Protecting internally displaced communities in Somalia

Experience from the Benadir region

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This working paper documents research carried out on the protection of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in urban communities in Somalia, providing an evidence base for improved humanitarian protection. The study, carried out in Hodan, Wadajir and Dharkenley districts in the Benadir region, uses both quantitative and qualitative approaches to identify urban IDP protection needs and explore the relevance of the proximity of the IDP camps to the urban centre of Mogadishu. By identifying IDP protection and food security needs, the paper highlights existing gaps in the coordination of stakeholders in protection issues, and considers how protection approaches could be integrated into programming. It proposes an institutional framework for the identification, inclusion and support for the social, economic, physical, and rights-based protection of IDPs in Somalia.

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Acronyms

DRC	Danish Refugee Council
FANTA	Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance
FGD	Focus group discussion
FGM	Female genital mutilation
GBV	Gender-based Violence
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
KII	Key informant interview
NGO	Non-government organisation
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance
SDRI	Somali Disaster Resilience Institute
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children Education Fund
WFP	World Food Programme
WV	World Vision

Executive summary

Somalia continues to experience chronic internal displacement as a result of two decades of conflict, violence, human rights violations, and natural disasters. An estimated 1.1 million internally displaced people (IDPs) live in vulnerable conditions, facing a range of risks and hardships which raises serious concerns for their protection. It is important that these vulnerabilities are assessed in order to identify the unique protection needs of IDP communities in Somalia. This working paper documents research carried out on the protection of internally displaced communities in Mogadishu, with the aim of providing an evidence base for improved humanitarian protection in urban areas of Somalia. Although the inflow of humanitarian support to the country remains high, IDPs in urban camps continue to suffer with little or no protection, in particular minority groups. Humanitarian programmes which address challenges faced by IDPs in Somalia are shifting their approach to resilience programming, and it is unclear whether IDP protection is part of that remit.

The paper examines the self-identified protection needs of IDPs in three districts in the Benadir region of Somalia, assessing how the location of IDP camps and their proximity to the urban centre of Mogadishu impact on protection and food security needs. It identifies gaps in the coordination of stakeholders involved in IDP protection responses, and explores how this coordination could be improved. The paper considers specific IDP protection approaches and strategies that could be integrated into programming across resilience dimensions, and the kind of institutional framework that would enable adequate identification, inclusion and support of the social, economic, physical and rights-based protection amongst IDPs.

Both qualitative (focus group discussions and key informant interviews) and quantitative methods (questionnaires) were used in the study. The sampling was guided by statistics from the REACH Initiative Mogadishu IDP Survey (REACH Initiative, 2016). This survey showed that 10,245 households live in 55 IDP camps in Hodan in central Mogadishu, 2,514 households live in 5 IDP camps in Wadajir in peri-urban Mogadishu, and 3,279 households live in 1 IDP camp in Dharkenley, a semi peri-urban district.

The personal safety and protection of urban IDPs were assessed in terms of physical safety, legal protection and documentation, access to justice, child protection and gender-based violence (GBV). Access to food and water was also identified as a challenge for most households, as well as access to health and counselling support services. Findings from the study show that proximity to Mogadishu city centre is an important factor which determines resilience among these urban IDPs.

The existing gaps in IDP protection coordination which were identified include: IDPs not having permanent settlements or a home, which made reaching out to them very difficult; negative perceptions by communities about NGOs' work on protection; and the protection of IDPs not being given sufficient priority, unlike other fields, such as health.

Given the multi-dimensional nature of protection, multi-stakeholder engagement must be assured. The study findings indicate that IDP protection strategies should be integrated into various government sector plans and that community stakeholder engagement should be included in planning processes. It is imperative that protection activists adapt to the challenging conditions in the communities and promote advocacy and protection efforts to strengthen the resilience of IDPs at individual, household, and community levels.

The study proposes a systems-based framework to address protection challenges across the various resilience dimensions, including human capital, health, security, governance and social capital. An integrated institutional framework for the identification, inclusion and support for physical and rights-based protection would offer a galvanised approach to enhancing resilience.

The study recommends improvements to the government of Somalia's existing IDP protection policy, which would help to ensure better identification, inclusion and support for the socioeconomic, physical, and rights-based protection of IDPs. Integrating legal assistance programmes in the current protection and resilience programmes would play a crucial role to support IDPs to access public justice services. Ensuring documentation of IDPs through a central registry and the creation of a special agency for IDPs is also proposed.

In conclusion, a system-based framework to address protection challenges across the various resilience dimensions and inclusive planning by the urban planning department in Mogadishu would render the hitherto vulnerable internally displaced community stronger in the face of adversity regarding its protection needs.

1

Background to the study

As humanitarian programmes which address challenges faced by internally displaced communities in Somalia shift their approach to resilience programming, it is unclear whether the protection of internally displaced persons (IDPs)[1] is part of that programming. More than two decades of conflict, violence, human rights violations and natural disasters have triggered chronic internal displacement in Somalia, leaving an estimated 1.1 million IDPs (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014). These IDPs continue to live in dire social, economic, and physical conditions, facing rights-based vulnerabilities which raise concerns for their protection. It is important that these protection vulnerabilities are assessed in order to identify the unique protection needs of IDP communities in Somalia.

IDPs in urban Somalia continue to suffer with little or no protection, yet the inflow of humanitarian support to the country remains high. Lindley Anna (2013) indicates that, as communities get displaced, their vulnerability to loss of protection increases, in particular for minority groups, due to the disintegration of the clan and family units. The clan and family unit systems are the primary sources of protection in the Somalian context of weak and/or absent state institutions.

This lack of protection for IDPs in urban areas, particularly in Mogadishu, is manifested through a range of outcomes which include: the prevalence of violence and terror such as rape, killings, and explosives in the city targeting civilians; the use of children by militias; discrimination and marginalisation; limited employment opportunities; 'gatekeepers' extorting aid rations or money; and forced labour and evictions (Drumtra, 2014). According to the Somalia Gender-Based Violence Working Group Strategy 2014-2016,[2] GBV is particularly widespread for IDPs as they are at risk of sexual exploitation and violence due to limited security in the IDP settlements, changes in culture, limited clan protection, and the need to undertake risky livelihood practices to survive (Global Protection Cluster (GPC), 2014). The strategy also specifies that among the IDPs, women and girls are at higher risk, in particular those from minority clans and female-headed households, as well as female elderly persons (Ibid.). GBV data from Benadir and other regions in Somalia indicate that the majority of cases reported are rape (41 per cent), followed by physical assault (39 per cent), sexual assault (11 per cent), denial of resources (4 per cent), psychological abuse (3 per cent), and forced marriage (2 per cent) (Ibid.).

[1] Internally displaced people are people or groups of people who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalised violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised state border (UNHCR, n.d.).
[2] http://gbvaor.net/resources/somalia-gender-based-violence-working-group-2014-2016-strategy/

According to the World Banks' Global Programme on Forced Displacement Report 2014 (Bryld *et al.*, 2014; Chesnutt *et al.*, 2015), Mogadishu is the single largest IDP hosting location, with the IDP population concentrated in three districts: Hodan, Dharkenley and Wadajir, which are believed to host 55 per cent of the IDP population in the city. The federal government in Mogadishu offers little protection support for IDPs, due to the country's limited control to provide protection to IDPs (Ibid.). However, the government has led policy changes and, with the support of UNHCR and the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons, developed a policy framework on internal displacement that provides the basis necessary for a systematic and coordinated protection approach to IDPs (UN, 2014).

Further, Bryld *et al.* (2014), in their analysis of the displacement in Somalia, indicate that newly arrived IDPs are more vulnerable than long-term IDPs and do not have protection either from their clans or other networks to cope successfully in IDP camps in urban settings. In particular, female-headed IDP households face higher levels of vulnerability and lack of protection, especially those belonging to minority clans from south central Somalia, including Mogadishu. IDPs in Mogadishu are subject to a wide array of human rights abuses, security incidences, arrests in IDPs sites, threats by gatekeepers, forced labour, and forced eviction.

Literature consulted highlights the fact that GBV is among the most prominent protection risks faced mainly by IDP girls and women due to limited protection, absence of male relatives, and, more importantly, the overall lack of government protection and secure conditions in IDP camps (Somalia Protection Cluster, 25 May 2012). GBV comes in different shapes and forms and includes sexual violence, such as rape, and domestic violence, which comprises the majority of reported cases by female IDPs of sexual violence in Somalia (Bryld *et al.*, 2014).

In Somalia, the impacts of GBV are a strong cultural stigma and the rejection of victims by their families and communities (Tanis *et al.*, 2005). This has consequently led many of the survivors of GBV to be hesitant to report to the authorities or seek legal aid and medical services due to fear of stigmatisation or rejection. With limited government or formal protection and compensation system in place, a minority of women who speak out and seek justice are inclined to use the traditional system, primarily led by male clan members. Quite often, the solutions can be complicated, often with the victim's family negotiating the bridewealth down in order to secure marriage (with the perpetrator) to minimise social stigma (Ibid.). The social stigma does not end there, but transcends to affect and reduce the survivors' household income or resilience, as the survivor often has fewer productive resources, lower productivity, and, more importantly, intangible costs linked to trauma and fear (Ibid.). GBV therefore has negative economic impacts on women's livelihoods and affects their overall well-being and sense of security.

Resilience building studies and programmes provide a ray of hope for the increased protection of IDPs in Somalia. The State of African Resilience Report (2015) identified nine resilience dimensions for IDP communities in Somalia: (i) wealth; (ii) social capital; (iii) psychosocial health; (iv) infrastructure; (v) environment and natural resources; (vi) health; (vii) human capital; (viii) security, protection and advocacy; and (ix) governance (Cooke, 2015). These nine resilience dimensions are potential protection intervention areas for the IDP communities in Somalia.

However, there is a need to investigate how protection approaches may be integrated into resilience building interventions across some of the above resilience dimensions. At the same time, it is imperative to put in place institutional frameworks or systems to enable adequate identification, inclusion and support across social, economic, physical and rights-based protection amongst IDPs, while documenting evidence to improve IDP policy implementation in Somalia.

This study aimed to address these research gaps in Somalia, and answer the following questions:

i. What are the self-identified protection needs of urban IDP communities in Somalia?

ii. What are the impacts of the location of the camps and their proximity to urban centres on IDP protection and food security needs?

iii. What gaps exist in the coordination of stakeholders involved in IDP protection responses and how can this coordination be improved?

iv. What specific IDP protection approaches and strategies might be integrated into programming in Somalia?

v. What institutional framework or system would enable adequate identification, inclusion and support across social, economic, physical, and rights-based protection amongst IDPs?

2 Methodology

2.1 Study design

The study was carried out in three districts in Mogadishu: Hodan district in central Mogadishu; Wadajir, a peri-urban district; and Dharkenley, a semi peri-urban district, due to its location on the outskirts of the city. The study used a mixed methodology – both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative methods were used to assess personal safety and food security of the urban IDPs, taking into consideration their proximity to the central part of the city. Structured questionnaires were employed to elicit responses from the target respondents in each of the districts.

A questionnaire approach was chosen due to its efficiency in terms of collecting appropriate responses, its timeliness, and its provision to test for reliability and validity. The structure of the survey questionnaire enabled the data collectors to capture responses based on items/questions generated under each construct. The tool was translated into the local language for ease in data collection.

The study used qualitative methods through focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews (KIIs). As shown in Table 1, a total of six FGDs were carried out, two in each district, composed of ten participants, 50 per cent of whom were female. Participants in each FGD were purposively selected to ensure representation of all levels of community members, namely: gender; influence in the community; and length of stay in the camps. In addition, FGD participants included representatives from government authorities, NGO workers/practitioners, and IDPs/communities. It is a significant observation that even with deliberate strategies to secure their participation, the participation of IDPs in the FGDs was weak. Discussions were dominated by government and NGO staff. This could be partially attributed to the potential difficulty of free expression, given that the issues before them were sensitive, or may also indicate a technical shortcoming of FGDs as a method of data collection, as indicated by Smithson (2000). Additionally, 18 KIIs were carried out with political leaders, local government authorities, members of the civil society, NGOs, and IDP gatekeepers.

Table 1: Focus group discussions and composition per district

DISTRICT	NO. OF FGDS	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Hodan	2	10	10	20
Wadajir	2	10	10	20
Dharkenley	2	10	10	20
Total	6	30	30	60

Source: Primary data.

2.2 Sampling and sample selection strategy

For the quantitative part of the study, sampling was guided by statistics from the REACH Initiative Mogadishu IDP Survey (2016). This survey shows that 10,245 households live in 55 IDP camps in Hodan; 2514 households in 5 IDP camps live in Wadajir; and 3279 households live in IDP camps in Dharkenley. The sample size of 850 households was targeted based on this population data (REACH Initiative, 2016). However, some participants were reluctant to participate due to fear of sensitivities related to protection and GBV. In total, 816 urban IDP households from the three districts participated in the study. The majority of the households (75 per cent, n=614) were from Hodan, 16 per cent (n=128) were from Wadajir, and 9 per cent (n=74) were from Dharkenley.

A two-stage cluster sample selection strategy was used in the study. The camps formed the sampling clusters whereby they were randomly selected in the first stage; this was followed by the random selection of households within the selected clusters. The number of households sampled from each selected cluster was allocated in proportion to the cluster size. Specific households to be interviewed were selected using the random walk method (Academy for Educational Development, 2009). This method was found to be appropriate for the survey because of its cost effectiveness – it is otherwise time-consuming to draw up a random list of households, and this was also not effective given the security challenges in Mogadishu. The selection method is described below.

First, when the data collection team arrived in the camp, they identified the approximate centre of the camp. Teams would spin a pen at the centre of the village, and walk along an imaginary line indicated by the pen to the edge of the village, counting the number of households (N) encountered along the way. This number was then divided by the preselected sample size (n) to determine the sampling interval (k) at which households were selected on the transect line.

Second, a random number between 1 to k (x, for example) was selected, and the household corresponding to this number x was selected as the first household sample. On the transect line, the second household would be x+k, and the third household would be x+2k. The process went on until the required sample size in the camp was reached. If a household was encountered without an appropriate respondent, it was skipped and the teams selected the next household. Empty households were revisited the same day, and with the help of neighbours or elders, absentees were located or identified. When the transect line contained less than the number of households required, all households in the line were included in the sample and the data collection team returned to the centre of the cluster to pick a second random walking direction and then repeated the process.

All selected households were required to fill out a consent form which outlined the objectives of the study and a commitment that they had agreed to participate in the study voluntarily, with an assurance of confidentiality from the project staff. Participation in the study was entirely voluntary as respondents were at liberty to withdraw their participation at any stage.

2.3 Data management and analysis

The data were entered and analysed using SPSS statistical software. Data validation was carried out by assessing the consistency of the responses on related questions and completeness of the responses, whereby those respondents who didn't respond to most of the questions or their responses were found to be inconsistent were excluded from the analysis. From the sample size of 850 households, 816 households (96 per cent) met the set data cleaning and validation criteria and were included in the analysis.

Data analysis was primarily descriptive based on means and frequencies of key variables of interest, mainly the location of the camps, the location of origin, and the gender of the respondents. Calculation of the frequencies was restricted to households responding to the particular questions within the topic of interest, for example, the sections on gender violence was restricted to the female respondents, as specified in the study design.

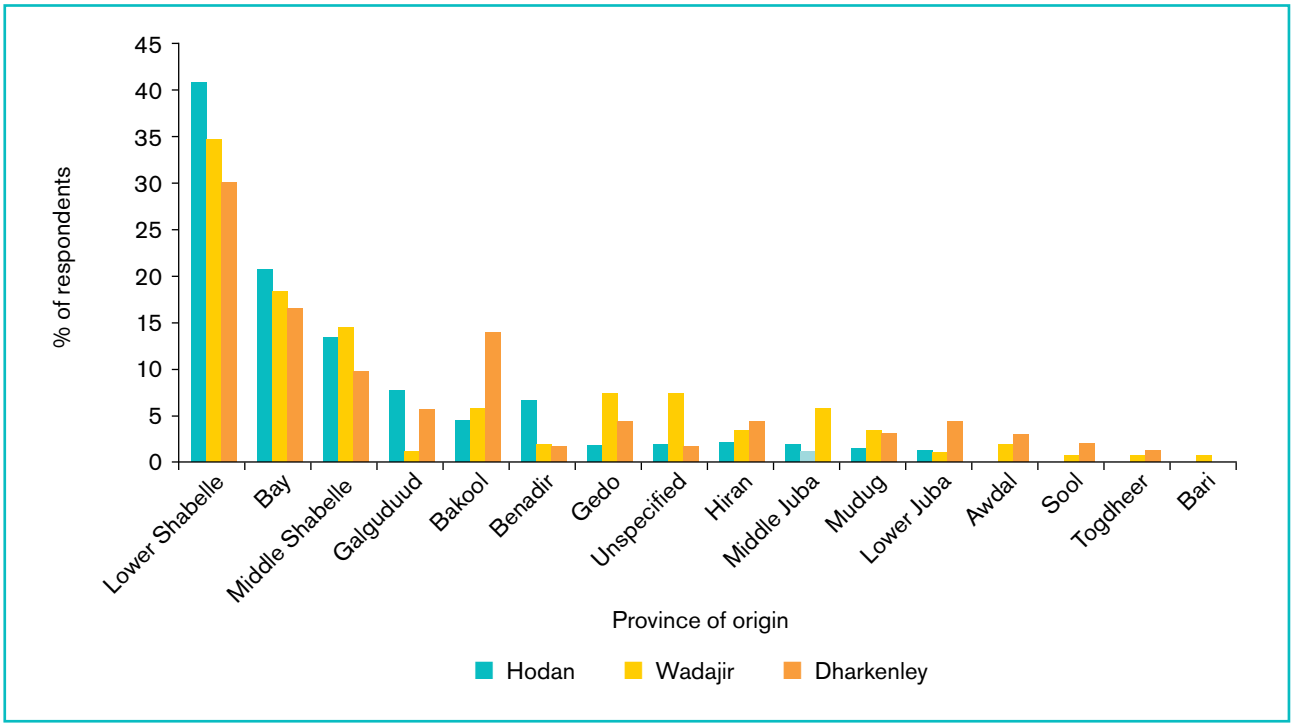
3 Study findings

3.1 Profiles of IDPs

From the random sample of 816 respondents, 39 per cent (n=314) of the urban IDPs originally came from Shabele Hoose region (Lower Shabelle), a rural neighbouring region that lies west, northwest, and southwest of Mogadishu, 20 per cent (n=160) came from Bay region (over 200 km from Mogadishu) and 13 per cent (n=105) from Shabelle Dhexe region (Middle Shabelle), a rural neighbouring region that lies northeast of Mogadishu. The remaining 29 per cent (n=237) comprised households from 12 other regions of Somalia (see Figure 1). The figure shows that there is no clear pattern to associate the IDPs' areas of settlement in the urban areas with their home province of origin.

Overall, the main causes of displacement were conflict and violence (46 per cent, n=375) and natural disasters (43 per cent, n=351).

Figure 1: Province of origin of IDPs



3.2 Displacement timeline by cause

A breakdown by years of displacement showed that natural disasters were the main cause of displacement between 2010 and 2015, whereas conflict and violence were the main causes of displacement before 2010 and after 2015 (see Table 2).

Table 2: Period of displacement by cause of displacement

DISPLACEMENT PERIOD	CONFLICT AND VIOLENCE %	NATURAL DISASTER %	BOTH CONFLICT AND NATURAL DISASTER %	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS
At the fall of the Siad Bare (1991) government	78.9	21.1		19
Between 2001 and 2010	53.8	36.3	10.0	80
Between 2010 and 2015	39.5	46.4	14.2	522
After 2015	54.9	37.4	7.7	195
Total	45.5	42.6	11.9	816

Source: Primary data.

3.3 Cause or reason for displacement

Most respondents listed more than one reason for displacement, although the majority mentioned armed confrontation/hostilities (78 per cent, n=634), no access to water (61.4 per cent, n=501) and food (60.8 per cent, n=496), and drought (47 per cent, n=383) as reasons for displacement. Security therefore continues to be a major driver of displacement in the targeted study areas. See Table 3.

Table 3: Reasons for displacement by location

	HODAN		WADAJIR		DHARKENLEY		OVERALL	
REASON	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
Armed confrontation/hostilities	79.0	485	72.7	93	75.7	56	77.7	634
Human rights violations	15.6	96	17.2	22	20.3	15	16.3	133
Fear from the effects of armed conflict	23.6	145	12.5	16	25.7	19	22.1	180
Persecution/violent retaliation	6.4	39	7.8	10	1.4	1	6.1	50
Confiscation of land	1.6	10	0.0	0	0.0	0	1.2	10
Death or injury of family member	9.1	56	5.5	7	5.4	4	8.2	67
Extortion from armed actors	1.6	10	0.0	0	0.0	0	1.2	10
Blood feud	0.2	1	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.1	1
Cessation of traditional circuit/ movements (nomads)	0.5	3	0.0	0	1.4	1	0.5	4
Presence of mines, IEDs or other UXOs	1.5	9	0.8	1	1.4	1	1.3	11
Drought	46.9	288	46.1	59	48.6	36	46.9	383
Flooding	0.8	5	2.3	3	2.7	2	1.2	10
Harsh winter	2.4	15	3.1	4	2.7	2	2.6	21
Soil erosion	3.9	24	14.8	19	6.8	5	5.9	48
Landslides	0.2	1	1.6	2	0.0	0	0.4	3
Earthquake	0.3	2	0.0	0	1.4	1	0.4	3
Lack of land/ housing	0.5	3	3.1	4	2.7	2	1.1	9
No access to arable/ pasture lands	1.8	11	1.6	2	1.4	1	1.7	14
No access to water	60.6	372	61.7	79	67.6	50	61.4	501
No access to food	61.6	378	63.3	81	50.0	37	60.8	496
No access to health services	44.3	272	55.5	71	41.9	31	45.8	374
No access to education	29.3	180	26.6	34	32.4	24	29.2	238
No employment opportunities	17.4	107	25.0	32	20.3	15	18.9	154
Other	0.4	2	1.6	2	1.4	1	0.6	5
		614		128		74		816

Source: Primary data.

3.4 Age distribution of respondents by gender

Out of the 816 urban IDPs who participated in the study, 59 per cent (n=481) were female and 41 per cent (n=335) were male. Age distribution across gender showed that most of the men were of middle age, while those below 36 years were mainly women. It is also worth noting that the elderly (> 65 years) had a higher representation of women than men. See Figure 2.

3.5 Education levels of respondents

Education levels were generally low among the respondents, with slightly over 7 per cent of the 816 respondents having primary, secondary or post-secondary education. Seventeen per cent (n=139) said they knew how to write and read and over 76 per cent (n=620) were illiterate. See Figure 3.

Figure 2: Gender distribution by age categories

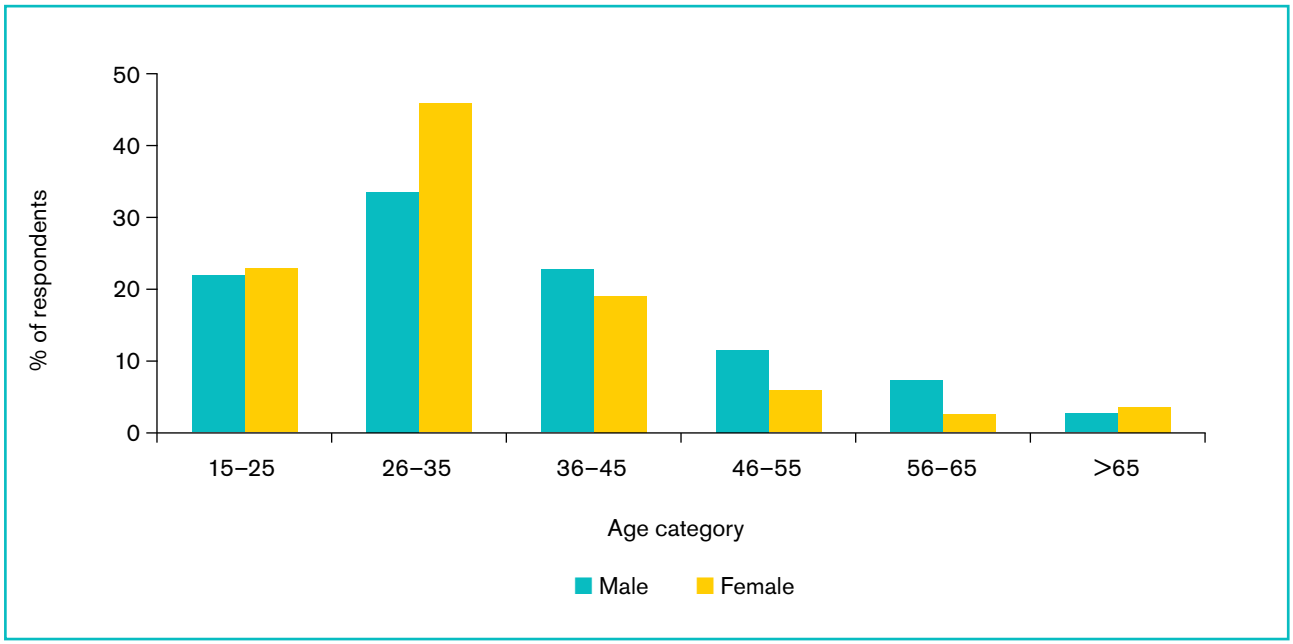
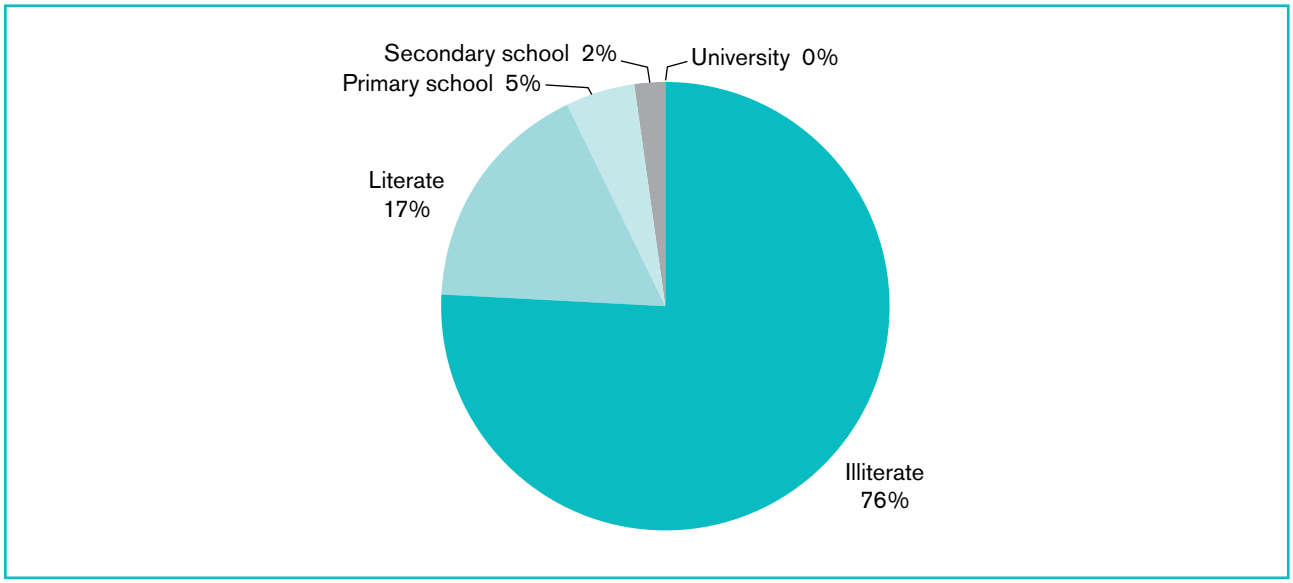


Figure 3: Education level of the urban IDPs



3.6 Employment status of respondents

In overall, unemployment was high (>84 per cent, n=685) across all districts, as shown in Table 4. Analysis within the districts showed that farming and livestock are the main activities for IDPs from Dharkenley 18 per cent (n=13) and Hodan (6 per cent, n=34). The main income activity for Wadajir IDPs is salaried employment (6 per cent, n=8).

3.7 Marital status of respondents

Overall, the majority of the respondents (72 per cent, n=588) were married, followed by divorced (10 per cent, n=85) and widows/widowers (9 per cent, n=71). A breakdown by location showed the same pattern, where 75 per cent (n=463) from Hodan, 63 per cent (n=80) from Wadajir, and 61 per cent (n=45) from Dharkenley were married (see Table 5).

Table 4: Urban IDPs' current source of income (occupation)

	DISTRICT			
	HODAN %	WADAJIR %	DHARKENLEY %	OVERALL %
Farming/Livestock keeping	5.5	2.3	17.6	6.1
Labourer/casual	3.3	1.6	5.4	3.2
Business	3.4	3.9	2.7	3.4
Salaried job	2.6	6.3	4.1	3.3
Unemployed	85.2	85.9	70.3	83.9
Number of respondents	614	128	74	816

Source: Primary data.

Table 5: Marital status of the respondents

MARITAL STATUS (% OF RESPONDENTS ANSWERING "YES")	HODAN (%)	WADAJIR (%)	DHARKENLEY (%)	OVERALL (%)
Single	4.2	7.8	9.5	5.3
Engaged	2.8	7.0	4.1	3.6
Married	75.4	62.5	60.8	72.1
Divorced	9.3	13.3	14.9	10.4
Widow/widower	8.3	9.4	10.8	8.7
Number of respondents	614	128	74	816

Source: Primary data.

4

Assessment of urban IDP personal safety and protection

The status of urban IDP personal safety and protection was assessed in terms of physical safety, legal protection and documentation, access to justice, child protection and GBV. Assessment of these personal safety and protection indicators provided the link between the social problems faced by urban IDPs and the legal challenges they encountered.

4.1 Physical safety

Despite the low proportion of urban IDPs who felt that they were protected by the police (0.4 per cent, n=33), 85 per cent of the IDPs felt that the camps where they currently lived were secure, implying that they have developed their own way of protecting themselves within the camps, which is a sign of resilience. Analysis within the districts showed that 13 per cent (n=17) from Wadajir and 7 per cent (n=5) from Dharkenley felt threatened by outsiders (see Table 6).

Table 6: Assessment of physical safety by location

PHYSICAL SECURITY INDICATOR (% OF RESPONDENTS ANSWERING "YES")	HODAN (%)	WADAJIR (%)	DHARKENLEY (%)	OVERALL (%)
Do you feel threatened by outsiders infiltrating the community you live in?	3.3	13.3	6.8	5.1
Do you feel your current location is secure	86.0	77.3	89.2	84.9
Do the police protect you within the camp	0.2	1.6		0.4
Are you satisfied with the source of protection?	1.6	3.1	1.4	1.8
Number of respondents	614	128	74	816

Source: Primary data.

4.2 Legal protection and documentation

Out of the 816 IDPs, 95.3 per cent lacked any form of identity documents. The main forms of identification are the national passport and camp identification cards, and these were owned by 2 per cent (n=16) and 3 per cent (n=24) of the respondents respectively. Across the districts, Dharkenley had more respondents (3 per cent, n=2) who owned national passports compared with Hodan and Wadajir, who reported that only 1 per cent (n=6) for Hodan and 1 per cent (n=1) within Wadajir had passports. On the other hand, Wadajir had more respondents with camp identification cards (6 per cent, n=8), followed by Hodan (2 per cent, n=15), and Dharkenley with 1 per cent (n=1).

4.3 Protection by the police

The level of suspicion amongst the IDPs was so high that 97.3 per cent (n=793) refused to answer the question on whether they felt protected by the police within the camps/informal settlements. Fewer than 1 per cent (0.4 per cent, n=3) of the respondents said that they had sought protection from the police. Among the 816 respondents, 1.6 per cent (n=13) said the police did not protect them, while 0.7 per cent (n=6) admitted being scared of the police. Only 40 out of the 816 respondents were willing to give reasons for not seeking protection from government sources and the main reason was they felt threatened by the government, followed by the perception that the protection is unreliable (see Figure 4).

4.4 Access to justice

Of those interviewed, 75 per cent said that there was no reliable justice system, a pattern that was similar across the districts. In Dharkenley, 16 per cent (n=12) of the respondents said there existed a reliable justice system; this figure was 25 per cent (n=154) in Hodan and 29 per cent (n=37) in Wadajir. As shown in Table 7, 25 per cent (n=205) reported that they had used the existing justice systems within the camps, with 55 per cent (n=113) having used the community leaders, followed by the local leaders at 24 per cent (n=49).

Figure 4: Reasons for not seeking protection from government (n=40)

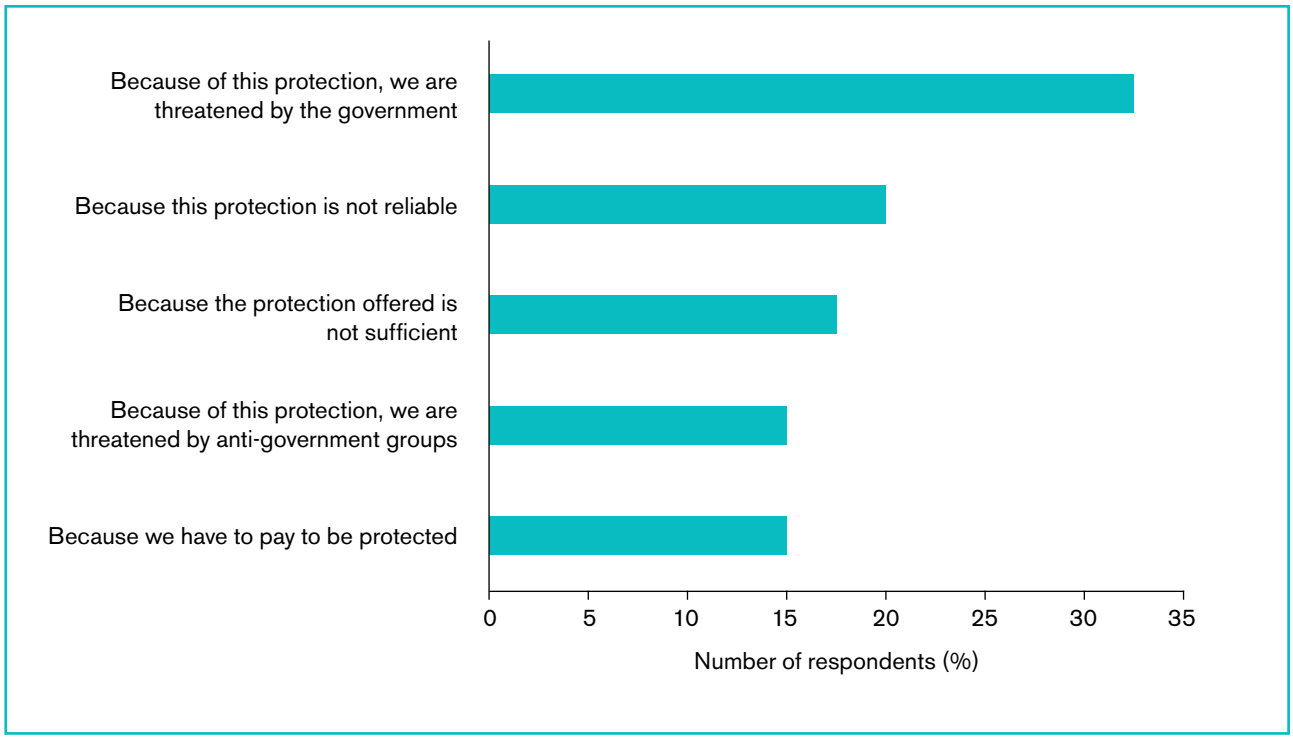


Table 7: Number of respondents (%) who have used existing justice systems

JUSTICE SYSTEM USED	HODAN (%)	WADAJIR (%)	DHARKENLEY (%)	OVERALL (%)
Community leaders	53.2	56.8	75.0	55.1
Local leader	27.6	16.2		23.9
Religious leader/Sheikhs	6.4		8.3	5.4
Male Shura (consultation)	1.3			1.0
Female Shura (consultation)	1.3			1.0
Other	1.9	2.7		2.0
I never had to use it	8.3	24.3	16.7	11.7
Number of respondents	156	37	12	205

Source: Primary data.

Although none of the respondents reported having used the formal justice institutions, 55 per cent (n=449)) of them preferred the formal justice institutions over the informal systems, followed by 33 per cent (n=269) who preferred the informal justice institutions. Slightly over 6 per cent (n=52) of the respondents either didn't have a preference or preferred other systems which they didn't state.

4.5 Child protection

Child labour, school attendance and exposure to risks while outside the home were used to assess child protection. The majority (93 per cent, n=758) of the respondents had children under 18 years old. Only 5 per cent (n=34) households reported that a child from their household has had to work since they arrived at their new sites. In Hodan, 4 per cent (n=21) reported that a child from their household had to work, with 8 per cent (n=10) in Wadajir and 5 per cent (n=3) in Dharkenley. In Hodan, 24 per cent (n=5) of the children who worked took part in agricultural activities and keeping livestock, while 20 per cent (n=2) took part in the same activity in Wadajir. In Dharkenley, 67 per cent (n=2) were shopkeepers. Overall shopkeeping and agricultural/livestock were the main activities in which the majority of the children (21 per cent, n=7) were involved. See Table 8.

Movement of girls is generally controlled, especially within the city, with 56 per cent (n=455) of households with female children. Of these, 34 per cent (n=156) allowed their female children to leave the household with limited restrictions, 23 per cent allowed movement only if accompanied by an adult person, and 43 per cent (N=455) said they never allowed their female children to leave the household.

4.6 Gender-based violence

Eighteen per cent (n=126) of women respondents (N=704) said they had suffered from some form of physical violence. Dharkenley reported the highest percentage (36 per cent, n=21), and Hodan and Wadajir reported 16 per cent (n=87) and 17 per cent (n=18) respectively (see Figure 5).

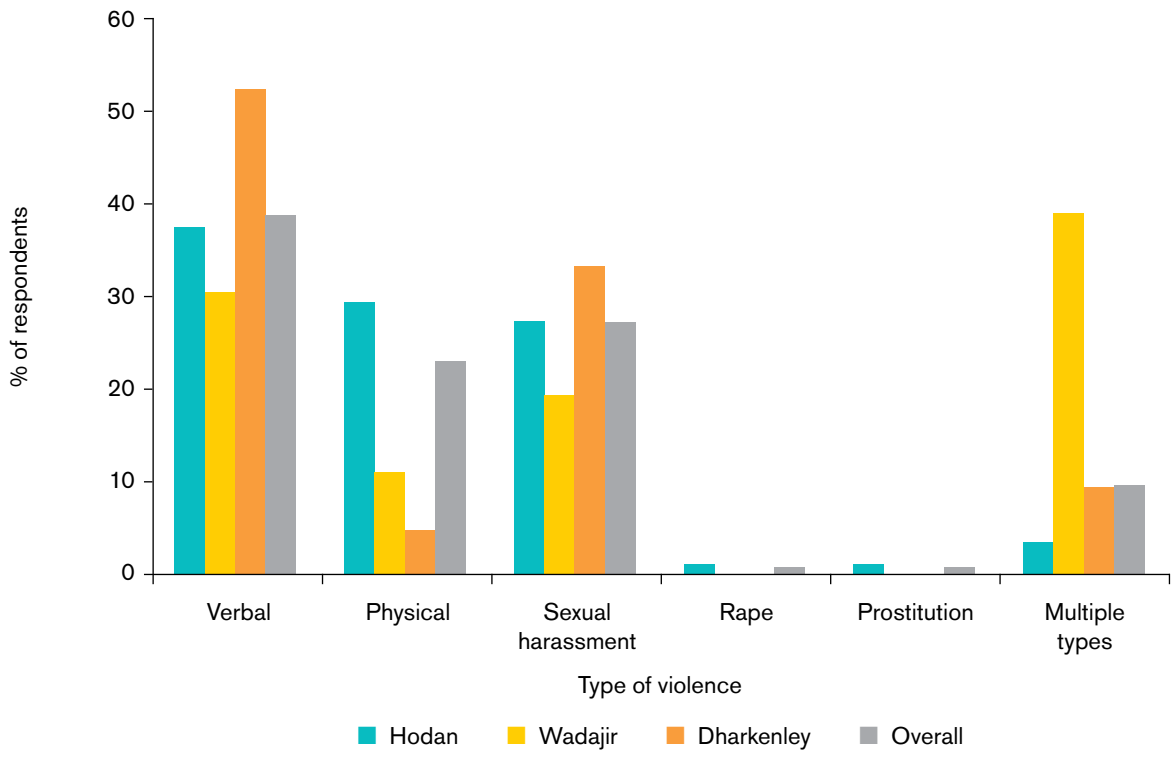
Early marriage was not prevalent in the communities, with 16 per cent (n=93) of respondents from Hodan reporting that they have seen at least one girl being married off under the age of 16; this figure was 12 per cent (n=12) in Wadajir and 29 per cent (n=19) in Dharkenley. Overall, early marriages were reported by 17 per cent (n=125) of the women respondents.

Table 8: Proportion of households reporting child protection indicators

	DISTRICT			
	HODAN	WADAJIR	DHARKENLEY	OVERALL
Children attend school	44.3%	58.3%	56.7%	47.6%
Child works for pay	3.7%	8.3%	4.5%	4.5%
Children exposed to risks	5.3%	18.3%	7.5%	7.5%
Total number of households	571	120	67	758

Source: Primary data.

Figure 5: Female respondents suffering physical violence (n=126)



5

Assessment of urban IDP material safety and health

5.1 Food security

Access to food was a challenge for most households, with only 13 per cent having access to food throughout the year. The problem is worse for the camps near the city centre, with Hodan reporting the lowest proportion of households (11 per cent) having access to food, compared to Dharkenley which reported 19 per cent. The frequency that households went without food ranged between once a week to several times in a month (Table 9).

Water sources varied according to proximity to the centre (Table 10). In Hodan, 77 per cent of the population depended on the public well as their main source of water, 11 per cent had a well inside their compound, while 8 per cent used public hand pumps. In Wadajir, 71 per cent depended on the public well for water, 10 per cent depended on spring water, while 9 per cent had a hand pump inside their compound. In Dharkenley, 54 per cent used the public well, 22 per cent used the public hand pump, and 16 per cent had a well inside their compounds.

Table 9: Frequency that households went without food by location

	DISTRICT			
	HODAN	WADAJIR	DHARKENLEY	OVERALL
Never	11.40	14.80	18.90	12.60
Rarely (1–2 times a week)	26.40	25.80	6.80	24.50
Sometimes (3–6 times a week)	31.60	40.60	44.60	34.20
Often (a few times a month)	8.00	3.90	14.90	8.00
Mostly (this happens a lot)	22.60	14.80	14.90	20.70
Number of respondents	614	128	74	816

Source: Primary data.

Table 10: Main water sources by location

	HODAN (%)	WADAJIR (%)	DHARKENLEY (%)	OVERALL (%)
No regular source	1.3	0.8	0.0	1.1
Public well	76.7	71.1	54.1	73.8
Well inside compound	10.6	2.3	16.2	9.8
Public hand pump	7.5	6.3	21.6	8.6
Hand pump inside compound	2.1	9.4	2.7	3.3
Spring water	1.80	10.2	5.4	3.4
Number of respondents	614	128	74	816

Source: Primary data.

Access to safe drinking water was reported by 55.9 per cent either through boiling (22 per cent, n=181), free potable water (11 per cent, n=92) or buying potable water (22 per cent, n=183). In Hodan, 24 per cent (n=147) boiled their drinking water, 20 per cent (n=124) had to buy potable water, 12 per cent (n=123) accessed free potable water while 43.9 per cent (n=270) did not have a main source of safe drinking water.

In Wadajir, 33 per cent (n=42) bought potable water, 22 per cent (n=28) boiled their drinking water, 14 per cent (n=18) got free potable water and 31 per cent (n=40) didn't specify their access to clean sources. In Dharkenley, 23 per cent (n=17) bought potable water, 8 per cent (n=6) boiled drinking water, 1.4 per cent (n=1) accessed free potable water, and the remaining 68 per cent (n=50) didn't specify how they received clean drinking water.

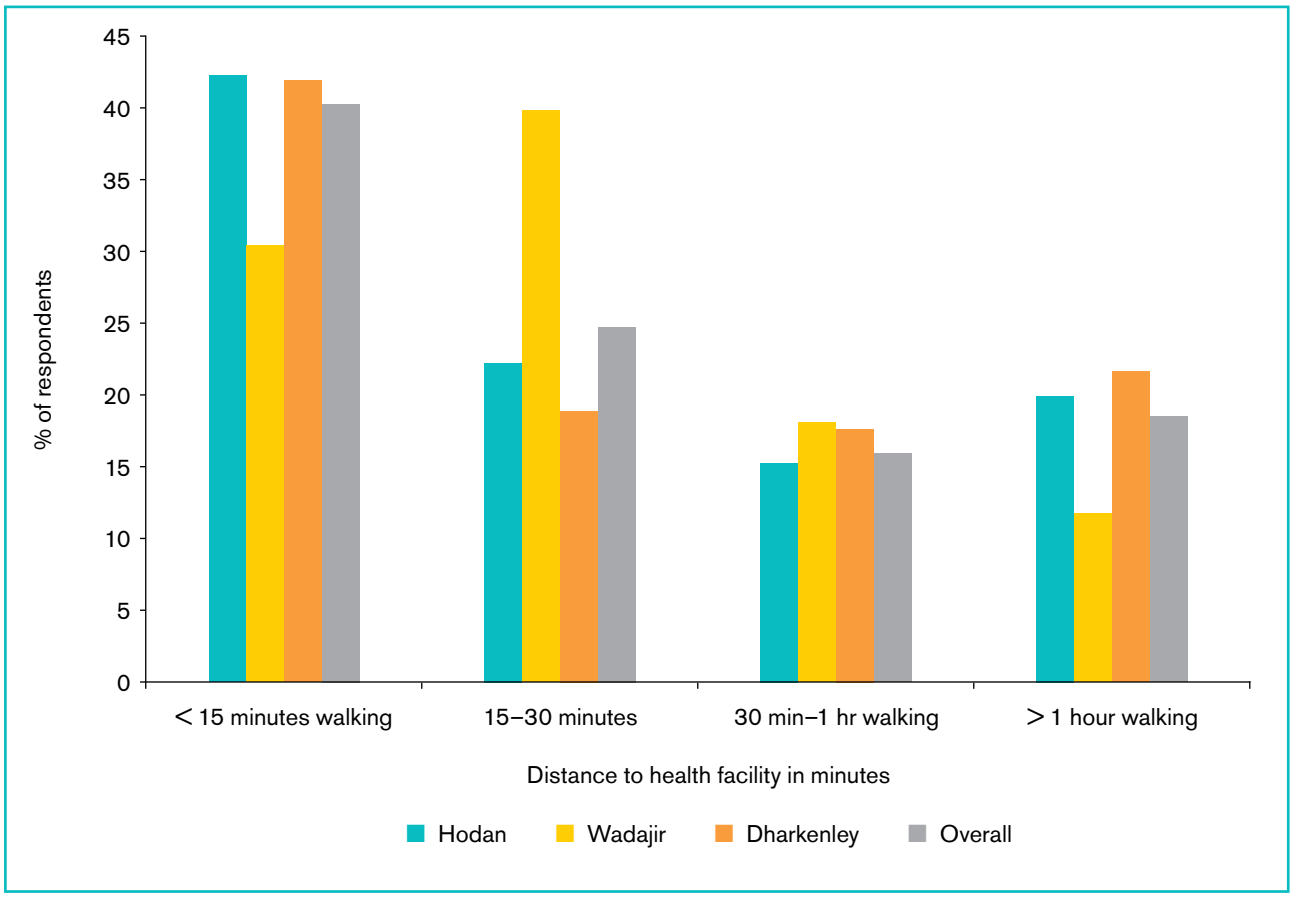
Poor water harvesting practices mean that the locals waste an opportunity to harvest clean water every time it rains for use during times of droughts. In some districts, contamination of water sources was reported as a result of flooding which leads to a further decrease in already limited water resources in several parts of the country.

Urban IDPs are often forced to flee to the neighbouring districts, where they can access some water, but their surge in numbers adds pressure on available water resources, increasing the cost of access in the long run. This was corroborated by WFP (27 October 2014) and IRIN (4 December 2013). In addition, IDPs often have insufficient water storage and collection facilities, forcing women and children to walk long distances and queue for hours. In some cases, those who own the land on which IDP settlements are sited oppose the construction of permanent water and sanitation facilities in order not to encourage long-term settlement.

5.2 Access to health

Access to health services was assessed based on the average walking time to the nearest health facility. Most of the households (40 per cent, n=330) were within 15 minutes walking distance to the health facility except in Wadajir where the majority (40 per cent, n=51) walked between 15 and 30 minutes to access a health facility. However, Dharkenley has the highest proportion (22 per cent, n=16) among households who walk for more than one hour to the health facility.

Figure 6: Walking time to health facility



5.3 Access to psychosocial or counselling support services

Eighty four percent (n=696) of the IDPs said they didn't need psychosocial or counselling services. Out of the 15 per cent (n=120) who felt they needed these services, 37 per cent (n=44) had received psychosocial or counselling support from a professional counsellor or a psychosocial provider, including community or social workers, since they arrived in their current IDP camp. Only 18 respondents listed the type of psychological support they thought they needed, out which 61 per cent (n=11) mentioned depression, 6 per cent (n=1), mentioned education, while stress and employment was 17 per cent (n=3).

Among respondents who appreciated the need for psychosocial services (N=120), 63 per cent (n=76) of the respondents said they needed it themselves, 11 per cent said adult male members of the community needed psychological support, and 13 per cent (n=15) said adult male children needed the support (see Table 11).

As shown in Table 12 below, four stakeholders are engaged in different intervention strategies aimed at enhancing IDP protection, mainly medical service and product delivery, food ration distributions, health education services, and health products including sugar, flour and oil. For instance, ICRC was reported to be engaged in both food and health, while other organisations specialised in one sector. It is worth noting that there are limited organisations reported by the respondents as being involved in direct protection issues and services.

Table 11: Household members who require psychological support services

HOUSEHOLD MEMBER WHO NEED PSYCHOSOCIAL SERVICES	COUNT	%
Yes, for myself	76	63.3
Yes, for male adults	13	10.8
Yes, for female adults	6	5.0
Yes, for male children	15	12.5
Yes, for female children	10	8.3
Total	120	100.0

Source: Primary data.

Table 12: Protection stakeholder and areas of specialisation

STAKEHOLDER	EDUCATION	FOOD	HEALTH	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS BENEFITING	SATISFACTION LEVEL (MOSTLY)
Benadir Hospital			100	10	Medium
ICRC		39	61	26	Medium
MSF			100	2	Medium
SOS			100	42	Medium

Source: Primary data.

6

Long-term solutions to the IDP situation

Returning home to the place of origin is the most preferred future plan for 47 per cent (n=382) of IDPs, followed by the desire to get assimilated permanently into the host community (see Table 13).

Overall, 47 per cent (n=382) of the 816 respondents wanted to return to their original homes, while 38 per cent (n=312) wanted to permanently settle in the Mogadishu area with their families. Interestingly, 8 per cent (n=68) of the respondents wanted to return alone to their place of origin, leaving the other household members in the city. The remaining 7 per cent (n=54) wanted to migrate either abroad or to another location within Somalia.

Table 13: Long-term preference by district

	HODAN		WADAJIR		DHARKENLEY		TOTAL	
LONG TERM PLAN	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Don't know	2.8	17	9.4	12	2.7	2	3.8	31
I would like to return alone to my place of origin	8.8	54	7.8	10	5.4	4	8.3	68
I would like to return with my family to my place of origin	47.9	294	39.8	51	50.0	37	46.8	382
I would like to settle here permanently with my family	38.8	238	36.7	47	36.5	27	38.2	312
I would like to migrate alone abroad	0.8	5					0.6	5
I would like to migrate abroad with my family	0.7	4	1.6	2	4.1	3	1.1	9
I would like to migrate on my own to another location in Somali			1.6	2			0.2	2
I would like to migrate with my family to another location in Somalia	0.3	2	3.1	4	1.4	1	0.9	7
Number of respondents	614		128		74		816	

Source: Primary data.

7

Gaps in the coordination of stakeholders involved in IDP protection responses

IDPs do not have a permanent settlements or home, which makes reaching out to them very difficult. A key informant interviewee from a humanitarian agency revealed**:**

> *"… there is the challenge of eviction facing IDP camps where people are always on the run from the local authorities and the owners of the land they are occupying. So, NGOs are worried that their interventions will not be sustainable since the IDP can be evicted anytime. For instance, WASH facilities are destroyed which is huge amount of investment. The IDP don't settle permanently which is confusing for the NGOs to plan properly. There is no land allocated for IDPs*" (KII, 2017).

Security continues to be a glaring risk to the key actors in the protection sector. Access to some locations is such a daunting task, yet they also have to deal with the perceptions of certain communities who view their efforts as an extension of western values against indigenous values. Therefore, the actors have to balance ensuring community buy-in for the protection rights against being perceived negatively as perpetrators of neo-colonialism and its values and as anti-protection campaigners indoctrinating the minds of the community. As emerged from one of the FGDs:

> *"…work with IDPs. The biggest worry going to the field is the insecurity"* (FGD participant, 2017).

Perceptions about NGO work in communities. The communities have been enduring crisis situations for long periods of time and often people want activities with tangible results other than advocacy and awareness campaigns. However, the best way to impact communities in terms of protection is through advocacy and awareness initiatives which unfortunately

the communities have labelled: `talking programmes' not `real' interventions that would involve the delivery of physical products. One FGD revealed:

> *"…Also, people have high expectation for getting tangible humanitarian assistance such as food, water and shelter"* (FGD, 2017).

In another FGD, it emerged that protection efforts are poorly perceived:

> "*There is limited interest and welcoming for the protection and, for instance, GBV-related interventions. Also, communities have the perception that the protection cases and issues are a source of revenue for the NGOs to make money. So communities are not open to collaborate with the NGOs*" (FGD, 2017).

One key informant interviewee working with a local NGO indicated that:

> "*Also, the local authorities always have the perception that the NGOs are reporting wrong information about them, even though the information is real. For instance, the soldiers or local authorities and freelance militias arrest NGOs staff and do not allow the protection issues and data to be freely collected and documented*" (KII, 2017).

There is limited positive awareness about protection issues. Some of the cultural practices such as FGM, which protection initiatives seek to guard against, are widely acknowledged – these traditional and cultural practices transcend time and are entrenched in community practices. It is not surprising that protection activists face strong resistance.

> *"…there is limited awareness in relation to the protection issues which are seen as something different from the local culture who view the NGOs' business as foreign and western culture"* (FGD, 2017).

Protection has not attracted funding unlike other fields, such as public health. Activists link this to several reasons but the prioritisation of need places protection issues after food aid, security and safety, and infrastructural challenges, given that the country is emerging from a crisis. A KII district official said:

> *"Most of the donors don't fund protection in addressing urban crisis and there is limited funding available. There is limited funding to support protection issues"* (KII, 2017).

An NGO worker mentioned:

> "*Also, the government is not seeing protection as a major issue and not prioritised. For instance, the Ministry of Women and Human Rights is not prioritising" (*KII, 2017).

The gatekeeper 'tax challenge'. Most of the IDPs still live in gazetted camps and settlements. Access to them is through community authorities dubbed 'gatekeepers', who have taken on the role of coordinator of all interventions in the communities. Often, relevant initiatives do not reach out to those in need because the gatekeepers are not convinced the initiative is for the good of their camp dwellers – they don't pass the gatekeepers' test. Yet the study revealed that the gatekeepers are Somalia's unwavering 'tax men'. For every penny planned for the IDP beneficiary, the gatekeeper has to be factored in otherwise they will sabotage implementation by pursuing 'recipients'. A KII community leader said:

> *"… the gatekeepers of the camps also pose a great challenge because they want to share and get half of what the IDPs are given. The gatekeepers take from the IDP half of the assistance they receive"* (KII, 2017).

The required multiple registrations of activists and their institutions are expensive and lock out potential key stakeholders from actively participating in protection activities.

> *"Also, the federal and state level authorities cause challenges to the NGOs. For instance, the federal Ministry of Interior requests NGOs to be registered. Also the state ministries want the NGOs to be registered at their respective ministries. Also, at district level, the districts want the NGOs to be registered at their level. These levels all charge the NGOs huge amounts of money for registration which are not budgeted in their budgetary provisions approved by the donors. This creates access issues where NGOs cannot access the communities. If the NGOs don't pay all that, the staff will be arrested"* (FGD, 2017).

Conflicting power and authority points disrupt the administration of justice. The population is torn between trusting the emerging public/government justice system against the indigenous systems they have survived under during the times of an absence of government systems. A KII NGO worker said:

> *"for example, if there is a rape case, communities don't allow the rape cases to be reported to the authorities and they prefer to traditionally solve the cases using their local elders. Without the consent of the victim, we cannot report to the authorities"* (KII, 2017).

8

Specific IDP protection approaches and strategies to integrate into programming

Improve policy frameworks by integrating protection into various sector plans in the country. The findings from the KIIs and FGDs indicate that strengthening protection across the various resilience dimensions: wealth; social capital; psychosocial health; infrastructure; environment and natural resources; health; human capital; security, protection and advocacy; and governance (Cooke, 2015) requires a multi-sectoral engagement. Yet with no central protection coordination centre, integrating resilience programming remains a hard task. One key informant interviewee from a local NGO who also worked with an international agency revealed:

> *"I would change first by mainstreaming protection in all our programming at policy level instead of making protection a stand-alone component"* (KII, 2017).

The above finding is further corroborated by the improvements we propose to the existing IDP (protection) policy framework of the Ministry of Interior and Federal Affairs, by recommending the creation of an independent Commission on Human Rights as the central coordination body for protection issues. This would relieve pressure on the current Ministry of Interior and Federal Affairs, which seems overwhelmed by the national state of affairs. We recommend that the committee be constituted of key independent stakeholders, as enshrined in the national independent Human Rights Commission Law enacted in 2016 by the Somali federal parliament. The committee would report directly to the federal parliament, making it a unique reporting structure.

Ensure community stakeholder engagement in protection programme planning. Specific protection interests should be addressed based on prioritisation of needs at community level. The FGDs revealed:

> *"…we should organise and engage communities at design level of the programme in incorporating their ideas and input to protection programming. For instance, organising conferences with clan leaders' opinion, religious leaders, government authorities and members of the community to share the objectives of the programme and clear up misperceptions"* (FGD, 2017).

This approach would help to address the issues related to lack of trust in the police, as expressed by the respondents in the study. Community engagement, including that of the police, would ensure that community protection concerns are highlighted to the police force and strategies to address them are jointly designed. Such engagements should be proactive, interactive and responsive through open forums, conferences, events, meetings and working with community leaders. As a result, any successes and/or failures would be the shared responsibility of the communities and the police.

Ensure comprehensive and integrated assistance for IDPs to access justice and legal services by improving and expanding the capacity of the formal justice sector. Integrating legal assistance programmes in the current protection and resilience programmes to create greater accessibility can play a crucial role to support IDPs in accessing public justice services. Legal assistance programmes can also contribute to building resilience and creating a conducive environment to resilience and find durable solutions.

Ensure documentation of IDPs wherever they settle, so as to track and follow up on their specific protection needs since they do not have permanent places of abode. With peace returning to the majority of Mogadishu neighbourhoods, IDP settlements are giving way to reconstruction and returnees are reclaiming their properties for redevelopment. This makes the IDPs highly mobile from settlement to settlement. Keeping track of their protection needs therefore becomes very difficult unless there is a central registry for them. A district official noted:

> *"as NGOs and government, we should invest and mobilise resources for creating permanent spaces for the IDPs instead of assisting them from temporary and transit places where they will be evicted"* (KII, 2017).

Create a special agency to handle IDPs. Interagency coordination has become characteristically slow and protection needs seem to be overlooked as a result.

> *"As a country, even when the IDPs are a formidable part of our population demographics, the Somali government has not a single entity that entirely deals with IDPs. For instance, we have the national refugees' and IDPs' agency. We also have the Somali Disaster Management Agency and the Ministry of Interior and Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management. All these entities are not cooperating and everyone is doing some interventions. So they are so many channels of communication before you reach the society and the IDPs"* (FGD, 2017).

Promulgate and popularise the IDP protection policy. IDPs have been a fact of life in Somalia for close to three decades now. Protection issues continue to cut deep into the communities. There is a need to accord protection appropriate attention. A policy on IDP protection would trigger action by the key potential stakeholders. The stakeholders are grappling with this humanitarian challenge due to lack of definitive policy guidelines with a clear implementation framework to guide interventions in the sector. A FGD revealed:

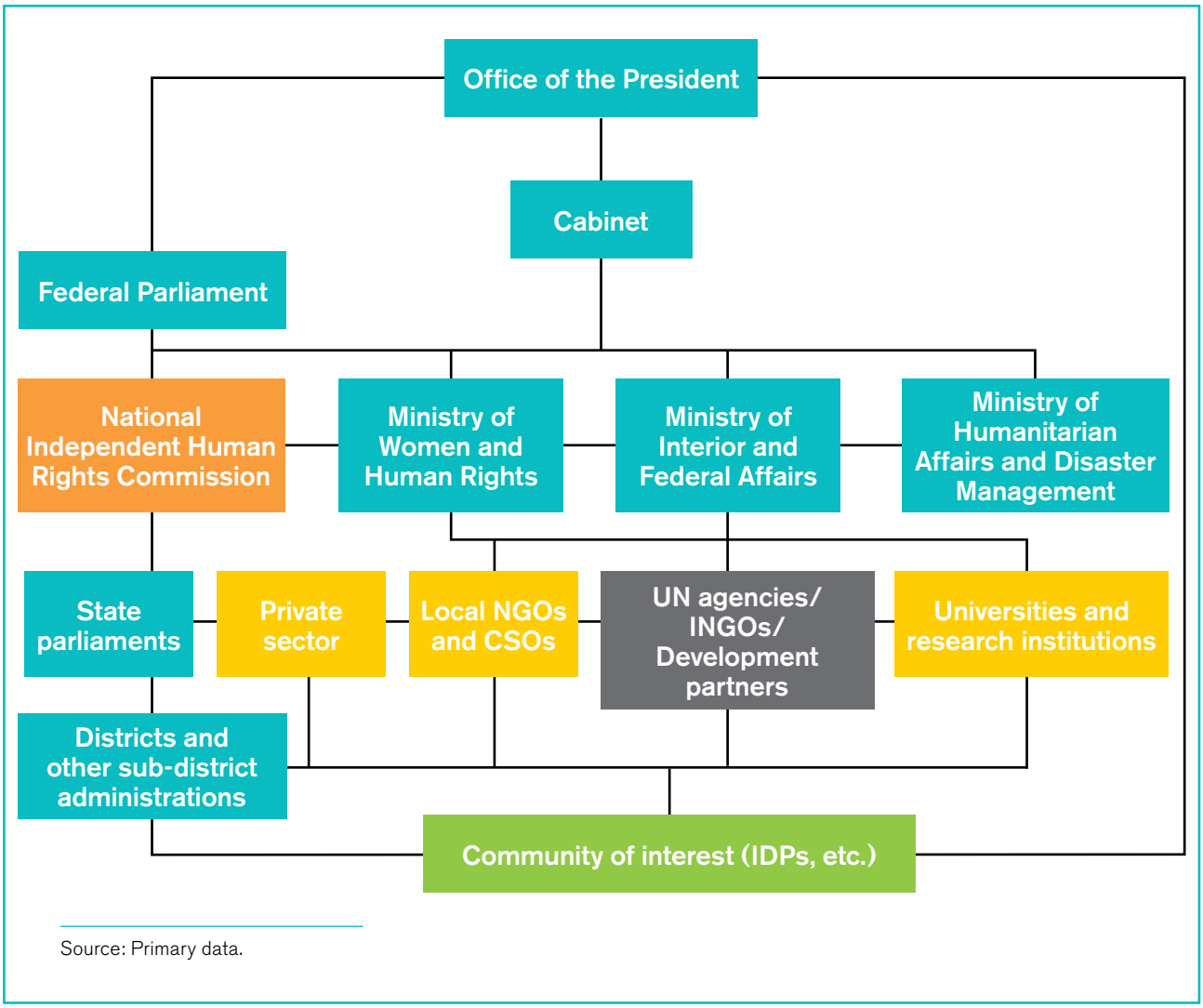
> *"the protection is centre of urban humanitarian crisis and without organising the competing entities and conflicting authorities, we need to harmonise and come up with protection and IDPs' issues. The parliament has an interior committee and another committee of human rights, gender and a humanitarian committee. We don't have protection as a policy. As NGOs, we need to lobby for developing and drafting a national protection policy"* (FGD, 2017).

Strengthen the Human Rights Commission. The structural composition of this critical stakeholder still inhibits the enhancement of protection resilience. The national independent Human Rights Commission has been approved, but the selection of members was a major challenge. One key informant interviewee revealed that there was conflict in terms of representation of clans, representation at state level, and representation of women and disabled persons. A KII from NGO stated:

> *"The commission is not yet effective even though passed because parliamentarians could not agree on the membership and representations*" (KII, 2017).

Figure 7 indicates the recommended, modified institutional framework to enable adequate identification, inclusion and support across social, economic and physical rights-based protection amongst IDPs.

Figure 7: Proposed institutional framework for identification, inclusion and support for socioeconomic, physical and rights-based protection



Source: Primary data.

Addressing challenges of protection rights calls for holistic strategies which require engaging a range of stakeholders. The role of the private sector, community-based organisations, and NGOs in protection is obvious as they still lead in advocating for protection rights in the target areas and delivering services. The transition from an NGO/private sector lead to a public/government protection sector lead will take some time since NGOs and the private sector have replaced the public sector in the delivery of key services to the population. However, as the government gains more control and public confidence, trust and hope in public sector-led development, including in protection, are likely to gain momentum.

The recommended framework proposes improvements and an expansion to the existing general IDP policy framework. The improvements involve the inclusion of more actors beyond the traditional actors, such as the private sector, universities and research institutions, and a National Independent Human Rights Commision at policy formulation. This varies from the current framework in the sense that the existing one, as well as being a general IDP policy, only refers to the private sector as a key stakeholder in observance of the policy framework. The policy does not specifically define the roles and responsibilities of the above stakeholders. The proposed, modified policy however recognises additional key stakeholders in the

formulation, implementation and/or observance of the policy framework.

Another notable improvement would be to make the independent Commission for Human Rights responsible for IDP policy formulation and implementation and act as the coordination centre. The existing framework accords that responsibility to the Ministry of Interior and Federal Affairs. Yet there are other key ministries active with IDPs, including the Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Management, Ministry of Justice and Constitution, the Ministry of Work and Labour, the Ministry of Women and Human Rights Development, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health, and the Ministry of Agriculture, among others. This study notes that the Ministry of Interior and Federal Affairs has competing priorities to handle, yet if all the relevant ministries and other stakeholders strengthen the National Independent Human Rights Commisionwhich would report to the federal parliament as its technical working committee, the protection rights of IDPs would be realised much more effectively.

The current policy also renders the federal state parliaments inactive in terms of policy formulation and implementation. However, they have been recognised as key stakeholders. In any case, due to the contextual variations in the regions, they would contribute greatly to the contextual debate when it comes to appreciation of the unique context of IDP protection needs.

9 Conclusions

Findings from the study show that proximity to Mogadishu city centre is an important factor which determines resilience among the urban IDPs. IDPs from Hodan, which is located at the central part of Mogadishu, were more positive about their personal safety and protection than those living in Dharkenley, which is located relatively far from the city centre compared to Hodan. Wadajir, which is located between Hodan and Dharkenley, reported moderate results. The same pattern was observed regarding ownership of identity documents, where IDPs from Hodan had passports while none had them in Dharkenley. Wadajir IDPs again reported a slightly lower percentage at 2 per cent compared to Hodan which reported 3 per cent and Dharkenley with zero per cent. A similar trend was observed on access to health, but the opposite scenario was observed on access to food, with 19 per cent of IDPs from Dharkenley having regular access to food compared to Hodan, which reported only 11 per cent, and Wadajir reporting that 15 per cent of households had access to food.

Mogadishu still grapples with security challenges which make protection activists soft targets for those who feel threatened by their work. Given the humanitarian emergencies that the city handles from time to time, protection activists need to adapt to these conditions, including carrying out covert advocacy. They often resort to anonymous online publications as a way of reaching out to their audiences with minimal risk of exposure because of the sensitivities that some of the protection needs attract. Specifically, FGM seems to be very sensitive in communities due to strong cultural attachments. Proponents of FGM see activists against the practice as perpetuators of western values against indigenous values. These perceptions will necessitate holistic approaches if protection issues are to be addressed.

Protection calls for multi-stakeholder engagement. The study proposes a systems-based framework to address protection challenges across the various resilience dimensions. Protection resilience in human capital, health, security, governance and social capital suggests high vulnerabilities as revealed in the FGDs and KIIs. However, the proposed integrated institutional framework for the identification, inclusion and support for physical and rights-based protection offers a galvanised approach to enhancing resilience in the dimensions related to protection where the identified stakeholders are active.

IDPs will continue to be attracted to the urban areas, which often exerts additional stress on facilities such as infrastructure, social amenities and protection. This calls for proper planning on the part of the urban planning department in Mogadishu, because the protection challenges associated with urban IDPs will continue as long as the city remains attractive to new IDPs. There is an urgent need to address the protection component, particularly from the police, because less than one per cent of the refugees feel protected by the police force and have therefore devised their own protection mechanisms.

At a systems level, the study recognises the multi-dimensional nature of protection needs and calls for a systems approach to address the protection needs in the communities. This could start with establishing an inclusive IDP protection policy. Glaring coordination challenges have been identified which call for a central institution to handle IDP protection needs. Existing institutions, such as the National Independent Human Rights Commission, still grapple with structural set-up challenges which are likely to delay or even derail protection interventions. Additionally, the commission faces an uphill task given the country's past human rights record. If protection is accorded a special department beyond the proposed desk at the commission for instance, coordination challenges would be minimised.

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This working paper documents research carried out on the protection of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in urban communities in Somalia, providing an evidence base for improved humanitarian protection. The study, carried out in Hodan, Wadajir and Dharkenley districts in the Benadir region, uses both quantitative and qualitative approaches to identify urban IDP protection needs and explore the relevance of the proximity of the IDP camps to the urban centre of Mogadishu. By identifying IDP protection and food security needs, the paper highlights existing gaps in the coordination of stakeholders in protection issues, and considers how protection approaches could be integrated into programming. It proposes an institutional framework for the identification, inclusion and support for the social, economic, physical, and rights-based protection of IDPs in Somalia.

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