on displaced households and the community they live in, which in turn should be used to address IDPs specific needs and inform longer-term public policy.
16. The focus on displaced individuals and households should shift towards area-based interventions integrated into broader urban planning and growth strategies. Such a shift requires cooperation with municipal authorities, potentially leading to the institutionalisation of practices.
17. The cost-effectiveness of shifting to more area-based interventions should be analysed further, but involving the development sector earlier during the humanitarian phase can help share the costs of longer-term interventions.
18. Authorities and humanitarian organisations should continue to identify and meet IDPs' specific needs, particularly those of vulnerable individuals, if they cannot be addressed by general approaches. Targeted support to facilitate durable solutions is a case in point. As displacement becomes protracted, IDPs' less obvious needs, such as psychosocial support to deal with trauma, tend to be overlooked, making those affected more vulnerable over time.
19. The links between private infrastructure and service providers (i.e water, electricity, solid waste management), their regulation by the municipality and the way the international humanitarian and development communities can better support them should be studied further.
20. The extent to which interventions need to be adapted to address urban scale should be studied further to determine, for example, how supporting municipalities or working with commercial service providers in second and third-tier cities differs from doing so in capitals and megacities.

Global trends in internal displacement

At least 33.3 million people were living in displacement as a result of armed conflict¹, generalised violence² and human rights violations as of the end of 2013. Around 8.2 million of them were newly displaced in 2013 alone.³ That figure pales, however, before the 22 million people newly displaced by natural hazards and the disasters they triggered during the same year.⁴ Six hundred such events were recorded, of which 37 led to mass displacements of between 100,000 to more than four million people.⁵

When the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) began monitoring displacement in 1998, there were 19.3 million internally displaced people (IDPs) worldwide, growing to 25 million in 2001 and more than 33 million today.⁶ If displacement associated with development projects were included, the global trend would be even more acute. This report deals mainly with displacement caused by conflict and natural hazards.

IDPs often suffer multiple displacements, whether as a result of forced evictions, structural hazards and damage, tenure insecurity or ongoing conflict. This tends to increase the overall length of their displacement and blurs the distinction between different types of flight that generally become interlinked in urban areas.

Protracted displacement⁷ is increasingly the norm. Most IDPs around the world are displaced for years and some for decades, which significantly erodes their basic rights, including access to services and protection. Displacement can become protracted for many reasons, and the longer it goes on the more difficult it becomes for IDPs to achieve durable solutions.⁸ Housing is a key element of durable solutions, particularly in urban areas, which tend to be short of affordable and adequate accommodation.

Humanitarian assistance is particularly adapted to the immediate aftermath of conflict and disasters, but longer-term solutions require the involvement of others who support development, peacebuilding and respect for human rights. Protracted displacement cannot be resolved by humanitarian interventions alone, but rather must be approached as a political, development and economic challenge. Displacement crises can also be framed as development opportunities that capitalise on population growth and consumer demand, by aligning the actions of the humanitarian and development sectors to help cities cope better with displacement.⁹

Global trends in urban displacement

Recent trends show that half of the world's IDPs¹⁰ live in urban areas.¹¹ Violence, conflict, natural hazards and the depletion of livelihoods, in part the result of climate change, are important drivers of displacement to and within urban areas. There are multiple patterns, which can broadly be categorised as rural-to-urban, inter-urban and intra-urban. In situations of ongoing rural conflict, people may flee en masse to urban areas.

IDPs tend to seek refuge in urban areas in search of better livelihoods, services, anonymity and security. Their arrival, however, in ever increasing numbers, can also put significant strain on what are often already limited resources, and this in turn can lead to a steady deterioration in living conditions for both IDPs and their host communities. Many urban IDPs also have to confront insecure tenure and the resulting threat of further displacement, not only as a result of natural hazards and renewed conflict, but also an increase in forced evictions.

Displacement to urban areas further accelerates the overall global trend of urbanisation, but IDPs' arrival can also stimulate economic activity and growth, increasing the number of consumers and expanding the labour force. The enlargement of urban centres and migration en masse to cities defined the 20th century and will shape the 21st.

Global trends in urbanisation

In 2014, the UN estimated that 3.9 billion people, or 54 per cent of the world's population, lived in urban areas.¹² It also projected that the figure would reach 6.4 billion, a rise of 2.5 billion, by 2050. China has the world's largest urban population with 758 million, India has 410 million, the US 263 million, Brazil 173 million, Indonesia 134 million, Japan 118 million and the Russian Federation 105 million. Between them, the seven countries account for more than half of the global total.

Urbanisation is taking place fastest in developing countries, which also experience most internal displacement. Asian and African countries are projected to experience the largest increases in global urban population by 2050. Most of the urbanisation in the two regions takes place in smaller cities and market centres, where authorities are often less prepared to cope in terms of urban plan-

ning, service delivery and housing provision. It is unclear whether the UN projections include urban growth caused by displacement.

Urban IDPs' specific challenges

IDPs are not a homogenous group. They may share some vulnerabilities as a result of their displacement, but their economic and resource levels can vary dramatically. Those with greater means in the form of earnings, savings, remittances, assets or access to credit are better able to afford decent housing, cope more generally, adapt to new environments and achieve durable solutions. This report focuses on urban IDPs with fewer means and opportunities in terms of finance, protection and livelihoods, and who have more difficulty establishing decent housing conditions for themselves as a result.

On the surface, poorer urban IDPs seem to have a lot in common with other new migrants to the city. Like the broader urban poor, they are often unable to afford adequate housing. They tend to live in slum areas or dangerous or impoverished parts of a city that offer no tenure security, less access to services and where they are more exposed to violence, forced evictions and natural hazards.¹³ Such similarities call for broader human-

itarian and development responses that target not only displaced households, but rather adopt an area-based, integrated and participatory approach that reaches all vulnerable groups.

Compared with their non-displaced neighbours, urban IDPs' situations tend to be similar or worse. In many cases, they have specific needs and heightened vulnerabilities related to their displacement, and policies and practices should take these into account in order to ensure that they benefit from programmes on a par with other groups in need in terms of housing and tenure security.¹⁴ Eligibility criteria that include possession of personal documents, permanent residency or a certain number of years spent in a location may discriminate against IDPs and flexibility should be envisaged in such cases.

New arrivals often lack social and economic networks to facilitate livelihood opportunities and have little or no knowledge of existing housing or assistance programmes. They also face barriers to work in the form of competition from locals and elites, who in some cases are part of local mafias that control certain business sectors.

Having lost many of their assets during their flight, IDPs are often deprived of resources. This does not necessarily mean that they do not have savings or expendable in-



Displaced families in an informal settlement in Kabul, Afghanistan. Photo: NRC / Christian Jepsen, January 2014

come, but given their uncertain futures they may prioritise their spending differently from their counterparts among the broader urban poor. Many who have expendable income choose to remain in poor housing and prioritise spending on food, health and education, while keeping afloat in case they are displaced again or decide to return to their places of origin. Others in urgent need may be willing to use their savings to pay inflated prices for poor accommodation, ostensibly displacing locals unable to meet the higher costs.

There is not enough comparative data on the economic calculations displaced households make when deciding their expenditure. Policymakers should bear in mind, however, that decent accommodation may not be their first budgetary priority, which makes the provision of adequate and affordable housing all the more pressing.

IDPs may also face discrimination on the basis of their ethnic, religious or political affiliation, which can hinder their access to employment and income that might allow them to afford adequate housing. It can also make them reluctant to be identified as IDPs and approach authorities for support or redress. IDPs are also more likely to have gone through traumatic experiences and to have been separated from other family members. Uncertainty about being reunited and about their wider future can lead to a general sense of insecurity. Such factors in turn increase IDPs' vulnerability and limit their capacity to rebuild their lives swiftly and seek the requisite support.

There is also a delineation between "gathered" and "dispersed" IDPs in urban areas. Gathered IDPs live in camps or informal settlements in close proximity to one another, while dispersed IDPs mix with other groups and live with relatives or hosts, in rented accommodation and informal settlements or as squatters on public land. In some cases, the decision not to stick together is taken to decrease their visibility and avoid security threats. Others may avoid identifying themselves to authorities for the same reason. The same strategy, however, makes them less visible to aid organisations, making gathered IDPs twice as likely to benefit from protection and assistance.¹⁵

Humanitarian response and the urban challenge

If cities can broadly be said to draw IDPs, refugees and migrants seeking social mobility, livelihood opportunities, better services and security, then the question arises of how their authorities can fulfil the needs, expectations and rights of all of their ever-growing number of inhabitants. Humanitarian literature has increasingly identified an urgent need to "meet the urban challenge".^{16 17 18 19} It is unclear, however, how humanitarian interventions in

urban areas will be reformulated to take cities' spatial, political, environmental and economic complexity into account.

Given that a billion people around the world live in slums, the proliferation of informal settlements and urbanisation are two processes that reinforce one another.²⁰ Much of the world's urban growth has taken, and is projected to continue to take place in developing countries, where most cities have only been able to absorb the rapid influx of people through the expansion of informal settlements and under-serviced slums. There is a clear need for urban expansion to be better planned and for varying levels of services to be provided that are affordable for a broad spectrum of the population.

For humanitarian and development organisations to meet the urban challenge primarily means tackling issues of social justice and human rights, including unequal power dynamics and significant disparity in service provision, which contribute directly to inadequate and insecure housing conditions. This is particularly true in the absence of welfare policies such as social housing programmes. Encouraged by easy credit, speculation in the housing, land and property markets has contributed to less affordable and adequate housing being available in many cities. As populations and the demand for housing grow, urban land speculation becomes more lucrative. As both urbanisation and income disparity increase, cities are becoming places of enormous inequality, where concentrated wealth and concentrated poverty exist side by side.²¹

Though IDPs are forced to flee their homes, pull factors also draw them to urban areas, but the reality they encounter is often very different from their expectations, particularly for poorer and more vulnerable groups. They tend to settle in slums or informal settlements characterised by poor construction standards, vulnerability to natural hazards, lack of secure tenure, clean water and electricity, and high rates of crime and gender-based violence.

Such factors put them at greater risk of renewed displacement, notably when they occupy public and private land and property without permission. Even when IDPs pay rent for accommodation, their often absentee landlords may not be its formal owner. The widespread destruction associated with natural hazards and conflict can also significantly lower the availability of adequate and affordable housing, placing additional burdens on local authorities that may lack the capacity to respond to the crisis and provide durable solutions for those displaced.

As displacement increasingly becomes protracted,^{22 23} the need to move away from temporary and transitional responses and to work towards durable solutions has

become urgent. Some IDPs are able to use their own capacities to end their displacement sustainably and even thrive, but the most vulnerable can languish for years or decades in camps and non-camp settings. The pursuit of durable solutions means the development sector becoming involved earlier during the humanitarian phase of response and bridging the humanitarian-development divide. A shift in focus is also needed from displaced individuals and households to area-based interventions integrated into broader urban planning and growth strategies. Humanitarian relief needs to be integrated with follow-up assistance in terms of livelihoods, tenure security and the fulfilment of human rights.

The pursuit of durable solutions has presented a challenge to humanitarian and development organisations. Humanitarians tend to focus on specific target groups such as people affected by conflict or disasters, while their counterparts in the development sector tend to address vulnerability and poverty more broadly. Shaping national housing policies for vulnerable populations demands more systematic legal and bureaucratic interventions in land administration systems that ensure different forms of tenure are understood and codified, and adequate protections against forced eviction are put in place.^{24 25}

Despite the emergence of urban displacement as an issue in humanitarian responses, there is still a lack of guidance on effective measures and only limited knowledge of practices that have successfully addressed urban IDPs' housing and tenure security needs. The significant differences between cities and rural areas in terms of the obstacles IDPs face in accessing adequate housing also need to be clearly understood. Rural areas, for example lend themselves to the establishment of camps in ways that urban areas do not, in that there is more land available, less immediate municipal and political oversight and significantly fewer policy, legal and administrative barriers.

Urban displacement creates many challenges for all those working to assist those affected, but in some cases government authorities may act against IDPs' interests. In cases where they are already concerned about the growth of informal settlements or the potentially destabilising presence of a particular minority group, they may lack the political will to recognise them, guarantee them tenure or allow them to integrate locally. Authorities may also undertake urban renewal processes that target areas where communities without tenure security and other marginalised groups live, because they are politically easier to evict and cheaper to compensate if they are compensated at all.

Humanitarian and development organisations working with urban IDPs need to coordinate regularly and align

their activities with the objectives of the local government, as the latter plays a key role in the long-term provision of housing, services and tenure security. NGOs also need to align their actions with zoning regulations, local development frameworks, master plans, municipal funding structures and laws on housing, land and property issues. In doing so, they face a number of challenges:

1. Lack of national expertise and capacity in urban planning and economic, finance and development issues. The impact of conflict and natural hazards may hamper a state's ability to respond adequately to rapid urbanisation still further. In most countries affected by displacement there is a lack of affordable or social housing. Insufficient planning for urban development leads to unmanageable informal settlements that grow in size alongside the poverty of their inhabitants.
2. Lack of a national housing department or equivalent to guide and oversee the development of housing plans to meet population growth, including urban IDPs. Different elements of shelter and housing are often divided between several departments.
3. Lack of coordination between government departments, which may have different information, capacity, agendas, funding and visions on which to base IDPs' assistance.
4. Lack of coordination between international and local institutions to facilitate the direct support and training of municipalities, neighbourhood organisations and civil society groups. Supporting local and not just national institutions can have a more lasting impact on service provision and access to adequate housing for those, including IDPs, who are under their direct jurisdiction.
5. Lack of effective coordination to align humanitarian and development efforts and empower national and local government agencies. Such coordination may not always be desirable, for example if local authorities are party to a conflict, in which case, coordination with local communities and civil society groups is necessary to forge political will and trust, and to open the way for responders other than the government to intervene.
6. Humanitarian and shelter agencies' lack of expertise in urban areas. Knowledge of the technical aspects of urban development, including planning, tenure, budgets, building regulations and zoning guidelines is needed to provide IDPs with adequate housing. This includes understanding the practicalities of implementing rules and regulations in areas where local customs and norms apply. This knowledge exists as a result of decades of

urban development work, but it has yet to be properly incorporated into humanitarian and shelter work.

7. Lack of knowledge about the challenges facing the urban poor more generally. Such knowledge is crucial given that it is sometimes difficult and unrealistic to separate out IDPs from the wider populations, particularly in slums and informal settlements. Knowledge about all marginalised groups is vital to developing solutions for urban IDPs.

Faced with such challenges, those trying to respond must grapple with many new questions specific to operating in an urban environment:

1. Why and how are populations affected by conflict, generalised violence, natural and man-made disasters and development projects²⁶ being displaced to, between and within urban areas? What are their push and pull factors?
2. Once they arrive in an urban area, what are IDPs' rights, and the duties and obligations of local and national governments towards them?

3. How can different types of aid organisations add value to urban areas over and above helping individuals and households?

4. What systems, institutions, regulatory frameworks, public services, transport, housing, land, property and economic conditions are in place in a given urban area? How do institutions operate at the municipal, district, neighbourhood and household level?

5. What economic, social and security obstacles do IDPs face and how do they differ from those in rural areas?

6. Why is it in the interests of humanitarians and their development counterparts to take an integrated, area-based approach to meeting urban IDPs' needs?

7. How best to grasp the complexity of infrastructure and institutional, legal and policy frameworks which make urban areas far more difficult to work in than rural areas?

2

Objective

The objective of this report is to support the achievement of durable solutions for urban IDPs by making a range of practices available to policymakers, donors and practitioners to inform the design, funding and implementation of housing policies and programmes in urban settings.

Adequate housing is key to the achievement of durable solutions, and in its absence IDPs are exposed to inadequate living standards, multiple displacements and a wide range of human rights violations. This report focuses primarily on housing, but this is not to overlook other critical aspects of durable solutions such as livelihoods, which are intricately linked to the ability of IDPs to access affordable and adequate housing. It is an initial attempt to focus the interdisciplinary perspectives of the humanitarian, development, human rights and urban planning fields on the subject of housing. As such, myriad follow-up inquiries and research projects are required.

This report also advocates for a human-rights based approach to the formulation of policies and the implementation of housing programmes by humanitarian, development, national and local actors with the ultimate aim of achieving durable solutions for urban IDPs.

3

Target audience

This report targets practitioners, policymakers and donors involved in humanitarian, human rights and development activities at both the national and international levels, and who work with national and local authorities to address urban IDPs' housing needs and rights. By targeting a broad audience, it aims to foster links between national and international development organisations so that medium to long-term urban strategies are designed and continually revised to integrate policies that deal with protracted displacement.

4

Conceptual frameworks and key issues

A. IDPs

Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement

The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement were adopted in 1998 and define IDPs as “persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border”.

The Guiding Principles are soft law, but they are based upon and draw their legitimacy from legally binding international humanitarian, human rights law and analogous refugee law.

UN special rapporteur on the Human rights of IDPs

The UN secretary general appointed a representative on internally displaced persons in 1992, a role that was replaced in 2004 by a special rapporteur on the human rights of IDP appointed by the UN Commission on Human Rights. The rapporteur’s mandate is to promote, disseminate and ensure the application of the Guiding Principles.

IASC framework on durable solutions

The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC)’s framework for durable solutions for IDPs was adopted in 2009, and recognises that displacement is often a traumatic and life-changing event, after which individuals and communities are unable to return to a *status quo ante*. It establishes the threshold at which durable solutions can be said to have been achieved as being when IDPs’ “displacement-specific” needs have been met and they can exercise their rights without “displacement-specific” discrimination. It also acknowledges that the achievement of durable solutions may not mean an end to their wider needs:

“IDPs who have achieved a durable solution may still face needs or human rights concerns that are not displacement-specific, e.g. when IDPs return or relocate to an area that was neglected and impoverished even before their displacement or where the wider population faces the same challenges as IDPs to participate in elections or other public affairs.”²⁷

The IASC framework lists eight interlinked criteria to determine the extent to which IDPs have achieved durable solutions. They are:

1. Safety and security
2. Adequate standard of living
3. Access to livelihoods
4. Restoration of housing, land and property
5. Access to documentation
6. Family reunification
7. Participation in public affairs
8. Access to effective remedies and justice

It does not define precisely what constitutes basic shelter and housing, because this varies depending on the situation. What might be considered acceptable housing in the midst of an emergency or soon afterwards should be gradually improved if it is still to be deemed adequate in the context of protracted displacement.²⁸

B. Adequate housing

UN framework on the right to adequate housing

Article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) enshrines “the right of everyone to an adequate standard of living for himself and his family, including adequate food, clothing and housing, and to the continuous improvement of living conditions”. The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR), which monitors ICESCR’s implementation, elaborated on the right to adequate housing in its general comment number four in 1991, and on forced evictions in general comment number seven in 1997. CESCR determined that adequate housing constituted more than simply “four walls and a roof”, and listed seven essential elements:²⁹

1. Legal security of tenure
2. Access to public goods and services
3. Affordability
4. Habitability
5. Physical accessibility
6. Location
7. Cultural adequacy

The eight IASC durable solutions criteria mentioned above echo and complement many of the essential elements of the right to adequate housing, such as security, access to basic services and effective remedies, restitution of housing, land and property rights, and participation in public affairs.

This report also refers to nine additional elements that were added in 2007:³⁰

1. Access to land, water, and other natural resources
2. Freedom from dispossession, damage and destruction
3. Access to information
4. Participation
5. Resettlement, restitution, compensation, non-refoulement and return
6. Privacy and security
7. Access to remedies
8. Education and empowerment
9. Freedom from violence against women

These 16 elements provide a lens through which to identify and examine housing and tenure security practices that can contribute towards urban IDPs' achievement of durable solutions. Given the urgent need to protect them from further displacement, this report also relies on the UN's primary operational UN instrument on forced evictions, the basic principles and guidelines on development-based displacement and evictions.³¹ These guidelines were designed with both rural and urban realities in mind, and as such contain detailed safeguards to protect urban IDPs' human rights in situations they are likely to face before, during and after displacement.

UN special rapporteur on adequate housing

The UN Commission on Human Rights established the mandate of the special rapporteur in 2000. It includes the promotion of the full realisation of adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, the identification of best practices and challenges, and emphasises practical solutions.

C. Urban dynamics

What is urban?

There is no broad-based consensus about how to answer this question, in part because entities commonly referred to as "urban" have no universal or standardised form, underlying logic or set of characteristics. Each urban centre has evolved through a unique historical process that has shaped its present and constantly shifting demographic and socioeconomic conditions, and forms of zoning and infrastructure, land and housing management.

The previous concept of a strict rural-urban dichotomy is no longer accepted.³² There is no particular threshold of spatial or population density or diversity that defines an



Temporary settlement for internally displaced people in Mogadishu. Photo: OCHA / Órla Fagan, April 2012

urban area. Each country tends to have its official definitions for what constitutes a town, city or village, and they can cover a wide range of small, medium and large urban centres. Recent reports by humanitarian organisations that attempt to learn from the city recognise “a continuum from the very rural on the one end (for example, small hamlets in the highlands of Ethiopia) to the very urban at the other (mega-cities such as Dhaka and their sprawling peripheries), with villages, small towns, regional centres and medium-sized cities in between.”³³

In an abstract sense, an urban area can be understood as a spatial concentration of people and wealth that is usually reliant on a cash-based economy, with the relationships between the two shaped and regulated by a set of political, social, legal and economic institutions. Modern urban areas are sites of mass production and consumption, and are considered engines of economic development.

No matter how peaceful or well-run they may be, cities are also characterised by tensions, inequality, environmental degradation, volatility and varying flows of people, capital and resources. Some of the primary sources of tension are inequities and inefficiencies in urban land management. They are made worse as land markets develop in a poorly regulated environment. Land is increasingly commoditised and there is intense competition for serviced land and social infrastructure and housing. Market distortions also increase, which can lead to inflation and market manipulation, especially in the presence of land mafias and cartels.

Regulations governing housing, land and property markets have direct implications for a city’s ability to absorb migrants and IDPs. They determine the use of space, dividing it into areas such as peri-urban, suburban, commercial, historic and informal. Each type of area may have different regulatory, tenure, zoning and housing dynamics. These rules are particularly relevant to the availability or rapid production of affordable housing stock for rent. They also need to be understood and respected by humanitarians and their development counterparts who provide housing support to urban IDPs.

What implications do urban land dynamics have on affordability, location and habitability, especially for IDPs?

Affordability, location and habitability – the quality of housing - relate to its economics. Relative habitability and location are often direct factors of affordability in a land-poor urban market, and living in a city centre where jobs are likely to be more plentiful may be financially prohibitive. As displacement becomes protracted and IDPs’ livelihood opportunities remain limited, their housing situation tends to deteriorate. They move out of

their host families’ homes and seek lower quality rented accommodation, where they may face the risk of eviction, with settlement in slums their last resort. As such they are often presented with the choice of poor quality housing in inner-city slums or moving to cheaper peri-urban and suburban areas, from where they face high transport costs. The lack of affordable housing solutions can push IDPs further into debt or may lead to their eviction for non-payment of rent. It also exposes them to a number of abuses. Female heads of household may resort to survival sex in exchange for housing.

The right to adequate housing defines the element of affordability as follows: “Personal or household financial costs associated with housing should not threaten or compromise the attainment and satisfaction of other basic needs (for example, food, education, access to health care).” In a commoditised urban land and housing market, the definition of affordability is determined locally as a percentage of household income spent on housing. A globally accepted figure is between 30 and 40 per cent.³⁴

Based on current trends in urban migration and growth, it is estimated that by 2025 around 440 million urban households worldwide – or at least 1.6 billion people – will occupy crowded, inadequate or unsafe housing.³⁴ The current housing affordability gap is estimated to be \$650 billion a year. There is no global disaggregated data for IDPs, but it is commonly accepted that as newcomers to cities they are not always able to access affordable housing because they lack documentation, knowledge of subsidised programmes, savings and assets, or because there is not enough stock to meet demand.

The authors of a UN-Habitat report argue for more market-based measures to unlock urban land, which is often publicly-owned but underused or vacant³⁵. Developing such land with affordable housing projects is key to increasing the housing supply for both ownership and rental, particularly if informal settlers already live on it.³⁶

What is tenure security in urban areas and why is it important to IDPs?

Raquel Rolnik, former special rapporteur on the right to adequate housing, defined tenure security as “a set of relationships with respect to housing and land, established through statutory or customary law or informal or hybrid arrangements that enables one to live in one’s home in security, peace and dignity”.³⁷ Regardless of its form, customary, formal rental or ownership, human rights law requires that all people should have a degree of tenure security to protect them from forced evictions.

Tenure insecurity is a common feature of urban displacement, and is often the result of poor people occupying and in some cases building on state or private land with-

Figure 4: Tenure security continuum ³⁹

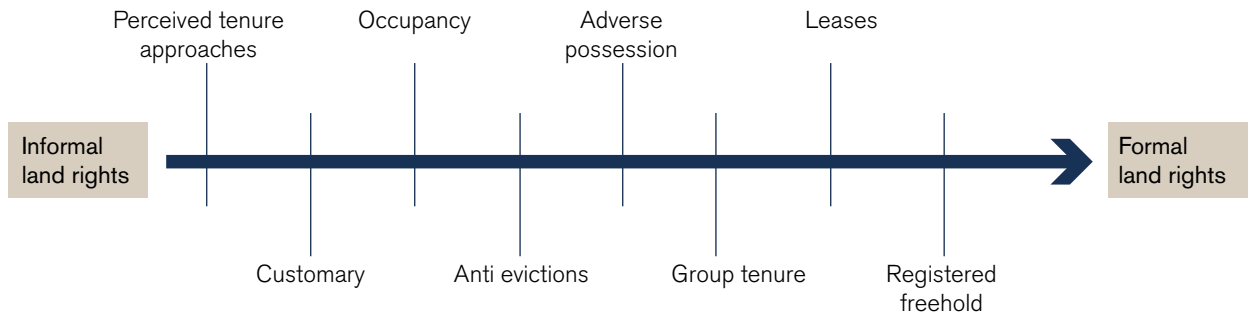
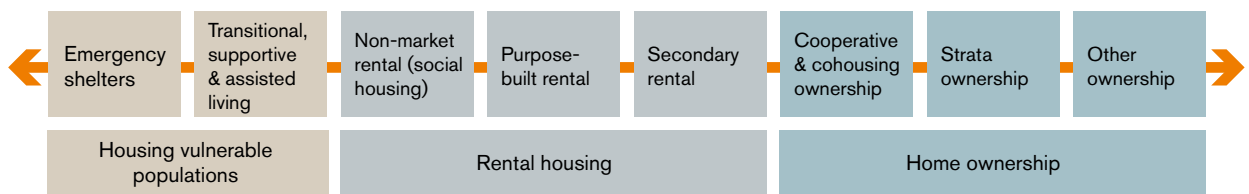


Figure 5: Housing continuum model



out permission. Those who do so place themselves at high risk of renewed displacement if the owners decide to recover their land and put it to more profitable use, or to evacuate it for security or sanitation reasons. In 18 of the countries that IDMC monitors, IDPs living in urban settings have been forcibly evicted as a result of tenure insecurity.³⁸ Successive displacement or the threat of it reduces their capacity to cope and increases their vulnerability.

Policies and practices that aim to improve tenure security as an integral part of the right to adequate housing are key to preventing renewed displacement and facilitating durable solutions.

Tenure is a process, not a fixed system.⁴⁰ There are many informal and formal forms of securing tenure, which lie along a continuum and are often overlapping. Figure 4 is not an exhaustive representation, but it illustrates the fluidity and continuity between them. The concept of legitimate tenure rights “extends beyond mainstream notions of private ownership and includes multiple tenure forms deriving from a variety of tenure systems”.⁴¹

The complexity of tenure security is an obstacle to humanitarian action in urban areas, which often begins in response to an emergency and in which it is harder to understand and account for the diversity of tenure arrangements. Humanitarian agencies need to work closely with authorities or use tools such as the social tenure domain model or other pro-poor land administration systems to clarify them.

Informal tenure systems are not necessarily dysfunctional or inefficient, but they tend not to be recognised by au-

thorities and international organisations when providing housing assistance. Perceptions of social legitimacy are key for both formal and informal tenure arrangements to function. In stable societies, informal tenure can be as secure as holding a title deed.

Each type of formal tenure arrangement – such as freehold, delayed freehold, registered leasehold, public or private rental, shared equity and cooperative tenure - and informal arrangement – such as customary ownership, religious tenure system and non-formal tenure systems - has its advantages and limitations (see table 2). Multiple tenure systems are the result of the historical evolution of legal pluralism, under which statutory, customary and religious laws co-exist and overlap.

Interventions in land administration systems can take many forms, such as improving registration practices, recognising multiple tenure models through community enumeration and halting evictions. All are incremental processes. As such, tenure is not a fixed state or destination that culminates in freehold tenure for all, and property ownership should not be promoted as the only ultimate goal. Rather rental, communal and public tenure should be examined and expanded. Figure 5 shows how different forms of tenure can be represented and correlated along a housing continuum. IDPs should have access to a graduated set of housing options that include shelters, hostels, rental accommodation, cooperatives and ownership.

In practice, however, humanitarian action tends to favour IDPs who can prove documented ownership when determining eligibility for housing programmes, and limits

those who cannot to emergency or transitional shelter.⁴² To address this shortcoming, Rolnik has called for the recognition of various forms of tenure beyond private property ownership and warned of the risk of discriminating against the urban poor on the basis of their tenure status.⁴³

What is “urban infrastructure” and why is it relevant to IDPs?

Tenure security alone is not enough to meet the criteria for adequate housing. Access to basic services and urban infrastructure is also key to realising the right to housing.

Urban areas can be understood as systems in which energy, money, food, goods and people circulate, and they require both hard and soft forms of infrastructure to function. Physical infrastructure can include transport - public transit, railway, roads, walkways and airports; water management - drinking water supply, sewage and irrigation; solid waste management - rubbish collection, landfills and hazardous waste disposal; energy - pipelines and electricity grids; communications - internet, mobile phone networks, fixed-line networks and post services; social - schools, hospitals and health centres; and economic infrastructure - finance, manufacturing, formal and informal markets.

Urban infrastructure is often a pull factor for IDPs and can lead to a desire for local integration, particularly when their displacement becomes protracted. When supporting urban IDPs, humanitarians and their counterparts in the development sector must also help municipalities and commercial service providers to improve access to infrastructure and basic services for the wider population.

Why should the needs of host communities be addressed?

Host communities⁴⁴ should be understood as part of the population affected by displacement, which includes those living in IDPs' places of refuge, those in return areas and those at risk of displacement if their protection or shelter needs are not addressed.⁴⁵ In the case of natural hazards, the affected population also includes those who suffered impacts but were not forced to flee their homes. At the household level, host families are IDPs' relatives or those willing to rent them space or provide temporary shelter. There have been increasing moves towards understanding the impact of displacement on host communities and devising cash transfer programmes that support hosts and IDPs alike.⁴⁶

Host communities can benefit from IDPs' presence as they gain an income from rent, but there is potential for tensions and hostility on several levels, including the neighbourhood level. Often the result of ethnic, religious, social-economic differences, or the perception that IDPs are synonymous with insecurity and poverty, they become targets for discrimination and even violent attack. Competition for scarce resources and employment, and the fact that their presence can lead to inflationary effects, can provoke similar hostility.

In cases where IDPs live with relatives, protracted displacement can cause resentment if they are unable to contribute to housing and food costs. Such feelings only increase if IDPs receive support in the form of goods, cash or shelter assistance while other vulnerable groups in the host community are overlooked.

If, however, humanitarian and development programmes employ area-based approaches that assist vulnerable populations other than the displaced or improve local service delivery, they can contribute to improving social cohesion. Inclusiveness is an important criterion for interventions, but area-based responses tend to be more expensive and may require programmes to be redesigned to be more cost-effective.

5

Methodology

Practices and tools were collected via desk research and broad consultations with authorities, practitioners and academics. An interdisciplinary approach was used, drawing on the knowledge of experts in humanitarian and development practice, conflict, natural hazards and urban planning. In some cases, IDMC staff, consultants and partners were able to conduct field visits.

Based on this research, a matrix of 20 examination criteria was devised to analyse both rights-based and programmatic elements of practices (see table 1). It is based on essential elements of the right to adequate housing as formulated by human rights bodies in accordance with international human rights law. The second part of the matrix contains key programmatic elements that have been identified based on innovative practices and that ensure sustainable housing solutions for urban IDPs. A list of illustrative indicators of the right to adequate housing can be found in Annex I.

Table 1: Matrix of 20 examination criteria for selection of practices⁴⁷

Criteria	Explanation / characteristics of practices
ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS TO THE REALIZATION OF THE RIGHT TO ADEQUATE HOUSING	
1. Tenure security: effective and innovative model used	<p>Practice used any combination of the following models to strengthen tenure security: temporary, incremental, rental/leasehold, freehold/full title, "right to occupy", social housing, cooperative housing and community land trusts. It is not possible to standardise a particular duration of tenure, because temporary models tend to secure between three months and a years' tenure in both occupancy/use-hold and rental models. More permanent models offer five, 10 or 99 year leases, and freehold or full title models guarantee full ownership rights.</p> <p>Practice tried to ensure that women and men had equal tenure and property rights regardless of their civil or other status.</p> <p>This report does not favour any one form or duration of tenure over another. Complex emergencies usually call for flexibility in adapting and funding various tenure models from the initial response phase to transitional and more sustainable shelter and housing solutions.</p>
2. Access to public goods and services	<p>Practice ensured that IDPs have improved access to services such as schools, markets and clinics.</p> <p>Practice ensured that areas where IDPs integrate, resettle or return have access to adequate water, sewage, electricity and rubbish collection services.</p>
3. Affordability	<p>The practice provided affordable housing. The cost of housing, whether for rent or purchase, and recurrent maintenance and repair costs are affordable in that they do not compromise a household's ability to satisfy their other basic needs, with special attention being paid to female-headed households, lower-income earners and vulnerable groups such as elderly people, those with disabilities and children.</p>
4. Habitability	<p>Housing provides inhabitants with adequate space and protection from the elements, structural hazards, disease vectors and other health risks. Housing is not built on polluted sites or in the immediate vicinity of pollution sources that threaten inhabitants' right to health.</p>
5. Physical accessibility	<p>Practice ensures that those entitled have equal access to adequate housing. Disadvantaged groups such as elderly people, children, people with disabilities, the terminally ill, HIV-positive people, those with persistent medical problems, the mentally ill, people living in areas prone to natural hazards and others should be ensured some degree of priority consideration.</p>

6. Location	Practice ensures that areas of IDPs' local integration, sustainable return or settlement elsewhere include access to employment opportunities, health care and education services, childcare centres and other social facilities.
7. Cultural adequacy	The assessment of IDPs' cultural and social practices informed housing and tenure models. The housing layout maintained privacy and dignity as required between sexes, age groups and separate families within the household.
8. Freedom from dispossession, damage and destruction (including forced eviction)	Practice includes adequate protection from the threat of dispossession of land, all forms of property, homes, resources and individual and collective holdings required to sustain livelihoods. Practice also provides protection from forced evictions and clear guidelines and legal recourse in case of their taking place.
9. Resettlement, restitution, compensation, non-refoulement and return	If forced evictions take place, it ensures that any resettlement agreement is voluntary, fair, adequate and in compliance with international standards. Resettlement agreements should include compensation to meet individual and collective needs. If applicable, IDPs should also be guaranteed restitution and return to places from which they were evicted. They should have the right to non-refoulement, including the right not to be returned to their places of origin against their will.
10. Privacy and security	Practice ensures that all people can conduct their private lives in a secure place and are protected from threats or acts that compromise their mental and/or physical wellbeing inside or outside the home. Mechanisms and housing design aim to minimise the threat of all forms of violence against women.
11. Education and empowerment	Practice encourages access to technical assistance and other means of helping beneficiaries exercise their economic, cultural and social rights and realise their development potential. This could include language skills training, adult education programmes and human rights education.
12. Meaningful participation	This means that IDPs are consulted and participate in determining their pursuit of durable solutions. Participation should be inclusive and representative of the entire displaced community, including all ethnic and religious groups, women and others.
13. Access to remedies, including legal support and access to information	Practice includes domestic legal and other remedies to protect IDPs' right to adequate housing. It also provides legal support for IDPs to address their housing, land and property concerns, including translation services if necessary. They should also have access to data, documents and resources on their right to adequate housing. Practice ensures that women and men have equal access to remedies, legal support and information.

KEY PROGRAMMATIC ELEMENTS

14. Effective and innovative coordination mechanisms	Practice includes cooperation among national humanitarian, development and municipal entities, civil society organisations, international agencies and NGOs and IASC clusters. It also creates a cooperation mechanism for international NGOs and national government agencies.
15. Disaster risk reduction	Practice attempts to make buildings more resilient to natural and man-made hazards in order to mitigate displacement risks and facilitate durable solutions.
16. Livelihoods support	<p>Any sustainable solution requires attention to be given to displaced households' livelihood opportunities and potential. The location of IDPs' settlements or homes is important in this sense, and transport costs should not be prohibitive to their accessing employment.</p> <p>Support mechanisms include livelihoods cash support grants, vocational training, skills development training, small enterprise loans, educational grants and ensuring access to employment opportunities.</p> <p>Practice may also have used IDPs to provide labour and the local procurement of materials to the benefit of displaced, host and receiving communities.</p>
17. Target beneficiaries include wider host or receiving community	Practice targets beneficiaries that are not limited to urban IDPs, but include the urban poor, host and receiving communities, host families and host governments. Receiving communities are those in IDPs' areas of return and resettlement. Host communities are those in IDPs' places of refuge, with the implication that their presence is temporary and not integrated.
18. Effective finance model used	This could include seeking funding from regional development banks, public-private partnerships and private or municipal land donations. Practice ensures that women and men have equal access to housing finance.
19. Effective data collection tools and profiling exercises	The practice used innovative collection tools to profile IDPs and provide data disaggregated by sex and age, to inform the design of new practices and policies and to assess the impact of practices on beneficiaries.
20. Transfer of knowledge and changes to institutional norms	Practice contributed to or shaped the creation or reform of legal, policy and regulatory frameworks for urban IDPs or the incorporation of their issues into other frameworks, including urban development strategies.

This report focuses mainly on urban IDPs, but it also draws on a few practices used in refugees contexts. Various innovative practices have been employed by the humanitarian and development sectors to address the Syrian refugee crisis in urban areas of Jordan and Lebanon, of which we selected some we believe can be adapted to benefit urban IDPs.

Using a comparative analysis we selected an initial set of practices and tools that partially fulfil some of the 20 examination criteria listed above. They were identified for their innovative approaches to improving tenure security and the provision of adequate housing in situations for IDPs displaced to urban areas by natural hazards and conflict. They support urban IDPs' coping mechanisms and those of the broader affected population, which can include the urban poor, host communities and host governments.

The analysis also tries to go beyond a narrow, project-based approach to examine how a given practice can link to municipal urban plans, national policies and legal frameworks, or support markets and local economies that relate to housing and tenure security for IDPs in the short and long-term.

To ensure the relevance and quality of both the comparative analysis and case studies, an advisory committee was formed to provide periodic feedback, including a consultation workshop held in Geneva in mid-October 2014. The committee is an inter-disciplinary body of leading experts from the humanitarian, development and human rights fields, specialised in forced displacement, housing rights, tenure security, shelter, urban planning, natural hazard response, protection issues and social housing (see appendix 2).

Collection of practices

This report is a repository on housing and tenure security practices that support durable solutions for urban IDPs. It is not exhaustive. The practices presented are by no means perfect and do not all provide final and durable solutions. Each case has drawbacks in term of its implementation, the result of operational, environmental, political and economic factors that cannot always be anticipated or controlled. It was also difficult to determine whether practices might be replicable and under which conditions. That said, the report attempts to offer some insights on factors that should be considered in the comparative analysis section.

The provision of adequate housing and the achievement of durable solutions is a long and iterative process, particularly in complex urban environments. Adequate housing is a human right for all, but guaranteeing it requires progressive realisation.⁴⁹

To borrow from the “shelter as a process” literature, the transition from a focus on shelter to adequate housing and durable solutions requires “a comprehensive and long-term perspective from the beginning, a continuous analysis of the context, an ongoing review of context and strategies and plans, and the ability to remain flexible enough to create varying responses that correspond to the actual needs and conditions. Institutional, decision-making, coordination and funding models will have to be adapted if ‘shelter as process’ is to become more than a guiding principle”.⁵⁰

Types of practices

We have grouped the practices we identified into 14 categories of approaches and tools. Approaches one to nine offer concrete solutions to urban IDPs’ housing issues. Tools ten to 14 are means of facilitating the application of approaches through better analyses and data collection:

Housing approaches

1. Incremental housing
2. Housing purchase certificates
3. Social housing
4. Transfer of public buildings to private ownership
5. Rental support grants

Area-based approaches

6. Incremental tenure
7. Neighbourhood upgrades
8. Supporting municipalities
9. Community development bank

Analytical and advocacy tools

10. Profiling of urban IDP situations
11. Eviction impact assessments
12. Legal aid
13. Community enumeration
14. Satellite imagery

The following section describes each of the 14 categories and illustrates them with case studies. Ten of the case studies are presented in snapshot format, with the full version available online on IDMC’s website. Shorter cases are presented in a text box in extenso.

Table 2 shows how the criteria we have devised based on international human rights and humanitarian frameworks align with the practices and tools we have showcased. The point of presenting them is to stimulate thinking and knowledge sharing between different types of humanitarian or development organisations, which hopefully will learn from each other and perhaps develop new approaches to more sustainable housing programmes for urban IDPs.

Table 2: Matrix of 20 examination criteria with corresponding practices and tools

Criteria	Practices that specifically address relevant elements												Tools ⁵¹					
	Incremental housing	Housing purchase certificates	Housing purchase certificates	Social housing	Transfer of public buildings to private ownership	Rental support cash grants	Incremental tenure/ownership	Incremental tenure/rental	Neighbourhood approach	Neighbourhood approach	Neighbourhood approach	Supporting municipalities	Community development bank	Profiling of urban IDP situations	Eviction impact assessment	Legal aid	Community enumeration	Satellite imagery
ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS TO THE REALISATION OF THE RIGHT TO ADEQUATE HOUSING⁵²																		
1. Security of tenure	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X				X	X	X	
2. Access to public goods and services							X	X	X	X	X				X		X	
3. Affordability	X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X					X			
4. Habitability	X	X				X	X		X	X					X			
5. Physical accessibility									X						X			
6. Location	X	X	X		X		X		X	X	X				X			
7. Cultural adequacy	X	X	X						X	X								
8. Freedom from dispossession, damage and destruction (including forced eviction)															X	X		
9. Resettlement, restitution, compensation, non-refoulement and return															X	X		
10. Privacy and security							X	X	X	X						X		
11. Education and empowerment								X	X	X	X				X	X	X	
12. Meaningful participation									X	X	X		X		X		X	
13. Access to remedies, including legal support and access to information	X						X	X			X	X			X	X		

Countries

■ Armenia	■ Jordan
■ Brazil	■ Kosovo
■ Georgia	■ Serbia
■ Haiti	■ Somalia
■ Colombia	



Criteria	Practices that specifically address relevant elements												Tools					
	Incremental housing	Housing purchase certificates	Housing purchase certificates	Social housing	Transfer of public buildings to private ownership	Rental support cash grants	Incremental tenure/ownership	Incremental tenure/rental	Neighbourhood approach	Neighbourhood approach	Neighbourhood approach	Supporting municipalities	Community development bank	Profiling of urban IDP situations	Eviction impact assessment	Legal aid	Community enumeration	Satellite imagery
KEY PROGRAMMATIC ELEMENTS																		
14. Effective and innovative coordination mechanisms							X		X				X		X			
15. Hazard (disaster) risk reduction										X								
16. Livelihoods support	X								X	X	X		X					
17. Target beneficiaries including wider host or receiving communities	X		X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
18. Effective and/or innovative finance model used	X												X		X			
19. Effective and/or innovative data collection tools or profiling exercises										X	X	X		X	X		X	X
20. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X		

Table 3: Practices and tools according to settlement options, type of displacement and tenure

Countries

■ Armenia	■ Jordan
■ Brazil	■ Kosovo
■ Georgia	■ Serbia
■ Haiti	■ Somalia
■ Colombia	

	Practices													Tools				
	Incremental housing	Housing purchase certificates	Housing purchase certificates	Social housing	Transfer of public buildings to private ownership	Rental support cash grants	Incremental tenure/ownership	Incremental tenure/rental	Neighbourhood approach	Neighbourhood approach	Neighbourhood approach	Supporting municipalities	Community development bank	Profiling of urban IDP situations	Eviction impact assessment	Legal aid	Community enumeration	Satellite imagery
DURABLE SOLUTIONS SETTLEMENT OPTION																		
Return						X			X	X				X		X	X	X
Local integration	X		X	X	X	X		X			X			X		X	X	X
Settlement elsewhere		X	X			X	X						X	X	X	X	X	X
TYPE OF DISPLACEMENT																		
Conflict	X		X	X	X		X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X
Disaster		X				X				X				X	X	X	X	X
Development													X	X	X	X	X	X
TYPE OF TENURE																		
Ownership		X	X		X		X		X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X
Rental	X			X		X		X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X

1. Incremental housing

Description

Rental support grants have widely been used to assist urban IDPs and refugees, and they are an important way of addressing immediate housing needs, but the deeper problem often lies in a shortage of affordable housing stock for rent. Urban densification is a quick way to make more accommodation available, and it stimulates the housing market. It either involves the vertical expansion of existing housing units or urban in-fill, building on vacant plots in the city. Subdivision, in which a house is split into two or more units, also helps to increase stock.

The floor area ratio (FAR) or plot ratio⁵³ determines how many floors can be built on a particular piece of land, along with regulations on density such as the number of units per building and minimum space per person. For city officials, increasing FAR facilitates vertical expansion and allows homeowners to add value. Owners tend to upgrade their homes incrementally over time as their income and needs increase. Incremental housing - or sites and services - projects, which provide land or a basic house and expect recipients to upgrade them over time, tend not to take into account the FAR concept, however, the latter shares the same underlying principles of anticipating and supporting future incremental upgrades.

When IDPs or refugees arrive in urban areas, the increased demand for housing may be temporary if they later return to their places of origin, decide to locally integrate or settle elsewhere but in many cases their displacement becomes protracted. Given that urban governance and infrastructure need to be able to absorb rapid population influxes and outflows, it is important to create flexible tools that make new housing stock available relatively quickly, and which will still be viable and put to other use if the displaced population moves on.

New housing should be built so that it also benefits host communities. It should be appropriate and affordable to them should the displaced population leave the area.⁵⁴ They should also be supported in adding or finishing a new floor to their home, which increases its value and makes more property available for rent. This in turn helps ease tensions between host families and IDPs. In return for the support they receive, they agree to lease out the extra units at no cost to displaced families for a fixed period of time.

Such an approach would mean that the money spent on assisting families with rental support grants would instead be invested to increase the stock of housing for rent. Stimulating local housing markets through cash-based assistance has an economic multiplier effect, as does the construction it involves. Building or upgrading property creates local jobs and demand for materials and contractors' services.

The Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) has been experimenting with a new integrated urban housing programme. It aims to drive urban densification with the construction of multi-story buildings that benefit both urban refugees and host families. In addition to providing grants or loans to homeowners, NRC also provides legal assistance, counselling and arbitration between landlords and leaseholders (see page 56 for more information). Strengthening the relationship between landlords and leaseholders through written lease agreements and dispute resolution mechanisms forms a significant part of NRC's strategy to defuse tensions and improve social cohesion between host communities and refugees.

NRC's initiative targets urban refugees rather than IDPs, and focuses on temporary rather than permanent housing, but it demonstrates the way in which humanitarians are evolving their practices and innovating in urban areas. Urban refugees and urban IDPs also face many similar challenges, though their differing legal status has implications in some areas. Refugees, for example, often face additional barriers in terms of obtaining work and residency permits. The Syrian refugees in the case study do not have the legal right to work in Jordan, which means they may resort to a range of negative coping mechanisms, such as the rapid depletion of their savings, selling their valuables, foregoing expenditure on basic needs and going into debt in order to pay for their housing. IDPs may not face the same legal obstacles, but they are still often vulnerable to discrimination in terms of employment and housing.

Case study: Integrated urban shelter programme (NRC, Jordan)

Snapshot	
Practice	Integrated urban shelter programme (2013)
Main actors	Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) Irbid, Ajloun and Jerash municipalities Private building owners
Context	Syrians displaced by conflict to urban and peri-urban areas in Jordan Vulnerable Syrian refugee households outside camps live in substandard and overcrowded shelters without tenure security Lack of adequate and affordable rental housing stock to accommodate increased demand during the refugee crisis. Increased risk of tensions between Jordanian households and their Syrian refugee counterparts over competition for housing, inflation of rents, access to services and employment Thirty per cent of houses in peri-urban areas left unfinished until additional space is required (marriage, birth) or resources are available
Target group(s)	Syrian refugee households: more than 12,000 Syrian refugees in Irbid have benefited from around 4,000 new rental housing units, fulfilling 11 per cent of Syrian refugees' estimated housing needs in the governorate; 990 Jordanian property-owning host families have also been assisted.
Summary	The practice aims to increase the availability of rental housing stock in response to the shortage created by the influx of Syrian refugees to Jordanian cities. Owners of unfinished buildings are given grants to complete the work or add extra floors or rooms. The new units are provided rent-free to Syrian refugees for between 12 to 24 months. The greater NRC's investment, the longer the rent-free period. NRC identifies tenants based on vulnerability criteria such as female-headed households, people with disabilities, households with more than ten members or with infants, homeless people, families or individuals with severe financial issues and those at risk of forced eviction or living in overcrowded and inadequate housing. The NRC legal counselling programme provides lease agreements according to Jordanian legislation to the beneficiaries of the shelter assistance (owners and tenants) to protect tenure security. In case of disputes, legal assistance is available and facilitates access to remedies, information and legal support



NRC engineers assess construction works for Syrian urban refugees in Jordan. Photo: NRC Jordan/Rawan Baybars, March 2014

<p>Strengths (Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from the matrix appear in bold)</p>	<p>This practice is an innovative approach that adds new rental units quickly to existing housing stock to the benefit of both refugees and host communities.</p> <p>It focuses on the needs of vulnerable individuals, families and groups of urban refugees.</p> <p>It ensures that refugee households can enter into rental agreements for between 12 and 24 months, strengthening their tenure security.</p> <p>It ensures affordability for the duration of tenure, because refugee households do not have to pay rent.</p> <p>It ensures that the additional housing units are built according to habitability guidelines, including access to water, electricity, structural integrity and freedom from leaks.</p> <p>The refugees are likely to have better access to local markets, goods and services and have their overall location needs met, because they live in established neighbourhoods.</p> <p>The practice emphasises cultural adequacy by working with Jordanian landlords and helping them to build new housing units for a growing family or for entrepreneurial reasons.</p> <p>The lease agreements provided by NRC's legal counselling programme contribute to tenure security and facilitates access to remedies. It also helps to foster positive relationships and understanding between the landlords and their refugee tenants through outreach and mediation if required.</p> <p>The practice provides many livelihood benefits to those in the local construction industry by increasing demand for materials, labour and contractors.</p> <p>Instead of paying rental support grants to refugees, the practice funds homeowners to help them upgrade their homes in return for housing refugees rent-free. This is an innovative financial model that shifts emphasis from funding refugees to funding host communities.</p> <p>The practice provides a temporary solution for refugees who expect to return or resettle elsewhere and an opportunity to stabilise their socio-economic situation. Those who choose to integrate locally will still benefit from the additional rental housing stock.</p> <p>The approach can be adapted and replicated. In terms of knowledge transfer, NRC's guidelines for the practice informed the IASC shelter sector working group in Jordan in drafting its own Guidelines for the Upgrading of Substandard Housing Units and Increasing Housing Units in Unfinished Buildings. Another NGO initiated a similar programme and several agencies have signed memorandums of understanding with NRC for its ICLA services.</p>
<p>Key challenge(s)</p>	<p>Though innovative and successful at its scale, the practice is unable to address the enormous deficit of affordable housing in Jordan.</p> <p>It has the potential to be scaled up, but in its present form it is a resource intensive project to put adequate shelter on the market that targets the most vulnerable Syrian refugees and supports landlord-tenant relationships. This means that the programme may require significant redesign to make it cost-effective at a larger scale.</p> <p>The programme's success is based on oversight and mediation between landlords and their refugee tenants. Sometimes one side or the other violates their tenancy agreement, and continuous education and conflict resolution are required to ensure that refugees are not displaced as a result.</p> <p>Despite the extra housing units, utilities are often shared between the landlords and their tenants, which can be a source of conflict.</p> <p>It is unclear what happens to tenant families once their rent-free agreement expires, whether it can be extended, a new one negotiated or they have to move on.</p> <p>The practice may not fully take refugees' need for flexibility as well as tenure security into account. The implications of refugee tenants deciding to move out before the end of their agreement – whether to be reunited with other family members, return to their places of origin or access livelihood opportunities in other areas –are unclear.</p>
<p>Factors for potential replicability</p>	<p>Existence of partially finished buildings or other structures that could be upgraded to create additional housing units</p> <p>A functioning construction industry</p> <p>Ongoing displacement crisis in which demand rises and falls in unpredictable ways.</p>

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

2. Housing purchase certificates

Description

Housing vouchers are subsidies that may be used to help with rent and homeowners' costs, or to buy a dwelling. If the latter, they are also sometimes referred to as housing purchase certificates, and may cover the full price of a home or a down payment on it. Beneficiaries are free to choose their dwellings on the open housing market in accordance with the terms of their purchase certificate, which is backed by funds at a credible financial institution. They become the owner of the dwelling once the transaction has closed.

Governments and international organisations have offered housing purchase certificates to IDPs living in protracted displacement in temporary shelters as a means

of closing the shelters and providing them with long-term housing. In cases where IDPs have been sheltering in schools or other public buildings, such programmes also free up important community assets. Beneficiaries are given agency in choosing where they want to live, helping to facilitate their local integration.

As certificates and vouchers are specifically tied to housing, they ensure that beneficiaries use the funds for the intended purpose. A common concern is that housing purchase certificates will drive up property prices unless there is an adequate supply of housing on the market. A pilot programme can help to read the market's ability to satisfy the housing demand it creates, and the responsiveness of buyers and sellers to the resulting prices. A pilot also helps to establish a positive impression of a programme before it is rolled out.

Case study 1: Housing purchase certificates (Urban Institute, Armenia)

Snapshot	
Practice	Housing purchase certificates, Armenian earthquake zone recovery programme (1999 and 2001 to 2005)
Main actors	The Urban Institute ⁵⁵ Banks Real Estate agents Central government and local authorities NGOs
Context	Earthquake aftermath with significant urban destruction IDPs living in inadequate temporary shelter for prolonged periods Transition from socialist to market-based economy Significant emigration contributing to increased housing supply
Target group(s)	Displaced families living in temporary shelters and private accommodation on compensation waiting lists
Summary	The 1988 earthquake in the Spitak region of Armenia displaced more than 500,000 people. Residents of damaged homes were to have them rebuilt, but this never happened and they ended up living long-term in inadequate temporary shelters. The housing purchase certificate programme ran in ten towns and cities chosen for the concentration of IDPs in the area and their urban development potential. Beneficiaries were given certificates based on the size of their families, which they could use to buy housing on the open property market on the condition that programme staff inspected their chosen dwelling before the transaction was finalised. Temporary shelters were then closed and urban space recovered and redeveloped using a participatory urban planning approach. Public outreach helped to ensure that both buyers and sellers accepted the programme, and numerous measures were taken to maximise the redemption of the certificates.
Strengths <i>(Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)</i>	Beneficiaries were relocated from insalubrious temporary shelters, mostly modified shipping containers known as <i>domiks</i> , to habitable permanent dwellings with tenure security , for the most part in familiar locations within their current communities. IDPs participated in deciding where they would live. More than 4,000 domiks were disposed of, freeing up space for urban redevelopment and local use. The practice focussed on the existing surplus of vacant and under-used housing stock rather than building new homes.
Key challenge(s)	Many of the people who wanted to sell their housing units to those with certificates were unable to obtain the necessary documents from the cadastral survey because they had modified their homes without official permission. Many people held Soviet passports that needed to be replaced with Armenian ones, while others required power-of-attorney from relatives abroad before the head of the household could sign their agreement with the city. This caused delays in compiling beneficiary lists. The lack of accurate house price data and rudimentary estate agent services made it difficult to set certificate values. High-quality new buildings for IDPs competed with the certificate programme and delayed its implementation because recipients waited first to see if they would be allocated space in the new developments.
Factors for potential replicability	Well-developed banking and land registry system Preference for private home ownership Sufficient supply of housing in a competitive and accessible property market

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

Case study 2: Housing vouchers for IDPs living in collective centres (Urban Institute, Georgia)

Snapshot	
Practice	Georgia housing voucher project for IDPs (2006 to 2007)
Main actors	The Urban Institute ⁵⁶ Project steering committee, including the Ministry of Refugees and Accommodation, Kutaisi municipality and the Abkhaz government-in-exile Charity Humanitarian Centre Abkhazeti (local NGO) Kutaisi Information Centre (local NGO) NRC
Context	Return of IDPs impossible in the absence of conflict resolution IDPs living in protracted displacement in inadequate collective centres Sufficiently developed property market 15 years after the privatisation of housing following the fall of Soviet Union
Target group(s)	IDPs in collective centres on the outskirts of Kutaisi, which were in the worst condition
Summary	The practice aimed to support the development and implementation of the government's strategy on IDPs by improving housing conditions for them. Kutaisi, Georgia's second largest city, was selected as the pilot site because of the number of IDPs living in collective centres. Voucher values were determined by family size and composition.
Strengths (Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)	Sixty per cent of IDPs, or 81 families in 16 collective centres, who were issued with vouchers, successfully bought housing with tenure security and vacated their temporary shelters. The majority of displaced families participating in the programme purchased housing in the same location as the previous accommodation in collective centres. The programme was culturally appropriate in that home ownership is favoured over renting in Georgia in the context of the transition from a socialist to a market-based economy. IDPs viewed their new housing as a long-term investment. Forty-five per cent of families added an average of \$1,980 to the value of their voucher to increase their options. Five collective centres were vacated and returned to the government for community use.
Key challenge(s)	Voucher values did not always allow for the purchase of housing in good condition, As a result some beneficiaries did not receive habitable housing. There was debate about whether the vouchers distorted the property market, but data to substantiate this was not collected. Voucher values were set in US dollars, which limited beneficiaries options because the Georgian lari appreciated against the dollar over the course of the project.
Factors for potential replicability	Well-developed banking, property market and land registry system IDPs in temporary inadequate shelters Need to return temporary shelters to their original use Adequate supply of affordable housing on the market

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

3. Social housing

Description

Social housing is intended to help people who are unable to secure adequate accommodation for themselves. It serves as a counterbalance to the market driven allocation of housing and may be needed if people on low incomes are unable to afford private rents. There is no single definition of social housing, and it varies in form from one country to another. It is generally built by government agencies or non-profit organisations and may include both privately and publicly-owned dwellings. The authorities define rules that govern the type of housing built and its allocation. Social housing units may be partially or fully subsidised, and tenants may or may not pay for utilities, services, maintenance and repairs. Where social housing stock or land for construction is available, it improves disadvantaged IDPs' access to decent and affordable accommodation.



Photo: Social housing in Varketili district, Tbilisi. SDC, 2010



Photo: Social housing in Varketili district, Tbilisi. SDC, 2010

Case study: Social housing in supportive environments (Armenia, Georgia, Serbia)

Snapshot	
Practice	Social housing in supportive environments (SHSE) (Serbia, 2002; Armenia, 2004 to 2008 and 2010 to 2012; Georgia, 2007 to 2012)
Main actors	Government agency for IDPs, other ministries and municipal authorities Local social work centres Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) Housing Centre (Serbia)
Context	The most vulnerable IDPs in protracted displacement live in inadequate temporary shelter and private accommodation. Return is not possible for IDPs in Georgia in the absence of a solution to the conflict, and not desired by some IDPs in Serbia because of insecurity. Government policy in Georgia and Serbia has shifted towards accepting local integration as a settlement option. There is a complete lack of public housing stock as a result of privatisation following the transition from the socialist system
Target group	Vulnerable IDPs and refugees who wish to integrate locally rather than return and are in need of housing assistance, plus vulnerable members of the local population
Summary	SDC developed the SHSE model as part of its humanitarian programme in Serbia. It aims to improve housing conditions and social inclusion for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged groups in society through non-institutional protection in an assisted living environment. Beneficiaries receive support from municipal social workers and from a “foster family”, which is at the centre of the supportive environment. Foster families are allocated an apartment in the same building based not only on need but also on the social, psychological and technical skills they can bring to their roles. The SHSE model has been replicated in Armenia and Georgia. In all three countries the buildings are owned and maintained by the municipal authorities, and families are accommodated rent-free as long as they meet the criteria for such assistance, which are reviewed each year.
Strengths	The practice provides tenure security in habitable housing and social protection for IDPs and vulnerable members of the local population. It fosters social integration by facilitating interaction between IDPs, foster families, social workers, neighbours and the wider community. In Armenia it led to the demolition of temporary housing and recovery of urban landscape.
Key challenge(s)	IDPs in Georgia were the most critical of SHSE and would have preferred to own their own homes. They felt the potentially limited tenure in social housing was culturally inappropriate . Other housing programmes for IDPs in Georgia offered housing ownership, which left some SHSE beneficiaries feeling they were being offered a less attractive option and treated unfairly. Foster family inputs varied because their role was not always clear. There is evidence that such arrangements do not negate the need for professional social workers. Considering the high level of vulnerability of this group, it is unlikely that they will move on from the SHSE. The implication is that this programme will require long-term and continuous investment from authorities. In areas where housing stock had been recently privatised, it was difficult to generate political interest in social housing programmes and policies. Stable and sustainable financing from the municipal budget to maintain SHSE has been an issue, including for social workers’ salaries.
Factors for potential replicability	Highly vulnerable IDPs in need of improved access to adequate housing Social housing is accepted as a culturally appropriate housing option Municipality ability and willingness to allocate land, provide infrastructure and manage social housing buildings

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

4. Transfer of public buildings to private ownership

Description

Many IDPs in the Balkans and Caucasus were housed in collective centres following their displacement, which in some cases were public buildings such as schools, kindergartens and health facilities. Some states have opted to transfer ownership to IDPs via privatisation as a means of providing those who wished to integrate locally with permanent housing. The privatisation of collective centres has been welcomed by IDPs in former Soviet countries, in part because it mirrored processes in the

broader transition from a socialist to a market-based economy, under which the ownership of public housing that companies allocated to their employees was transferred to its occupants. It has allowed IDPs, who had previously been unable to benefit from the privatisation process, to become homeowners. Ownership has been a key symbol of the political and economic transition in former socialist countries such as Georgia.

Case 1: Renovation and transfer of ownership of collective centres (Georgia)

Snapshot	
Practice	Renovation and transfer of ownership of collective centres to IDPs (Georgia, 2009 to present)
Main actors	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Accommodation and Refugees 2. Ministry of Labour, Healthcare and Social Affairs 3. Ministry of Justice 4. Ministry of Finance 5. Municipal development funds 6. UNHCR, UN resident coordinator, World Bank, EU, USAID, SDC, NRC and the Georgian Young Lawyer's Association (GYLA) 7. Civil Registry Agency (CRA) 8. National Agency of the Public Registry (NAPR)
Context	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. More than 130,000 IDPs living in more than 1,600 collective centres since the early 1990s. 2. Most IDPs remained in the centres for more than 25 years, because their prospects for return were limited, they could not secure housing on their own and the government did not facilitate their local integration. 3. Living conditions in the centres worsened over time and they became overcrowded, unsanitary and dilapidated. Only 540 were structurally sound as of 2009. 4. Lack of public housing stock as a result of mass privatisation after the fall of the Soviet Union. 5. 4. The government's 2007 national strategy on IDPs and its implementation plan call for measures to facilitate local integration
Target group	IDPs displaced in early 1990s from Abkhazia and South Ossetia and living in collective centres
Summary	In a significant policy shift, the government initiated the voluntary transfer of collective centre units to IDPs' ownership in February 2009 in line with its 2007 state strategy. IDPs were offered free private and individual ownership of renovated spaces according to the size of their families. They acquired full rights and obligations related to the property, including the right to sell. All adult family members had to sign the privatisation agreement to ensure equitable ownership. The state undertook all necessary steps for the registration of ownership rights and ensured the issuing and delivery of title deeds.

<p>Strengths <i>(Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)</i></p>	<p>By the end of 2013, more than 16,300 displaced families had been granted private ownership of the collective centre space in which they had been living, guaranteeing them tenure security. Habitability was improved in terms of space and living conditions.</p> <p>Given that beneficiaries did not have to move, they kept their longstanding relationships with their local communities. Their location needs are met and there is no disruption of their access to goods, services and livelihood opportunities.</p> <p>The practice is culturally appropriate because property ownership is the preferred form of tenure security in Georgia.</p> <p>Sustainability is ensured through the formation of condominiums, which are eligible for funding to maintain, improve and repair common space.</p>
<p>Key challenge(s)</p>	<p>The standard of renovation was not always satisfactory, affecting the habitability of the individual units and common space. The complaint mechanism was unclear and some IDPs refused to sign their purchase agreements.</p> <p>Some centres were not renovated and IDPs received ownership of space that was not habitable. Around 10,000 families were still waiting for their title deeds as of the end of 2014. As such they have been unable to form condominiums and apply for infrastructure improvement schemes.</p> <p>IDPs lacked information or received conflicting information about the process and were not consulted in the development of the programme.</p> <p>The government has not addressed the needs of the most vulnerable IDPs first, focussing instead on the buildings that were the easiest to privatise.</p>
<p>Factors for potential replicability</p>	<p>Private property ownership is culturally appropriate</p> <p>IDPs live in public buildings because there is not enough available housing stock to meet their needs</p> <p>Political will to accept and facilitate IDPs' local integration and settlement elsewhere is in place</p>

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

5. Rental support grants

Description

Rental support grants are a form of cash-based assistance widely used as a way of supporting IDPs during humanitarian emergencies caused by natural hazards and conflict. There is an increasing tendency among humanitarians to favour cash-based interventions, particularly in urban areas, where the economy is also mostly cash-based and banking systems and markets are more dynamic. Such schemes have several advantages. They are an efficient way to cover a wide range of needs, they empower beneficiaries to prioritise their own spending⁵⁷ and they stimulate urban markets. They also reach large numbers of beneficiaries, support existing housing options and give households more flexibility and mobility in choosing their housing options.

In the aftermath of hurricane Katrina in 2005, the American Red Cross allocated more than \$1.5 billion in cash-based assistance, including for temporary rental support.⁵⁸ Urban areas such as New Orleans and Port-au-Prince, Haiti, have populations with different types of housing patterns and needs, and as such they require a more flexible range of solutions. The difference in terms of access to humanitarian assistance between land or property-owners and non-owners is vast in an urban landscape that has been ravaged by a natural hazard. The reconstruction of homes and infrastructure is an important priority, but there is now consensus that the needs of displaced tenants as a category of vulnerable residents have been long overlooked.

The rapid influx of IDPs into a city often creates a shortfall in the availability of affordable and adequate housing. Those who rented their accommodation before their displacement are likely to want to establish a similar set-up as part of their durable solution. Tenants, like property-owners, however, often suffer income losses during their displacement, which makes it harder to secure another rental property. As such, rental support grants are essentially a way to make up for lost income. Despite their straightforward nature, the organisation, monitoring and programming required for such initiatives can be complex, particularly when many conditions are placed on their disbursement.

Donors have also been hesitant in the past to hand out cash, even in the form of vouchers or debit cards, because of concerns about duplication, corruption and the overall sense that money as a fungible asset cannot be monitored and controlled effectively. There are often irregularities in the implementation of cash grants, but they are outweighed by the benefits and point only to the need for better safeguards. Unconditional cash grants give beneficiaries maximum freedom to set their own priorities, while conditional ones try to ensure that the money is spent on a targeted good such as education or rent.

Rental support grants address the needs of the most vulnerable populations who do not own property in land-poor urban areas. If they are implemented with basic housing safety and adequacy standards as conditions, they can also encourage providers to improve units and attract residents who are cash-rich. The inflationary effect of cash grants has been cited as a concern, but as the “keep the change” programme in Haiti illustrates, this can be mitigated by creating competition between landlords to ensure they offer competitive prices (see case study on page 36). Essentially, the programme encourages beneficiaries to negotiate their rent down with landlords by letting them keep the difference. For programme designers, this means understanding that as subsidies, rental support programmes operate in a market with different absorption and inflation rates. As such, it is important to understand and monitor the market, in order to track and make any necessary alterations to the programme's scale or speed.

Rental support grants are a useful method to help IDPs cover their rental costs in a time of crisis until they can take over this responsibility themselves. However rental support grants need to be associated to other measures to have a long-term effect and contribute to durable solutions. The Graduation approach described in box one below shows how cash assistance can be combined to other measures to empower IDPs and reinforce their self-reliance.

Case study: Rental support grant programmes (Haiti)

A report⁵⁹ by the Haiti shelter working group and an operational manual⁶⁰ by the World Bank carried out a comparative review of rental support grant programmes in Haiti to generate a methodology that could be applied both in the country and elsewhere, therefore contributing to knowledge transfer, one of our selection criteria. The two reports highlighted the strengths and weaknesses of various programmes and provided guidance on the steps and elements to include in a rental cash support programme. The practice below reflects the key positive features of rental support grant programmes identified in these two reports.

Snapshot	
Practice	Rental support grants in Haiti
Main actors	World Bank (funded the operational manual) IASC Haiti emergency shelter/CCCM cluster (produced the two reports)
Context	Post-disaster displacement Numerous IDPs still living in camps years after the 2010 earthquake and at risk of forced eviction by landowners and political drive to close them Lack of adequate housing and tenure security for tenants, especially those who were living in informal settlements before earthquake, and whose situation had worsened significantly since then Limited government resources and capacity to lead urban planning and reconstruction activities Humanitarian response in the form of emergency and transitional shelter not linked to a long-term housing reconstruction strategy or urban development plan
Target group	Urban IDPs living in camps due to be closed IDPs who did not own housing or land before their displacement and so did not necessarily qualify for transitional shelter, housing upgrades or new housing Owner-occupiers waiting for transitional shelter and durable solutions, such as return or resettlement to areas with newly constructed homes Displaced families willing to live with host families, so supporting both groups Displaced families who moved out of Port-au-Prince into the provinces
Summary	Rental support programmes were used in Haiti to relocate people out of camps back to their neighbourhoods of origin or other areas. Based on their housing status before the earthquake, residents in camps targeted for closure were given options of transitional shelter, housing repairs, new home construction or rental support grants. All of the options except the grants, however, were steered more towards homeowners than tenants, who made up the overwhelming majority of the urban poor. Grant of \$500 per household were given, varying on the basis of family size, to cover a year's rent with a private-sector landlord. The grants guaranteed that beneficiaries had access to safe, cost-free or highly subsidised shelter for the duration of the lease. The subsidy could also be used for repairs. ⁶¹ Houses rented through the programme were verified to ensure that minimum standards were respected in terms of safety and living conditions.
Strengths <i>(Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)</i>	Targeted tenants, who tended to make up the large majority of the most vulnerable displaced families in urban areas Allowed 500,000 people to leave camps Focussed on absorbing IDPs into existing housing stock, instead of waiting for new construction Ensured short-term affordability by covering rental costs for a fixed period of time The reports and operational manual contributed to a transfer of knowledge A “keep the change” policy was adopted to encourage beneficiaries to negotiate their rent with landlords owners, allowing them to keep the difference between the grant and the actual cost of their rent. The practice helped to improve living conditions in rented housing. Verification ensured minimum standards were respected in terms of habitability , access to services and build quality. This was key to ensuring that the “keep the change” policy did not lead IDPs to rent less than adequate housing to save more money. Verification also encouraged landlords to invest in improving and increasing rental housing stock. Such investment could be better guided with technical assistance on adhering to good construction practices in terms of disaster risk reduction, flood hazard zoning and general building regulations.

Key challenge(s)	Lack of follow-up on the fate of households after their one-year grant expires, particularly for those at risk of renewed displacement or forced eviction. Some studies suggest that only 25% of beneficiaries renewed their rental contract. ⁶¹ The main reason cited by the 75% who moved out was not having enough income to remain. This highlights the necessity for livelihood support programmes to complement rental support grants (see box on the graduation approach), although livelihood initiatives may not always be able to address structural poverty. Required significant oversight and monitoring to ensure rental housing stock was habitable and not in a hazard-risk area
Factors for potential replicability	Availability of affordable rental housing stock Landowners willing to sign written rental agreements with guidelines on maintenance, safety and protection from eviction Mechanisms to verify proposed rentals and determine their safety in terms of disaster risk reduction Access to bank accounts and/or mobile cash-transfer technologies

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

The graduation approach⁶³

Livelihoods support and overcoming barriers to work to complement cash-based assistance

Globally tested by the World Bank's consultative group to assist the poor (CGAP) and the Ford Foundation, an adapted form of the graduation approach is currently being piloted by UNHCR through Catholic Relief Services (CRS) and Caritas for 5,000 Syrian refugees in urban areas in Egypt. The approach focuses on the ultra-poor, who have no assets and are chronically food insecure. It uses a combination of cash assistance, social protection, livelihood support and microfinance to lift beneficiaries out of extreme poverty.

The most vulnerable households are selected and market analysis undertaken to determine viable livelihoods. Time-bound cash assistance is given to meet immediate needs while beneficiaries pursue business planning, legal and skills training leading to waged or self-employment. Self-employment is supported by seed capital or asset transfers.

The unique feature of this practice is its individualised approach. Each beneficiary is coached directly by a caseworker, who reviews each step taken and identi-

fies, prevents and responds to protection issues that arise from the livelihood support. The caseworkers visit the beneficiaries' homes or places of work at least twice a month or contact them by telephone. Such follow-up is expensive, with each caseworker taking on 100 refugees.

The pilot started in 2013 and is ongoing. Results as of at the end of 2014 were promising, with 800 beneficiaries having found employment. UNHCR plans to expand the pilot programme to rural areas, but there are no plans to include IDPs. Challenges in Egypt have included low pay and poor working conditions for waged employees and limited links between refugees and private sector entities.

The approach has not been piloted for urban IDPs, but they often face many similar challenges to urban refugees in terms of barriers to employment. Cash-based assistance and rental support are integral to addressing urban IDPs' short-term needs, but do not, on their own, provide a sustainable solution. Once the assistance runs out, households risk returning to their previous destitute state. The graduation approach, however, complements cash assistance with livelihood and vocational training, which facilitates self-reliance once the cash assistance dries up.

6. Incremental tenure

Description

Incremental tenure is a practice that acknowledges the fact that tenure is a process and not a fixed system. It acknowledges that both formal and informal land rights are fraught with challenges for the urban poor. Critics of the blanket approach of establishing formal land rights for all are not necessarily against ownership in itself. Rather they disagree with the imposition of a homogenous ownership or titling model that fails to acknowledge the costs and disadvantages that ownership can entail, such as taxation, service charges and the temptation to sell land as an area becomes gentrified and return to a prior state of tenure insecurity. Critics are sympathetic to a tenure security approach,⁶⁴ with general objectives as follows:

- Focus on blanket settlement rights first, instead of individual rights
- Try to provide administrative and legal protection against eviction
- Advocate for the implicit recognition of informal settlements, including service provision, service bills, electoral rolls, registers, site plans, street and shack numbering and the issuing of identity cards
- Apply an incremental approach to tenure, under which initial requirements are simple and affordable, but can be upgraded later
- Give communities the opportunity to consolidate settlements and clarify internal disputes through community processes, which may have more social legitimacy
- Give individual households time to become gradually more secure in their tenure and invest incrementally in upgrading their housing
- Give governments time to develop technical capacities to institutionalise new approaches to tenure, land registration, settlement upgrades and infrastructure provision
- Gradually make social processes and transactions more transparent
- Make the land market work better for the most vulnerable urban residents

Incremental tenure approaches work within the continuum of tenure security to increase it in accordance with the context. Urban Land Mark, a South African research organisation, has outlined one potential model of incremental tenure as follows:⁶⁵

1. Administrative recognition

- a. Survey of physical site (topography, environmental factors, geology)
- b. Survey of planning aspects (land zoning, land use, compliance with spatial development framework)
- c. Survey of legal issues (existing land ownership, deeds office search, misc. legal constraints)

- d. Survey of infrastructure (available services, connections and capacity required)
- e. Survey of demographic and social data (resident demographics, economic status, origins, employment, tenant arrangements, prior commitments)
- f. Survey of existing tenure and property transaction norms (perceptions of ownership, how informal transactions are conducted, what is transacted, the impact of previous transactions)⁶⁶
- g. Insertion of settlement name into municipal land information system
- h. Preparation of a base map or site plan (could be based on satellite or aerial photography)
- i. Register structures and households with community consultation and participation
- j. Acknowledge household occupation through register
- k. Ensuring provision of emergency services (water standpipes, basic sanitation, refuse removal, some grading of roadways, water channelling)

2. Legal recognition

- a. Government and municipality will incorporate the settlement into the broader municipal or urban development plan. This could mean rezoning it (but not applying zoning or land use laws internally yet) as an informal or less formal settlement or equivalent
 - i. Allows municipalities to begin developmental regulation or area
 - ii. Legal recognition decriminalises residents, their structures and activities
 - iii. Integral step towards establishing the settlement as a township or district

3. Developmental recognition

- a. Preparing basic layout or more detailed plan of the site (with community consultation)
- b. Conducting a participatory mapping or enumeration exercise to identify individual plot boundaries
- c. Providing a higher level of infrastructure and services (electricity provision)
- d. Consulting the community on multiple forms of tenure currently recognised
- e. Introducing a pro-poor and participatory land administration system (see social tenure domain model on page 57)
- f. Creating addresses for residents, which can be indicated on maps, leases, permits and service bills
- g. Introduce land use management in the form of a “mini” town planning scheme
- h. **Forms of tenure** acceptable at this stage:
 - i. A lease (short or long-term, registered or unregistered)
 - ii. A servitude of use (this is similar to an unregistered “contract” between the municipality and designated plot holder)



View of Bosaso's site, providing upgraded services, housing, tenure security and a relocation close to where urban IDPs were displaced, Somalia.
Photo: UN HABITAT, October 2013

- iii. A certificate of occupancy or registration certificate
- iv. A municipal services account
- i. **Content of land rights** acceptable at this stage:
 - i. Occupation
 - ii. Construction of a temporary structure
 - iii. Use, including for production
 - iv. Letting or sub-letting
 - v. Bequeath the structure and occupation rights to a named beneficiary in the event of death
 - vi. Access to basic or higher level services
 - vii. Access to social services
 - viii. Sell the right to use, let or sub-let property
- 4. **Establishment of township or district** (if residents opt for full ownership model)
 - a. Deeds office enables title deed registration for residents
 - b. Subsidies for housing upgrade can be allocated if necessary to bring certain structures up to code or a negotiated standard
 - c. The rules and regulations for establishing a township or a legal settlement vary from country to country and must be researched and followed in coordination with local planning, municipal and land administration offices

The incremental tenure model is not specifically designed for urban IDPs, but given that many end up living either in separate or integrated informal settlements, their housing rights and needs must be addressed as part of a larger urban land management issue, particularly in cases of protracted displacement. The incremental model has the potential to increase urban IDPs' tenure security, protect them from forced eviction and improve housing and living conditions in a gradual and sustainable way.

Improving urban IDPs tenure security in Bosaso (Somalia)

The first case study from Bosaso is not an exact replica of Urban Land Mark’s model. It was a scheme implemented by UN-Habitat which evolved from local land considerations and constraints. When IDPs arrived in Bosaso, they settled in informal peri-urban settlements most of whose inhabitants had been displaced. They received humanitarian assistance, but as their displacement became protracted, a more integrated approach towards housing

as a key element of durable solutions was increasingly called for. UN-Habitat combined improving tenure security in the short term with the introduction of incremental tenure through the establishment of new sites recognised and managed by municipal authorities.

The second case study from Bosaso contributed to upgrading IDP’s settlements and strengthening their tenure security via the introduction of lease agreements.

Table 4: Incremental tenure and settlement model (Urban Land Mark, South Africa)

Tenure mechanism	Administrative recognition	Legal recognition	Township establishment
Plot identification	Basic site plan – no individual plot boundaries, perhaps neighbourhood blocks, main roads. Based on aerial photographs and community verification	Detailed layout plan: individual plot boundaries, all roads, sites for facilities and plots identified	Approved layout plan with pegged sites which informs the General Plan that gets approved
Recording of occupants	List (database) of occupants, linked to a shack number with or without a single GPS point reference	Full register of all occupants linked to a property description, tenant relationships, next of kin	A township register as per the Deeds Registry Act
Tenure evidence	Letter of occupation certificate/card acknowledging occupation	Simple lease with municipality/province Simple servitude of use A municipal bill could serve as a contract	Title deed Lease Long lease
Land use management	Basic health and safety rules Can be indicated on letter of occupation	Through the Amendment Scheme, rezoning or DFA, rules or conditions for managing land use in the settlement.	Town Planning Scheme zoning and title deed conditions
Services provision	Basic services – communal level of services (LOS 1)	Planned, upgraded services, individual connections (LOS 2 - 3)	Highest level of services as per township establishment conditions

Case study 1: Resettlement of urban IDPs and incremental tenure in Bosaso East

Snapshot	
Practice	Incremental tenure model (15 years to full ownership) in Bosaso East, Somalia. Resettlement programme for IDPs in urban and peri-urban areas, 2005 to 2008
Main actors	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. UN-Habitat 2. Municipality of Bosaso and other local authorities 3. UNHCR 4. OCHA 5. Danish Refugee Council
Context	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Successive waves of displacement driven by conflict and environmental factors 2. Unsafe conditions, including high fire risk, in IDPs' settlements 3. Unclear ownership of land on which settlements were established 4. Existence of a joint UN-NGO strategy for IDPs in Somalia, and introduction in 2006 of an IASC shelter cluster approach to upgrade settlements to reduce fire risk and improve tenure security and access to services

Target group	1. IDPs living in informal settlements in urban and peri-urban areas of Bosaso
Summary	<p>The practice consisted in the identification and allocation of land plots with secure tenure to urban IDPs in Bosaso. The new settlement was located in the proximity of where IDPs were displaced therefore facilitating the preservation of their social networks and livelihood opportunities.</p> <p>Taking the lead on the tenure security element of the shelter cluster approach, UN-Habitat worked with the municipality to identify areas where settlements could be upgraded and where IDPs could settle permanently. Based on consultations that included IDPs, a proposal was made to redirect urban growth to the east as means of making development more compact and taking in IDPs' settlements.</p> <p>A campaign was launched in which landowners were encouraged to donate land to the municipality for the purpose. In return, their land was included into urban development plans as land to be connected to services, therefore increasing its value and compensating for the land they had given up. The municipality then set up a team to survey the sites and develop neighbourhood plans for the new sites.</p> <p>When IDPs resettled there, they entered into rent-free incremental tenure contracts with the municipality, under which beneficiaries were not able to sell, rent, transfer, mortgage or donate their land until they have lived on it continuously for 15 years, at which point full ownership would be transferred to them. In the event of death, lawful dependents were to inherit the right to occupy the land. If IDPs left their property before the end of the 15-year period, the land was to revert back to municipal ownership to be reallocated to another displaced beneficiary.</p> <p>The settlements were connected to the water, main access roads were traced and boundary walls of blocks were built that defined the public space, individual plot boundaries, latrines and shower units. It was up to the beneficiaries to make improvements and extensions themselves, with support from local NGOs in the form of building materials and cash for labour.</p>
Strengths <i>(Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The practice was centred on IDPs within wider urban development objectives. 2. It contributed to tenure security and uses an innovative incremental tenure approach that starts with a free and legally protected rental contract and culminates in full private ownership. 3. It involved collaboration between UN-Habitat and the municipality in establishing a resettlement plan of IDPs and the broader direction of urban growth, which benefitted the wider community. It also led to positive shifts in institutional norms and knowledge transfer, particularly by familiarising people with the concept of formal rental contracts. 4. The practice made affordable housing available to IDPs and the urban poor in locations close to their where they have sustainable access to livelihoods contributed to durable solutions by providing urban IDPs with secure tenure on plots designated by the municipality in areas close to their informal settlements, which allowed them to maintain their livelihoods and social networks.. 5. Both the design of the settlements and the choice of building materials improved habitability, access to services and protection from fire risk. With national and international support, IDPs have invested incrementally in improving their property over the years, adding extra rooms, pavements and water tanks, and planting trees.
Key challenge(s)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of public land available and shortage of donated private land, leaving many IDPs on the waiting list to become a beneficiary. Some chose to buy their own land privately rather than wait for a donation. 2. IDPs' capacity to invest in and improve their property was limited without adequate access to credit.
Factors for potential replicability	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Landowners' interest in donating land to the municipality 2. Municipality's willingness to cooperate with external organisations to devise a new urban growth management plan

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

Settlement upgrade

This practice focussed on upgrading existing settlements rather than permanent relocation. A series of negotiations were conducted with private landlords - who may or may not have been the title deed holders - of the land on which IDPs had informally settled. UN-Habitat proposed a temporary tenure model, a tri-partite leasehold agreement between the landlords, the IDPs residing on the land and the municipality. Under the agreement, landlords had to comply with minimum humanitarian standards to reduce the population density of the settlements and ensure space for effective firebreaks and communal services. Landlords kept their right to develop the site as long as sufficient notice was given. The approach improved tenure security, living conditions and access to services.

To ensure access to basic utilities during the upgrades, UN-Habitat and the municipality negotiated an agreement with GUMco, the local water provider, to install water taps on the main streets of the settlements at a maximum distance of 250 metres from each household. The taps were managed by members of the displaced community members in direct cooperation with GUMco. Landlords were not allowed to intervene, act as gatekeepers to services or charge extra fees. The upgrades also allocated space for community centres, mosques, temporary schools and sand storage for fire-fighting.

The main streets were later widened to six metres to act as firebreaks and ensure quick access for fire-fighting vehicles. A committee representing the community was tasked with keeping the roads clear and free of obstruction. Secondary access lanes between housing rows were made four metres wide. The new settlement layout, awareness raising with the local community and training of both community members and local authorities led to a 50 per cent fall in the number of families affected by outbreaks of fire in 2008 compared with 2007. Women's safety and security was also a recurring issue, particularly when using latrines at night, so the upgrades included separate pit latrines for men and women, at a minimum ratio of one toilet per 20 people and installed at strategic points.

Landowners tended to favour five-year leases, on the basis that the additional public investment and development would increase the value of their land value and attract private investors. Such agreements were also a pragmatic option for IDPs not seeking to integrate locally and unable to purchase property themselves.

It guaranteed tenants protection from eviction for five years, and thereafter landlords were obliged to give 90 days' notice if they wanted to repossess their land for developments or other purposes, in accordance with the UN basic principles and guidelines on development-based evictions and displacement⁶⁷.

The temporary tenure model relied on traditional and informal dispute resolution mechanisms. The rental agreements stipulated that disputes should be settled "through dialogue by the concerned parties", but was not clear what recourse IDPs had beyond appealing to the local authorities or their landlords. In 2012, the Ministry of Interior took over the mayor's responsibility for witnessing and overseeing the agreements on the basis that "if an agreement between a landowner and a tenant is signed by the Ministry of Interior, the Mayor and the Islamic court, then it is stronger".⁶⁸

At the outset of the programme, UN-Habitat launched a radio and television campaign to discuss the minimum standards IDPs might expect and be able to demand from the local authorities and landlords. The debate mobilised local authorities and religious and community leaders to discuss IDPs' rights and economic contribution, and brought the issues of fire prevention and hygiene to light.⁶⁹

Despite the obligation established for landlords to give 90 days' notice of their intention to evict tenants after five years of occupancy, many people agreed to 60-day notice periods agreement. The rental agreements could also have been clearer about tenants' obligations to maintain the land, latrine construction and other developments, rent payments, right to purchase, ownership of shelter materials and inheritance and sub-letting rights. IDPs needed to be the documented owners of their shelter materials so that, in the event of eviction they could relocate to another site and quickly rebuild their homes. For landlords not receiving rent from their tenants, the municipality might have been better to reassure them "that they will not be forced to pay tax on lands used by IDPs from which they derive no income."⁷⁰ Such a guarantee might make them more willing to provide land for IDPs' settlements.

The radio and television campaign that accompanied the start of the programme succeeded in raising awareness of IDPs' and tenants' rights, a fact that is perhaps its crowning achievement. Displaced households have been empowered as tenants who can exercise leverage with landlords unwilling to sign a tenancy agreement that guarantees a 90-day eviction notice and basic provision and maintenance of services.

7. Neighbourhood upgrades

Description

Neighbourhood upgrades generally shift the focus from IDPs specifically to area-based interventions integrated into broader urban and development plans. They are distinct from individual or beneficiary-based approaches, and as such help to overcome one of the main challenges faced by humanitarian organisations working in urban - how to reach dispersed IDPs who are largely invisible in broader communities that include other vulnerable people such as migrants, marginalised groups and the urban poor. In some cases, however, such as the Roma Mahalla in Kosovo, the upgrade was part of a return project specifically conceived as a durable solution for IDPs living in protracted displacement in lead-contaminated camps in second case study below). Better use of space to create more housing can also be achieved via North Mitrovicë/a (see first case study below).

Neighbourhood upgrades include support for municipalities in improving associated infrastructure and services to an area, and more efficient use of space to increase the number of affordable rental properties available. This is often done by encouraging property owners to build additional rooms to accommodate IDPs' local integration, as was the case in Katye in Haiti (see broader vertical expansion or urban densification projects).

The third case study describes how the Transitional Solutions Initiative involved community members in Colombia in identifying their priorities and then simultaneously addressing their humanitarian and development needs in the regularisation of their informal settlement.



Residents in new housing in Ravine Pintade, a hilly area in the center of Port-au-Prince which was previously damaged by the earthquake. An extra floor was added to address the small size of the plots.
Photo: CHF/Maggie Steber, May 2012

The neighbourhood approach

“Practitioners define the Neighbourhood Approach as an area-based intervention that responds to multi-sectorial needs and is informed by community-based decision-making reflective of the social, economic, and physical features of the delineated area.

The approach is shelter-led but settlement-focussed: it shifts the attention from conventional ‘four walls and a roof’ efforts centred on households, towards a more synergistic and complementary focus on the entire community in defined spatial contexts. The process requires understanding of available local resources, emergent opportunities, and potential constraints regarding the sheltering of people, the recovery of affected economies, and the reduction of risks associated with vulnerability to natural hazards”.

Source: “The Neighbourhood approach” Improving the Delivery of Humanitarian Assistance in Urban Areas.” USAID/DCHQ/OFDA, no date

Case study 1: *Katye*⁷¹ neighbourhood improvement programme in Ravine Pintade (Haiti)

Snapshot	
Practice	Katye neighbourhood improvement programme in Ravine Pintade
Main actors	CHF International (now Global Communities) Project Concern International
Context	Ninety per cent of Ravine Pintade residents, or around 2,000 people, were displaced by the 2010 earthquake
Target group(s)	The construction and infrastructure programme benefitted 574 families living in Ravine Pintade but other aspects such as medical consultations in a health centre benefitted another 1400 families living outside of Ravine Pintade.
Summary	The practice combined humanitarian assistance with a longer-term development approach that emphasised recovery and settlement upgrade. It supported IDPs' early return to their original neighbourhoods as part of their durable solutions, and contributed to an overall improvement in residents' access to adequate housing in Ravine Pintade. The project took a comprehensive and multi-sectorial approach, including the provision of transitional shelter that could be upgraded, disaster risk reduction measures, rubble removal, and initiatives in the areas of water and sanitation, health, livelihoods and the protection of vulnerable groups.
Strengths (Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)	The practice involved the community from an early stage, and its participation engendered a feeling of community ownership over the project. Enumeration and mapping exercises (see tools section) were used to identify different forms of land rights, tenure claims and ownership, and a risk mapping exercise was also conducted. A profiling exercise helped to identify the community's priorities and needs early on in terms of housing, settlement planning and infrastructure. The practice resulted in a moderate increase in rental housing stock in Ravine Pintade (similar to the incremental housing approach in Jordan). It included disaster risk reduction (DRR) measures such as retaining walls, drainage infrastructure and wider footpaths. Technical experts helped residents to implement the measures. The practice included auxiliary programmes, such as free community health care , training programmes and protection initiatives.
Key challenge(s)	Inaccessibility of the site complicated and slowed down implementation and raised costs Tension with surrounding neighbourhoods not included in the project Lack of training on building maintenance, vertical and horizontal expansion and the re-use of materials.
Factors for potential replicability	The cost-effectiveness of this type of broad approach at different scales Community ownership and participation

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

Case study 2: Return to Roma Mahalla (Kosovo)

Snapshot	
Practice	Return to Roma Mahalla (2004 to 2013)
Main actors	UN Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) Municipality of Mitrovicë/a Norwegian Church Aid Danish Refugee Council UNHCR, OSCE, Mercy Corps
Context	Around 8,000 Roma, Ashkali and Egyptian (RAE) people fled the Roma Mahalla neighbourhood in the city of Mitrovicë/a in northern Kosovo during the 1999 conflict. The poorest settled in informal camps where they lived for up to 13 years, during which time it emerged that they were lead-contaminated. Kosovo's bid for independence meant it came under EU scrutiny. Mitrovicë/a is a divided city. The northern part is in effect controlled by Serbia and the southern part by Kosovo. Significant urbanisation has taken place in Mitrovicë/a since the conflict, and the Roma Mahalla is prime land in the town centre.
Target group	Displaced RAE families, particularly those living in lead-contaminated camps Mitrovicë/a residents and municipal authorities
Summary	After lengthy negotiations, the Return to Roma Mahalla agreement was reached by the International Stakeholders Group for the Mitrovicë/a Region and the Mitrovicë/a municipality, and was signed on 18 April 2005 by the Municipal Assembly President, UNMIK's Regional Representative, and representatives of OSCE, UNHCR and UNMIK. It outlined the right of all former residents of the neighbourhood to return and the terms under which the move was to take place. Between 2005 and 2012, the project involved temporary resettlement, soil and blood testing for lead contamination, training of public health workers, identity registration, the verification of property rights, rubble removal, infrastructure and housing construction, educational and livelihoods initiatives and strengthening the capacity of Mitrovicë/a's municipal authorities. Housing units were distributed according to family size, and former homeowners had their properties rebuilt. Those who were given new housing units signed a 99-year lease, improving their tenure security compared to their residence in the Roma Mahalla informal settlement before the conflict. Beneficiaries did not pay rent, but were responsible for all utility bills and building maintenance costs. The project helped to overcome the sense of abandonment that the IDPs felt after years of languishing in lead-contaminated camps with few if any effective initiatives to help them.
Strengths (Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)	The practice provided affordable permanent housing and tenure security for 280 RAE families, or 1,100 people, most of whom had previously been informal settlers. IDPs' participation resulted in changes to construction plans to make them more culturally adequate , for example by providing housing in rows rather than apartment blocks. The resettlement of IDPs from hazardous conditions in lead-contaminated camps followed the principles of habitability . Roma Mahalla residents and their neighbours benefitted from new infrastructure and access to utilities . Of the 150 RAE children initially found to have high levels of lead in their blood, there were only two by end of 2014. The practice contributed to national and regional debate on Roma people's integration and tenure security, and the development of national legislation on the provision of housing for economically vulnerable groups.

<p>Key challenge(s)</p>	<p>Considerable advocacy was required regarding the urgent need to close the lead-contaminated camps and resettle the IDPs. The RAE project beneficiaries were highly vocal about some issues, but their participation in planning and implementation was limited. It was not always clear who the legitimate community leaders were, a fact which continues to create confusion for local and international interlocutors. Dealing with the effects of lead contamination, particularly in children and young people. Overcoming IDPs' mistrust of the local and international community and their fears about the possible security issues involved in returning to Roma Mahalla. Absence or inaccuracy of land registries. Some beneficiaries sold their housing in violation of their tenancy agreement, which the municipality considered illegal but approached with flexibility to keep the peace. There were not enough livelihood opportunities for beneficiaries to become self-reliant, which in turn reduced the habitability of their housing over time.</p>
<p>Factors for potential replicability</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A strong legal and policy framework on durable solutions at the national, regional and municipal level 2. Stability and security after the cessation of violence and hostilities 3. Effective coordination mechanisms between local, national and international organisations and displaced and receiving communities 4. Municipal agreement to allow returnees to resettle on public land

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website



View of the destruction of Roma Mahalla after the conflict, and of a rehabilitated building. Photo: IDMC/B. McCallin, May 2009

Case study 3: Transitional Solutions Initiative (Colombia)

Programme design

Colombia is a pilot country for the Transitional Solutions Initiative (TSI), an international project involving the World Bank, UNHCR and UNDP that was launched in 2010 with the aim of achieving durable solutions for people living in protracted displacement. In Colombia, the initiative is run by UNHCR and UNDP with the support of national and local authorities, and focuses on IDPs in 17 communities. Since its inception in 2012, it has set a precedent in terms of UNHCR and UNDP co-leading programmes aimed at the achievement of durable solutions in Colombia.

TSI has three components: the improvement of living conditions - access to land, housing, basic services and local economic development; institutional and organisational strengthening; and the protection of victims' and their communities' rights. It employs a community-focussed participatory approach that simultaneously engages communities, authorities and institutions. It aims to strengthen communities' leadership, giving them agency to identify their own solutions on the assumption that stronger communities require less external support.

Regularisation of informal settlements

TSI's living conditions component includes the regularisation of informal urban settlements, where most IDPs live whether on private or public land. The settlements have expanded significantly over five decades of conflict and some make up a large part of the cities in which they were established. That said, they tend not to be officially connected to water and electricity supplies or sanitation services, and residents are at risk of eviction. The settlements have become an increasingly serious issue, which authorities acknowledge needs to be resolved.

Regularisation is a highly complex legal process in Colombia, and competing claims over land make it more complicated still. TSI has succeeded in identifying a legal pathway towards regularisation, but each settlement has its own history shaped by different factors, and as such has to be treated separately and without assumptions. Municipal authorities have different reasons for agreeing to regularisation, though most acknowledge that the sheer scale of their informal settlements warrants intervention. Private landowners

also have mixed interests, but some have realised that residents are there to stay and that it would be more straightforward and lucrative to sell their land rather than trying to reclaim it.

Implementation and monitoring is still going on, but as of mid-2014 13 communities were in the process of regularising their land and one had finalised it. A profiling exercise with focus groups, participatory assessments and household surveys was conducted to review progress made in 2014 and the results are due for publication. JIPS provided technical expertise in developing TSI's set of indicators, based on a range of variables and UNDP's and UNHCR's existing monitoring tools. JIPS has also helped to establish a broader monitoring and evaluation process for multi-sectorial approaches to durable solutions, helping to bridge the humanitarian and development divide between the two agencies.

Challenges and strengths

Continuing violence and armed conflict, a lack of technical capacity and political will and the prohibitive cost of studies to determine the feasibility of legalising settlements in areas prone to natural hazards all constitute obstacles to the regularisation process. That said, the TSI programme has numerous strengths. It goes beyond the narrow approach of targeting individuals and households, and establishes the community as a whole as the beneficiary of housing and economic development activities that are planned and reviewed by the public and private sector through local leadership committees. It also goes beyond housing to support livelihoods and protection initiatives, and the strengthening of institutional capacity. It is an example of fruitful coordination and cooperation at the inter-agency level between UNHCR and UNDP and their respective partners.

Colombia's political context offers a good foundation for the implementation of TSI. The government endorsed the Victims' Law in June 2011, and began peace talks with the country's largest rebel group, the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) in 2012. It has also taken numerous measures in recent years to make the transition from humanitarian aid to pursuing durable solutions for IDPs. TSI reinforces and continues this work.

8. Supporting municipalities

Description

When large numbers of IDPs arrive in an urban area, a sudden increase in housing demand is only one of a complex set of strains the influx places on a city, its municipalities and other governance institutions. Longer-term shelter strategies such as NRC's integrated urban housing programme in Jordan (see page 26), which stimulate the housing market and add extra units, also require municipalities and commercial providers to make their services more widely available.

As such, working towards durable solutions for urban IDPs living in protracted displacement means supporting not only the host community, but also the host municipality as a partner whose resources and capacities need to be strengthened. Local governance institutions play a key regulatory role, and they have resources and decision-making powers that can multiply the efforts of international agencies and NGOs.

If urban governance and infrastructure are to be more resilient and able to absorb rapid fluctuations in population, flexible municipal support tools are needed that can make quick assessments and provide financial and

other resources to maintain adequate water, electricity, transport and waste management services. Supporting municipalities is an indirect but more sustainable way of supporting IDPs, and it strengthens local ownership and accountability.

Many IDPs move into districts that are poorly planned and under-serviced by municipalities that are either strapped for cash, staff and resources, or do not have the authority under a centralised government to set their own budgets and development plans. Water, electricity and waste management infrastructure may not have been adequate in the first place, meaning that a population influx has the potential to create social tensions over access to overburdened services. The more rapid the expansion of informal settlements, the harder it is for municipalities to keep up with demand. As such, it is important to think about how to link short-term approaches centred on households to medium and long-term development interventions for displaced and host communities as a whole.

The following case study is of a project that targets urban refugees, but it could be adapted to apply to IDPs. It demonstrates how the development sector is evolving and innovating practices for urban areas that deal with large population influxes.

Case study: Host community support platform⁷² (Jordan)

Snapshot	
Practice	Host community support platform (HCSP) 2013; now the Jordan response platform to the Syria Crisis (JRPSC)
Main actors	UNDP Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (MOPIC) Various municipalities
Context	Displacement of Syrian refugees to Jordan driven by conflict Small municipalities with insufficient financial, material and human resources to provide services for a rapidly growing population
Target group(s)	Small municipalities in poor regions that have received a rapid influx of refugees
Summary	<p>The practice established a coordination mechanism for ministries, local authorities, donors, UN agencies and international NGOs to help address the water, sanitation, education, health and livelihood needs of both the refugees and their host communities. The large influx of Syrian refugees put extra pressure on urban infrastructure and waste management services that were already struggling to cope, and the coordination mechanism supported municipalities by providing resources and capacity building.</p> <p>UNDP set up the first coordinating body, HCSP, in 2013 and identified municipalities' priorities through a national assessment review. In 2014 under MOPIC's initiative HCSP was converted into JRPSC, emphasising national ownership. Its mandate was also expanded from five to 11 task forces, each chaired by a line ministry, in the areas of education, energy, environment, health, justice, livelihoods and food security, local governance and municipal services, shelter, social protection, transport and water, hygiene and sanitation (WASH). JRPSC updated the national assessment review and built on the 2014 national resilience plan to produce the Jordan response plan for the Syria crisis. Municipalities hosting large refugee populations identified their most acute need as solid waste management,⁷³ leading JRPSC to respond in the short term by providing compactors, fogging machines, pesticides and training, and in the longer term by contributing to structural changes that prepared the ground for the Ministry of Municipal Affairs to develop its solid waste management plan at the local level in 2015. Its planning was a direct consequence of the advocacy and thinking in the 2014 national resilience plan and UNDP's national assessment review.</p>
Strengths <i>(Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)</i>	<p>HCSP and JRPSC are holistic strategic bodies that try to address both short-term needs at the household and community level, and the medium and longer-term development needs of municipalities and other institutions.</p> <p>The practice is an effective, flexible and responsive model of cooperation and coordination between the Jordanian authorities and international agencies that can be aligned in different areas of intervention.</p> <p>It led to the transfer of knowledge between agencies and changes in institutional norms. It benefited both refugees and the wider community.</p> <p>It included an effective needs profiling exercise, which led to plans being based on priorities the municipalities themselves identified.</p>
Key challenge(s)	<p>During the first phase of the project, only some of the municipalities' needs were addressed. It was unclear whether this was because those involved in the response were unable to do so, or because they adopted a pick-and-choose approach.</p> <p>For organisations keen to count the number of beneficiaries served, it may prove difficult to quantify the impact at the individual or household level of supporting municipalities.</p> <p>Municipalities' needs do not necessarily dovetail with those of displaced households, which were not clearly established by UNDP's needs assessment. It was not clear, for example, how an external organisation would deal with a municipality's failure to prioritise the expansion of water and electricity supplies to meet increased demand.</p> <p>Further analysis would have been needed to determine the best way of supporting municipalities that used commercial providers to deliver services.</p> <p>The majority of municipalities identified the same issue as their top priority, which made it easier to determine how to respond. Disparities between different municipalities would require a broader array of resources and support, which would make the programme more complex and expensive.</p>
Factors for potential replicability	<p>A national ministry able to coordinate the roles and responsibilities of international organisations and national and local authorities</p> <p>Municipalities that are open to receiving resources and training from external sources</p> <p>May not be applicable in capitals and mega cities, given the scale of service provision required</p>

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC's website

9. Community development bank

Description

Community development banks (CDBs) aim to generate economic development in low to middle-income areas. They have been widely used in the US, where they have long been institutionalised and the Treasury Department has a fund to support them. The best known example, however, is Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, which was founded by the Nobel laureate Muhammad Yunus and popularised the use of microfinance in the developing world. CDBs can be for-profit or non-profit and take many forms. The case study below highlights a unique model established in Brazil which is managed by the community it serves.

Case study: Banco Palmas (Brazil)

Snapshot	
Practice	Banco Palmas, 1998 to present
Main actors	Associação dos Moradores do Conjunto Palmeira ⁷⁴ (ASMOCONP) Funders: Local NGO Ceariah Periferia, German Development Agency (GIZ/GTZ), Oxfam, the Ecumenical Service Coordination (CESE) and the Dutch development organisation Cordaid
Context	Residents of coastal areas of the city of Fortaleza were displaced by development projects to the impoverished inland district of Conjunto Palmeira in the 1970s. In the absence of basic services and livelihood opportunities for former fishermen, Conjunto Palmeira residents developed a series of community initiatives to improve their living conditions and basic infrastructure. Over the decades since their displacement, they have built homes, water and sewage systems and electricity networks. In 1981, they set up ASMOCONP to promote the concept of a solidarity economy, which encourages the creation of local networks of production, consumption and job creation, and community investment in educational, cultural and social institutions. ⁷⁵ No such investment was possible, however, without access to credit.
Target group(s)	2000 families displaced from coastal areas to Conjunto Palmeira
Summary	ASMOCONP established Banco Palmas in 1998 as a community-driven financial institution to fund the development of their neighbourhood based on principles of a solidarity economy. The bank adopted credit requirements adapted to its poor clients. No credit history was required, nor were income or assets demanded as collateral for loans. Instead, neighbours vouched for applicants, and social ties were used both to evaluate the loans and enforce their terms. Most IDPs struggled to re-establish social networks lost as a result of their plight, but given the length of time Conjunto Palmeira residents had been displaced such ties were in place. Banco Palmas offered low interest loans to local people, including those originally displaced to the area. It offered three types of microcredit for production, commerce and services. For the first seven years of its existence, the bank received funding from international NGOs and bilateral aid organisations such as GTZ, Oxfam, CESE and Cordaid, but in 2003 it was transformed into Instituto Palmas, a non-profit organisation that serves as the umbrella organization that includes Banco Palmas and other community ventures. The bank also introduced the “palma”, a local currency that is exchanged with the Brazilian real at a rate of one-to-one and has an economic multiplier effect.
Strengths <i>(Key elements of right to adequate housing and key programmatic elements from matrix appear in bold)</i>	Banco Palmas is a successful example of a community-driven development initiative that incorporates residents’ meaningful participation . The community created an innovative and effective finance mechanism to transform the shape and future of the neighbourhood. Brazil’s government has slowly recognised the bank’s success and has facilitated similar schemes in other areas, which constitutes a transfer of knowledge and a change in institutional norms . The practice shows how international NGOs and bilateral aid organisations can play an instrumental role in financing initiatives such as community development banks that become sustainable in their own right and outlive the initial programme .
Key challenge(s)	Community development banks are an example of a gradual and incremental community-led approach. As a result they require sustained engagement, reflection and changes in practices over long periods of time.
Factors that could influence potential for replicability	Highly committed and engaged neighbourhood organisations and civil society groups Donors that are flexible when funding the initial phase, understanding that development impacts can only be measured in the-long term National government’s eventual recognition of the concept of community development banks and the use of an alternative local currency IDPs living in protracted displacement for long enough to establish social ties

The full version of this case study is available online on IDMC’s website

7

Analytical and advocacy tools

This section focuses on a few analytical and advocacy tools that could be used to better examine urban displacement and improve evidence-based responses that provide IDPs with adequate housing and facilitate their pursuit of durable solutions. Some, such as the JIPS methodology for profiling urban IDPs, are already used to identify needs and preferences in terms of settlement options (return, local integration or settlement elsewhere) guide national and international responses and inform the development of national policies that support the achievement of durable solutions. They have not, however, been integrated into mainstream humanitarian and development responses to displacement.

Other tools, such as the eviction impact assessment, have been used by human rights advocates for judicial responses to cases of displacement caused by development projects. Given that human rights advocates and civil society groups have a long history of engagement

with displacement related to development in urban areas, there is much to learn from the range of tools they use to protect groups at risk of forced eviction.

Tools such as legal aid programmes have been used extensively for both IDPs and refugees, and can be instrumental to property restitution and the clarification of tenure, which in turn protects beneficiaries from eviction and facilitates their access to shelter assistance. Unclear tenure makes donors and humanitarian organisations wary of investing in housing programmes. Development agencies have tried and tested community enumeration and pro-poor land administration systems, and such tools could be applied to humanitarian programmes or integrated into shelter and settlement designs from day one.

Imaging technologies such as satellite and aerial photography are also under-used tools in humanitarian and development responses to protracted displacement.



Community mapping exercise in Simon Pele, Haiti. Photo: Habitat for Humanity Haiti, February 2011

1. Profiling of urban IDP situations

Description

The general lack of information about IDPs is a major challenge for those advocating for the fulfilment of their rights. Tools such as the urban profiling exercise developed by JIPS are useful ways of collecting baseline demographic data on displaced communities. Given that urban IDPs tend to be dispersed and are difficult to distinguish from the urban poor more generally, the JIPS methodology gathers comparative data on both IDPs and their counterparts in the general population in the same neighbourhood. Since the experiences of different groups can vary, there is a need to better understand the realities of different groups who reside in the same area (e.g. IDPs, refugees, economic migrants and urban poor with different backgrounds).

Profiling provides a comprehensive picture of the target populations, including demographics, indicators of strengths and vulnerabilities, their preferences in terms of settlement options and their degree of local integration. As such, it forms a solid basis from which to determine policies on durable solutions and the development of other strategies addressing problems identified during the profiling exercise. Profiling combines quantitative and qualitative methods at the individual, household or community levels to provide data disaggregated by location, sex, age and diversity. The analysis can be enriched with key informant interviews and a review of secondary data, leading to an extensive profile of urban populations affected by displacement and the local infrastructure and policy environment they face.

Profiling is not, however, limited to data collection. It is a sequence of interlinked steps that begins by building a consensus around the need for the exercise, and ends with the validation of its findings by the profiling partners and target populations themselves and the dissemination of results. It is a collaborative and ethical process based on the principles of transparency, and actively promotes the buy-in of partner organisations and governments at all stages.

By bringing central and local authorities and their humanitarian and development partners together to collect information on demographics, migration patterns, and factors related to the process of attaining durable solutions, including housing, land and property issues, profiling by design aims to ensure that the data obtained is widely accepted and used. It helps to ensure that those working in the same urban setting share a common understanding of the displacement situation, and reduces the need for parallel surveys by different organisations and the costs they involve.

IDPs often face specific challenges in securing housing and livelihoods, ensuring community support and building social networks. In many urban areas affected by displacement, however, the local population live in similar conditions and face similar issues. Profiling aims to understand both the crossover and the divergence between the different communities' realities, which in turn allows policymakers and practitioners to incorporate them into the development of targeted responses. Profiling works towards durable solutions by creating an evidence base for decision making.

Displaced people, like all migrants, bring with them particular skills and experiences that can benefit their host families and communities, and which, if tapped into, form the foundation for durable solutions. Profiling sheds light on such positive attributes and those of IDPs' counterparts in the local population (host families and other non-displaced neighbours) as well as their vulnerabilities. By looking at future aspirations, plans and decision-making criteria it forms the basis of a forward-looking response, even in volatile contexts.

Methodology and process

JIPS was established in 2009 to provide technical support and coordination for governments and their humanitarian and development partners in conducting collaborative profiling exercises. Given the rapid rate of urbanisation worldwide, the ever increasing numbers of IDPs who flee to towns and cities, and the distinct challenges of data collection in urban areas, JIPS has produced a specific profiling methodology for them.⁷⁶ JIPS also specialises in profiling to inform strategies for durable solutions, and advocates for the operationalization of the criteria for durable solutions set out in the IASC's framework on the issue as the starting point for planning an exercise.

Each profiling exercise uses a methodology tailored to the specific information needs of those who will use the data, and established via jointly agreed objectives. A mixed methods approach tends to be used to capture different types of data and triangulate findings. Consultation with national entities responsible for compiling statistics ensures that the methodology is compatible with existing population data sources such as censuses.

When possible, profiling aims to provide statistically representative information of the target populations acquired through an anonymous sample-based household survey. The surveys may also include individual-level questions for each household member. The quantitative data is complemented with focus group discussions and key informant interviews. The anonymity of the process is important on a number of levels. It has ethical and protection implications, particularly when dealing with sensitive topics, and it helps to guarantee more reliable data by clearly disassociating responses from eligibility for assistance.

Given the consultative and time-consuming nature of profiling exercises, they generally take several months to complete. Findings are validated and disseminated among the partners in the exercise, wider groups of stakeholders and the target populations.

Using profiling to improve housing policies and programmes

Urban profiling can support more effective and sustainable housing policies and programmes for IDPs in a number of important ways. In Afghanistan, JIPS supported NRC in conducting a protection study of IDPs that identified a series of housing, land and property (HLP) issues and the need to improve the humanitarian response to them. The findings led to greater investment in an existing HLP taskforce that enhanced its expertise and reach.⁷⁷ The study also played a significant role in bringing about official recognition of urban IDPs and the inclusion of area-based approaches in a national policy on displacement. Both the survey and the policy highlight the need for comprehensive profiling to inform the design and implementation of response programmes.

A case study on the contribution profiling made to the development of Afghanistan's national policy on IDPs is available online on IDMC'S website.

In Côte d'Ivoire, JIPS provided technical support to the government and UNHCR in undertaking a profiling exercise in locations with significant displaced populations, including urban areas of Abidjan and San Pedro.⁷⁸ The findings revealed the need to address issues such as IDPs' access to housing documentation such as rental agreements. They also showed that IDPs and their host communities faced many similar challenges in housing terms, while highlighting the specific challenges of different groups where relevant. The exercise informed a national strategy on durable solutions, which acknowledges the importance of adequate housing and related documentation and makes targeted suggestions for different population groups.

Challenges and lessons learned

The paucity of information on urban IDPs and their neighbours makes designing a profiling methodology much more challenging. The problem can be overcome, however, by combining what does exist with information collected through local key informants and mapping at the community and neighbourhood level. Such preparation can be time-consuming and costly, but it ensures that the profiling exercise is representative of the target populations and produces valuable output in its own right by mapping the location and density of different groups in a given area.

The fact that profiling exercises are based on achieving a consensus about the information sought also tends

to make the process time-consuming, and maintaining momentum can be a challenge while different stakeholders' definitions of key concepts are reconciled. Ensuring momentum for these long processes can be challenging in the face of lengthy discussions on the modality of the exercise. Once the objectives, methodology and tools have been agreed, however, the ground is also laid for the joint use of the findings. Given the substantial commitment of time, resources and political buy-in that profiling exercises demand, they are best suited to informing longer-term strategy and policy development rather than quick programming.

Profiling exercises are locally owned and implemented. They also increase local government capacity and establish or reinforce collaborative ways of working. An inclusive approach to the development of objectives, methodology, collection tools, analysis and recommendations is particularly important when the information sought is highly politicised or there is no consensus on existing data.

2. Eviction impact assessment

Description

An eviction impact assessment is a quantitative, human rights-based tool. It was developed by Habitat International Coalition (HIC)'s housing and land rights network, and is used to quantify the "losses, costs and damages incurred by those affected by violations of forced eviction, dispossession, destruction and privatization of habitat resources."⁷⁹ It also helps as an advocacy tool to convert human rights violations into quantifiable economic language. Data alone cannot express the emotional toll of forced displacement nor the physical impoverishment it often causes, but it improves a community's bargaining position with state and private entities involved in responding to its needs.

The tool has been used mainly to quantify the impact of displacement caused by development projects, but given that many urban IDPs displaced by conflict or disasters also face the risk of forced eviction it can be applied to such cases too. Those who squat public or private land or live in informal settlements or areas prone to hazards are particularly at risk and exposed to the prospect of renewed displacement.

Eviction impact assessments can help to bolster housing rights and the achievement of durable solutions by preventing forced evictions and other displacement from taking place in the first place and facilitating compensation when they do. They can be used to persuade courts to put evictions on hold, and to inform those intent on

carrying them out about the compensation they will have to pay and the issues to be addressed in minimising the social and economic cost of relocation. Communities and courts can also use the assessments to estimate and demand compensation after the event, as was the case in Kandhamal in India.⁸⁰

Displaced communities, grassroots organisations, local researchers and advocates for housing and land rights advocates have used eviction impact assessments successfully in a number of countries as part of their broader efforts to support IDPs in their pursuit of durable housing solutions. They can also be used by IDPs themselves in public interest litigation and judicial activism more generally.

Methodology

The methodology for eviction impact assessments is based on the UN basic principles and guidelines on development-induced displacement, International Criminal Court standards of evidence and the UN reparations framework.⁸¹ They constitute a comprehensive tool that tries to capture both material and non-material losses and costs during all phases of displacement. They are not prescriptive, however, in that they can be adapted to specific contexts.

The matrix for eviction impact assessments contains the following components:

1. Baseline study of pre-eviction assets and expenditure

The baseline study is a key component, because the costs and losses IDPs incur as a result of their displacement are compared and calculated against it.

- a. **Economic assets (household level):** qualitative and quantitative assessments of personal belongings, investments, inheritance prospects, livestock, dwellings, trees and crops, livelihoods, wells and water sources
- b. **Expenditure (household level):** qualitative and quantitative assessments monthly outgoings on food, education, health care, mortgages and other debt payments, rent, utilities, transport and bureaucratic, legal and advocacy costs
- c. **Social assets (household level):** qualitative and quantitative assessments of the value of shared community spaces, community membership and investments, creches, cultural heritage sites, family, health and psychological wellbeing, identity and social and institutional capital
- d. **Civic assets (non-material):** qualitative and quantitative assessments of crime patterns, political legitimacy and participation, social cohesion and integration and public health
- e. **Public/state expenditure:** bureaucracy, administration, equipment, services, security and policing costs

2. Assessment of losses as a result of eviction notice

- a. Economic costs/losses (household level)
- b. Regular expenditure/costs/losses (household level)
- c. Social assets/costs/losses (household level)
- d. Civic assets/costs/losses (non-material)
- e. Public/state costs

3. Assessment of losses at time of and during eviction

- a. Economic costs/losses (household level)
- b. Regular expenditure/costs/losses (household level)
- c. Social assets/costs/losses (household level)
- d. Civic assets/costs/losses (non-material)
- e. Public/state costs

4. Assessment of losses following eviction, subdivided as applicable into the following categories: transit camps or temporary shelter, resettlement site, no resettlement and reparation

- a. Economic costs/losses (household level)
- b. Regular expenditure/costs/losses (household level)
- c. Social assets/costs/losses (household level)
- d. Civic assets/costs/losses (non-material)
- e. Public/state costs

The complete matrix can be downloaded here:

<http://goo.gl/w1A31f>

Depending on the size of the target community and the resources available, either the entire affected population or a representative sample is surveyed by a team of expert enumerators who use their qualitative notes and estimates of assets and expenditure in combination with households' self-assessments to arrive at sample figures. These are then used to determine average household assets and expenditure, social assets, the impacts and duration of relocation and changes in monthly income and outgoings, to arrive at a final average cost of relocation per household that includes any new and recurring expenditure.

A case study from Kenya on the use of eviction impact assessments in Nairobi's Muthurwa estates is available online on IDMC's website

3. Legal aid

Description

Urban IDPs' tenure is often precarious or unclear. They may not have formally owned their land or homes in their places of origin or they may have lost their personal documents, title deeds or tenancy papers during their flight. They rarely own their homes in their places of refuge and often rent informally or occupy private or public property without authorisation, exposing themselves to the risk of forced eviction.

Without their personal documents, they often struggle to access social services and benefits they would otherwise qualify for, and to exercise their rights in terms of inheritance, restitution, compensation and assistance, resulting in dispossession and long-term impoverishment. Lack of documentation also makes it difficult to enter into legal agreements and constitutes a significant obstacle to the achievement of durable solutions. The fact that IDPs tend to have little access to legal information perpetuates asymmetries between them and their landlords and state agencies, and leads to disenfranchisement and disempowerment.

As such, IDPs need legal support and counselling in a number of areas:

1. General legal information: awareness of local laws, eligibility requirements for benefits, housing, land and property issues, urban government institutions, domestic and international human rights standards
2. Awareness of the right to adequate housing and tenure security
3. Help in obtaining personal documents
4. Assistance in drafting and entering into written lease agreements
5. Help with property and inheritance claims in their places of origin
6. Help with claims for ethnic, racial or religious discrimination
7. Assistance for women and children to deal with discrimination in terms of their housing, land and property rights
8. Counselling and arbitration for property and land disputes
9. Counselling and arbitration when dealing with parallel legal systems, such as formal, informal, religious and local law
10. Counselling on dispute resolution and legal remedies in cases of forced eviction and housing rights violations

International organisations such as IOM and NRC often provide legal aid on housing, land and property issues to refugees displaced by conflict and disasters. Most countries also have local legal aid organisations and lawyer's

associations that provide similar services. Urban IDPs tend to need help with written lease and tenancy agreements, which are key to improving their tenure security.

Humanitarian and development organisations that assist IDPs should also be aware themselves of the complex legal environment in which they operate. This means translating local laws into their operational language and disseminating information to the communities they are working with. They should also be aware of a country's international human rights commitments and how they align or conflict with local and national laws and policies.⁸²

A case study on NRC's information, counselling and legal assistance (ICLA) programme that illustrates how legal aid can improve tenure security and support shelter work is available online on IDMC's website.

4. Community participation approaches

Community participation is an essential component of good programming, because it ensures that assistance is better adjusted to the skills and needs the beneficiaries themselves prioritise. It gives communities a sense of ownership of the programme, and engages members in skills development, consensus building and demanding authorities' accountability. Community participation can take different forms, some of which are more time-consuming and in-depth than others, depending on the level of emergency and responders' culture and methods. Community enumeration and mapping, and the social tenure domain model are particularly useful in urban areas to clarify unclear tenure.

4.1 Community enumeration and mapping

Description

Community enumeration⁸³ involves members in designing a method of data collection and using it to gather information about themselves and identify and prioritise their needs⁸⁴. They then develop an action plan as the basis for interventions by authorities, national and international organisations and the community itself. Provided vulnerable groups are included and power imbalances within the community are managed well, community enumeration can be a powerful tool in creating transparent processes, building trust and empowering community members to take decisions about their lives. It also kick-starts community negotiations with local authorities about the recognition and formalisation of multiple tenure arrangements.

The approach is particularly useful in informal settlements and other densely populated urban areas where land ownership and tenure are unclear, there is no accurate mapping and little or no state capacity to carry out planned development and provide adequate infrastructure. By setting up community governance structures, it can compensate to some extent for the lack of municipal planning and encourage local authorities to become involved.

The various uses of enumeration include:⁸⁵

- Understanding a community's needs
- Enabling residents to advocate for their rights
- Improving tenure security
- Planning the provision of infrastructure and services
- Redeveloping informal settlements or planning relocations
- Assessing a community's assets and capacities
- Identifying risks and vulnerabilities
- Guiding land allocation plans and information systems
- Community planning
- Project planning

A case study on community enumeration in Simon Pelé, Haiti is available online on IDMC's website. It illustrates how the tool has been used to prioritise needs and address them in a densely populated informal settlement since the 2010 earthquake

4.2 Social tenure domain model

Description

The social tenure domain model is a pro-poor, gender responsive and participatory land tool developed in recognition of the fact that the vast majority of the land around the world is not registered or included in cadastres.⁸⁶ Social tenure arrangements are more popular and greatly outnumber their formal or statutory counterparts in both urban and rural areas.

Where informal, traditional, customary and indigenous tenure practices are in place, cadastral surveys and the formalisation of titles are perceived as yielding fewer benefits for poorer and marginalised populations. On the broad continuum of tenure practices, individual freehold is only one of a number of options. As Jon D Unruh notes: "All claims to land are part of a construction of an evidence-based 'argument for claim!'" As such, it is important not only to recognise all forms of land and tenure claims, but also to "argue" for them based on alternative models of evidence.

The International Federation of Surveyors, the Global Land Tool Network and UN-Habitat have created a land administration system (LAS) that works with various forms

of tenure recorded through on-the-ground observation and consultation with local communities, and which promotes the concept of a continuum. Tenure data generated by a partnership between professional surveyors and the people affected yields more sophisticated maps and in turn a better land administration system that can address IDPs' specific needs and vulnerabilities and support their achievement of durable solutions.

A major challenge in surveying lies in reconciling different levels of accuracy and labelling practices. Traditional land surveys are extremely time-consuming and expensive, so the creators of the social tenure domain model advocate the use of satellite images and handheld GPS devices to conduct boundary surveys in conjunction with traditional land surveys. Such approaches are not cheap either, and there is the question of who a community will trust to apply them. Only after a boundary survey is complete, however, and the information has been compiled with topographic and GPS data coordinated into maps, can policymakers address land tenure, use and development issues by designing better policies.⁸⁷

The social tenure domain model could also help communities, civil society organisations and governments to improve their monitoring and prevention of illegal land grabs, which become more common during conflict or in the aftermath of disasters when institutions and the rule of law are weakened.

Methodology

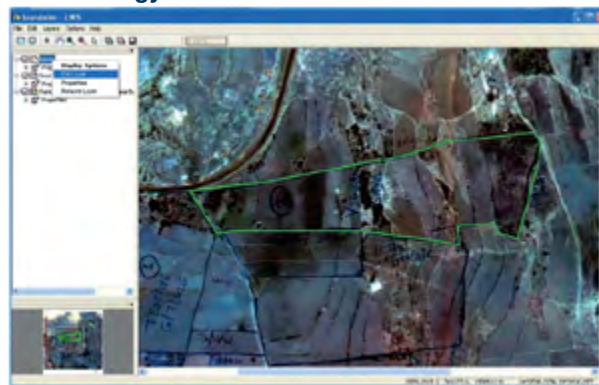


Figure 6: A screen grab of prototype software for the social tenure domain model. Drawn boundaries are vectorised to closed polygons, which in turn can be related to people via social tenure relationships.⁸⁸

The creators of the social tenure domain model aim to pioneer a new way of maintaining land records, using free open-source software that enables individuals with minimal training to collect, record, analyse and disseminate data. The model, however, should not be understood merely as a technical exercise. It is also a deeply political process of engendering, mapping and negotiating relationships between land, its users and public institutions. The software allows for the linking of individuals or "land

users” with specific plots of land or “spatial units” (see figure 6) using different social tenure options. The individual is identified by their photograph, fingerprint and signature to ensure the validity of the record. But before inputting data, however, the land must be surveyed. The different sequences of the model are:

1. First the data needs to be acquired. Communities, villages, cooperatives, slum dwellers' organisations or NGOs can organise this, but they need tools to do so.
2. On-site tests of the potential use of high-resolution satellite images were performed to establish parcel index maps in selected cities or villages. After printing the images on paper on a 1:2,000 scale, the boundaries of spatial units were determined in the field using a pencil.
3. Data collection in the field was performed in the presence of land rights holders and local officials.
4. Apart from the boundaries, administrative data such as village names were collected. The understanding of the paper prints on a 1:2,000 scale was high, which makes the process very participatory.
 - a. Additional supporting documents such as photographs, maps and images can also be uploaded using the software.
5. After field data acquisition, the images with drawn boundaries on them were scanned and interposed on top of the original image.
 - a. Drawing can also be done using digital pens, which are immediately read and geo-referenced by a computer and do not require scanning.
6. The drawn boundaries were vectorised and given identifiers. During field data collection preliminary identifiers may be used.
7. The spatial data can then be linked to the person's data using a spatial tenure relationship.
8. Then the data has to be brought to local communities for public inspection, by the projection of images and boundaries on a screen if electricity is available. Local people are invited to check the data.
9. It should be possible to edit the data, for example to change a social tenure relationship from “informal” to “occupation” and later to “freehold”.⁸⁹
10. A to-do list for government officials could then be generated on how to strengthen tenure arrangements on a case-by-case basis. This is contingent on officials' political will to strengthen tenure.

11. Women's access to land can be improved by registering shares of land using the social tenure domain model.

12. The data can also help design better urban and community development plans.

Conclusion

The social tenure domain model can help urban IDPs and the wider community to understand and map their land and tenure claims. It can be used to determine who rents, owns or has claims to property, and it facilitates the clarification of tenure, on which eligibility for housing assistance programmes and social benefits often rides. It is also useful in resolving tenure disputes and can help protect from evictions if informal tenure claims are recognised and recorded as part of a legitimate land administration system.

The model not only feeds community-driven advocacy for tenure and housing rights, including access to basic services. It can also help municipalities and other urban governance institutions to provide services for population influxes.

A case study on the application of the social tenure domain model in Uganda is available online on IDMC's website.⁹⁰

5. Satellite imagery

Description

The UN Operational Satellite Applications Programme (UNOSAT) provides geospatial information such as geographic information system (GIS) data and satellite images to support UN agencies' needs. It has been particularly active in the areas of crisis and situational mapping and monitoring human rights violations. Satellite imagery has also become increasingly available to international NGOs, civil society groups and human rights workers. UNOSAT often provides critical data on the movement of displaced people, as it has done on Syrian refugees on the country's border with Turkey. It has helped to determine population densities in displacement camps, and to monitor mass evictions, demolitions and the destruction of property caused by conflict or disasters.

A set of satellite images taken over specific time intervals provides only impressionistic information, and as such is at its most useful when validated by observation and surveys on the ground. During conflict or in the aftermath of a disaster, however, such validation may not be possible and satellite imagery has to be taken on its own merits.

Satellite imagery can help prevent displacement and facilitate durable solutions by providing data that informs the following areas:

- Urban land planning, restricting construction in areas prone to hazards or improving resilience via building regulations
- Preventing and lobbying against forced evictions
- Land use and vacancy rates
- Camp and informal settlement management
- Identifying reconstruction needs
- Community mapping

Disaster risk management

Satellite imagery has been used to make quick assessments of the damage caused by a disaster, particularly in its immediate aftermath when access may be restricted; and to create zoning risk maps that highlight areas vulnerable to future hazards. In both cases it has helped to reduce the impact of disasters in urban areas. After tropical storm Washi struck the Philippines in 2011, for example, UNOSAT provided satellite images of the destruction it caused, which assisted humanitarian organisations in developing response and recovery strategies. Satellite imagery is also an important tool in the creation of flood hazard maps that help to ensure that IDPs do not return to and resettle in vulnerable areas, which would put them at risk of future displacement.

Forced eviction monitoring

In 2005, the Zimbabwean government began Operation Murambatsvina. Also known as Operation Drive out Rubbish and Operation Restore Order in Zimbabwe, it was a programme of mass slum clearances and forced evictions that affected around 700,000 people, and during which 92,460 homes were demolished. The volatile situation on the ground meant the international community had only limited access to the affected areas, but satellite imagery enabled quick assessments to be made of the extent of the demolitions, and the scale and pattern of the population movements they caused.

Camp and informal settlement management

UNOSAT has provided satellite images that show the growth of the Zaatari refugee camp in Jordan, which was established following an influx of Syrian refugees and which has since evolved into something more akin to a self-contained urban neighbourhood with an improvised street network, commercial and residential areas and basic infrastructure. Used in conjunction with observation and enumeration on the ground, the images are a useful tool for improving the management of camps as informal neighbourhoods with changing needs over time.

Land surveys

Satellite imagery facilitates community-based land and tenure mapping and enumeration exercises, as was the

case with the social tenure domain model. It is easier for community members to participate in drawing land plots on readily accessible satellite maps that show precise topographic data, housing units and natural features than it would be if they had to rely on the often out-dated maps held by municipalities and land management offices.

Challenges and conclusion

Satellite imagery has much to offer, but also much to be cautious about. It gives the illusion of precision, but can be misleading if the information gleaned is not confirmed with observations on the ground. Archives of older images may not be readily available, which makes comparisons over time difficult and inconsistent. Not all geographical areas are commercially attractive for satellite image providers, and forest and cloud cover reduce the amount of information that can be interpreted. Even given the best available images, it takes training and experience to be able to interpret them accurately. Well-meaning volunteers may make basic misinterpretations such as mistaking cars for tents.

As with all information, satellite imagery is not neutral. It is subject to power asymmetries and dynamics and manipulation. As such, it is important to ask a number of questions:

- Who produced the images and for whom?
- Who analysed the images and what additional data sets have they used to produce GIS maps?
- Why were the images produced?
- Who has access to the maps?
- Are the maps being used to advance a particular agenda?
- If so, are there any alternative interpretations that could challenge that agenda?
- What do the images not show?
- What are the biases of the producers and interpreters?

In situations of heightened police and military presence, anyone seen with satellite imagery may be perceived as a security threat. In such circumstances caution and awareness of one's audience is required before displaying it.

8

Comparative matrix

The following table is based on our review of the practices and case studies for this report. It identifies strengths, challenges and factors that may influence the potential for replication based on the evaluation criteria set out in the methodology.

	Elements of matrix addressed (Right to adequate housing and programmatic elements)	Challenges	Factors influencing replication
PRACTICES			
1. Incremental housing (Jordan)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Affordability 3. Habitability 4. Cultural adequacy 5. Location 6. Access to remedy, information and legal support 7. Livelihoods support 8. Target beneficiaries include wider host community 9. Effective and innovative finance model used 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Scale - addresses only a small fraction of the housing demand for refugees in Jordan 2. Requires monitoring and follow-up to mediate between tenants and landlords 3. Needs to consider what happens to tenants after their rental agreements expire 4. Needs to consider what happens if beneficiaries chose to move out before the end of their tenancy period 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Availability of unfinished buildings and other structures for expansion 2. Functioning local construction industry 3. Ongoing refugee crisis in which demand for housing may rise and fall exponentially 4. Costs of scaling up require further study 5. Potentially a quick and cost-effective way of adding more rental housing stock while long-term affordable housing developments are planned and implemented 6. Requires knowledge of local building, zoning and municipal regulations and their implementation 7. Availability and use of legal counselling as a key auxiliary component of shelter activities
2. Housing purchase certificates (Armenia, Georgia)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Affordability 3. Habitability 4. Access to public goods and services 5. Cultural adequacy 6. Location 7. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Procuring documents for those who wanted to sell their recently privatised housing units 2. Difficulty for family members living in the diaspora to obtain power of attorney 3. Newly developed property market was insufficiently institutionalised 4. Vouchers issued in foreign currency lost value as local currency appreciated 5. Some IDPs could only afford housing in dire need of renovation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strong political will and international pressure to close collective centres 2. Well-developed banking sector, property market and land administration system 3. Private house ownership is culturally appropriate 4. Availability of housing units for sale

3. Social housing (Armenia, Georgia, Serbia)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Affordability 3. Habitability 4. Access to public goods and services 5. Location 6. Target beneficiaries include wider host community 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Some IDPs did not see social housing as culturally appropriate 2. IDPs wanted right to unlimited stay and the ability to transfer ownership, which was not possible 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strong political will and international pressure to close collective centres 2. Well-developed land administration system 3. Municipal cooperation in providing serviced land plots and building maintenance 4. Social housing initiatives and supporting legislation was a proven concept in region
4. Transfer of public buildings to IDPs' private ownership (Georgia)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Access to public goods and services 3. Location 4. Habitability 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Insufficient or inadequate living space and conditions, for some families despite renovations 2. IDPs lacked information or received conflicting information about the process. 3. Delays in issuing title deeds prevented IDPs from seeking funds for improvements 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strong political will to facilitate local integration and settlement elsewhere of IDPs 2. Well-developed land administration system 3. Private house ownership culturally appropriate 4. Availability of collective centres for upgrading to acceptable conditions
5. Rental support grants (Haiti)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Affordability 2. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of follow-up on IDPs fate after expiry of one-year grants 2. Extensive field checks of housing stock required to determine suitability for grant 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Availability of affordable rental housing stock 2. Landowners are willing to sign written rental agreements 3. Mechanisms in place to verify proposed rental units to determine safety and hazard risk reduction 4. Access to bank accounts or mobile cash-transfer technologies
6. Incremental tenure (Somalia)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Affordability 3. Location 4. Target beneficiaries include wider host community 5. Livelihoods support 6. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of available public land for resettlement, so many IDPs were left on waiting lists and some chose to buy their own land in the meantime 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strong political will 2. Municipality cooperates with external organisations to develop an urban growth management plan that also identifies areas for resettlement
7. Neighbourhood upgrades (Haiti, Kosovo and Colombia)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Affordability 3. Location 4. Habitability 5. Cultural adequacy 6. Meaningful participation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Community hesitant to participate fully despite mechanisms for doing so, and legitimate community leaders were difficult to identify 2. Absence or inaccuracy of land registries 3. Some beneficiaries sold their housing in violation of their tenancy agreement (Kosovo) 4. Limited livelihood opportunities for beneficiaries to become self-reliant, which in turn has reduced the habitability of their housing over time. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A strong legal and policy framework on durable solutions at the national, regional and municipal level 2. Effective coordination mechanisms between local, national and international organisations and displaced and receiving communities 3. Municipal agreement to allow returnees to resettle on public land

8. Supporting municipalities (Jordan)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Effective and innovative coordination mechanisms 2. Target beneficiaries include wider host community 3. Effective profiling exercise 4. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Disparities between municipality's and IDPs' needs 2. Hard to measure impact of supporting municipalities on displaced individuals or households 3. Further analysis needed on supporting municipalities which use commercial providers for services 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strong political will 2. National ministries coordinate activities with international organisations 3. Municipality cooperates with external organisations and is willing to receive resources and training 4. Untested in capitals and megacities, where service provision would be at a very different scale
9. Community development bank (Brazil)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Meaningful participation 2. Effective and innovative finance model used 2. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Requires sustained engagement, reflection and changes in practices over a long period of time 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Highly committed and engaged neighbourhood organisations and civil society groups 2. Donors are flexible when funding the initial phases 3. Eventual national government recognition of the CDB concept and use of an alternative local currency
TOOLS			
10. Profiling of urban IDPs (Afghanistan)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Effective and innovative data collection tools and profiling exercise 2. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Low level of existing information on target population makes methodology design challenging 2. May require labour-intensive and time-consuming comprehensive target mapping 3. Lengthy process as a result of consensus building on acquired information 4. Not effective for short-term decision making; best suited to informing long-term strategies and policies 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Local authorities and communities cooperate 2. Access to baseline data on population and housing 3. Broader advocacy and policy to frame the objective of conducting a profiling exercise
11. Eviction impact assessment (Kenya)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Location 3. Freedom from dispossession, damage and destruction (including forced eviction) 4. Resettlement, restitution, compensation, non-refoulement and return 5. Education and empowerment 6. Meaningful participation 7. Access to remedies, legal support information 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Difficulty in gaining community cooperation 2. Qualitative and quantitative data generated may not always be accepted by state authorities or private entities 3. Hard to raise awareness of the significance of impacts and non-material costs of eviction 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cooperation from community at risk of eviction 2. A functioning court system and an active civil society for judicial activism

12. Legal aid (Jordan)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Resettlement, restitution, compensation, non-refoulement and return 3. Education and empowerment 4. Access to remedies, legal support and information 5. Transfer of knowledge and change in institutional norms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Dealing with multiple legal systems 2. Dealing with multiple tenure arrangements and land claims 3. Often requires legal translations of local laws, policies and codes 4. Legal aid approach may need to be combined with other, non-legal conflict resolution mechanisms 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Presence of legal experts with knowledge of IDPs' shelter and housing issues 2. Functioning judiciary and court system 3. Official translations of laws, codes and regulations
13. Community Enumeration (Haiti, Uganda)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure security 2. Education and empowerment 3. Meaningful participation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Can be a time-consuming process, particularly in early phases 2. Navigating multiple agendas in a community requires social and political acumen 3. Elite capture can be a persistent threat. Need to include more vulnerable and marginalised voices 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cooperation from community members 2. Cooperation from national authorities, which must be willing to enter into a dialogue with communities 3. Being embedded in the community is key 4. External organisations act as facilitators rather than aid providers and build more sustainable relationships
14. Satellite imagery	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Effective and innovative data collection tools or profiling exercises 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. May not be available to all users 2. Easy to misread imagery and draw false conclusions 3. Satellite images are not neutral pieces of data 4. Police and military may view possession of satellite imagery as suspect 5. Forest and cloud coverage can interfere with quality of information gleaned 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Access to free or affordable satellite imagery 2. Training in interpretation of images 3. Identification of datasets used and actors producing images

Findings and recommendations

The comparative matrix in the previous section reveals that some practices addressed several elements of the right to adequate housing, while others were only able to address a few. It is not necessary or even appropriate for each practice to address all of them. Using elements of the right to adequate housing to examine practices, however, helps to identify gaps and areas that could be improved upon in providing urban IDPs with better access adequate housing.

The right to adequate housing provides a critical lens of analysis through which to determine whether a given practice truly empowers the people and communities concerned and facilitates their pursuit of durable solutions. It is a key entry point for the realisation of all the other economic, social and cultural rights, as is evidenced by the range of elements in the matrix. The fulfilment of the right to adequate housing is subject to progressive realisation, which suggests true success requires a long-term involvement and commitment by all stakeholders and practitioners involved. It may also mean shifting emphasis to engaging with local stakeholders and communities that will continue the work after the departure of humanitarian or development entities.

The durable solutions framework is also a gradual and complex process that progressively reduces needs and issues specific to displacement. It addresses challenges in the areas of human rights, humanitarian and development action, reconstruction and peacebuilding.⁴⁸ Such complexity requires coordination between all of those responding to internal displacement so as to build on experience and ensure coherence and continuity of action over time.

Because it is often difficult to identify urban IDPs who disperse among the local population, the traditional humanitarian approach of focusing on them as beneficiaries needs to be combined with more inclusive area-based initiatives that also address the needs of others who share similar circumstances. At the same time, some IDPs' needs specific to their displacement will still need to be addressed, and they may require targeted and tailor-made support to achieve durable solutions, particularly in protracted situations.

The practices included in this report are presented with the aim of providing tools and programme elements that

can address such issues in different contexts, and which go some way to providing adequate housing that supports the achievement of durable solutions. The authors also deliberately looked for practices that have continued to have an impact beyond the conclusion of the project in question, either by influencing national and municipal policies, or national and international programmes that contributed to knowledge transfer and institutionalisation.

The progressive realisation of the right to adequate housing in urban areas and the achievement of durable solutions has implications for the nature of humanitarian response. In particular:

1. Humanitarians and their counterparts in the development sector should base their responses on international human rights law, particularly the right to adequate housing, and on frameworks that cover eviction such as the UN basic principles and guidelines on development-induced displacement.
2. National, municipal and international entities involved in development activities should be involved earlier during the humanitarian phase to ensure continuity and coherence between short and longer-term interventions, which should be integrated into broader urban planning and growth strategies.
3. Governments need to recognise displacement as a development issue for both displaced and host populations. International organisations and agencies can help advocate for and shape national housing policies that serve the needs of not only IDPs, but also other vulnerable groups. Humanitarians' traditional focus on target groups such as IDPs should be complemented with broader development plans that address these structural issues.
4. Responses should be more inclusive and address not only IDPs' housing rights, but also those of the urban poor and the wider community.
5. Development practitioners should identify the IDPs, particularly those living in protracted displacement, among their beneficiaries in order to address their specific needs.

Urban IDPs' tenure security was widely represented in various types of practices across the matrix, from rental agreements in Jordan and Somalia, to incremental tenure

in Somalia and social housing in Georgia, Serbia and Armenia. Several tools that addressed tenure security were represented, such as community enumeration in Haiti and the social tenure domain model in Uganda, which maps multiple forms of tenure. The eviction impact assessment tool was also used to prevent or remedy forced evictions, and legal aid has proven critical in helping IDPs clarify and defend their tenure rights. It can also support shelter activities to achieve the same objective, as in Jordan.

6. Various forms of tenure, including informal, should be acknowledged and recognised, because they are key to the progressive realisation of the right to adequate housing.
7. More systematic legal and administrative interventions should be made in land administration systems to ensure that multiple forms of tenure are understood and codified.
8. Adequate protection from forced eviction should be put in place in order to avoid renewed displacement and increased impoverishment.
9. Programmes that aim to improve tenure security and housing conditions should ensure that their eligibility criteria do not exclude IDPs. Those that include the possession of personal documents, permanent residency or a certain number of years spent in a given place may discriminate against IDPs, and flexibility should be envisaged in such cases.
10. Legal aid should be offered to urban IDPs to inform them about issues that affect their tenure security, such as rental lease agreements and protection from eviction, and to advise them on legal and informal routes to conflict resolution and obtaining documentation and building permits.

Access to public goods and services was a key component in a few cases, but it was mainly tied to the element of location, which is vital because proximity to livelihood opportunities, markets and institutions also help to determine IDPs' overall quality of life and reduce transportation costs.

11. National and international interventions should adopt a multi-sectorial approach in order to facilitate adequate housing and durable solutions. This means addressing elements such as tenure security, affordability, habitability, disaster risk reduction, access to basic and social services and employment (see full list in our matrix).

Affordability was well represented in the case studies, particularly those related to social housing. All cases,

however, involved significant subsidies and investment from states, international organisations and municipalities. This investment feeds into housing market mechanisms through purchase (Armenia), transfer of ownership (Georgia), upgrade or the subsidising of rented accommodation (Jordan, Haiti). The creation of affordable housing stock for rent to keep up with sudden spikes in demand, which often add to existing housing deficits, remains a significant challenge.

12. More attention should be paid to providing affordable rented housing in lieu of home ownership schemes, given that most urban residents rent, particularly the poorer and more marginalised among them and including IDPs.
13. Affordable housing can be achieved in different ways, including the opening up of serviced land, investment in infrastructure, provision of affordable credit, retrofitting of abandoned property, allowing extra floors on existing housing structures, re-zoning land for residential use, increasing population density by encouraging in-fill and subsidies for the upgrading of vacant or dilapidated housing stock.

Affordability is also directly linked to access to livelihoods. Cash-based assistance often substitutes income lost as a result of displacement, but can only temporarily provide affordable rented housing and tenure security.

14. Humanitarian relief work should be integrated with follow-up assistance as is the case with the Graduation approach where cash-based assistance is combined with livelihood programmes that also include vocational training and small business loans.

Habitability was also covered by several practices, such as those in Jordan and Armenia, notably in relation to cultural adequacy and relative notions of what is considered adequate housing. In Haiti (Katy), habitability was linked to disaster risk reduction, while in Somalia it was linked to making upgraded settlements less vulnerable to frequent outbreaks of fire.

The fact that in cases such as in Kosovo and Georgia, IDPs were not satisfied with the accommodation pointed to the need for their meaningful participation in housing programmes. Although this report illustrates several examples of positive participation (Katy and Simon Pelé in Haiti, TSI in Colombia and the use of the STDM tool in Uganda) this is one of the least represented elements of the right to adequate housing across the practices analysed and highlights the challenge of shifting the perception of IDPs as being mere beneficiaries to agents who can pursue their own durable solutions given the appropriate resources and leverage. Ensuring partici-



An IDP prepares to hang her clothes at the Joaquin F. Enriquez Memorial Stadium in Zamboanga city, Philippines. Photo: IDMC / F. Kok, June 2014

pation is time-consuming, however, and humanitarians tend not to have the flexibility to engage in such lengthy processes.

Unfortunately, there is shortage of comparative data on how individual displaced households manage in urban areas and the best ways of supporting their coping mechanisms, whether it is via cash-based assistance, vocational training or housing subsidies. Understanding the underlying reasons for why IDPs may forego investment in better housing may help guide programme response instead of making assumptions that all IDPs are asset-poor or cash-poor or would readily invest in housing above other needs.

15. Meaningful participation of IDPs in housing programmes and community ownership of the process should be an integral component of practices.
16. A paradigm shift in programming is needed to understand IDPs and displaced households as economic agents who apply their own calculations when prioritising different needs such as housing, food, education and health.
17. IDPs should not be viewed as a homogeneous group, given that their economic status and resource levels can vary dramatically.

It is important to understand how IDPs settle in urban areas, whether it is with families, gathered in particular areas, dispersed throughout or in regular or makeshift camps. Due to their relative invisibility, it is often difficult to distinguish between poor IDPs and their non-displaced neighbours. Urban profiling can help determine the extent of IDPs' specific needs and vulnerability, as well as challenges faced by both IDPs and host populations. The practices presented in this report show both the interest of area-based approaches (Bosaso, Kosovo, Katye/Haiti, Coordination platform in Jordan) and the necessity to design targeted assistance for the most vulnerable individuals or groups (TSI Colombia, practice on social housing in protected environment in Armenia, Georgia and Serbia).

18. The profiling of urban IDPs should be used more systematically to provide valuable socioeconomic data on displaced households and the community they live in, which in turn should be used to address IDPs' specific needs and inform longer-term public policy.
19. The focus on displaced individuals and households should shift to area-based interventions integrated into broader urban planning and growth strategies. Such a shift requires cooperation with municipal authorities, and could potentially lead to practises becoming institutionalised.

20. The cost-effectiveness of shifting to more area-based interventions should be analysed further, but involving the development sector earlier during the humanitarian phase can help share the costs of longer-term interventions.

21. Authorities and humanitarian organisations should continue to identify and meet IDPs' specific needs, particularly those of vulnerable individuals, if they cannot be addressed by general approaches. Targeted support to facilitate durable solutions is a case in point. As displacement becomes protracted, IDPs' less obvious needs, such as psychosocial support to deal with trauma, tend to be overlooked, making those affected more vulnerable over time.

Area-based approaches involve humanitarians establishing links with and supporting local authorities and private sector organisations, many of which are development-oriented. Urban planning must be a core component of programme design. In the case of Jordan, where support for host municipalities was increased, it was clear that it helped better serve refugees and host communities in Jordan in the long term, instead of providing only emergency aid and shelter.

Increasing the urban housing supply is a significant development resource and economic multiplier, with upstream linkages to building materials and land markets and downstream linkages to construction companies and employment. The local production and supply of goods and provision of services for IDPs can make a significant contribution to a city's economy. In the case of Banco Palmas in Brazil, an effective and innovative finance mechanism allowed residents who were formerly IDPs to come together and apply the multiplier principle to generate economic development in the town. By establishing a community development bank and circulating their own local currency, they were able to ensure that loans were reinvested in community businesses, which would later expand the tax base.

This report was not able to address questions of urban scale, for example how supporting municipalities or working with commercial service providers in second and third-tier cities might differ from working in large capitals or megacities.

22. The links between private infrastructure and service providers (i.e water, electricity, solid waste management), their regulation by the municipality and the way the international humanitarian and development communities can better support them should be studied further.

23. The extent to which interventions need to be adapted to address urban scale should be studied further.

The selected practices show how a shift from short-term to longer-term approaches can take place. Housing policies should go beyond short-term action to facilitate durable solutions, either by linking up with development work or their incorporation into national frameworks on housing and displacement – as in Haiti cash grant and Kosovo - or into municipal urban planning, as in TSI Colombia and Jordan Host Community Support Platform.

When practices are integrated into or influence national policies, the knowledge transfer and change in institutional norms can extend their reach. The institutionalisation of an approach can take it further than the NGO or agency that initially implemented the practice. Authorities can adopt practices into their policies, as in Jordan, or international organisations can learn from one another, as in Haiti, cash rental guidelines and adapt their practices to different contexts. In Somalia, a shift in societal norms took place, in which IDPs and their landlords gradually entered into written lease agreements without the intervention of a third party, because they recognised their usefulness.

It is clear that significant political will is required if practices are to be relevant and succeed. The role of politics in urban spaces, however, is not addressed in this report and needs to be analysed further. Decisions that have a significant bearing on the lives of marginalised people in urban areas are determined by political forces, and adequate solutions often depend on how well they are handled by those working with such groups and the beneficiaries themselves.

The evaluation of cost-effectiveness was also a challenge, because the elements taken into account can vary significantly between practices, and certain aspects, such as psychological support, cannot be quantified. The report was also only able to focus on broad replicability criteria, given the high number of possible variables.

Appendix

List of Illustrative Indicators on the right to adequate housing (*MDG indicators)⁹¹

Type of indicator	Habitability	Accessibility to services	Housing affordability	Security of tenure
Structural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> International human rights instruments, relevant to the right to adequate housing, ratified by the State Date of entry into force and coverage of the right to adequate housing in Supreme Law/Constitution/Bill of Rights Date of entry into force and coverage of domestic laws relevant to the implementation of the right to adequate housing Number of registered/operational civil society organizations involved in the promotion and protection of the right to adequate housing 			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Time frame and coverage of national housing policy statement/strategy for the progressive implementation of measures for the right to adequate housing at different levels of Government, as applicable Time frame and coverage of national policy on rehabilitation and resettlement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Date of entry into force and coverage of legislation on security of tenure, equal inheritance and protection against forced eviction 		
Process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of complaints on the right to adequate housing received, investigated and adjudicated by the national human rights institution/human rights ombudsperson/specialized institution and other administrative mechanisms (created to protect the interests of specific populations groups) in the reporting period Public expenditure on reconstruction and rehabilitation of displaced persons as a proportion of public development budget Net ODA for housing received/provided as proportion of public expenditure on housing/gross national income* 			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportions of habitations (cities, towns and villages) covered under provisions of building codes and bylaws Share of public development budget spent on social/community housing Increase in habitable area effected through reclamation, including of hazardous sites and change in land use pattern Addition to habitable area earmarked for social/community housing during the reporting period 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of household budget spent on access to utilities, including water supply, sanitation, electricity and garbage disposal Proportion of vulnerable households dependent on private sources for water supply Share of public development budget spent on provision and maintenance of sanitation, water supply, electricity and physical connectivity of habitations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of households that receive public housing assistance, including those living in subsidized rented housing and households subsidized for ownership Proportion of households in selfowned, publicly provided housing and squatter settlements Average rent of bottom three income deciles as a proportion of the top three 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Average time taken to settle disputes related to housing and land rights in courts and tribunals Number of legal appeals aimed at preventing planned evictions/demolitions through the issuance of court-ordered injunctions over the reporting period Number of legal procedures seeking compensation following evictions over the reporting period Proportion of displaced or evicted persons rehabilitated/resettled annually over the reporting period

Type of indicator	Habitability	Accessibility to services	Housing affordability	Security of tenure
Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of population (persons per room or rooms per household) with sufficient living space/ average number of persons per room among targeted households Proportion of households living in permanent structures in compliance with building codes and by-laws Proportion of habitations/households living near hazardous sites 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of urban population living in slums Proportion of (rural and urban) population with sustainable access to an improved water source* Proportion of (rural and urban) population with access to improved sanitation* 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of households spending more than “x” % of their monthly income/ expenditure on housing Annual average of homeless persons per 100,000 population Proportion of homeless population using public and community-based shelters “x” being defined normatively for the country context 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reported cases of “forced evictions” per 100,000 population (e.g. as reported to United Nations special procedures) over the reporting period Proportion of households with legally enforceable, contractual, statutory or other protection providing security of tenure/ proportion of households with access to secure tenure* Proportion of women among individuals with titles to land/house

Advisory Committee Members

	Advisory Committee members	Organisation
1	Chaloka Beyani	UN special rapporteur on the human rights of IDPs
2	Einar Bjorgo	UNOSAT
3	Georges Deikun	UN-Habitat
4	Tom Delrue	UNDP
5	Jennifer Duyne	World Habitat Research Centre
6	Leilani Farha	UN special rapporteur on adequate housing
7	Bahram Ghazi	OHCHR
8	Niels Harild	World Bank
9	Jackie Keegan	UNHCR
10	Erin Mooney	UN ProCap
11	Laura Phelps	NRC
12	Joseph Schechla	HLRN-HIC
13	Victoria Stodart	IFRC
14	Peter Van Der Auweraert	IOM
15	Roger Zetter	Refugee Studies Centre

Notes

1. Armed conflict is an armed confrontation between the armed forces of states (international armed conflict) or between governmental authorities and organised armed groups or between such groups within a state (non-international armed conflict). Other situations of violence, such as internal disturbances and tensions are not considered armed conflicts (source: ICRC, Exploring Humanitarian Law, glossary, 2009)
2. Threat to life, physical integrity or freedom resulting from generalised violence including: (i) civilian casualties as a result of indiscriminate acts of violence, including bombings, suicide attacks and improvised explosive device explosions (ii) conflict-related security incidents. Such considerations are not, however, limited to the direct impact of the violence. They also encompass the longer-term, more indirect consequences of conflict-related violence that, either alone or on a cumulative basis, give rise to threats to life, physical integrity or freedom (source: UNHCR)
3. IDMC, Global Overview 2014: People Internally Displaced by Conflict and Violence, May 2014
4. It is important to note that people in many countries are displaced by a combination of factors, there is an overlap between the 33.3 million Global Overview and 22 million Global Estimates figures. It is not possible to add the two numbers together to yield a total number of IDPs. IDMC, Global Estimates 2014: People Displaced by Disasters, October 2014
5. *Ibid*
6. It is important to bear in mind that the monitoring of IDPs has also improved, which means that previously invisible populations may now be counted
7. Protracted displacement is a situation in which the process for finding durable solutions ... is stalled, and/or IDPs are marginalised as a consequence of a lack of protection of their human rights (source: UNHCR and the Brookings-Bern Project on Internal Displacement, expert seminar on protracted IDP situations, 2007)
8. A durable solution is achieved when IDPs no longer have specific assistance and protection needs that are linked to their displacement and such persons can enjoy their human rights without discrimination resulting from their displacement. A durable solution can be achieved through: 1) Sustainable reintegration at the place of origin (hereinafter referred to as 'return'), 2) Sustainable local integration in areas where internally displaced persons take refuge (local integration) or 3) Sustainable integration in another part of the country (settlement elsewhere in the country) (source: IASC, Framework for Durable Solutions, 2010)
9. Roger Zetter, Reframing Displacement Crises as Development Opportunities, working paper on the roundtable for solutions, Copenhagen, 2014, p.10
10. This report follows the internationally recognised descriptive and non-legally binding definition of IDPs based on the 1998 Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, which state that IDPs are "persons or groups of person who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border".
11. Report of the special rapporteur on IDPs' human rights, 2011 (A/HRC/19/54)
12. UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, World Urbanization Prospects: The 2014 Revision, ST/ESA/SER.A/352, 2014, p.7
13. *Ibid*
14. [IDMC, Internal Displacement to Urban Areas: the Tufts-IDMC profiling study, case study 1: Khartoum, case study 2: Abidjan, case study 3: Santa Marta, September 2008](#); GA Resolution on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons
15. IDMC, Internal Displacement: Global Overview of Trends and Developments in 2010, March 2011
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20. UN Habitat, Background paper for World Habitat Day, Voices from slums, 6 October 2014. Available at <http://unhabitat.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/WHD-2014-Background-Paper.pdf>
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22. The Brookings Institution – University of Bern Proj-

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 24. UN-Habitat, Urban Land for All, 2004
 25. See section D below and the discussion on the UN evictions guidelines (complete footnote)
 26. OCHA, Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, principles 28-30, second edition, September 2004, <http://www.unhcr.org/43ce1cff2.html>
 27. "IASC, Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons, Brookings Institution–University of Bern Project on Internal Displacement for IASC, April 2010
 28. The Sphere Project, Minimum Standards in Shelter, Settlement and Non-Food Items, Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Humanitarian Response, 2011, <http://www.ifrc.org/PageFiles/95530/The-Sphere-Project-Handbook-20111.pdf>
 29. These elements were identified by CESCR in general comment number four in 1991
 30. UN Human Rights Council, Report of the Special Rapporteur on Adequate Housing as a component of the Right to Adequate Standard of Living – Miloon Kothari, A/HRC/2/18, 5 February 2007 (see annex III, questionnaire on women and adequate housing)
 31. See annex one, Report of the special rapporteur on adequate housing, 2007
 32. World Bank, Reshaping Economic Geography, World Development Report 2009, p.51
 33. ALNAP, Meeting the Urban Challenge: Adapting Humanitarian Efforts to an Urban World, Overseas Development Institute, July 2012, p.4
 34. Jonathan Woetzal, Sangeeth Ram, Jan Mischke, Nicklas Garemo and Shirish Sankhe, A Blueprint for Addressing the Global Affordable Housing Challenge, McKinsey Global Institute, October 2014
 35. UN Habitat, Affordable housing should be 'at the centre of cities': Joan Clos. UN Habitat.org. 28 October 2014. <http://unhabitat.org/affordable-housing-should-be-at-the-centre-of-cities-joan-clos/>
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 46. The Effects of Internal Displacement on Host Communities: A Case Study of Suba and Ciudad Bolívar Localities in Bogotá, Colombia, ICRC in Colombia, Brookings Institution–LSE Project on Internal Displacement, October 2011
 47. CESCR, general comment number four, the right to adequate housing (article 11.1 of the covenant); and general comment number seven, the right to adequate housing (article 11.1 of the covenant) on forced evictions; and the expanded list of essential elements contained in UNHRC's report of the special rapporteur on adequate housing as a component of the right to adequate standard of living, Miloon Kothari, A/HRC/2/18, 5 February 2007 (see annex III, questionnaire on women and adequate housing)
 48. IASC, Framework for durable solutions, op. cit
 49. Adequate indicators based on the right to adequate housing help guide and monitor whether states are taking action to progressively realise housing rights. Given that there are many inherent challenges, states have to demonstrate that they are continually progressing towards those rights and are not taking any regressive steps in contradiction to those rights. See annex II, Indicators on adequate housing, UN Human Rights Council, Report of the special rapporteur on adequate housing, Miloon Kothari, A/HRC/2/18, 5 February 2007.
 50. Lilianne Fan, p.75
 51. When applied to tools, the table reflects the extent to which the tool can address some of these elements. It does not refer to the practice that illustrates the tool.

52. The first 7 essential elements are presented in the UN CESCR, its general comment no. 4 and no. 7 to the right to adequate housing (article 11.1 of the covenant). The expanded list of essential elements 8 to 13 are contained in UN Human Rights Council, Report of the special rapporteur on adequate housing, Miloon Kothari, A/HRC/2/18, 5 February 2007, (see annex III of the report, questionnaire on women and adequate housing)
53. FAR is the ratio of a building's total floor area to the plot area. If FAR is more than one, it indicates a multi-story building
54. In the early 2000s, cash-rich middle and upper-income Iraqi refugees in Syria and Amman were blamed for rapid inflation in the housing market because they were willing to pay in cash and purchased or built homes quickly. Some Jordanian and Syrian citizens also complained of discrimination by estate agents, who favoured the refugees as clients. When the refugees moved on, however, their houses were not deemed appropriate for the local market. See Patricia Weiss Fagen, *Iraqi Refugees: Seeking Stability in Syria and Jordan*, Institute for the Study of International Migration and Centre for International and Regional Studies, Georgetown University, 2007. Also see Rhonda Roumani, *Iraqi Refugees Spur Housing Boom*, *Christian Science Monitor*, 22 July 2005, <http://goo.gl/qSZq4m>
55. The Urban Institute, www.urban.org
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58. Paul Harvey, *Cash-based Responses in Emergencies*, ODI, 2007, p.9
59. Emmet Fitzgerald, *Helping Families, Closing Camps: Using Rental Support Cash Grants and Other Housing Solutions to End Displacement in Camps*, IASC Haiti E-Shelter/CCCM cluster, 2012
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About IDMC



The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) is the leading source of information and analysis on internal displacement. For the millions of people worldwide displaced within their own country, IDMC plays a unique role as a global monitor and evidence-based advocate to influence policy and action by governments, UN agencies, donors, international organisations and NGOs.

IDMC was established in 1998 at the request of the Interagency Standing Committee on humanitarian assistance. Since then, IDMC's unique global function has been recognised and reiterated in annual UN General Assembly resolutions.

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The Displacement Research and Action Network (DRAN) is an initiative of the Program for Human Rights and Justice at the Department of Urban Studies and Planning, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). It is the first-ever global academic network on displacement and land rights. It brings together academics, activists, organizations, and policy makers to build new theory and evidence of the increasing incidence of internal displacement around the world due to development, conflict or climate disaster.

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