

HUMANITARIAN CRISES IN OIC COUNTRIES

DRIVERS, IMPACTS, CURRENT
CHALLENGES AND POTENTIAL REMEDIES



ORGANISATION OF ISLAMIC COOPERATION

STATISTICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL RESEARCH
AND TRAINING CENTRE FOR ISLAMIC COUNTRIES



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POTENTIAL REMEDIES



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ACRONYMS

AfDB	African Development Bank
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ECHO	European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations
DI	Development Initiatives
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FSI	Failed State Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GHA	Global Humanitarian Assistance
GRM	Gaza Reconstruction Mechanism
HDI	Human Development Index
HRW	Human Rights Watch
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee
IDB	Islamic Development Bank
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDP	Internally Displaced Population
IEP	Institute for Economics and Peace
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IRTI	Islamic Research and Training Institute
ISF	Islamic Social Finance
ISFD	Islamic Solidarity Fund for Development
ISIL	Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant
ISIM	Institute for the Study of International Migration
MDB	Multilateral Development Banks

MENA	Middle East and North Africa
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development
OIC	Organisation of Islamic Cooperation
POTI	Peace Operations Training Institute
SCPR	Syrian Centre for Policy Research
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SHPA	Strategic Health Programme of Action
RRRP	Regional Refugee Response Plan
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNISDR	United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction
UN-OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNU-EHS	United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human Security
USD	United States Dollar
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WHO	World Health Organisation
WHS	World Humanitarian Summit
WRI	World Risk Index

FOREWORD

A number of OIC member countries have been recently struck by severe humanitarian crises resulting in tragic human suffering for millions of people. For example, one of the most serious humanitarian crises of modern times is now afflicting Syria. While conflicts and natural disasters have been main drivers behind the surge of most humanitarian crises, the causes of these crises are usually more sophisticated and complex than they appear. Different causes of humanitarian crisis are not independent from each other, but on the contrary are intertwined and in many cases the lines between the reasons and the impacts of humanitarian crises are obscure. Fragility, poverty, conflict, governance, economic decline, displacement, natural disasters and human rights violations are all among the causes as well as the consequences of humanitarian crises. The complex, protracted and recurrent humanitarian crises that have been observed today could be explained as a direct outcome of high vulnerability to such interconnected factors, where one element may increase the vulnerability to others and prevent the ability to build resilience to cope with the crisis.

In the light of this understanding, this report has been prepared by SESRIC with a view to contributing and developing better understanding of the drivers, catalysts and impacts of humanitarian crises. While providing a short account of current humanitarian crises observed in OIC countries, the report offers a set of policy recommendations on how to reduce vulnerabilities and build resilience in these countries. Though the idiosyncratic nature of crises complicates the formulation of effective policies for intervention, there are always opportunities for peace, stability and resilient recovery in a broader perspective. However, these opportunities again require good governance, strong state institutions and international cooperation. There is especially a need for strengthening institutions through cooperation and collaboration at the OIC regional level as well as at the international level.

Recognizing the multifaceted nature of the crises and the urgent need for strengthening resilience in OIC countries, there is therefore a need for a broader and longer-term perspective in achieving both lasting peace as well as sustainable development in a rapidly changing development environment. In this context, this report suggests five critical elements to reducing vulnerabilities and building resilience in OIC countries. These five elements require a long-term commitment and perspective for their effective implementation. Investing in systems and capacities to reduce vulnerabilities will likely take years or decades. However, there is a need for immediate action to alleviate the deprivation and suffering of people. The current humanitarian crises in OIC countries require serious involvement with affected people to prevent further aggravation and escalation of the current grave situations in these countries. Therefore, an accelerated action plan is needed which focuses primarily on what is important only in addressing root causes, with clear commitments and crucial measurable goals.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Dignity, as a fundamental right of every human being merely by virtue of his or her humanity, is deemed indispensable in Islam. However, the frequency, duration and impacts of humanitarian crises, mainly driven by natural disasters and conflicts, continue to increase with significant impact on human life and dignity. While global figures on the number of people affected from natural disasters and conflicts are constantly rising, Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) member countries are affected more so than any other parts of the world by large-scale humanitarian crises and disasters, and this trend is unfortunately on the rise. Combined threats of instability, conflict and violence, often coupled with and accelerated by other factors, including natural disasters and climate change pose significant humanitarian and development challenges.

In 2015, 30 of 50 conflicts recorded worldwide occurred in OIC countries, 12 of which were internal conflicts and 17 were internationalized conflict. As a direct outcome, today OIC countries account for 61.5% of all displaced population in the world with more than 25 million displaced people. More alarmingly, around 80% of all new internal displacement in the world during 2014-15 took place in OIC countries. Moreover, 71% (around 89 million) of people who globally require humanitarian assistance reside in OIC countries. Specifically, Syria became the centre of the one of the most serious humanitarian crises of the modern times, which has left so far an estimated 500,000 killed, 1.5 million people wounded, 4.9 million refugees, 6.5 million internally displaced, including 2.8 million children, and more than 13 million people in need for humanitarian assistance.

Natural disasters during the last four decades have witnessed a steeper upwards trend inside OIC countries, significantly increasing from around 681 recorded incidents in the 1990s to 1,747 in the 2000-2016 with a rate of increase higher than that of the world average. While OIC countries had a share of 23% in total number of natural disaster

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incidents in the world all throughout the 1980-1999, their share increased to 25% during the 2000-2016. More than 800 million people in OIC countries were affected from natural disasters since 1970, with more than 50 million in just last three years.

While conflicts and natural disasters have been the main drivers of humanitarian crises, these crises are usually more sophisticated than they appear. In general, armed conflicts, occupation and oppression; the lack of political and economic stability and governance; climate change and natural hazards; and pandemics are among the major drivers of humanitarian crises in OIC countries. On the other hand, human deprivation, state fragility, economic collapse, human rights violations and migration and displacement can be listed among the major impacts of these crises.

Natural disasters and conflicts usually have adverse impacts on the welfare of communities by increasing their vulnerabilities and worsening poverty, inequality and access to basic services. This also intensifies the risk of humanitarian crises. It is evident that the current international system is not effective in managing humanitarian crises, particularly protracted ones. This fact underlines the need for a paradigm shift in humanitarian action and development cooperation policies. There is a need for OIC countries to develop their own mechanisms to reduce their vulnerability and strengthen their resilience to various crises. A holistic approach needs to be developed, which reflects complexities of humanitarian crises and provides an integrated framework to manage associated risks and vulnerabilities in an effective manner. This also requires working with the international community to address root causes of humanitarian crises, develop resilient systems and institutions, enhance local capacity and ownership of operations, and ensure that humanitarian action leads to sustainable recovery and reconstruction avoiding protracted aid dependency.

The new approach must be proactive and have in mind a paradigm or framework where its systems and institutions reach a tolerable degree of resilience and its share in conflict and disaster-caused deprivation are substantially reduced. Ideally, targets should be set to reduce the share of OIC countries in total number of conflicts by as much as 80% from its current (2015) level by 2030 and to meaningfully contain the actual loss of human and physical assets due to calamities. The success of the approach, for instance, is to prove that if drought is unavoidable, famine on the contrary must be preventable, and that diversity of thought and sect does not lead to violence.

The overarching response by OIC countries will require resilience-based thinking to provide a critical link between the humanitarian and development paradigms. Resilience re-energizes both systems and people to work collectively towards resisting the impact of a protracted crisis. It holds the promise of revising current processes,

which have slowly weakened resilience to adapt, absorb and transform the climate and human made shocks. The framework of resilience is premised upon three key capacities: absorptive, adaptive and transformative capacities, each of which lead to different results: persistence, adjustment and transformational responses. Likewise, in order to critically and sustainably build resilience, OIC member countries must work on multiple levels including the household, communities, countries and regions at large.

On the other hand, the levels of exposure, vulnerability and coping capacity of OIC countries to various disasters and conflicts are quite heterogeneous. While some countries are quite advanced in managing risks associated with potential humanitarian crises, others require substantial improvement in capacities to reduce vulnerabilities and cope with the risks. This fact creates an opportunity for intra-OIC (or south-south) cooperation in building resilience in vulnerable OIC countries. Against this background, from a broader and longer-term perspective, this report identified five dimensions of interventions for reducing vulnerability and building resilience, as summarized below.

Promote inclusive societies and inclusive development

Effective management of humanitarian crises is very much related to good institutions. For good governance and inclusive development, there is a need for developing and implementing inclusive development programmes and policies managed by strong national and local institutions, which target the most vulnerable and marginalized sections of society, ensure that everyone is involved in decision making process and allow for close monitoring of whether policy choices are implemented or not. Inclusive decision making and multi-stakeholder consensus not only strengthen governance but play an important role in advancing reconciliation and supporting prospects for positive change towards peace and stability.

According to global indicators, OIC countries are not performing well in terms of good governance and inclusive development. Lack of good governance and unequal distribution of welfare are just two examples reflecting the potential sources of dissatisfaction and frustration that are observed during the early stages of civil uprisings. Constant inability to address such concerns is likely to heighten tensions among different strata of society and potentially result in civil uprising with severe humanitarian consequences, as historically and currently observed in different parts of the world. In this regard, OIC countries should ensure distributive justice and inclusive growth; improve the transparency, accountability and responsiveness of institutions for good governance; enhance inclusive decision making and support civil society activities; and ensure equal access to public infrastructure and services.

Strengthen social capital, mediation and partnership

In societies where motivation for cooperation and collective action are weakened, there may be significant levels of mistrust between groups. Weak social capital may be considered among the causes of conflicts and potential humanitarian crises as well. There are several elements that can traditionally be a good source of strengthening social capital, such as religion and ethnicity. In presence of great diversity among the people in a society and weak rule of law in governance, overemphasis on such elements could weaken social capital and can be a source of violence and conflict. Promoting peace and dialogue along with functioning institutions and the rule of law can contribute to strengthening social capital and prevent any potential conflict. Having strong social capital will also reduce the extent of the humanitarian crisis that may occur due to natural disasters.

There is also a need for mechanisms to facilitate mediation among different ethnic and sectarian groups in OIC countries in order to prevent, manage and resolve conflicts. Historically rich culture and diversity have been a major source of prosperity and vividness within the Muslim geography. However, diversity of thought and sects did not lead to violence as they did today. In many cases, conflicts today have a strong regional and international dimension. Therefore, timely and effective mediation and partnership may prevent conflict and even avoid seeking a supportive external environment. This requires an inclusive process to identify and address the root causes of conflict and to ensure that the needs of the affected sectors of the population are addressed.

Invest in human capital and facilitate social mobility

Human capital is one of the main determinants of long-term growth. Investment in human capital enhances the potential to increase the capacity to obtain and utilize the knowledge developed elsewhere and to develop adaptive and transformative capacities. Since the majority of the OIC countries need such capacity to promote development and build resilience, the issue of human capital development remains critical in widening the prospects for long-term sustainable growth. Health, education and skills development are three critical areas where investment in human capital can make real difference in strengthening the resilience of people, reducing the likelihood of a crisis and recovering from a crisis situation. However, OIC countries are trailing behind the world averages in all these indicators, reflecting their vulnerability to crises. While accounting for nearly a quarter of the world population, OIC countries accounts only for 4.5% of the global health spending. With an average adult literacy rate of 74.5%, OIC countries as a group lag well behind the world average of 84.3%. Finally, when compared with other country groups, OIC

countries display a smaller share of high skilled employees. This situation gets even worse with the increase in armed conflicts, violence and disasters in many OIC countries which constrain the access of the children to good education and other basic services.

In this connection, there is a need to develop strategies and programmes to improve health and educational outcomes and capabilities of people in technical and practical knowledge. Moreover, targeted policies should be developed to specifically address the needs of youth and women and to expand the access to education in conflict-affected areas to reach out those with no access to education. Promoting the quality of education at international and regional level is highly critical for creating better opportunities of growth and development. Given the shortage of skilled workers, effective policies and programmes needs to be devised and implemented for better education and training as they are critical factors for technological readiness to raise productivity and diversify into more sophisticated products.

Intensify disaster risk reduction and management practices

It is evident that natural disasters are among the most important drivers of humanitarian crises and climate change is behind the increase in the number of natural hazards. While OIC countries account for around one fifth of total natural disasters in the world, they account for almost two fifth of total number of people killed by natural disasters in the world during 1970-2016. This reflects the level of vulnerability of OIC countries to disasters. The geographic, social, economic and political diversity of OIC member countries make them susceptible to a variety of natural hazards as well as man-made crises. The inherent societal vulnerabilities, which have aggravated over the past few decades, often transform the hazards into catastrophes causing heavy losses to lives, livelihoods and development infrastructure, while undermining peace and stability in the affected countries. Disaster vulnerability in OIC countries sources from a wide range of factors which, in turn, requires substantial and long-term commitment from all stakeholders to overcome these challenges.

In order to minimize human and development losses due to disasters, OIC member countries need to follow a holistic approach involving disaster mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery. In this connection, following recommendations are made for reducing risks of disasters and humanitarian crises: recognize the need for addressing climate change, adopt a policy shift from response to prevention and mitigation, integrate disaster risk management concerns into national development planning, strengthen the capacity of the institutions for disaster risk management, and improve strategic planning for response and recovery.

Mobilize innovative financing mechanisms for humanitarian assistance and development

There is a significant resource shortfall in humanitarian assistance and the funding gaps are expanding over the years. While alternative financing mechanisms can be explored in different contexts, Islamic Social Finance (ISF) offers significant opportunities in the humanitarian sector. As an innovative financing mechanism and under-explored opportunity, it can provide a sustainable solution to reducing the humanitarian funding gaps. By providing the much needed resources for humanitarian action, it can help to reduce the vulnerability of people, alleviate the human suffering and expand the opportunities for recovery.

According to latest estimations, Islamic finance industry's assets are worth USD2 trillion and forecast to rise to USD5 trillion by 2020. Although the potential contribution of ISF to support people living in crises is enormous, there is no specialized coordination mechanism or an autonomous body to help channel these funds effectively at the global or regional level for humanitarian action. This requires effective schemes to collect and distribute the resources under this mechanism. Through these schemes, various components of the ISF, including *waqf* (endowment), *zakat* (mandatory alms-giving) and other instruments such as *sukuk* bonds (which are similar to social impact bonds) can be channeled effectively and efficiently to meet humanitarian needs.

*

Based on the vision set and recognizing the multifaceted nature of the crises and the urgency for strengthening resilience in OIC countries, an accelerated action plan is needed that focuses on primarily what is important only in addressing the root causes, with clear commitments and crucial measurable goals, although the sets of proposed actions have a longer term perspective. In order to succeed, a resilience framework, plan and roadmap should be developed for concerned countries, regions as well as whole OIC family based on a new win-win paradigm of interdependent and accompaniment relationships with robust and predictable resourcing mechanisms and exit strategies to prevent protraction of humanitarian aid dependency.

CALL FOR ACCELERATED ACTION

This report presents five sets of actions for reducing vulnerabilities and building resilience in OIC countries. Many of the proposed actions require long term commitment and perspective for effective implementation. However, requirements for resilience building at individual country level are highly diverse, mainly due to

differences in the level of exposure, vulnerability and coping capacities of communities across the OIC region. It is important that each state genuinely assesses its existing vulnerabilities and capacities to prevent any future calamities.

The proposed remedies are mostly long-term solutions to humanitarian crises. Investing in systems and capacities to reduce vulnerabilities will probably take years or decades, depending on initial conditions. It is critical to set realistic targets to observe performance towards achieving the goals in building resilience. The degree of resilience of systems and institutions should be constantly measured based on the targets and performance indicators.

These solutions can be better realized if specific targets and timeframe are set. For example, it should not be an unrealistic target to halve the number of people affected from crises over the next five years, reduce the share of OIC countries in total number of conflicts by as much as 80% from its current (or 2015) level by 2030 and to meaningfully contain the actual loss of human and physical assets due to calamities. This will require concerted efforts by all stakeholders. Similarly, countries with high youth unemployment rates can target to reduce it by one-fifth over the next three to five years. A Regional Monitoring Framework could be a noble idea, as to place a single repository database for monitoring the set targets, key performance indicators and timeframe for any assistance, intervention and resilience development in the OIC countries.

However, there is a need for immediate action. There are already a number of humanitarian crises in OIC countries with severe humanitarian impact, which require more serious involvement with affected people to prevent further aggravation and escalation of current situations in these countries. Some other OIC countries are currently lacking capacity to tackle the developmental and humanitarian challenges and they need urgent support to reduce their vulnerabilities.

Multilateral partnership is critical for resolving discrete challenges. Despite highly concentrated nature of the crises and their impacts and the high level of dissimilarities of capacities among the OIC countries, developmental and humanitarian challenges in a single OIC country should not be perceived as only its own challenges. Effective partnership and solidarity across the OIC region can be established where whole Muslim community feel responsibility to collectively act to alleviate the otherwise preventable human sufferings.

There is a need to build a new cooperation paradigm of interdependent relationships. There are OIC countries with accumulated experience and knowledge that can provide moral and actual support. The accompaniment of these countries to those with low

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experience and knowledge within an effective framework for cooperation will not only strengthen the Islamic solidarity, but contribute significantly to south-south cooperation and also help to reduce vulnerabilities.

Exit strategies should be developed to prevent protraction. There is no one-size-fits-all solution to crisis. Different interventions can be designed to resolve humanitarian crises, but due to diverse reasons they may fail to deliver the desired outcome. If a humanitarian response is not helping people, it is important to identify exit strategies at different stages of interventions in order to avoid protraction of crisis and design a new roadmap for building resilience.

Embarking on own potential to solve own problems could be highly effective. Great diversity and richness of culture across OIC region can be an important element in strengthening infrastructure for peace. There is also a large amount of resource shortfall in humanitarian assistance and the funding gaps are expanding over the years. Blended with other corporate finance instrument, Islamic social finance is an effective financing mechanism, which can not only serve the basic needs of the vulnerable people but also support them to be economically self-reliant. Its potential should be fully unleashed for the benefits of investment in strengthening systems and institutions and in unleashing the power of youth and women and on projects in the humanitarian-development nexus.

Everyone has a role to play. Governments should work to strengthen institutions and service delivery, development partners should help identify the gaps in development and humanitarian aid, OIC and its institutions should facilitate the partnership among OIC countries and provide technical assistance, NGOs should contribute to strengthening local capacities, and religious and community leaders should endeavour towards improving trust and solidarity, among others. The involvement of private sectors, in particular, which include conglomerate from OIC developing countries, to provide technical and funding support is also much needed for speedy recovery from humanitarian crises and more impactful resilience development.



chapter one

INTRODUCTION



This report is about humanity and its sufferings. An increasingly large *number* of people are being affected by extreme and complex events. It is characteristically difficult to *feel* human sufferings when only reflected in *numbers*. As the frequency, duration and intensity of such events are on the rise, these events and human sufferings becomes merely part of daily news for people enjoying safety and security.

The goal of this report is not to agitate people regarding the sufferings of others, but to prove that there are indeed ways and means to help those people surrounding them. Islam requires believers to assist and protect vulnerable people and offers a number of mechanisms for their care and support. A human being is very honourable in the Qur'an and higher than many other creatures. He is created in the best form (Al-Isra 17:70) and then the whole universe is made in the service of man (Luqman 31:20). Islam defends the dignity and honour of people and forbids humiliating them (Al-Ahzab 33:58). It also gives great importance to the privacy of a person and any type of intrusion on their privacy is prohibited (Al-Nur 24:27).

Dignity is a fundamental right of every human being merely by virtue of his or her humanity and it is deemed indispensable in Islam. This right is further supplemented by other rights such as the rights to justice, education, safety and security. In this fashion, the Cairo Declaration on Human Rights in Islam, as adopted and issued at the 19th Islamic Conference of Foreign Ministers in Cairo on 5 August 1990, forbids discrimination and supports the preservation of human life; the protection of one's honour, family, and property; the right to education, health and social services; and a clean environment. However, the reality is that a large number of populations suffer from mismanagement and misconduct of their leaders.

A humanitarian crisis is understood as a situation in which there is a widespread threat to human life, safety, health and well-being. Each humanitarian crisis is caused by exceptional factors that are specific to the affected region. Main drivers of humanitarian crises are natural disasters, conflicts, epidemics or complex emergencies¹. Crises across the world exhibit complex characteristics; where conflict coincides with multiple additional factors such as environmental, economic and social instabilities. This coincides with already existing vulnerabilities such as poverty, inequality and lack of access to basic services, which exacerbates the destructive impacts of disasters and conflicts. On the other hand, conflicts and disasters can create

¹ In this report, complex emergencies are considered in terms of the complexity of causes and the interactions between instabilities, but not the complexity of response mechanisms.

other instabilities and new vulnerabilities. This may include food insecurity and entrenched poverty, displacement, environmental degradation, political instabilities and epidemics. Intense conflicts and frequent grievances as well as natural disasters, environmental degradation, poverty and poor governance force people to flee their home.

There is also mounting evidence that many countries especially in the developing world are experiencing both natural and man-made disasters (conflict) at the same time or shortly one after the other. The interface between natural disasters and conflicts usually has adverse impacts on the welfare of communities by increasing their vulnerabilities and worsening poverty and inequality. This also intensifies the risk of humanitarian crises. This fact underlines the need for a paradigm shift in current risk reduction and management approaches of humanitarian crises at national, regional and international levels. A new holistic approach needs to be developed which reflects complexities of humanitarian crises and provides an integrated framework to manage associated risks and vulnerabilities in an effective manner. Otherwise, evidence suggests that interventions that do not recognize the link between disasters and conflict in at-risk countries can worsen tensions and increase risk. For example, while crisis in Darfur (Sudan) have inhibited mechanisms for natural resource management and exacerbated slow onset disasters and environmental scarcity, these in turn have contributed to an ongoing complex crisis in Darfur. Similarly, the conflict situation in Chad prevented the government officials and humanitarian aid agencies to effectively distribute food items to the most severely affected rural areas during the 2010 food crisis (SESRIC, 2014).

Effective management of humanitarian crises is very much related with good institutions. Weak legitimacy of state can be both a cause and consequence of conflicts. Some countries are in deep crisis, struggling with conflict or facing urgent and critical threats to human well-being. In countries such as Yemen and Syria, conflict has destroyed or significantly degraded governance structures, institutions and infrastructure. Natural disasters and extreme weather events also have long-lasting impacts on countries with weak institutions. Over the past decade, ten fragile states have experienced an average of more than three natural disasters each year, with Afghanistan (105 disasters), Bangladesh (89 disasters) and Pakistan (83 disasters) especially vulnerable (World Bank, 2014). The Ebola outbreak in Guinea, Sierra Leone and other neighbouring countries demonstrates fragile states' acute vulnerability to shocks, and underlines the importance of steady investment in basic health, disaster response and public administration systems.

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Facing such complex and diverse humanitarian crises, it is crucial for the international community to recognize the scale of burden on humanity. In financial terms, how can the humanitarian system effectively respond to complex situations and what should be the capacity of international humanitarian system in responding to crises in a given year? If as many as 200-300 million people are affected by disasters and conflicts, what would the implications be for humanitarian response? This is not an assumption for contingencies, but just the reality. In 2014 alone, a total of 200.5 million people were affected from numerous natural hazards, epidemic diseases, armed conflicts and many other types of disasters, a number which was more than 50 million when compared with 2013 (OCHA, 2015).

Against this background and given the increasing frequency and intensity of humanitarian crises in OIC countries, this report discusses the main drivers and impacts of humanitarian crises in a broader perspective, reviews the current humanitarian crises in OIC countries as well as non-OIC countries involving Muslim communities and offers potential remedies for prevention of humanitarian crises. While the discussions on the main drivers and impacts of humanitarian crises are typically all-encompassing, they are enriched with special reference to OIC countries and with case studies on major humanitarian crises in OIC countries. The report focuses on four main drivers as the root causes of humanitarian crises; namely, armed conflicts, occupation and oppression; political and economic stability and governance; climate change and natural hazards; and epidemics. While studying the major consequences of humanitarian disasters, five key areas for the assessment of the impacts will be reflected in this report. These are human deprivation; state fragility; economic collapse; human rights violation; and migration and displacement.

After providing broad discussions on the drivers and impacts of humanitarian crises, the report examines the major current crises in OIC countries by specifically looking at major drivers, impacts and opportunities for recovery. The overall objective of this exercise is to develop a diagnostic study on the major humanitarian crises in the OIC countries. Thereby, it aims to promote joint initiatives on strengthening resilience to humanitarian crises in the OIC countries and advocate for collaborative actions for strengthening the institutional capacities for countries that experienced or continue to face destructive natural disasters and man-made crises, which may limit the operational and technical capacities of institutions. The remedies are provided in five sets of actions from a longer-term perspective to reduce vulnerabilities and build resilience in OIC countries.

chapter two

DRIVERS OF HUMANITARIAN CRISES



A number of OIC countries have been struck by tragic human crises resulting in unimaginable human suffering in the last few years. One of the most serious humanitarian crises is being now experienced in Syria, which has so far left an estimated 500,000 people killed, 1.5 million people wounded, 4.9 million refugees, 6.5 million internally displaced and more than 13 million people in need of humanitarian assistance.

While conflicts and natural disasters have been the main drivers of humanitarian crises, these crises are usually more sophisticated than they appear. In addition, the different drivers of humanitarian crisis are not independent from each other, on the contrary they are intertwined and in many cases the lines between the drivers and the impacts of humanitarian crises are obscure. Fragility, poverty, conflict, governance, economic decline, displacement, natural disasters and human rights violations can be causes as well as consequences of one another. One element may increase the vulnerability to others and prevent people from building resilience to cope with shock and trauma. The complex, protracted and recurrent humanitarian crises that we observe today can be said to be a direct outcome of high vulnerability to these interconnected factors.

Against this backdrop, this section discusses the drivers of humanitarian crises with a special focus on OIC countries. More specifically, it focuses on the following drivers of humanitarian crisis: armed conflicts, occupation and oppression; the lack of political and economic stability and governance; climate change and natural hazards; and pandemics.

2.1 Armed Conflicts, Occupation and Oppression

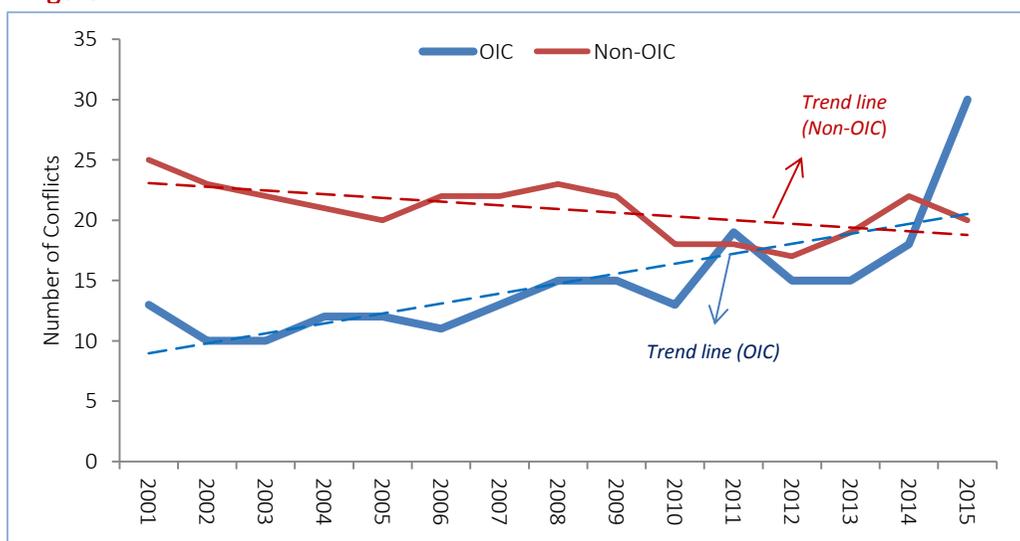
A single armed conflict has the potential to inflict devastating human suffering in addition to wiping out development gains accumulated over many years, if not decades. While conflicts and violence are one of the major sources of humanitarian crisis, factors leading to conflicts are rooted in different socio-economic dynamics. Many academics and practitioners now recognize that violent conflicts are caused by a variety of factors, and that these factors are often interconnected and complex. Referring to the work of several academics, Regehr (2013) discusses the different drivers of conflict: According to Evans (2006), armed conflict is likely to take place when communities are imbued with deeply held reasons for rejecting the status quo, when they have access to physical and political/social resources for violence, and when they are convinced or can credibly claim that such violence is their only hope for

change. At the intra-state level, Ohlson (2008) argues that armed conflict requires a combination of three things: “reasons in the form of motivating grievances, resources in the form of capabilities and opportunity, and resolve in the form of a perception that nothing short of violence will allow you to achieve your goals”. Bellamy (2011) adds the issue of identity – when political grievances are linked to particular communities and regions both the intensity of the grievances and the calculations of capacity are increased. The issue of horizontal inequalities is also considered among the major drivers (Stewart, 2010).

The literature defines four types of conflict. *Extra-systemic armed conflict* occurs between a state and a non-state group outside its own territory; *interstate armed conflict* occurs between two or more states; *internal armed conflict* occurs between the government of a state and one or more internal opposition group(s) without intervention from other state; and *internationalized internal armed conflict* occurs between the government of a state and one or more internal opposition group(s) with intervention from other states (secondary parties) on one or both sides. Conflicts typically involve occupation of lands, oppression of people and violation of human rights.

Unfortunately for the OIC countries, the number of armed conflicts exhibits an upward trend which is in contrast to the downward trend observed in non-OIC countries (Figure 2.1). In 2015, 30 of 50 conflicts recorded worldwide occurred in OIC countries, of which the overall majority were internationalized conflicts (17) and internal conflicts (12). Main characteristics of the conflicts observed in 2015 was the existence of

Figure 2.1: Conflict Trends



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on the Uppsala Conflict Database.

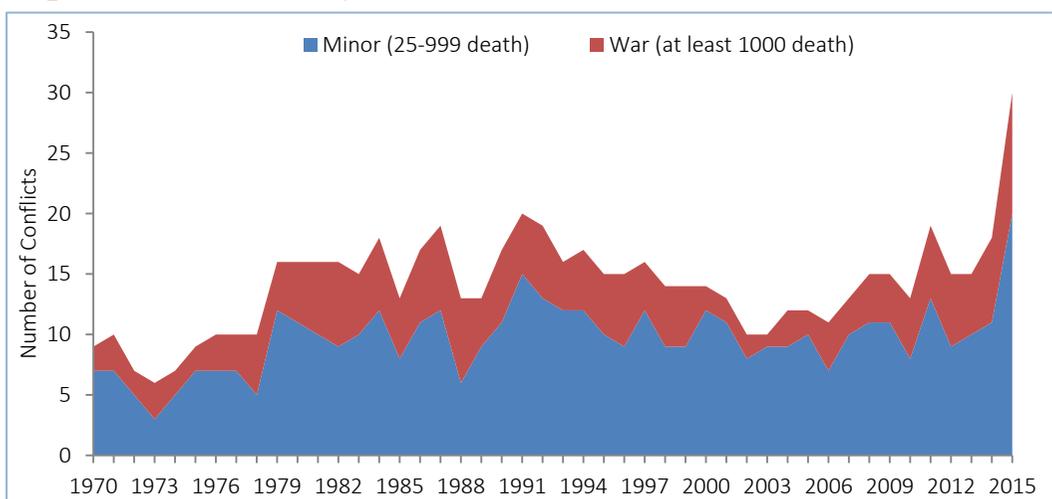
Humanitarian Crises in OIC Countries:
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opposition to the political, economic or ideological system of the state, which caused many armed groups to engage in a violent struggle to bring about a change to the system. However, the motivation of these armed groups is not globally uniform and there is a clear distinction between the motivations of the armed groups active in the OIC countries and the motivations of armed groups active elsewhere. In non-OIC countries, armed groups are mainly motivated by socialist ideals and ideology whereas in OIC countries, armed groups are largely motivated by the desire to establish a political system based on their understanding of Islam. Such a desire can be observed in the following cases: Algeria (AQIM), Mali (Jihadist groups in the north), Nigeria (Boko Haram), Somalia (al-Shabaab), Afghanistan and Pakistan (al-Qaeda and Taliban), Yemen (AQAP and al-Houthists), Iraq (ISIS) and Syria (ISIS and al-Nusra Front).

The intensity of conflicts in OIC countries has also been increasing since 2003 (Figure 2.2), which corresponds to the year the USA and UK invaded Iraq. Is this just a coincidence or is there causality between the 2003 invasion of Iraq and the increasing intensity of conflicts in OIC countries? Regardless of the answer, one thing is sure; these high intensity conflicts are resulting in tremendous human suffering and widespread devastation and will leave these countries crippled for many years to come.

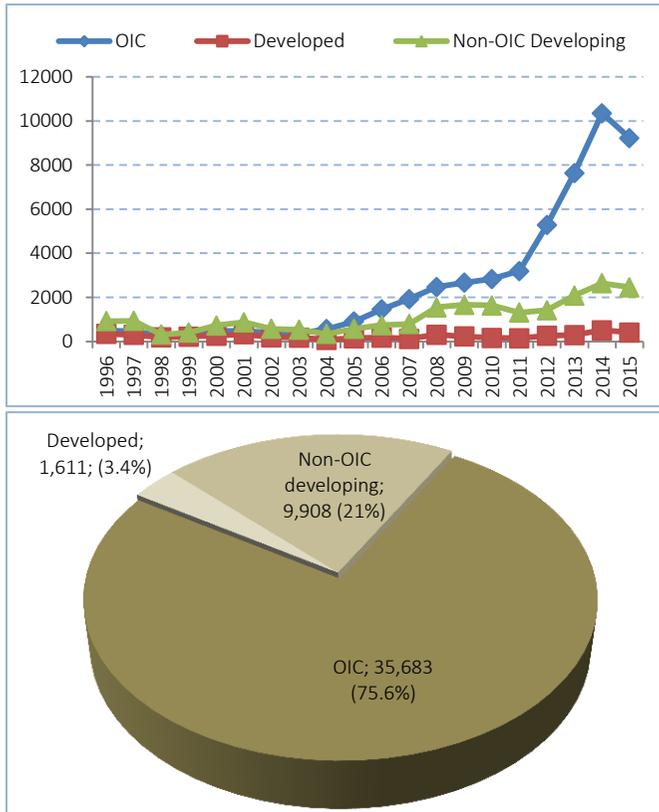
This is also reflected in the number of terrorist attacks. Failed intervention of the US in bringing a “democratic order” in Iraq after 2003 and subsequent conflict in Syria after 2011 have been the critical thresholds, where terrorist attacks escalated and become more frequent and ordinary in the region (Figure 2.3). According to the Global

Figure 2.2: Conflict Intensity in OIC Countries



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on the Uppsala Conflict Database.

Figure 2.3: Global Terrorism Trend - 1996-2015 (top) and Share of OIC Countries – 2011-2015 (bottom)

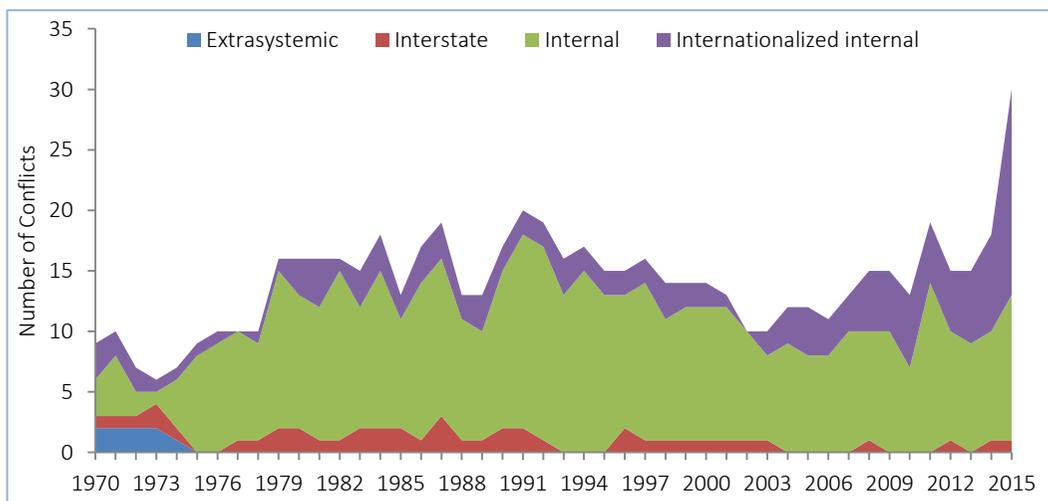


Source: Global Terrorism Database.

Terrorism Database, 75% of all terrorist attacks and more than 90% of fatalities have been recorded in OIC countries in 2015. Average share of OIC countries in total number of terrorist attacks during the period 2011-2015 was 75.6% (Figure 2.3, right). On the other hand, three OIC countries accounted for 66.7% of all terrorist attacks in OIC countries; namely, Iraq (30.2%), Pakistan (20%) and Afghanistan (16.5%).

The nature of conflicts in OIC countries has undergone a significant change in the last decade

Figure 2.4: Nature of Conflicts in OIC Countries



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on the Uppsala Conflict Database.

and half. Since the year 2002, OIC countries have witnessed a surge in the number of internationalized internal conflicts (Figure 2.4). This indicates that many OIC countries have become a battle ground for many regional and international powers fighting directly or using proxies.

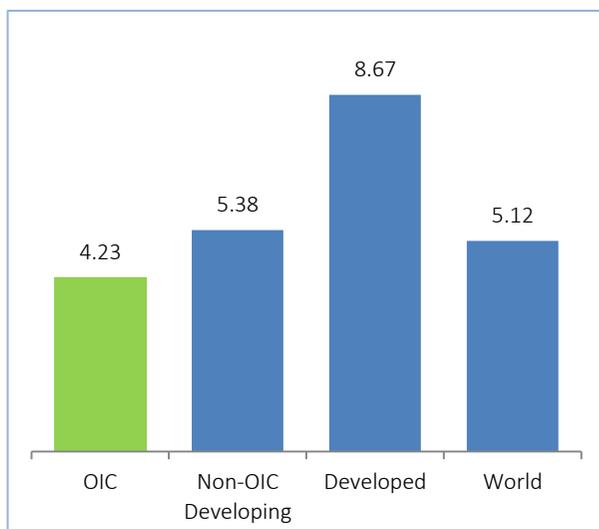
While the drivers of violent conflicts are varied and complex, the importance of inequalities as a cause of violent conflict has long been recognized. However, equal access to opportunity in OIC countries remains a serious concern (Figure 2.5), thus leading to people’s resentment that has the potential to evolve to unrest and conflict.

It is also commonly argued that many of the drivers of conflict are rooted in development deficits (UNDP, 2011). This suggests that there are many opportunities for development actors to contribute to breaking cycles of armed violence and creating virtuous cycles of peace and development. A key question from a development perspective then is: given the current understanding of the causes of conflict, how can development

practitioners support efforts to address them and reduce the chance of conflict which undermines development progress? More broadly, recent thinking and work should also be guided by greater emphasis on building resilience to shocks and vulnerability through more effective and inclusive governance systems and collaborative efforts to address the complex causes of violence, prevention, as well as early recovery.

Finally, the range of potential causes of conflict and armed violence needs to be considered in an integrated manner, with the work of humanitarian, peacekeeping, and development actors should be mutually reinforcing. Such an approach can encompass comprehensive violence prevention and crime control measures to further human security and protect human rights; effectively enhancing social cohesion, alongside parallel efforts to combat drug trafficking, the proliferation of illegal firearms, and human trafficking; addressing the particular needs of youth, women, and migrants; and, in post-conflict settings, integrating civilian and military approaches.

Figure 2.5: Equal Opportunities



Source: SESRIC staff calculation based on the BTI Transformation Index 2016.

2.2 Lack of Political and Economic Stability and Governance

The issues of political stability, economic stability and good governance are interlinked with humanitarian crises. Political and social exclusion can be powerful motivators of upheaval leading to conflict. Moreover, economic crises may heighten humanitarian crises by increasing unemployment, raising food insecurity and exacerbating poverty, with further repercussions on maternal and child health, youth unemployment and growth of informal economy. Lack of good governance and weak state legitimacy can also undermine social trust and lead to humanitarian crises.

Political participation mainly reflects ability to form and join independent political parties or civil groups and the availability of free and fair elections. Political and social integration similarly reflects the existence of a stable and solid party system to articulate social interests, associations to mediate between society and the political system and democratic norms and procedures strongly approved by citizens. The level of political participation and political and social integration in OIC countries is rather weak when compared with other country groups, as respectively shown in Figure 2.6 and 2.7. This fact has rendered OIC countries vulnerable to unrest as has been seen in a number of OIC countries since the beginning of the so-called Arab Spring in 2011.

Figure 2.6: Political Participation

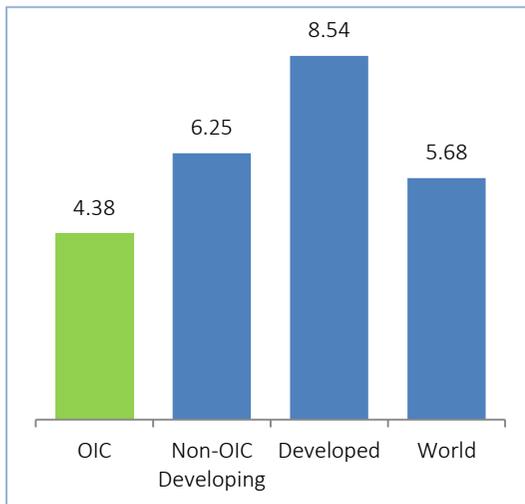
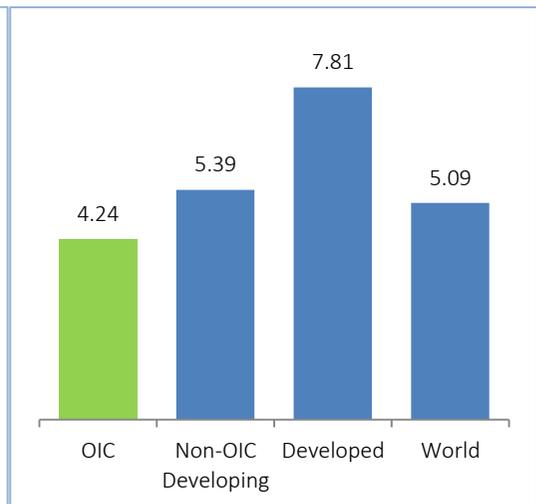


Figure 2.7: Political and Social Integration

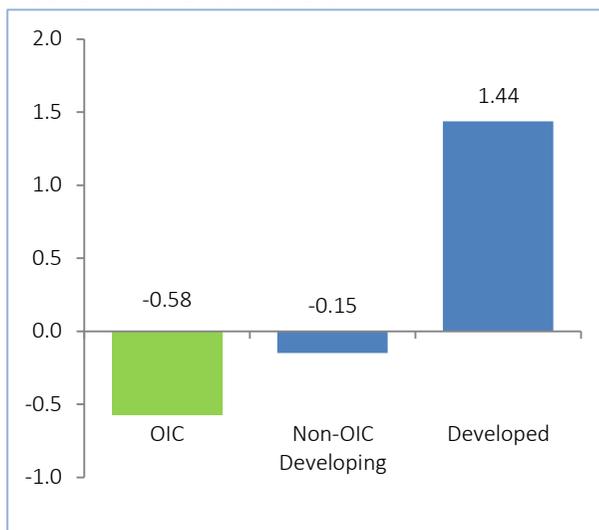


Source: SESRIC staff calculation based on the BTI Transformation Index 2016.

Weak governance and institutions are also intertwined with humanitarian crises and armed conflicts and unfortunately many OIC countries perform poorly when it comes to governance (Figure 2.8). The government effectiveness indicator reflects perceptions of the quality of public services, the quality of the civil service and the

degree of its independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of the government's commitment to such policies, within a scale ranging from -2.5 (weak) to 2.5 (strong). On average, OIC countries score a low score of -0.58 when it comes to government effectiveness, which is significantly lower than the average performance of non-OIC developing countries (-0.15) and developed countries (1.44).

Figure 2.8: Worldwide Governance Indicator, Government Effectiveness



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on the World Governance Indicators, 2016 Update

There is a need for strengthening institutions that can facilitate inclusive development. Acemoglu and Robinson (2012) argue that inclusive economic and political institutions create a ‘virtuous cycle’ which results in stronger states. Similarly, World Bank (2011) emphasizes that “strengthening legitimate institutions and governance to provide citizen security, justice, and jobs is crucial to break cycles of violence.”

While economic, cultural, environmental and security conditions deteriorate in weak states, it is those same weakened states that bear the primary responsibility for maintaining security and preventing conflict. To meet that responsibility each state needs institutions capable of managing socio-political tensions and avoiding escalation into violence. Nevertheless, states that are not succeeding in managing such tensions are also the states that have the weakest political institutions and are the least likely to find means of effectively reconciling national conflict.

2.3 Climate Change and Natural Hazards

Climate change and natural disasters are among the major causes of humanitarian crises. By damaging physical infrastructure, they significantly reduce the quality of life. Climate change, as one of the main drivers of natural disasters, is the most critical contemporary environmental challenge with serious negative social and economic consequences. Triggered both by natural and human induced reasons, climate change has been underway for centuries with increasing intensity and manifestations in recent

times. Due to the increasing concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere and global warming, extreme weather events like floods, draughts, cyclones and storms are observed more frequently with severe negative implications for human beings.

According to the EM-DAT database, over the past decade and a half, natural disasters have been killing more than 91 thousand people, with almost 30% of those fatalities occurring in OIC countries. Furthermore, the number of disasters has been increasing over time. During 1970-2016, the number of natural disasters around the world significantly increased from 903 occurrences in the 1970s to 7,043 during the period 2000-2016 (Table 2.1). The OIC share in the aggregate number of disaster incidents in the world during 1970-2015 stands at 23.9%.

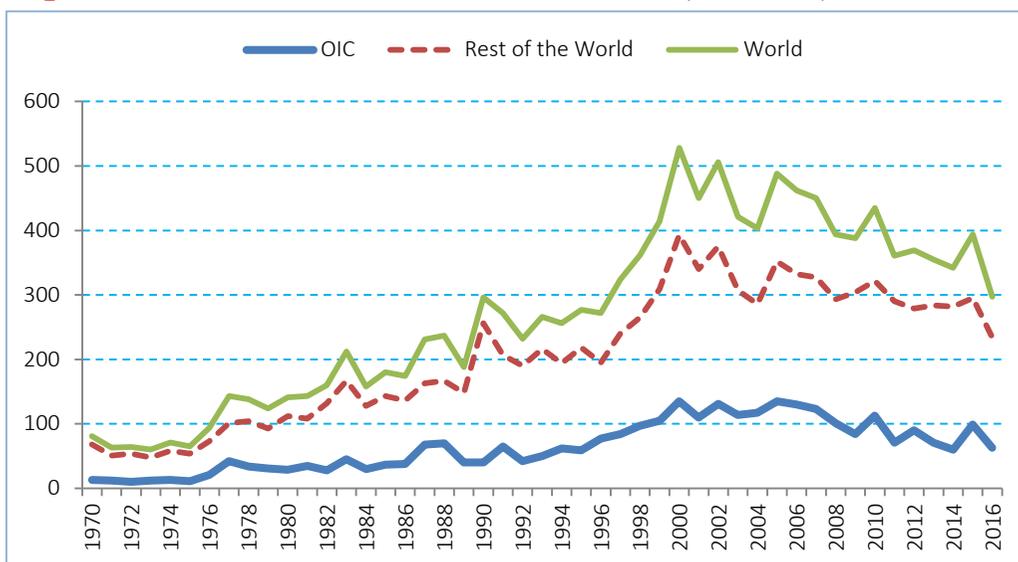
Table 2.1: Natural Disaster Trends

	1970-79	1980-89	1990-99	2000-16
OIC	199	420	681	1,747
Rest of the World	704	1,404	2,290	5,295
World	903	1,824	2,971	7,043
OIC % of World	22.0%	23.0%	22.9%	24.8%

Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database

The number of natural disasters per year at the world level increased from 81 incidents in 1970 to a record high of 528 in 2000, and to 297 in 2016 (Figure 2.9). The increasing

Figure 2.9: Total Number of Natural Disasters over Time (1970-2016)



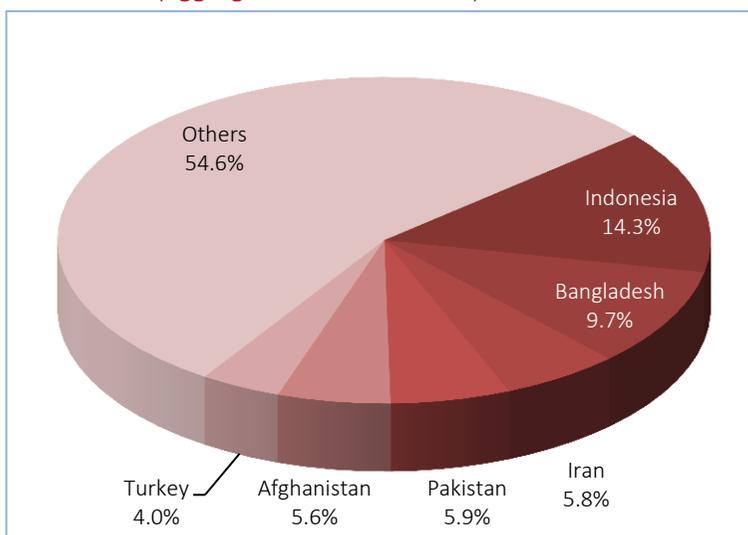
Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database

trend in the number of natural disasters was mostly driven by the increase in incidences of floods, storms, and epidemics; possibly in direct relation to the impacts of global warming. OIC countries experienced a steeper upward trend in the occurrence of natural disasters during the last four decades, significantly increasing from around 199 incidents in the 1970s to 1,747 in the 2000-2016 with a rate of increase higher than that of the world average. While OIC countries had a share of 23% in total number of natural disaster incidents in the world all throughout the 1980-1999, their share increased to 24.8% during the 2000-2016 (Table 2.1).

While OIC-level facts and figures regarding natural disasters are alarming on their own, the distribution within OIC reveals a more dramatic picture. At individual country level with aggregated data during 1970-2016, some OIC countries were more prone to natural disasters. The total number of natural disaster incidents in Indonesia and Bangladesh amounted to around 732, corresponding to almost one fourth of the total in OIC (Figure 2.10).

Figure 2.10: Country level distribution of natural disasters within OIC (aggregated for 1970-2016)

Finally, it is worth noting that while in the last few decades, the OIC countries share of the total number of natural disasters is 23.9%, their share of fatalities is around 40%. This implies that OIC countries are more vulnerable to disasters than other country groups.



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database

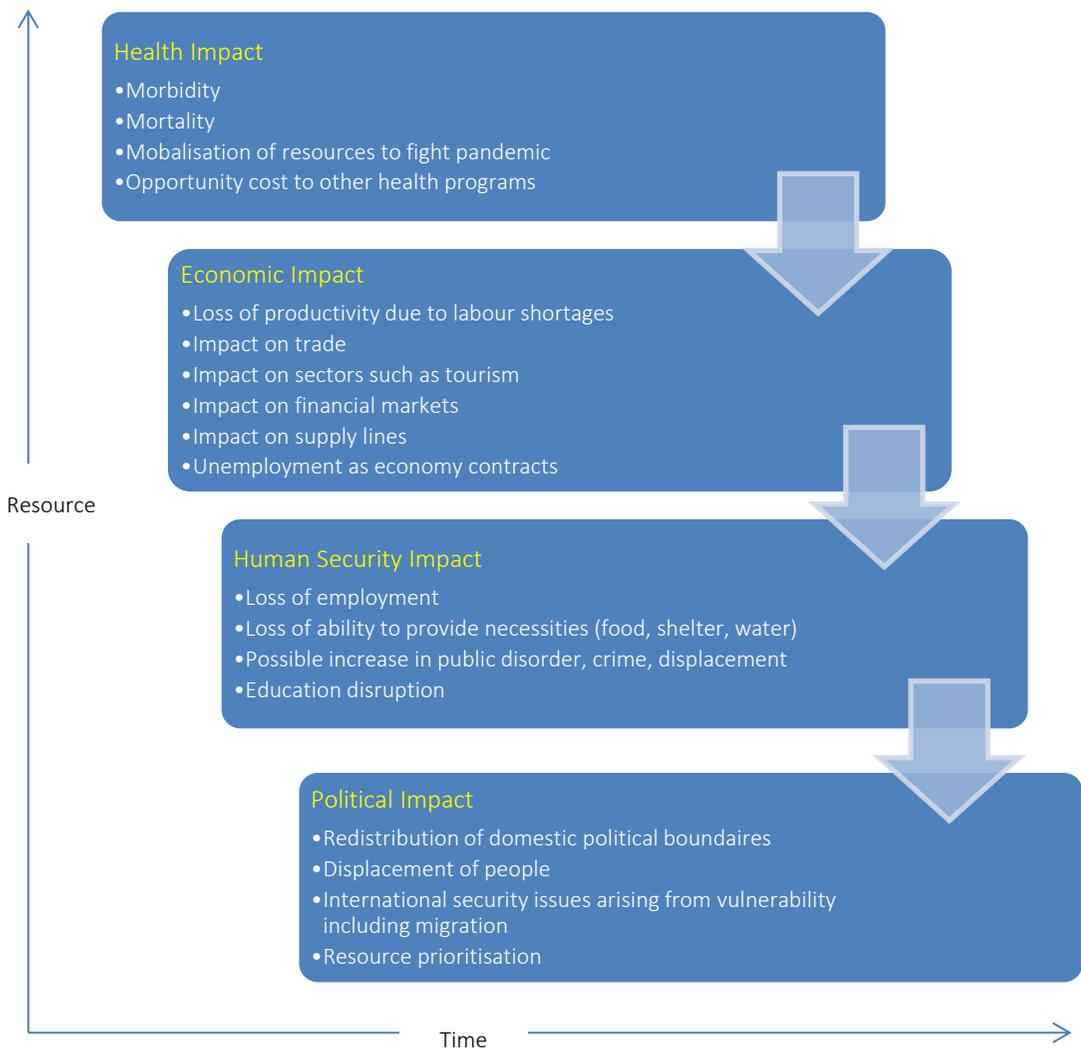
2.4 Pandemics

During recent decades, many new diseases not known to mankind have emerged such as HIV, Ebola, new cholera strains, West Nile virus, SARS, Lyme and most recently Zika. Pandemics have the capacity to cause huge humanitarian crises. At the same time, pandemics can themselves be a result of other humanitarian crises. As such, pandemics present an excellent example of how humanitarian crises are intertwined

and how one type of humanitarian crisis can be sometimes regarded as a driver of crises and other times as an impact of crises.

As drivers, pandemics can open the door to compound crises. Each pandemic can weaken the state and society leaving them less capable to tackle the next wave of crises. This dynamic causes pandemics to create crises beyond health, and the spill over can have economic impacts, human security implications, and political repercussions. As shown in Figure 2.11, the immediate impacts of a pandemic are felt in the health domain. Sooner than later, the impacts of a pandemic will spill over to the

Figure 2.11: Compounding & Cascading Impacts of Pandemics on Society



Source: Adopted from King's College (2009).



economic domain. Further, and as a pandemic unfolds, local people move quickly from worrying about their health to a wider range of needs such as employment to cover their basic needs and whether they had an adequate supply line for food. If employment opportunities become limited as a result of economic uncertainty then, from a systemic perspective, there is a cascade of the pandemic from the economic sector into the social sector as communities begin to focus on survival and food security.

Urban governance is likely to become increasingly problematic during a pandemic, particularly if the informal economy in slums in large cities begins to break down. This could lead to prowling and gang violence as local informal governance structures fight over scarce resources. Greater insecurity and lack of livelihoods force people to migrate to safer places. This may create additional problems in cases of pandemics, as they can be managed only by containment and quarantine (King's College, 2009). If overall situation is not effectively managed, it may turn to a widespread humanitarian crisis.

Although pandemics have devastating impacts on societies, many OIC countries remain among other those that are not well prepared. According to the 2008 joint UNSIC-World Bank global progress report, the world is only '40% prepared' for pandemics, and most of this preparation is in high-income nations. The recent Ebola outbreak has shown the level of vulnerability of some OIC countries and their lack of capacity to manage such large scale crises. Finally, pandemics are increasingly likely to occur in the future, and one of the main factors contributing to this tendency is the increase in urbanization and people living in dense environments. Due to high levels of urbanization observed in OIC countries, they are expected to remain vulnerable to pandemics in the future.

chapter three

IMPACTS OF HUMANITARIAN CRISES



Natural disasters have been among the greatest challenges to the development of human societies. Similarly, man-made crises, including violent conflicts, civil wars and failed states, divert resources from being used for productive economic activities and social welfare and hinder the socio-economic development. They incur direct human costs and longer-term costs on socio-economic development by damaging household assets, ruining infrastructure, depriving confidence in institutions and leading to disorder.

While disasters limit economic and social development process by destructing fixed assets, damaging productive capacities and market access, demolishing transport, health, communications and energy infrastructure, and causing death, disability and migration, unsustainable development practices may in turn increase disaster risks. The relationship between development, peace and stability is also strong and goes in both directions. While peace and security are prerequisites for development and prosperity, failures in development substantially increase proneness to civil conflict. The negative effects of armed conflicts also extend well beyond these measurable social and economic costs. It destroys essential infrastructure, including schools, hospitals, and energy systems; destroys social cohesion; and triggers forced displacement of people.

Yet, interaction between disasters and conflicts may further exacerbate the situation and increase the humanitarian, socio-economic, political and environmental impacts. Conflicts may increase disaster risks by increasing vulnerabilities and hampering effective response and recovery. This indicates that whenever disaster and conflict overlap, it can be difficult to verify whether the existence or severity of conflict is an outcome of the disaster. Given the extremely interconnected dimensions of humanitarian crises, this section provides a general discussion on the consequences of these crises. These include human deprivation, state fragility, economic collapse, human rights violations and migration and displacement.

3.1 Human Deprivation

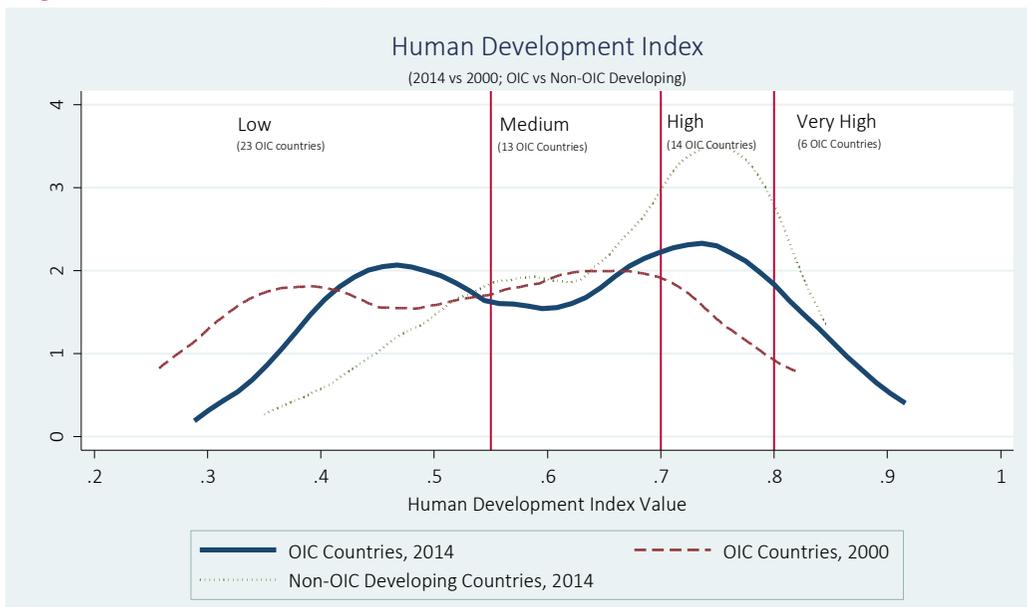
Conflicts and disasters have the largest impact on human life and dignity. Weak and conflict affected states make slower progress in development compared to those with more robust institutions. Similarly, communities that experience the highest levels of violence and political instability in a country or a region are least likely to experience improvements in their livelihoods. They suffer in terms of access to economic opportunities and services, particularly in the area of health, education, water and

sanitation. According to the World Bank (2011), the development deficit is concentrated in fragile and conflict-affected and recovering states, which account for 77% of school-age children not enrolled in primary school, 61% of poverty, and 70% of infant mortality.

Despite devastating natural disasters hitting various countries around the world, armed conflicts have been the greatest driver of prolonged humanitarian need. Crises are becoming more protracted and displacement levels are unprecedented due to the lack of durable political solutions. The majority of people needing humanitarian assistance live in conflict-affected areas (OCHA, 2016). Those who are forced to migrate are often confronted by life-threatening dangers in transit and exploitation to and at their destinations, along with cultural and language barriers, discrimination, exclusion and violence (IFRC, 2012). They may lose links with their families and communities, and experience severe socio-economic loss and impoverishment, with women and children are particularly at risk.

In order to highlight the current level of human development in OIC countries, Figure 3.1 compares the human development index (HDI) values for OIC countries in 2014 with their values in 2000 and values for non-OIC developing countries in 2014. Obviously, while OIC countries improved their human development index over the last 15 years, a larger share of OIC countries remain at the low levels of human development compared to non-OIC developing countries. Majority of OIC countries

Figure 3.1: Human Development Index



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with low HDI values have suffered or been suffering major humanitarian crises due to conflicts or disasters or both.

High incidences of poverty, food security and hunger are a critical dimension of humanitarian crises. By some estimates, the concentration of the global poor doubled between 2005 and 2010, from 20% to 40%, in around 30 fragile states in the “Alert” category of the Fragile States Index ranking (Chandy and Gertz, 2011). Again, it is estimated that while around 18.5% of the world population lived in fragile states in 2010, these countries hosted about one-third of the poor (400 million out of 1.2 billion), reflecting a more than two-fold difference in the prevalence of poverty between fragile states and nonfragile states: about 20% compared to 40% (Sumner, 2012; OECD, 2013).

People suffering humanitarian crises lack access to good education. In conflict affected regions, this is a key instrument for rehabilitation of affected people. Recovery and reconstruction of a nation is more complicated when younger generations do not get good education. Today, according to UNICEF estimates, nearly 3 million Syrian children inside and outside the country are out of school (HRW, 2015). The educational achievements in Syria deteriorated quickly with the conflict. During the 2014-15 school year, 51% of all Syrian children did not attend school, and in the hardest-hit areas up to 74% of children were not enrolled (SCPR, 2015). Countless number of schools have been destroyed, damaged, or converted into shelters.

Another aspect of human deprivation is in the area of health. Whether they are due to natural disasters, conflicts, disease outbreaks or any other hazards, crises can weaken health systems and damage health infrastructure. The greatest vulnerability of any country in an emergency is the health and well-being of its people and communities. Disasters and conflicts can put the continuity and sustainability of health sector services at risk, and destroy many years of health sector development. The famine in Somalia in 2011 affected around 10 million people in the region. Movement of large population across the region fuelled the public health challenges that are faced in these areas due to poorly developed health systems and lack of disaster preparedness capacities (SESRIC, 2014). While in some cases disease outbreak is the source of humanitarian crises, in others it is a major concern after crisis situations. In general, poverty, urbanization and population displacement have led to the concentration of human populations in conditions that are conducive to major outbreaks. The challenge in such situations is to strengthen global efforts to detect and contain epidemic disease threats.

Following political unrest and armed conflict in Mali in 2012, the WHO investigated the status of health facilities and services in all of the country's 60 health districts. The conflict had resulted in widespread population displacement, with 300,000 internally displaced populations (IDPs) and 174,000 registered refugees. Access to health care was affected by the destruction and looting of health facilities, equipment and supplies, the departure of public and NGO health care providers, and the suspension of priority health programmes. The results showed that almost one in five health facilities was at least partially damaged, with big regional disparities. In the hardest-hit Kidal region, nearly half of all health facilities surveyed were completely destroyed and 71% had ceased to function. Basic laboratory and blood bank services and emergency obstetric care were reduced to almost nothing in the northern areas (WHO, 2015).

Violence against women and girls is one of the most prevalent human rights violations in the world and this often intensifies during conflict situations. Gender-based violence has been a weapon of war or conflict, frequently used as an instrument to control and intimidate a population. Refugees and displaced people are particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence. Various factors related to conflict situations, such as forced displacement, separation of families, disruption of community and institutional protection structures, and lack of access to justice, increase the likelihood of gender-based violence. Similarly, disasters can also cause a deterioration of protection systems, with potentially increase vulnerability to gender-based violence as a result. While the full scale of the crisis globally is now known, sexual violence against men and boys has also been reported in over 25 conflict-affected countries in the last decade (Barbelet, 2014).

3.2 State Fragility

According to OECD, a fragile region or state has a limited or weakened capacity to carry out basic governance functions, and lacks the ability to develop mutually constructive relations with society (OECD, 2012). Fragile states are more vulnerable to internal or external shocks such as economic crises or natural disasters. Fragility can be driven by a mix of factors including lack of good governance, economic and social exclusion, economic collapse, chronic poverty, extremism and demographic pressures. Where there are common and interrelated factors, there is no standard process to explain causal linkages between various risk factors associated with fragility.

It is found that people in fragile and conflict affected situations are more than twice as likely to be undernourished and lack clean water as those in other developing countries (World Bank, 2011). The situation of people facing humanitarian crisis in a fragile state setting can be even more challenging to deal with. Fragile and conflict

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affected states generally confront complex challenges to achieving effective development. A key characteristic of fragility is weak state legitimacy (McLoughlin, 2012), which requires focusing on strengthening state institutions in the development process. External engagements in such settings need to benefit from local knowledge and experiences in their interventions.

The ability of a state to respond to internal and external shocks is another factor in understanding the level of its fragility. In the presence of weak institutions and poor governance, it is

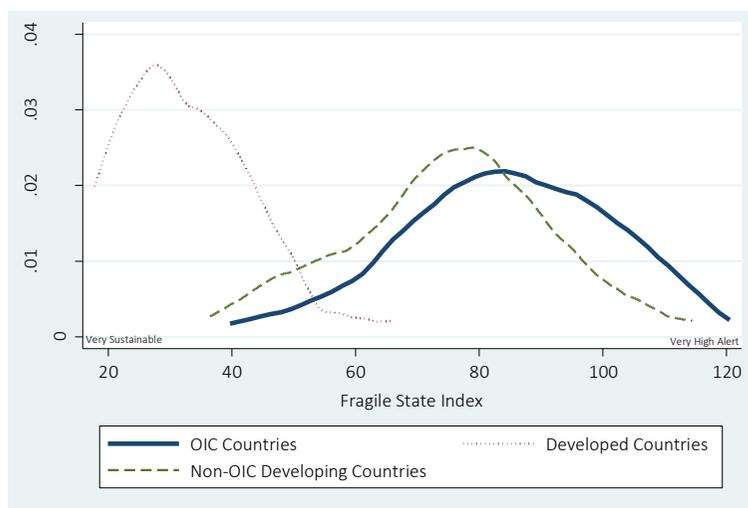
easier for different armed groups to claim control over certain territories of a country, but it also increases the level of vulnerability of people to severe humanitarian crises. A state's inability to provide basic services to its people in such circumstances will

simply aggravate the consequences of humanitarian crises. According to the Fragile States Index (FSI) of the Fund for Peace, the level of fragility of OIC countries is higher than that of non-OIC developing countries (Figure 3.2). 21 OIC countries are categorized under alert, high alert or very high alert levels in terms of state fragility and 25 other OIC countries are grouped under warning and high warning levels.

Violent conflict is the ultimate manifestation of state fragility. However, it is not just an outcome of fragility, but rather can also be a driving factor of fragility (Vallings and Moreno-Torres, 2005). Poverty is certainly linked to fragility, but not all poor regions are necessarily fragile. Fragility can occur when economic decline is combined with the presence of weak state institutions that cannot manage grievances caused by inequitable distribution of resources or unequal access to services. Essentially, this means that in fragile states political institutions are not strong enough to effectively manage the conflicts that occur in society.

An important fact is that fragile states can have direct negative spillover effects on neighbouring states. This could be the spillover of violent conflicts, refugee influxes,

Figure 3.2: Distribution of Fragile State Index, 2015



epidemic diseases, organized crime and barriers to trade and investment (Ncube and Jones, 2013). Noting that weak state institutions are the root causes of fragility, the multidimensional and mutually reinforcing nature of the drivers of fragility raise obstacles for anyone who is involving in strengthening the state. At times of economic, social and political changes, the state of fragility becomes even more critical.

At a very broad level, fragility is the result of a dynamic interplay between internal factors (including violent conflict, poverty, economic and structural conditions, weak formal institutions), and external factors (including international political economy, regional and global insecurity) (Mcloughlin, 2012). Although fragility is accepted to be multi-causal and multi-dimensional in any given context, some analysts place more importance on certain causal factors over others. Taken together, Figure 3.3 presents the major causes and characteristics of fragility under four groups.

Figure 3.3: Major Causes and Characteristics of Fragility in OIC

Structural and economic factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Poverty, high income disparity, abundance or scarcity of natural resources, demographic pressures and rapid urbanisation, lack of adequate education and skilled labour, lack of diversification
Political and institutional factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Weak state legitimacy, poor governance, oppression of political opponents, weak institutions, institutional multiplicity, lack of participation to decision making, political violence and armed conflict
Social and environmental factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Inequalities in access to services, social exclusion, gender inequality, lack of social cohesion, weak civil society, climate change, high exposure to hazards
Regional and international factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Legacy of colonialism, global economic and financial crises, price speculations over primary commodities, lack of regional cooperation

3.3 Economic Collapse

An important implication of humanitarian crises is observed in the economic field. Disasters and conflicts may result in the physical destruction of production capacity, infrastructure, factories, machinery, agricultural production capacity, physical destruction of land and higher military expenditure. In addition to these direct effects, further deterioration of economic activities can be observed due to repercussionary impacts on other factors such as capital flight, dislocation of labour, discouragement of new foreign investments, brain drain and reduction of trade. A fall in total factor

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productivity due to reduction in economic efficiency and technology absorption can be manifested in the contraction of output, acceleration of inflation, a loss of reserves and weaker financing systems (Sab, 2014).

The complex and mutually reinforcing relationship between fragility/conflict and economic collapse is widely recognised (McIntosh and Buckley, 2015). While prolonged conflicts lead to deteriorations in human and physical productive capacity of an economy, economic mismanagement and weak governance contribute to the factors leading to the onset of the conflict (Ncube and Jones, 2013). Moreover, public resources are diverted from productive activities and social services to defence and military finance. A shift can also be observed away from economic activities that are vulnerable to war (e.g., construction, finance, and manufacturing) towards activities that are less vulnerable but also less productive, such as subsistence agriculture (Costalli et al., 2014).

Despite the linkages between two dynamics, the characteristics of economic growth and conflict differ widely across contexts (McIntosh and Buckley, 2015). Research suggests that conflicts lead to deterioration in the macroeconomic variables, but the magnitude varies significantly across countries. Table 3.1 shows the average annual growth in per capita income in selected OIC countries during conflict and post-conflict periods, which reveals great variation across countries. World Bank (2016) finds that restoring Libya's infrastructure will cost an estimated \$200 billion over the next ten years. The damage to the capital stock in Syria as of mid-2014 is estimated between \$70-80 billion. Conflicts may also impact the neighbouring countries depending on, among others, the level of economic integration with the conflict country, initial economic conditions and characteristics of refugees. The cost of Syrian conflict to the five neighbouring countries (Turkey, Lebanon, Jordan, Iraq, and Egypt) is estimated to be \$35 billion in output, equivalent to Syria's GDP in 2007 (World Bank, 2016).

Natural disasters can also cause significant loss and deterioration in economic terms. It is found that 78 disasters caused a total of USD 140 billion in damage and losses on all sectors, of which USD 30 billion was on the agriculture sector and subsectors (FAO, 2015). The agriculture sector accounts for approximately 22% of the economic impact caused by medium- and large scale natural hazards and disasters in developing countries. In 67 developing countries, disasters caused USD 70 billion in crop and livestock production losses, 44% of which were caused by drought and 39% by floods. Total impact on agricultural trade flows during the year when disasters occurred and the subsequent year was estimated at USD 33.7 billion during 2003-2013.

Table 3.1: Average annual GDP per capita growth in selected OIC countries (percent)

Start and end date of conflict	Pre-conflict (%)	Number of years in conflict	In conflict (%)	Number of years post conflict	Post-conflict (%)
Afghanistan 1978-2001	2.6	24	-6.5	6	10.4
Azerbaijan 1991-1994	-2.2	4	-17.8	13	9.4
Chad 1965-1990	...	26	-0.3	17	2.3
Lebanon 1975-1990	0	16	-5	17	3.7
Mozambique 1976-1992	1.6	17	-1.4	15	5.3
Sierra Leone 1991-2001	-0.1	11	-7.3	6	8
Tajikistan 1992-1997	-2.3	6	-15.2	10	7.1
Uganda 1979-1991	-1	13	-2	16	2.9
Ivory Coast 2002-2003	-0.6	2	-3.2	4	-0.1
Guinea-Bissau 1998-1999	0.4	2	-13.2	8	-3.2

Source: World Bank (2016).

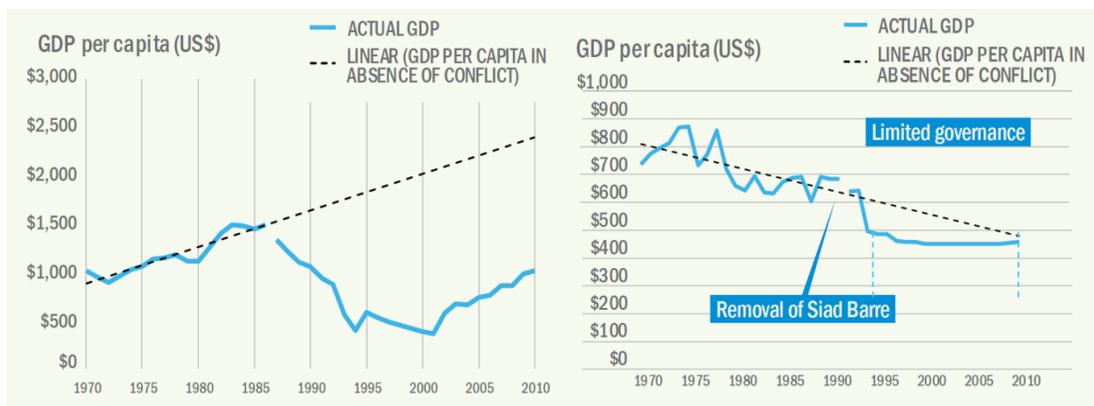
Two OIC countries were particularly affected from protracted crises and conflict: Afghanistan and Somalia. Soviet occupation and a subsequent civil war in Afghanistan had significant impacts on the Afghan economy. Figure 3.4a shows that the per capita GDP in 2010 would have been \$2,400, or almost double what was actually achieved if the trend before the Soviet war would continue. The total cost of conflicts is estimated at USD 39 billion (IEP, 2014), more than Afghanistan's entire GDP in 2014. Afghanistan's per capita income was approximately as high in 1970 as it was in 2010, implying that conflict has cost the country at least 40 years of economic growth.

In Somalia, the removal of long-time leader Siad Barre in 1991 led to a political and power vacuum, resulting in armed opposition groups competing for control of the country. As a result the GDP per capita fell drastically from \$643 in 1992 to \$452 in 2001 (IEP, 2014). As depicted in Figure 3.4b, a lack of governance and protracted crises undermined any prospect for even short term economic growth. The negative trend observed in per capita income levels prior to the conflict could also be one of the causes of the conflict. As a comparison, the Korean GDP per capita after the Korean War was USD 64 less than that of Somalia.² Today, with USD 28,000 per capita income level, South Korea has an income level that is more than 50 time higher than that in Somalia with only USD 542. Somalia is the clearest example available of the worst-case scenario of long term conflict and insecurity and its impact on economic growth and human development and potential.

² <http://www.newyorker.com/magazine/2015/03/23/about-face>

Figure 3.4a: GDP per capita in Afghanistan, 1970 - 2010

Figure 3.4b: GDP per capita in Somalia, 1970 - 2010



Source: IEP (2014).

Natural disasters and conflicts can substantially destroy assets and productive capacities. Economic recovery from crises depends on several factors and the speed of recovery differs significantly across countries. Research finds that the economic and institutional development of the country, structure of the economy, the duration of the war, and engagement of the international community are some of the factors that are important in post-conflict recovery (Sab, 2014).

There is also need for promoting the resilience of critical infrastructure, including health and education facilities but also transport, energy, water and communication networks, which can be severely affected by armed conflicts or disasters. This is also one of the seven global targets of the Sendai Framework. When critical infrastructure collapses during a disaster event, it can interrupt life-saving and essential services and threaten sustainability. Although there is no database on the impacts of disasters and conflicts on infrastructure, it is widely known that particularly armed conflicts have devastating impacts on schools and hospitals. Building better from the start to withstand hazards through proper design and construction, regularly maintenance, retrofitting and rebuilding are among the measures that can minimize the impacts of natural disasters on infrastructure. This culture of prevention also explains how better prepared countries do better, such as Japan, compared to less prepared ones, such as Pakistan.

3.4 Human Rights Violation

Human rights are universal legal guarantees protecting individuals and groups against actions and omissions that interfere with fundamental freedoms, entitlements and human dignity. Human rights are universal, inalienable, interrelated, interdependent

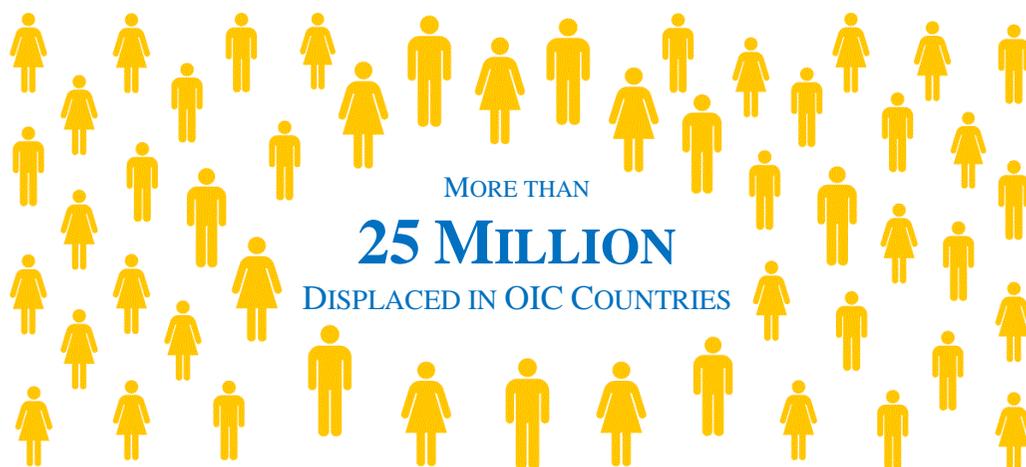
and indivisible. These can be civil and political rights, economic, social and cultural rights, or collective rights (OHCHR, 2012). Discriminatory denials of fundamental human rights in these areas results in inequalities in the societies. For example, discriminating in access to employment, education and health services, ethnic and political disputes, using education as a tool for propaganda, and forcibly expelling communities from their homes are all abuses of rights that have fed conflict in the past.

At times of humanitarian crisis, whether natural, man-made or complex origin, the provision of services can be highly discriminatory and inequitable. The role of the state in addressing these kinds of violations is of the utmost importance. However, weak and fragile states tend to fail in fulfilling their obligations to promote and protect human rights. In such circumstances, the conflict may become both a pretext and a disguise for human rights violations. Research suggests that violent conflicts are deeply connected to the existence of systematic discriminations (Sriram et al., 2014). Moreover, failure to address systematic discrimination and inequities in the enjoyment of these rights can undermine the recovery from conflict.

In this context, armed conflict that creates serious humanitarian crisis has long been associated with human rights violations. In conflict situations, there is by definition an infringement of the individual's right to personal security and a number of other rights. Armed conflict also prolongs, expands and, in most cases, intensifies human rights abuses. It has been also argued that unsatisfied human needs are among the root causes of most violent conflicts (European Commission, 2014). The denial of economic, social and cultural rights can lead to violations of other human rights. For example, it is often harder for illiterate individuals to find work, to take part in political activity or to exercise their freedom of expression (OHCHR, 2008). Therefore, human rights violations are often a cause and a consequence of humanitarian crises.

While severe human rights violations (including torture, arbitrary arrest, extrajudicial executions, intimidation and disappearances) emerge primarily as a result of violent conflict, the extent and intensity of conflicts today threatens the promotion and protection of human rights. Serious violations of international humanitarian and human rights law are common in many armed conflicts.³ In the majority of occasions it

³ Although different in scope, international human rights law and international humanitarian law offer a series of protections to persons in armed conflict, whether civilians, persons who are no longer participating directly in hostilities or active participants in the conflict. International human rights law is a system of international norms designed to protect and promote the human rights of all persons. International humanitarian law is a set of rules which seek to limit the effects of armed conflict for humanitarian reasons. It protects persons who are not or are no longer participating in the hostilities, and restricts the means and methods of warfare. Its scope is, therefore, limited to situations of armed conflict.



involves a conscious choice to harm civilians, although it can have other objectives beyond just injuring or killing civilians because it may be intended to terrorise the population (European Commission, 2014). A further dreadful result of armed conflict and human rights violations is the large numbers of refugees. As shown in the next sub-section, an increasing number of people are deciding to flee to other countries where their lives or freedom are threatened.

Natural disasters are traditionally seen as situations creating challenges mainly related to the provision of humanitarian assistance. Less attention has been devoted to the need for human rights protection in this particular context. In particular, some large scale natural disasters can create human rights challenges in the aftermath of crisis. This may include lack of safety and security; gender-based violence; unequal access to assistance, basic goods and services and discrimination in aid provision; family separation; unequal access to employment and livelihood opportunities; and forced relocation (IASC, 2011). Experience has shown that the longer the effects of the disaster last, the greater the risk of human rights violations becomes. It is also found that pre-existing vulnerabilities and patterns of discrimination usually become exacerbated in situations of natural disasters (IASC, 2011). Often, negative impacts on the human rights concerns after a natural disaster are the result of inadequate planning and disaster preparedness, inappropriate policies and measures to respond to the disasters.

The needs of affected people following natural hazards or conflicts go beyond humanitarian assistance. Societies emerging from armed conflict face immense human rights needs which are entrenched with security and development dimensions. The

The two bodies of law are considered to be complementary sources of obligations in situations of armed conflict (OHCHR, 2011).

complexities of post-conflict situations require that special attention be given to repairing large-scale damage inflicted on law and order as well as economic, health and educational infrastructures (POTI, 2012). However, in post-conflict situations with weak institutional environments, the ability of states to meet the basic needs of its population is largely constrained (ODI, 2006).

3.5 Migration and Displacement

A humanitarian crisis is a situation that presents a widespread threat to health, life or property. When people feel unsafe in a location, they tend to move to safer places. While many migrants move voluntarily to have access to better economic opportunities and different lifestyles, extreme natural events, conflicts and oppressions lead to situations of sudden displacement and force people to move within or even across the borders, a situation described as crisis migration.⁴ Major factors that trigger crisis migration include extreme natural events that cause destruction of lives and infrastructure, environmental degradation that undermines livelihoods and causes famine, armed conflicts and political violence that raise the concerns over security, and epidemics and pandemics with high levels of mortality. On the other hand, forced displacement caused by slow-onset conditions, such as food insecurity, persistent violence, prolonged or recurrent drought and rising sea levels, poses further humanitarian challenges.

Economic factors, political instability or social marginalization usually deliver enough motivation for populations to migrate. Factors leading to migrations could be life threatening, but the process of migration and settlement in destinations can be equally dangerous due to smuggling, trafficking, exploitation and harassment. Serious human rights violations on the basis of race, religion, nationality or other factors can be a cause for migration but also a consequence of it.

Armed conflicts today account for the bulk of the displacement of civilian populations within or across the boundaries, particularly in Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq. In total, conflict and violence account for around 60% of forced migration (IFRC, 2012). Political instability, weak governance and state repression as sources of humanitarian crises are among the major factors forcing thousands of people to flee across borders, such as in Libya and Somalia. Humanitarian crises triggered by natural disasters and environmental changes, such as floods, cyclones, earthquakes and prolonged droughts in countries like Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sudan lead to relocation of large populations across the regions. Recurrent droughts in parts of sub-Saharan Africa undermine

⁴ The term “crisis migration” was coined to describe temporary or permanent movement within and across borders in response to or in anticipation of emergencies.

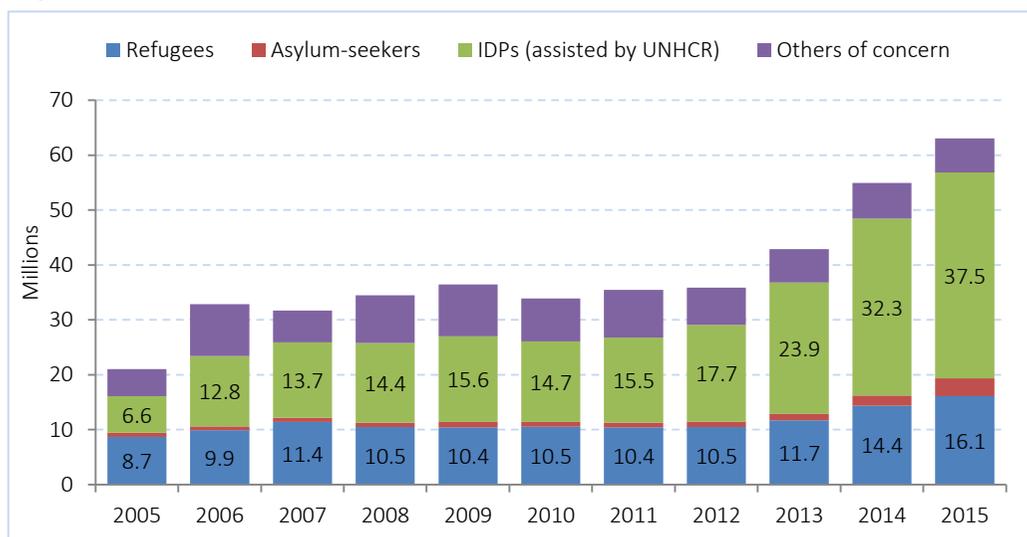
Humanitarian Crises in OIC Countries:
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livelihoods and are a principal cause for displacement of millions who rely on subsistence agriculture.

In cases where the capability to cope or adapt to extreme situations is already lacking, conflicts and political violations further exacerbate the humanitarian crisis. As a country where natural and man-made disasters concur frequently, Somalian people face particular tragedy. The year 2011 saw particularly dramatic levels of internal and regional displacement, with estimates reaching 1.5 million and 1 million people respectively (IFRC, 2012). While some people moved due to incidents of political violence or environmental changes, the majority have been displaced by a combination both factors. The drought and conflict in Mali also led hundreds of thousands people to flee their home. When drought combines with conflict or political violence, food insecurity becomes a major factor that forces populations with almost no coping capacities to migrate.

Therefore, it is fair to argue that the drivers of migration are increasingly interlaced and mutually reinforcing. Combinations of previous chronic stress factors such as lack of good governance or recurring events may create a humanitarian crisis out of almost any event or hazard (ISIM, 2013). Population growth, economic backwardness, weak governance, armed conflict, political violence, as well as poor urban planning are important factors that further weaken resilience and exacerbate the impacts of natural hazards and escalate displacement. Potentially every State could be confronted with such displacement, either as a country of destination, transit or origin. This requires

Figure 3.5: Total Displacement in the World (2005-2015)

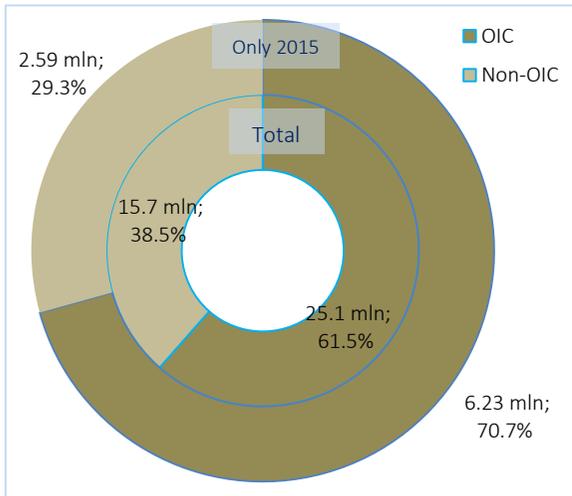


Source: UNHCR

better preparedness and cooperation by states and the international community to prevent and respond to displacement and its causes. Furthermore, initial temporary displacement, whether within or across borders, may become protracted. Irregular and unplanned settlement of displaced people may result in rapidly expanding cities that are further vulnerable to environmental as well as socio-economic challenges.

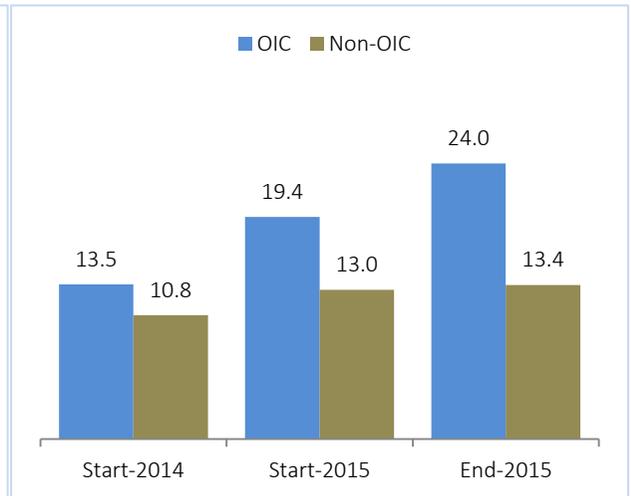
According to the Nansen Initiative (2015), a total of 184.4 million people were displaced by disasters between 2008 and 2014, an average of 26.4 million people newly displaced each year. Of these, an annual average of 22.5 million people was displaced by weather- and climate-related hazards. Disaster-induced displacement may create humanitarian challenges, undermine development and increase security concerns. According to UNHCR, 63 million people are forcibly displaced worldwide. 16.1 of which are refugees, 37.5 million are internally displaced and 3.2 million are asylum seekers. Turkey is the largest refugee-hosting country with more than 3 million refugees, followed by Pakistan (1.5 million), Lebanon (1.1 million), Iran (979,000), Ethiopia (736,000) and Jordan (664,000). Figure 3.5 shows the trend of displacement in the world over the last decade. There is a clear upward trend in the number of displaced people over the period under consideration.

Figure 3.6a: Total Displacement in OIC and Non-OIC Countries



Source: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC)

Figure 3.6b: Total Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) Protected/Assisted by UNHCR



Source: UNHCR

Figure 3.7a: Total Refugees from OIC and Non-OIC Countries (2015)

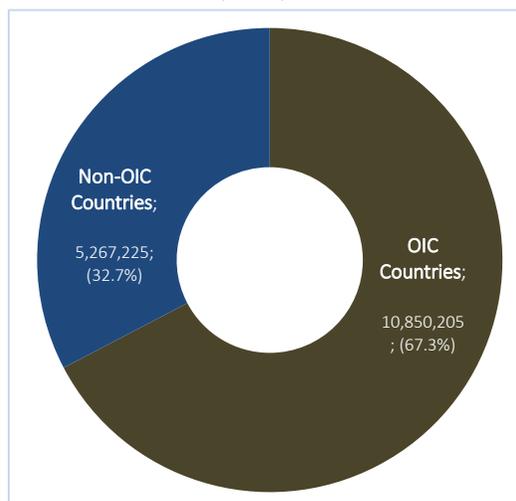
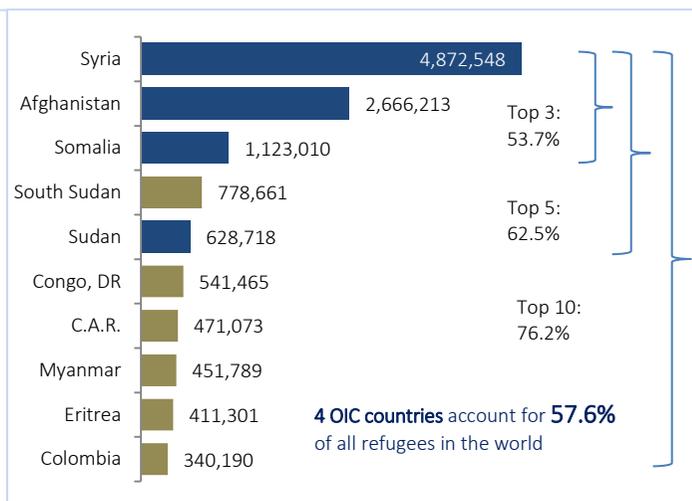


Figure 3.7b: Major Source Countries of Refugees (2015)



Source: UNHCR

Figure 3.6a shows the total displacement in OIC and non-OIC countries. As of 2015, OIC countries accounted for 61.5% of all displaced population in the world with more than 25 million displaced persons (inner circle). Moreover, 70.7% of new displacements in 2015 took place in OIC countries (outer circle). According to UNHCR, internally displaced persons (IDPs) protected/assisted by UNHCR in OIC countries increased from 13.5 million at the beginning of 2014 to 24 million at the end of 2015, indicating almost 78% or 10.5 million increase in just two years. This number increased from 10.8 million to 13.4 million in non-OIC countries during the same period (Figure 3.6b). This means that around 80% of all new internal displacement over the last two years took place in OIC countries. Moreover, countries where new displacement took place during this period were among the most economically vulnerable and least able to cope with a crisis (IDMC, 2015a). Yet again, as of 2015 more than 10 million refugees or 67% of all refugees had originated from OIC countries (Figure 3.7a). Figure 3.7b shows the major source countries of refugees as of the end of 2015. In this respect, the top three countries are OIC member countries and they are collectively a source for 53.7% of all refugees in the world.

chapter four

CURRENT HUMANITARIAN CRISES



Crises are characterized by their own unique circumstances. Rather than seeking commonalities spanning all crises, this section aims to identify root causes and key challenges faced by populations, governments and the international community in crises where Muslim communities suffer. While the focus is set on the problems and challenges faced within OIC countries, additional cases will be reviewed in non-OIC countries where Muslim minorities face significant humanitarian challenges. The information provided in this section relies on secondary research and aims at reflecting the current situation through use of the most recent and accurate data in a concise manner.

4.1 Assessment of Major Humanitarian Crises in OIC Countries

While the origins of some crises may be deeply rooted in a broad range of socio-economic and political factors, the analysis of this section will be limited to current drivers and impacts of major humanitarian crises in selected OIC countries. To an extent, possible opportunities for recovery from crisis situations are also discussed. The selected OIC countries are Syria, Iraq, Yemen, Afghanistan, Palestine, Libya, Somalia, Sudan and Nigeria. Countries affected by Ebola outbreak are dismissed due to present containment of the disease.

SYRIA

Intense internal war with the involvement of foreign countries

Affected from major armed conflicts since 2011



Crisis Factors	Armed conflict, weak government legitimacy
Major Impacts	Human deprivation in all aspects, migration and displacement, weak government institutions, violation of human rights, gender-based violence, economic collapse, destruction of infrastructure
Opportunities	Generous hospitality of neighbouring countries in hosting the refugees

The so-called Arab Spring in Tunisia, Egypt and Libya encouraged the Syrian people to take to the streets in peaceful demonstrations during late 2011. They were demanding more freedoms in peaceful demonstrations in order to live in more liberated conditions. With the protests becoming widespread, president Bashar al-Assad issued international announcements from the assembly in Damascus in March and April 2011 that he would undertake reforms on various issues, including people's rights to organize and form parties, independent elections, provision of social justice, and the protection of the rights of different people living within Syria such as the Kurds, Arabs and Turkmens. However, the Assad regime responded to peaceful demonstrations by torturing, killing and shooting at the protesters that sparked the crisis in Syria.

At the same time, the refugee crisis started to emerge with thousands of Syrians fleeing to neighbouring countries. By June 2011, the number of Syrian refugees reached 12,000 in Turkey and 8,500 in Lebanon. Soon after, the first refugees also began trickling into Jordan. The year 2013 witnessed grave developments in the Syrian internal war, where Hezbollah became officially and heavily involved in the conflict helping the Assad regime launch offensives against rebel forces. The conflict continued to escalate in 2014 with battles ranging between the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), moderate rebel groups, and Assad regime forces supported by Hezbollah. In September 2014, the USA started its bombing campaign against ISIL. By 2015, direct Russian military intervention was witnessed in Syria. With these developments, Syria became the stage to a proxy war waged by international actors; making it increasingly difficult to understand who is fighting for whom among millions of innocents attempting to survive under inhumane conditions (UN-OCHA, 2015a).

Almost six years have passed since the beginning of the Syrian revolution and it come to be one of the greatest tragedies in the history of the OIC and the contemporary history of the world. All in all, around 500,000 have been killed and 1.5 million people have been wounded.

The Syrian conflict has also triggered the world's largest humanitarian crisis since World War II. Humanitarian needs continue to rise, with growing displacements, and an entire generation of children having been exposed to war and violence, increasingly deprived of basic services, education and protection. According to ECHO (2016a), the total number of people in need of humanitarian assistance in Syria has reached 13.5 million, with approximately 6.6 million of whom are internally displaced. According to estimates, since 2011, for every hour of every day 50 Syrian families have been displaced, on average.

Humanitarian Crises in OIC Countries: Drivers, Impacts, Current Challenges and Potential Remedies

Around 4.9 million Syrians fled to other countries where they became refugees due to the war in Syria. Women and children make up three-quarters of the refugee population. During the on-going internal war in Syria, three major factors pushed Syrians to leave their home; namely, safety, violence and collapsed infrastructure.

Across Syria, civilians continue to be primary victims of the war. Sexual violence, enforced disappearances, forcible displacement, recruitment of child soldiers, summary executions and deliberate shelling of civilian targets have become commonplace where there is no state-actor or rule of law present to prevent these incidents.

Naturally, the majority of Syrian refugees went to neighbouring countries, including Turkey, Iraq, Jordan and Lebanon. In particular, countries sharing borders with Syria are reaching critical levels of saturation, particularly Lebanon, which hosts almost 1.1 million Syrian refugees and has, along with Jordan, the largest per capita refugee population in the world. Turkey is currently hosting more than 2.8 million Syrian refugees, the largest total number of refugees hosted in a single country in the world. Despite the extraordinary generosity offered by hosting countries, millions of Syrian refugees are still in need of food and safe drinking water, non-food items, shelter, emergency medical treatment and other forms of protection in order to survive.

The magnitude of humanitarian need is overwhelming in all parts of the country. Food security and shelter are the most urgent humanitarian services Syrians are in need of. Three out of four Syrians live in poverty. A deep economic recession, fluctuating national currency, sanctions, soaring food and fuel prices, and disrupted markets have contributed to Syrians' extreme vulnerability across the country with the ultimate collapse of the national economy. In the last 18 months, fuel prices have more than doubled. Wheat flour has increased by 300% and rice by 650% respectively, compared to pre-crisis figures (Humanitarian Response, 2015).

Apart from the collapse of the national economy and insufficient humanitarian budget available for the Syrian, restricted humanitarian access to people in need in Syria remains a major challenge stemming from shifting frontlines, administrative and bureaucratic hurdles, violence along access routes and general safety and security concerns; especially in areas under control of terrorist groups that only serve to intensify the humanitarian crisis in Syria. According to ECHO (2016a), more than 480,000 people have to live in besieged areas where humanitarian assistance is not allowed in.

In Syria, as of 2016, humanitarian needs have become a secondary issue where decisions of people now concern matters of life and death. The overall impact of the

Syrian war on life expectancy is devastating; among Syrians life expectancy is reduced by over 20 years since 2011 according to UN estimates. In the case of Syria, only a political solution will end the strife and can initiate a state re-building process. On-going military operations among different armed groups in Syria do not seem to be bringing the war to a close, but rather play a part in deepening the humanitarian crisis. During early 2017, there have been attempts to reinstate peace talks between Syrian civil war actors. However, little in the way of prospects for reconciliation or an end to the war is visible.

IRAQ

Besieged Territories by the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) and on-going Military Intervention against ISIL

Affected from major armed conflicts since 2003



Crisis Factors	Armed conflict, lack of political stability
Major Impacts	Human deprivation in all aspects, migration and displacement, weak government institutions, violation of human rights, restricted access to basic services, gender-based violence
Opportunities	Potential of quick recovery due to natural resource reserves, higher likelihood of affected people to return their home due to low number of cross-border migration

The country was in turmoil since the US invasion of Iraq in 2003. Political instability led to emergence of different terrorist groups. Current crisis in Iraq is mostly connected with the fight against the ISIL. Upon the take-over of certain Iraqi territories by ISIL, the government and its allied forces launched a counter-insurgency operation to protect civilians, and get back full control of the territories occupied by ISIL. The protection of civilians from violence and grave violations of both human rights and international humanitarian law is an immediate and overarching concern in the Iraq crisis. Iraq's protection crisis is characterised by targeted attacks on civilians, restricted access to basic services, sexual and gender-based violence and grave violations of child rights. Improving and advocating for the protection of civilians in this conflict must therefore underpin all humanitarian efforts.

Humanitarian Crises in OIC Countries: Drivers, Impacts, Current Challenges and Potential Remedies

Due to the attacks of ISIL, the violence intensified in August 2014, and thousands of families from Sinjar province were driven from their homes in fear for their lives. Many survivors suffered from dehydration and shock, and a significant number of killings and abuse were perpetrated against children. In fact, similar large-scale incidents have been reported from different cities occupied by ISIL in Iraq. In this respect, the humanitarian crisis in Iraq is multidimensional in that ISIL does not respect any rule or agreement, given that it has been attacking humanitarian assistance service providers and humanitarian camps full of innocent people.

The ongoing and deepening war with ISIL raises the number of people affected from the crisis daily. The battle of Iraqi forces to retake occupied territories has intensified, but the humanitarian situation remains critical. In one specific case, people from Ramadi were relocated to the Habbaniyah Tourist City by authorities, where humanitarian partners provide an emergency response to people in need. In another concerning development, nearly 1,800 people east of Mount Sinjar along the border with Al-Ayadiyah sub-district in Ninewa Governorate were stranded between military lines and continue to be denied access to safer territories.

Another aspect of the on-going humanitarian crisis in Iraq is the coordination and governance problems associated with the Central Iraqi Government. In particular, the increased political tension between the Northern Iraqi Government and Central Iraqi Government results in serious issues in organising and executing humanitarian assistance programmes, while discouraging some donors and NGOs willing to assist people in Iraq in responding to one of the worst humanitarian crises seen in the recent history. Therefore, political instability and increased tension between central and regional governments in Iraq not only affects the success of on-going military interventions against terrorist elements but also reduces the effectiveness of humanitarian assistance efforts.

The humanitarian situation in Iraq has continued to worsen and the ongoing conflict is having profound humanitarian consequences. Ongoing military operations, insecurity, and widespread rights violations have forced entire communities to flee their homes. According to the UN-OCHA estimations, almost a third of Iraq's population –11 million people– will require some form of humanitarian assistance in 2017 (UN-OCHA, 2016a). This includes 3.1 million people who have fled their homes (i.e. internally displaced people) since January 2014 about 1.2 million returnees, and nearly 250,000 refugees. It is estimated that around 5 million civilians live in ISIL controlled areas where humanitarian access is not possible or at best severely restricted. The conflict across Iraq affected the most vulnerable members of society, namely children and women. It is estimated that children constitute almost half of the displaced population in Iraq.

The UN-OCHA figures show that for the year 2015 the Humanitarian Response Plan required a budget of USD 704 million. However, only an amount of USD 518 million could be secured from donors where 26% of the needed funding could not be met. This means that hundreds of thousands of people during 2015 could not get their basic needs from shelter to sanitation. In 2017, a total of USD 930 million is required to ensure that people can receive the assistance they need (UN-OCHA, 2016a). According to the UN-OCHA, food security, shelter, and protection are the first three items that dominate the humanitarian response plan for Iraq. Education and health requirements are other major items in the list of humanitarian needs (UN-OCHA, 2016b). According to ACAP (2014) report, shelter is a high priority for the most internally displaced persons where nearly 70% of the displaced live in insecure shelters, such as mosques, schools, parks, and abandoned buildings.

The lack of access to basic services especially in besieged areas creates further vulnerabilities and widens the scale of the humanitarian crisis. In particular, access constraints faced by humanitarian assistance services to territories under control of ISIL and on-going military operation zones not only worsen the humanitarian situation in these areas but also creates difficulties to make correct estimations about the scope and intensity of the humanitarian crisis for mobilizing an impactful humanitarian response.

The coalition against ISIL is also gaining more international support that will help Iraqi Government to push back ISIL and regain areas occupied by ISIL. In this respect, a joint-coalition to retake the ISIL occupied city of Mosul has been making steady, if difficult progress in recent months. Looking towards the future however, the possession of extensive oil reserves has always been constituted a window of opportunity for the future of Iraq. As the Central Iraqi Government increases their control over besieged areas, oil production in Iraq will go up, which will help secure funding for re-building damaged infrastructure including hospitals, schools, and residential areas all across the country. Unlike the case of the Syrian crisis, the majority of Iraqi people chose to stay within Iraqi borders. As stability increases in Iraq as a result of successful military intervention against ISIL, more people can return to their home cities that will lead to the rapid recovery of the Iraqi economy. Without human capital, limited financial injections from different sources or secured aid from foreign donors could only have a limited impact on the recovery of Iraq.

YEMEN

Chronic vulnerability, political instability and widespread armed conflict

Affected from armed conflicts since 1992/2011



Crisis Factors	Armed conflict, political instability
Major Impacts	Human deprivation, migration and displacement, weak government institutions, violation of human rights, economic collapse, restricted access to basic services
Opportunities	Higher likelihood of affected people to return their home due to low number of cross-border migration

Since 2011, Yemen's transitional government has been challenged by political instability and insecurity that has further weakened the country's social and economic situation. Internal conflicts –including tribal clashes, attacks and separatist movements– continue to create new vulnerabilities throughout Yemen. Armed conflict has spread rapidly across much of Yemen since March 2015, with devastating consequences for civilians. The UN organs and their partners estimate that 21.2 million people –82% of the population– require some form of humanitarian or protection assistance. This represents 33% in need since the conflict escalated in March 2015 (ECHO, 2016b).

Continued conflict, months of import restrictions, a collapsing economy and rapidly deteriorating basic services are deepening humanitarian threats to Yemen. These needs have been exacerbated by the disregard -by all parties to the conflict- for international humanitarian law, given the targeting and use of civilian infrastructure for military purposes. In 2015, at least 8.8 million women, men, and children were reached by UN agencies with humanitarian assistance across Yemen. These results have been achieved by a limited presence of international staff due to access and security constraints. However, given the total number of people who are in need of humanitarian assistance, there are still millions of people who could not receive deliveries of any form of humanitarian assistance.

The humanitarian crisis in Yemen is multidimensional and severe. As a result of the collapsing economy and institutions, more than every other person in Yemen struggles to find his or her next meal for the day; with eight out of ten people wondering if they will find safe drinking water or adequate sanitation, and six out of ten people who

cannot access health care, including half a million pregnant women. More than 2.2 million children are suffering or at risk of malnutrition. It is estimated by UN-OCHA that 14.4 million people suffer from food insecurity (including 7.6 million who suffer from severe food insecurity); 19.3 million lack adequate access to clean water or sanitation; and nearly 320,000 children who suffer from severe acute malnourished. One in eight, or around 537,000 children under age five, are at risk of severe acute malnutrition. An estimated 1.6 million children did not have access to education even prior to the escalation of the conflict in March 2015, while an additional 1.8 million children have lost the possibility to access schools where more than 3,500 schools closed across the country (UN-OCHA, 2015b).

Increasing food insecurity, loss of livelihoods, insecure family income, large-scale displacement and failing health care systems affect people's fight for survival. Lack of availability of and access to fuel, restrictions on commercial imports and damaged or destroyed ports and road infrastructure hinders fuel, food and medical supplies from reaching markets and hospitals, and eventually those who are most in need. With ongoing displacement comes a range of concerns for protection and basic needs, both for the displaced and hosting communities across the country.

On-going military operations against the Houthis in Yemen which began in 2015 also constitute another concern for the humanitarian situation in Yemen, a country with weak infrastructure and severe poverty. It has been reported that intensifying armed conflict in Yemen among different groups (government, Houthis, and coalition) affects humanitarian planning and execution negatively, effectively putting some regions and zones with thousands of people out of reach. Incidents of civilian and child death as well as human rights violations increased tremendously in 2015 and 2016 (OHCHR, 2015). More critically, the civil war is featuring external interference in the form of proxy support for different groups by means of arms supply or tactical support, which grave consequences on the duration and intensity of the conflict.

UN organs and their partners in the field estimate that 2.3 million are currently displaced within Yemen and an additional 121,000 have fled the country. About 2.7 million people require support to secure shelter or essential household supplies, including IDPs and vulnerable host families. While sheltering of IDPs in schools prevents access to education for children, overcrowded shelters with poor water and sanitation infrastructure expose displaced persons to serious risks of disease and gender-based violence in Yemen. Hence, civilians bear the brunt of the violence in Yemen, with the conflict posing grave risks to their safety and psychosocial well-being.

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According to the UN-OCHA (2015c), USD 1.6 billion is needed in 2015 to meet humanitarian needs in Yemen, but only USD 893 million was raised from donors. This implies that due to a lack of sufficient support from the international community, millions of people in Yemen were unable to access necessary humanitarian assistance to ensure basic survival. In its 2017 report, UN-OCHA, raised the requirements to USD 2.1 billion to meet the needs of 12 million targeted people (UN-OCHA, 2017a).

Yemen is moreover a transit country of mixed migration flows, including asylum-seekers and migrants. The country hosts approximately 246,000 registered refugees, 95% of whom are ethnically Somalian as of 2014. During the recent crisis in Yemen, the situation of refugees, asylum seekers and migrants has become even more tenuous and has further exacerbated their vulnerabilities. Unlike Yemeni citizens, these communities lack traditional safety-nets, and as needs grow and resources dwindle they are less able to rely on the long-standing generosity that Yemenis have accorded to them. Recent reports of UNHCR (2015a) claim that foreigners (refugees, asylum-seekers and migrants) in Yemen may be forced to move and will be at greater risk of smuggling and trafficking, which constitutes another dangerous aspect of the humanitarian crisis. Given the state of affairs in Yemen, services for refugees, asylum seekers and migrants continue to deteriorate with negative repercussions on the humanitarian situation.

Ensuring political stability and accord between different parties in Yemen can lead to a quick recovery of the economy where the basic institutions and infrastructure are to some extent operational. Also, Yemen still keeps the majority of its human capital within Yemen unlike in the case of Syria, which can accelerate the pace of transition of Yemen to a stable condition.

AFGHANISTAN

Protracted conflicts and frequent disasters deteriorating human development

Affected from armed conflicts since 1994



Crisis Factors	Armed conflict, natural disasters, political instability
Major Impacts	Human deprivation, migration and displacement, weak government institutions, economic collapse, limited access to basic services
Opportunities	National unity government, peace talks with Taliban

Afghanistan is one of the most unstable and fragile states in the world with millions of people displaced both internally and externally. The prevalence of protracted civil war and conflict, longstanding political instability, poor infrastructure and high vulnerability to natural disasters may be identified as major determinants of the poor state of humanitarian situation in Afghanistan (UNHCR, 2015b).

Although the current crisis intensified after the US invasion in 2001, the roots of the crisis could be traced back to the Russian invasion in 1979, which marked the beginning of an intense war and conflict leading to widespread loss of lives, exodus of Afghan refugees, destruction of basic infrastructure, collapse of economy, emergence of the US supported movement of 'Mujahidin' and rise of local war lords (Khan, 2012). As of September 2015, 6.1 million people (24% of total population) were living in the highest conflict afflicted districts whereas around 8.1 million in total require humanitarian assistance throughout the country (NRC, 2015). Since the fall of the Taliban government in December 2001, over 5.8 million Afghan refugees returned to their homeland under the voluntary repatriation operation conducted by the Afghanistan Ministry of Refugees and Repatriation and the UNHCR. However, about 2.7 million registered Afghan refugees are still spread across 70 countries in the world. A vast majority, around 95%, are hosted by only two neighbouring countries, Pakistan and Iran (UNHCR, 2015b).

With the mountainous topography, poor state of basic infrastructure and lack of law enforcement mechanisms, people in Afghanistan are exposed to a wide range of natural disasters such as landslides, flash floods, avalanches, droughts and earthquakes. Armed conflict and violence combined with high risk of exposure to natural disasters has caused mass displacement inside the country (European Commission, 2015a). According to the latest estimates, more than 1.2 million people were internally displaced in Afghanistan by the end of November 2015 (UNHCR, 2015b). A significant number of these IDPs are either taking shelter within host communities (mostly relatives, friends, tribesmen etc.) or living in informal settlements in urban centres such as Kabul, Herat, Mazar-e-Sharif, Jalalabad and Kandahar. Around two thirds (60%) of displaced people are living as IDPs since 2012 or earlier. Given the low capacity for disaster risk mitigation and preparedness, combined with ongoing armed conflict and violence, on average, around 137,000 people are at risk of displacement annually in Afghanistan country (NRC, 2015).

Over the years, the international community has made ceaseless efforts to ensure the provision of basic humanitarian assistance to the Afghan people. Nevertheless, despite all noble efforts and initiatives, the situation remained alarmingly poor with 70% of

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people living in chronic poverty, earning less than 2 dollars per day. According to latest estimates by UN-OCHA, the risk of death and disability also remained very high with around 25,000 security related incidents recorded between January and September 2015, causing the death and injury of 8,346 civilians (UN-OCHA, 2015d). The increase in violence also affects access to food, health, education and work opportunities. Prevalence of acute malnutrition has climbed above emergency levels in 17 out of 34 provinces with 1.6 million people severely malnourished, including a significant number of children and women. Health system and institutions are also broken. Currently, about 40% of population live in areas with no access to public health services.

The Afghanistan National Disaster Management Authority and Afghanistan Ministry of Refugees and Repatriation are working with about 192 development partners to address the humanitarian needs of 9.3 million people in need. Latest estimates of UN-OCHA show that nearly 450,000 new people will be displaced due to conflict in 2017, with over 125,000 refugees expected to return from Pakistan. According to the Humanitarian Response Plan of 2017, 5.7 million people are being targeted to provide humanitarian assistance, including refugees and returnees from neighbouring countries. Currently, there is a need for USD 550 million to provide humanitarian assistance to the targeted people in 2017 (UN-OCHA, 2017b).

The international community has been working with the Afghan government to end the protracted conflict in Afghanistan. Several attempts have been made so far to broker a peace deal with the Taliban but in vain. Currently, the Quadrilateral Coordination Group comprised of Afghanistan, Pakistan, United States and China are leading the work on exploring the possibilities of restarting peace talks between the Afghan government and Taliban groups. This Coordination Group aims to work out a roadmap for peace and bring all concerned parties on the negotiations table to discuss the implementation of a mutually agreed peace plan in the near future (The Diplomat, 2016). Afghanistan will nonetheless need to address a broad range of challenges, particularly in engaging with corruption and its detrimental effects on security, public administration effectiveness and development.



The Israeli occupation of Palestinian lands in 1947 sparked the conflict that caused major humanitarian crises in the region. Despite occasional peace negotiations, a final agreement could not be reached yet. The key issues in negotiations consisted of mutual recognition, borders, security, water rights, control of Jerusalem, Israeli settlements, Palestinian freedom of movement as well as the Palestinian right of return.

The constantly expanding occupation of Palestinian lands by Israelis is now approaching its 70th year. In addition, the systematic denial of Palestinian rights and continuing conflict with outbreaks of violence is also deteriorating the humanitarian situation in Palestine. On the other hand, the declining productivity and competitiveness of Palestinian farmers, herders and fishers represent the main causes of the economic recession in Palestine. The faltering nature of the peace process and the persistence of administrative restrictions on trade, movement and access had also negatively affected the private investment and private sector activity.

The ongoing blockade in Gaza has isolated 1.8 million Palestinians. This caused restricted access to basic services (health, education, water and sanitation services); food insecurity; human rights violation due to a lack of respect for international law as well as a lack of accountability for violations; and forced displacement as a result of multiple factors including the occupation, frequent hostilities, violence and abuse.

The blockade and the three major escalations of hostilities in the last six years have caused the collapse of the Palestinian economy, productive assets as well as

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infrastructure. Chronic power outages have decreased service delivery, students' educational outcomes, the functioning of hospitals and medical equipment and the operation of more than 280 water and wastewater facilities in 2015 (UN-OCHA, 2016c). Moreover, in 2015, high food insecurity (26%), poverty (25%), and labour force unemployment rates (25%) underline the severe fragility of the Palestinian economic situation (UN-OCHA, 2016d). On the other hand, in 2017, an estimated 2 million people are in need of humanitarian assistance including 1.2 million refugees mostly located in Gaza Strip, Area C and East Jerusalem of the West Bank (UN-OCHA, 2016d). As a result of the 2014 Israeli war on Gaza, approximately 65,000 internally displaced persons remain homeless in 2016 (UN-OCHA, 2016c).

On the other hand, the Gaza Reconstruction Mechanism (GRM) reached an agreement between the Israeli and Palestinian governments in the aftermath of the 2014 Israeli military attack on Gaza, which has created opportunities to alleviate some of the negative impacts of the blockade on reconstruction efforts. In May 2015, a new agreement in the context of the GRM has been also reached allowing the import of materials for reconstruction of approximately 10% of entirely destroyed homes.

Local authorities have also played a key role in service provision. There is moreover a strong sense of community support in Palestine, and that there are many good practices at the local level that should be used in providing humanitarian assistance. Due to restrictions put on the Palestinian Authority's institutions, the role of Palestinian NGOs such as the Palestinian Red Crescent Society has become increasingly important in providing assistance and services.

Although the stalled peace negotiations offer little spectrum for hope, Palestine has important opportunities for recovery from the crisis situation whenever the Israeli occupation ends. Proven vast mineral deposits such as potash, bromine and magnesium in the Dead Sea offer significant potential for the Palestinian economy. The Palestinian economy could benefit enormously from these mineral deposits if it were able to attract the investment needed in order to develop mineral processing industries. The Dead Sea and its surrounding landscape, the Mediterranean Sea coast in Gaza and historical sites represent a world-class tourism endowment for Palestine. Some of the most significant religious sites in the world for Muslims, Christians and Jews are also located in the Palestinian territories. Therefore, the Palestinian territories have the potential to attract additional numbers of tourists which can foster Palestinian economic growth and development.

LIBYA

Internal conflicts amid lack of political stability

Affected from armed conflicts since 2011



Crisis Factors	Armed conflicts, political instability and weak government legitimacy
Major Impacts	Human deprivation, state fragility, economic collapse, human rights violation, migration and displacement
Opportunities	Potential of quick recovery due to natural resource reserves, young population, tourism and trade sector development

The ongoing internal conflict in Libya started in 2011 with the so-called Arab Spring protests. The UN Security Council issued a resolution in 2011 in order to protect civilians and major international powers launched attacks against the Qaddafi regime. Five years have passed since the armed conflict toppled Qaddafi's regime. Libya is currently facing a massive terrorism challenge which is only a part of larger violent extremism.

Armed conflict, political instability and governance represent major crisis factors for Libya with conditions worsening significantly since July 2014. Libya has experienced an increase in extremist activity such as terrorist attacks, assassinations of political figures and senior security officials, intercommunal clashes and fighting among militias. More precisely, the security vacuum domestically acts as a drive for the presence of extremists groups and new insurgencies in Libya. Following the elections in June 2014, political parties and loyal militias began to war over power. A weak central government and the proliferation of numerous tribal groups with their own armed militias have plunged Libya into a vicious circle of violence.

The intense fighting in Libya has further led to a rapid deterioration of living conditions including shortages in food, fuel, water and electricity, lack of cash liquidities as well as a rise in the level of criminality. The health system has also collapsed due to insufficient medical personnel and supplies. In 2015, an estimated 18% of primary health care clinics and at least 20% of hospitals were closed. Besides, in 2015, food insecurity is growing with education enrolment rates in some conflict areas at less than 50% (UN-OCHA, 2015e). In 2017, a total of 1.3 million people, including IDPs, returnees, most

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vulnerable non-displaced Libyans, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers are in urgent need of humanitarian assistance (UN-OCHA, 2017c).

On the other hand, in 2015, the conflict led to new waves of displacement and has seriously restricted humanitarian access to some 2.4 million people. In this context, internal displacement has nearly doubled in a year, affecting 435,000 people (UN-OCHA, 2015e). Large numbers of refugees and migrants continue to flow through Libya. Approximately 250,000 of them are estimated to be in need of humanitarian assistance in 2015 (UN-OCHA, 2015e). In addition, rebel forces have committed many violations of human rights and war crimes. In 2014, 3,000 persons are estimated to be held in extra-legal detention centres run by local brigades (Larsson and Selimovic, 2014).

Despite ongoing hostilities between armed groups, which continue in parts of the country, a unified national government has been formed and security has been re-established in areas under its control. A peace process is also underway between two rival factions in Libya, which holds potential for future opportunities of increased assistance from the international community, including improved access to displaced people and other vulnerable groups. As a consequence, humanitarian needs have begun to drop in most sectors as access to basic services improves and economic activity is progressively resumed. Health, water, sanitation and hygiene needs persist, but the reconstruction of basic health and sanitation infrastructure has already begun.

On the other hand, economic activity is expected to recover following an improvement in the security situation. In this context, Libya has a young population. Transforming the economy will require a workforce with new skills and private companies may have difficulties in finding qualified staff. In order to meet this demand, it is important to provide training programs and reform the education system in order to reflect new needs such as language and computer skills.

Libya's economy is largely dependent on hydrocarbons. In 2014, non-hydrocarbon economic activity accounts for only 22% of GDP and a negligible part of total exports (AfDB, 2015). Furthermore, unemployment appears to be a structural problem, particularly among youth. While great potential to expand hydrocarbon production exists in Libya, the hydrocarbon industry is capital intensive and can make only very limited contributions to employment growth. Therefore, with the implementation of appropriate policies, Libya can continue to benefit from its natural resources and reorient its economy away from hydrocarbon dependence. Moreover, Libya has significant capacity in tourism and trade due to its rich archaeological sites, Mediterranean climate and proximity to major European markets.

SOMALIA

Protracted armed conflicts with frequent natural disasters

Affected from armed conflicts since 1991/2006



Crisis Factors	Conflict, political instability, natural disasters, terrorism
Major Impacts	Human deprivation, migration and displacement, weak government institutions, restricted access to basic services
Opportunities	National unity government, international/regional support for fight against Al-Shabab

Somalia has been beleaguered by one of the most complex protracted humanitarian crisis of the modern human history. In the early 1990's it witnessed the intense violence and devastation, when different clans fought for control over land and resources in its southern regions. The destruction of inter-riverine areas and widespread loss of agriculture and livestock caused one of the worst famines in the world. Consequently, hundreds and thousands of people were either displaced inside the country or took refuge in neighbouring Kenya and Ethiopia (World Bank, 2005). The international community intervened to control the political crisis and address humanitarian disasters but conflict between rival warlords and clans could not be stopped (IDMC, 2015b). The humanitarian situation in Somalia has remained highly volatile mainly due to continuing war and conflict, political instability, declaration of autonomy in Somaliland and Puntland, natural calamities like famines, floods and droughts, disease outbreaks and lately the rise of terrorist groups such as Al-Shabab.

The interplay between conflict and environmental disasters underlies the massive death and displacement in Somalia. Currently, over 1.1 million people are internally displaced, whereas over 1.2 million live as refugees in the Horn of Africa and Yemen. According to the estimates of UN Food and Agriculture Organization, about 258,000 Somalis, half of them children under the age of five, died in the famine between October 2010 and April 2012 (FAO, 2013). Given the precarious security situation in Yemen, over 300,000 Somali refugees returned to Somaliland and Puntland as of November 2015. Nevertheless, many parts of Puntland and Somaliland are affected by the severe drought and an estimated 380,000 people are living without adequate water and food supplies in these two regions. The majority of drought-affected people,

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nearly 58%, are located in four parts of Puntland namely: Bari, Nugaal, Sanaag and Sool (UN-OCHA, 2016e). This state of affairs led to the outbreak of water-borne diseases and an increase in incidences of Measles. More than 5,700 suspected cases of Measles and about 4,000 cases of acute diarrhoea were recorded only in 2015. According to latest projections, 5 million people (41% of total population) are in need of emergency humanitarian assistance, including 1.1 million people facing food insecurity and 3.9 million highly vulnerable to shocks of cyclical natural disasters and disease outbreaks. IDPs are particularly vulnerable and account for more than half of total food insecurity in the country (UN-OCHA, 2017d).

Intensified violence, widespread insecurity and low capacity to mitigate and manage natural calamities leads to significant gaps in access to food, water, sanitation, health care, education and schooling and financial resources. According to latest estimates (UN-OCHA, 2015g), more than 73% of the total population of 12.3 million in Somalia lives under the international poverty threshold of 1.25\$ per day, 82% of the population does not have access to adequate water and sanitation facilities, one out of 18 women has died during childbirth and some 2.3 million lack emergency health services, 308,000 children under the age of five are malnourished and about 1.7 million children of school age are out of school.

After two decades of dysfunctional or non-existent central government, the first Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) was established in 2012. Since then, the FGS has been trying hard to improve the peace and security situation and address longstanding grievances of Somali people. Al-Shabaab being the major threat to the peace, security and development in Somalia, the FGS in collaboration with the African Union conducts military operations to defeat the terrorists and liberate the Southern and Central parts of the country. Though, over the years, security forces have made significant gains in terms of re-establishing the order of the state and consolidating the territorial control, Al-Shabab remained the major threat to the future of Somalia (IDMC, 2015b).

The new FGS has chalked out a six-pillar policy to address the suffering of people and build effective institutions. The Disaster Management Agency within the Ministry of Interior and an inter-ministerial Emergency Drought Response Committee are leading activities related to humanitarian issues and the reintegration of refugees and displaced people. Over the last two decades, the international community has been persistently engaged with local authorities to address humanitarian needs of Somali people. Currently, around 180 humanitarian organizations are working with FGS. According to the latest Humanitarian Response Plan for Somalia, some US\$ 885 million is required to provide basic life-sustaining assistance to 3.5 million targeted persons in Somalia for the year 2016.

In early 2017, the first election in nearly a quarter century was held in Somalia, where a president was elected. This presents a positive development in the country and the region, where prospects for unity, countering corruption and combatting terrorism are granted more feasibility with a strong executive authority, and the establishment of strong democratic institutions.

SUDAN

Internal conflicts and natural disasters exacerbating the humanitarian crises

Affected from armed conflicts since 2003



Crisis Factors	Armed conflicts, natural disasters – mainly drought and floods,
Major Impacts	Human deprivation, economic collapse, displacement, epidemics
Opportunities	Positive momentum towards peace and stability, donor contributions

The conflicts in Sudan are complex and protracted. Sudan has witnessed recurrent civil wars in different parts of the country since its independence in 1956. The long-lasting internal wars in South Kordofan, Blue Nile and Darfur continue to put populations at risk. In October 2015, the Sudan Revolutionary Front declared a unilateral ceasefire. However, clashes continue and there are indications of a surge in violence.

Humanitarian needs in Sudan are primarily caused by the effects of armed conflict. Now entering its thirteenth year, the conflict in Darfur reflects a longstanding competition over land and resources. Sudan also faces a number of natural hazards. The annual flooding between July and September 2014 affected over 270,000 people across 15 states, destroying some 30,000 homes. Over 300 education facilities were also damaged (UN-OCHA, 2015h). Rapid urbanisation and lack of adequate drainage systems are leaving millions of Sudanese extremely vulnerable to external shocks, especially in rural areas.

Political and economic instability represent also major crisis factors for Sudan. In this context, the secession of South Sudan in 2011 brought an end to a decade of growth, depriving Sudan of most of its oil income which had accounted for approximately 55% of its revenues (UN-OCHA, 2015h). On the other hand, Sudan lacks access to foreign

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exchange due to internal conflicts, which have led to difficulties in financing imports of all kinds. In addition, the annual inflation rate in Sudan over the last five years has averaged 30% (UN-OCHA, 2015i).

The ongoing violence in Darfur, South Kordofan and Blue Nile has forced millions of people to abandon their homes and livelihoods, disrupted the production and supply of food, prevented access to basic services and increased vulnerability to malnutrition and disease (UN-OCHA, 2015h). The nutritional status of children remains an important challenge for Sudan. In addition, a measles outbreak exposed Sudan's vulnerability to public-health emergencies and epidemics. In 2015, approximately 3.7 million vulnerable people living in the Darfur region and over 638,000 people were in need of humanitarian aid in South and West Kordofan and Blue Nile State (UN-OCHA, 2015d). Moreover, in 2015, it is estimated that 5.2 million people suffered from food insecurity across Sudan (OCHA, 2015h). In Darfur, at least 100,000 people fled the fighting in the first half of 2015. Currently, 167,000 refugees and asylum-seekers are hosted in eastern Sudan, Darfur and Khartoum (UN-OCHA, 2015h).

There are also opportunities for peace and post-crisis recovery. A ceasefire agreement has been reached between opposition groups and government forces in Blue Nile and South Kordofan, which created opportunities for improvements in humanitarian access. As a result, IDPs and refugees gradually began to return their homes. On the other hand, the government has declared its intention to enhance the *Sudanisation* of the humanitarian effort by 2016 through its "Sudanisation Plan". To this end, there is a drive to boost the capacity of national organizations. This policy has already translated into an increased number of Sudanese staff involved in humanitarian aid. For example, in Darfur three quarters of aid staff employed by NGOs is Sudanese (UN-OCHA, 2015d). National NGOs also have a wider presence and greater access in Sudan.

Donor contributions constitute other opportunities for recovery in Sudan. Although humanitarian funding to Sudan has decreased over the last years, total development aid remains significant and has reached approximately USD 1.1 billion, according to the latest data available (Development Initiatives, 2015). In addition, two development aid instruments are relevant to the humanitarian community in Sudan: the Darfur Development Strategy as well as the UN Development Assistance Framework which extends to the end of 2016. Several large bilateral development programmes from Japan, Qatar, Turkey, USA as well as a World Bank multi-donor trust fund support Sudanese infrastructure development projects in health, education, water and sanitation.

NIGERIA

*Destabilizing terrorist attacks
threatening human development*

Affected from armed conflicts since
2003



Crisis Factors	Armed conflict, terrorism, natural disasters
Major Impacts	Human deprivation, displacement, limited access to basic services
Opportunities	Peaceful transition to new government, collective efforts towards eliminating the acts of terrorism

Nigeria, one of the most populous countries in the world, has a long history of violence, conflict and instability. Historically a range of factors underlies the continued instability and poor state of humanitarian affairs in Nigeria, including inter-communal clashes between nomadic pastoralists and farming communities in the north-central states, political rivalry, natural disasters and the war against the rebel Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MercyCorps, 2015). However, lately the insurgency of Boko Haram, one of the most violent terrorist groups in the world, became the single most important determinant of widespread instability and human suffering in Nigeria. Violent attacks on civilians by the Boko Haram since 2009 have led to widespread displacement and destruction especially in north-eastern Nigeria. Currently, over 14.8 million people are living in Adamawa, Borno, Gombe and Yobe states that are directly affected by the crisis (UN-OCHA, 2016f).

The frequency and brutality of Boko Haram attacks has increased recently causing widespread loss of lives, abductions and destruction of infrastructure. During the last six years, more than 20,000 people have lost their lives, between 2000 to 7000 women and girls were abducted and more than 1200 schools have been destroyed (European Commission, 2015b; UN-OCHA, 2015k). The humanitarian situation is particularly alarming in the North-East where millions of people have been displaced by the Boko Haram insurgency. Currently, about 2.2 million people are displaced inside Nigeria, including 800,000 children, and around 230,000 took refuge in Cameroon, Chad and Niger. Since August 2015, around 22,000 refugees have returned from Cameroon. In total, over 8.5 million people are in need of humanitarian assistance in Nigeria as of December 2016 (UN-OCHA, 2017e).

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Largely due to the ongoing insurgency and counter insurgency measures, access to humanitarian assistance remains insufficient and only half of all conflict-affected peoples are actually receiving any assistance (UN Dispatch, 2015). According to the latest Strategic Response Plan for Nigeria (UN-OCHA, 2016f), only 8% of IDPs stay in camps whereas the rest are either living with the host communities (53%) or in informal settings. On the other hand, access to food is also very low with over 4 million people facing acute food insecurity and malnourishment in the Northeast and 1.5 million in the neighbouring countries. Children and women remained the prime victims of food insecurity and malnourished. Currently, around 1.2 million children under the age of five and 400,000 pregnant and lactating women are malnourished in the North-East only. Access to health services and routine immunization also remains very low with less than 40% of health facilities operational in the worst affected areas. At the state level, around 72% of the health facilities have been destroyed in Yobe and 60% in Borno. The intensified recurrent attacks on schools, teachers and students resulted in a significant increase in number of children of primary school age not attending school from 8 million in 2007 to 10.5 million in 2015. Nearly two-thirds (60%) of these out of school children are in the conflict-ridden Northern parts of the country (UNICEF, 2015).

The humanitarian crisis resulting from ongoing war and conflict in Nigeria shows no sign of abating in the near future. Nigerian security forces are conducting a full-fledged military operation against the Boko Haram and in the wake of such military operations; the government has declared a state of emergency in the North-Eastern states. Though, the Nigerian security forces have made significant gains against the terrorists, provided the gravity of situation there is a strong need for charting out a long term national strategy to counter Boko Haram and other forms of religious, political and communal violence across the country.

4.2 Humanitarian Crises in Muslim Communities Living in Non-OIC Countries

A significant number of Muslim minorities living in non-OIC countries also suffer from severe humanitarian crises. Many of such cases are related to discrimination against Muslim people and government oppression against them. Perhaps the most severe crisis is now being witnessed in Rakhine in Myanmar. The silent crisis in East Turkestan in China over many decades is also noteworthy to review. Albeit it remains momentarily calm, the recent crisis in Central African Republic is also brought to the forth in this subsection.

EAST TURKESTAN (XINJIANG) - CHINA

Central Government Oppression on Muslim Minority Group

Affected from armed conflicts since 1949



Crisis Factors	Ethnic and religious discrimination, oppression
Major Impacts	Growing social inequality and violence, forced migration, human rights violation
Opportunities	Educated young labour force, proper infrastructure

The Uyghur region, also called East Turkestan, is made up of the northwest border areas of China surrounded by eight neighbouring countries. It is officially known as the Xinjiang Autonomous Region in China. The region's surface area is twice as much as Turkey's and hosts a population of about 23 million people. 43% of this population is made up Muslim Uyghurs where the Chinese represents 40% of the entire population. The rest of the population is composed of other Muslim minorities with Kyrgyz, Uzbek, Tajik and Chinese origins (IHH, 2015).

Almost 250,000 Chinese have been settled in East Turkestan every year since 1949. In contrast to the "one child" policy in existence until recently across mainland China, Chinese settlers in East Turkestan are allowed to have more children. These policies have transformed the demographics of East Turkestan in favour of the ethnic Chinese and increased tension within society. The Muslim population in East Turkestan still constitutes the majority; however, more than 90% of all important political, administrative and economic bodies in East Turkestan are occupied by ethnic Chinese (UNPO, 2015).

Due to demographic changes, assimilation pressures, unequal distribution of power and influence, and a general preference to conduct business in Mandarin, there is widespread unemployment among the Uyghur population and it grows at an alarming rate. Despite East Turkestan's natural wealth, the Uyghurs live at subsistence levels with almost 80% living below the poverty threshold (IHH, 2015).

The systematic oppression policies of the Central Government are not limited to the demographic or employment policies. Since the year 2000, the use of Uyghur language has been gradually abolished from educational institutions, with restrictions on the use

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of the language. Unequal access to education, restriction on the freedom of education, and the restriction on freedom to travel are other major issues that affect the quality of life of Uyghurs negatively.

Ethnic and religious discrimination form the basis of Chinese violations. As a single-track view, it is in particular directed towards the Uyghurs and the Muslims in every aspect of their lives and in particular towards those who work in public institutions, implementing discriminatory policies and actions towards them. Violations of the freedom of belief in particular in urban and rural areas are openly abused. The prayers of Muslims performed in mosques, the mainstay of Islamic worship is forbidden. Government officials, Communist Party members, retirees, students and women are forbidden to perform acts of worship in the vicinity of mosques (WUC, 2014).

Since July 2009, Chinese authorities have arrested thousands of people and a high number of Uyghurs have been forcibly disappeared. Detained Uyghurs have undergone unfair trials, lacking in transparency, independence and guaranteed due process rights. The first half of 2014 saw a sharp rise in violence as a result of growing social inequality and oppression. When in detention, Uyghurs are regularly subjected to torture. Throughout 2014 and 2015, there have been frequent incidents of violence, discriminatory detentions and searches of Uyghurs, particularly students and activists (WUC, 2014).

The death penalty is extensively used in East Turkestan and the number of death sentences imposed is significantly higher than in the rest of China, where the exact figures are unknown. Uyghurs who attempt to flee oppression in East Turkestan are at extreme risk of being deported back. Uyghur refugees and asylum seekers have been forcibly deported from neighbouring countries that have strong diplomatic and trade ties to China (UNPO, 2015). According to the World Uyghur Congress, upon their return to China, many are detained, tortured, sentenced to death or disappear altogether. Forced deportations have also taken place from Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, Pakistan, Cambodia, Vietnam, Thailand, Burma and Laos in recent years.

International media outlets face huge obstacles in the region. Information is strictly controlled by the State and accurate statistics or reports are hard to obtain. As a result, it is not easy to reflect the scope and depth of the on-going multidimensional humanitarian crisis in East Turkestan due to its nature. However, it is clear that Muslims, mainly Uyghurs, who live in East Turkestan have been living under poor humanitarian conditions where they face discrimination and oppression in almost all aspects of life from education to employment.

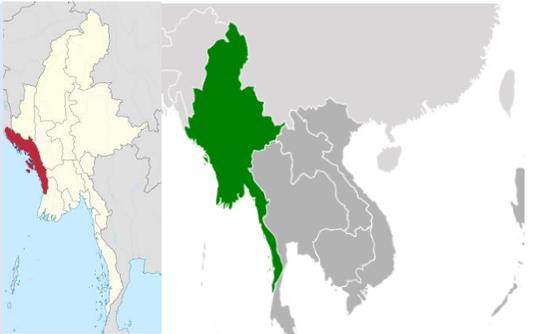
In East Turkestan, the opportunities for the future are still there. Despite all restrictive education policies, Uyghur students enrol in schools and receive basic education which

helps in maintaining human capital levels of East Turkestan. Moreover, the basic physical infrastructure is operational and has been improving over time in East Turkestan. Therefore, as soon as a political solution is achieved within the central government, the Muslim population in East Turkestan will no longer suffer but rather live in peace and prosperity.

RAKHINE STATE - MYANMAR

Constant extremist attacks and human rights violations towards Muslim people

Affected from armed conflicts since 1948/2012



Crisis Factors	Communal violence, natural disasters, political instability
Major Impacts	Severe human rights violation, displacement, restricted access to basic services
Opportunities	Involvement of international community, higher expectations from an elected government

The state of Rakhine also known as Arakan has been a global hotspot for sectarian violence between the Buddhists and the Rohingya, a Muslim minority group of one million people. Though, the Rohingya have been living in the Rakhine state for generations, the government of Myanmar does not recognize the Rohingya as citizens and considers them illegal migrants from Bangladesh with no legal backing to protect even their basic human rights. The majority of the Rohingya are banned from travel without permission and work outside their villages and for enrolment in certain university programs (European Commission, 2015c). According to the United Nations, the Rohingya are one of the most persecuted minorities in the world.

Rohingya have been victims of state persecution since 1970 when nearly 250,000 people were forced by the military to go to Bangladesh (IDMC, 2015c). Most recently, the violent attacks against the Rohingya began in 2012 when a group of Rohingya men were accused of sexual violation and killing of a Buddhist woman. In response to these accusations, Buddhist nationalists burned Rohingya homes and killed more than 280 people. Intensified communal violence in Rakhine state led to the displacement of about 140,000 Rohingya Muslims. The majority of these displaced peoples were housed in camps in the Western Myanmar (IDMC, 2015c). Rakhine is one of the

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poorest states of Myanmar with 78% of people living in poverty (World Bank, 2015). The plight of the people in the Rakhine state was aggravated further by the floods in 2015, which destroyed houses, crops, agricultural land, and infrastructure and forced 50,000 new people out of their houses (UN-OCHA, 2015).

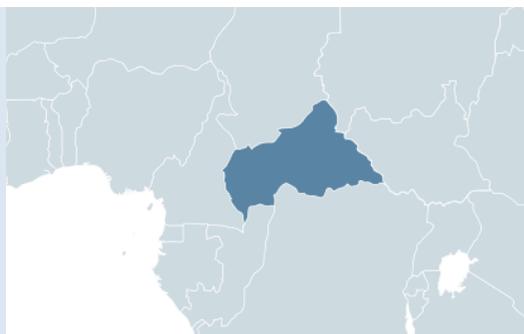
Given the poor state of humanitarian assistance and security, an estimated 120,000 Rohingya fled the country and took refuge in the neighbouring countries (UN-OCHA, 2015). According to the latest estimates, around 900 stateless Rohingya are fleeing to the neighbouring countries every day (Refugee International, 2015). As of November 2015, up to 500,000 Rohingya were living in Bangladesh including 50,000 registered refugees staying in two government-run camps, with up to 150,000 Rohingya in Malaysia, and only 50,000 registered as refugees. In addition, Indonesia and Thailand have also received some Rohingya refugees lately.

International humanitarian organizations have been struggling very hard to reach the internally displaced people in Myanmar. The government has been using very harsh policies and terms of engagement for humanitarian work especially in the Rakhine state and many agencies were either not allowed to operate at all or were expelled altogether. Currently, about one million Rohingya live in apartheid-like conditions in the Rakhine state. According to the Human Response Plan for Myanmar (UN-OCHA, 2015), about 480,000 people are in need of humanitarian assistance in the Rakhine State.

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

Growing insecurity for Muslim communities amid frequent attacks

Affected from armed conflicts since 2012



Crisis Factors	Armed conflict, political instability
Major Impacts	Human deprivation, economic collapse, human rights violation, displacement, gender-based violence
Opportunities	Potential of quick recovery due to natural resource reserves and tourism sector development

The current crisis in the Central African Republic began in late 2012. Fighting between the Muslim ex-Seleka rebel coalition and the Christian anti-balaka militias and their

allies has left approximately 6,000 people dead (ACAPS, 2015). Despite the establishment of a transitional government backed by the international community in August 2014, the situation has continued to be unstable for Muslim communities living in the Central African Republic.

The humanitarian needs of Muslim communities living in Central African Republic are primarily caused by the effects of armed conflict, political instability and poor governance. In this respect, clashes between armed groups and their criminal activities are causing insecurity throughout the country. Large quantities of obsolete ammunition have also severely increased armed violence.

Muslim communities living in Central African Republic suffer from chronic insecurity and poor governance caused by multiple coup d'états. This void in effective governance and political instability has created growing tensions over natural resources which remain the main cause of the ongoing conflict. Militias have also taken advantage of this political vacuum, engaging in ethnic cleansing of Muslims. Moreover, disputes between farmers and herders over land and water have escalated into armed conflict. These disputes are particularly due to ethno-religious differences. Farmers are essentially Christian, while herders are mostly Muslim.

Human deprivation, economic collapse, human rights violation and displacement represent major impacts of the crisis concerning Muslim communities living in the Central African Republic. In 2015, out of a total estimated population of 4.6 million, 2.3 million people require immediate humanitarian assistance and new waves of sectarian violence, overwhelmingly Muslims, have displaced a quarter of the population (480,000 IDPs and almost 450,000 refugees in neighbouring countries) (UN-OCHA, 2015m). UNHCR estimates that 90% of the displaced population is Muslim.

Numerous schools and hospitals have been attacked or used by armed forces of a party to the conflict. Nearly a third of schools have been damaged by fighting in 2015 (UN-OCHA, 2016c). In 2015, 36,000 people are trapped in enclaves with little or no freedom of movement, which prevents access to aid. Urgent life-saving assistance and access to basic services are seriously disrupted due to the poor security. Over 23% of Central African Republic's health facilities have been destroyed in 2015 (UN-OCHA, 2015m).

As the majority of the country's traders are Muslim, the forced displacement of the Muslim population had severe consequences for trade and food security with children at an increased risk of malnutrition. In 2015, over 28% of the population faces the risk of food insecurity (UN-OCHA, 2015m). Moreover, the lack of effective government regulation for managing natural resources such as diamonds, gold, wildlife has led to

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illicit exploitation. As a result, natural resources are traded illicitly to fund armed groups across the country.

On the other hand, serious human rights violations are reported against Muslim communities, especially in rural areas. Armed groups have carried out widespread violations affecting girls and boys under age 18 including killing, recruitment and abuse of children as well as gender-based violence. In 2015, an estimated 6,000 to 10,000 children have been associated with armed groups (UN-OCHA, 2015m).

The Regional Refugee Response Plan (RRRP) for 2016 targets the needs of over 760,000 Central African Republic refugees hosted inside and outside camps in Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo and the Republic of Congo. There is a need for humanitarian actors who operate under the RRRP framework to address the increased needs of Muslim communities, mainly in protection, health and nutrition, water and sanitation, education, shelter and non-food items.

The Central African Republic is rich in natural resources such as diamonds, timber, gold, uranium, possible oil deposits as well as endangered wildlife. As a result, natural resources represent the backbone of the Central African Republic and they have the potential to serve the Central African Republic's recovery from the current conflict and its transition to sustainable growth and development. In other words, natural resources can be used to stabilize security through the creation of platforms for cooperation among once conflicting factions and restoring relationships between the government and the wider community.

chapter five

A QUICK ASSESSMENT OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT CAPACITIES



Linkages between drivers and impacts of humanitarian crises are badly entangled. Fragility, poverty, conflict, governance, economic decline, displacement, natural disasters and human rights violations can be causes as well as consequences of one another. A single element may increase the vulnerability to others and prevent people from building resilience to cope with shocks. The complex, protracted and recurrent humanitarian crises we observe today are direct outcomes of high vulnerability to these interconnected factors. In this framework, the report focused on the following drivers of humanitarian crisis: armed conflicts, occupation and oppression; the lack of political and economic stability and governance; climate change and natural hazards; and pandemics.

While the trend of the number of conflicts is rising, quite a number of OIC countries are facing political and economic instabilities. The increasing number of natural hazards, their impacts and the extent of epidemics are also among the major factors that put forth the urgent need for reducing vulnerabilities and building resilience.

Given the extremely interconnected dimensions of humanitarian crises, the report also provided a general discussion on the consequences of the humanitarian crises. These included human deprivation, state fragility, economic collapse, human rights violations and migration and displacement. It is found that crises have a great impact on education, health, poverty and food security in the affected regions. The affected countries become more fragile due to the impacts of systems and institutions, which can have direct negative spillover effects on neighbouring countries. Natural disasters and conflicts can also substantially destroy assets and the productive capacities of an economy. Moreover, while such crises are highly associated with increasing number of human rights violations, a direct outcome is usually a surge in migration and force displacement.

The case studies on current humanitarian crises reveal important diversities as well as commonalities across the region. Table 5.1 summarizes the main findings. Overall, it is found that major drivers of humanitarian crises in OIC countries are conflicts, lack of good governance and natural disasters. In terms of impacts, human deprivation including poverty and lack of access to basic services is widespread. Another major impact is weak government institutions affected by crisis situations. Economic collapse and human rights violations are also frequently observed.

Table 5.1: Summary of the Case Studies

	Crisis Factors	Major Impacts	Opportunities
Syria	Armed conflict and weak government legitimacy	Human deprivation in all aspects, displacement and migration, weak government legitimacy, violation of human rights, gender-based violence, economic collapse, destruction of infrastructure	Generous hospitality of neighbouring countries in hosting the refugees
Iraq	Armed conflict and lack of political stability	Human deprivation in all aspects, migration and displacement, weak government control, violation of human rights, restricted access to basic services, gender-based violence	Potential of quick recovery due to natural resource reserves, higher likelihood of affected people to return their home due to low number of cross-border migration
Yemen	Armed conflict and political instability	Human deprivation, migration and displacement, weak government institutions, violation of human rights, economic collapse, restricted access to basic services	Higher likelihood of affected people to return their home due to low number of cross-border migration
Afghanistan	Armed conflict, natural disasters, political instability	Human deprivation, migration and displacement, weak government institutions, economic collapse, limited access to basic services	National unity government, peace talks with Taliban
Palestine	Armed conflicts, occupation and oppression, political and economic instability	Economic decline, restricted access to basic services, food insecurity, human rights violations, forced displacement	Potential of quick recovery due to proven vast mineral deposits, tourism sector development and civil society, strong sense of community support
Libya	Armed conflicts, political instability and weak government legitimacy	Human deprivation, state fragility, economic collapse, human rights violation, migration and displacement	Potential of quick recovery due to natural resource reserves, young population, tourism and trade sector development
Somalia	Conflict, political instability, natural disasters, terrorism	Human deprivation, migration and displacement, weak institutions, restricted access to basic services	National unity government, international/ regional support for fight against Al-Shabab
Sudan	Armed conflicts, natural disasters – mainly drought and floods	Human deprivation, economic collapse, displacement, epidemics	Positive momentum towards peace and stability, donor contributions
Nigeria	Armed conflict, terrorism, natural disasters	Human deprivation, displacement, limited access to basic services	Peaceful transition to new government, collective efforts towards eliminating the acts of terrorism
East Turkestan (China)	Ethnic and religious discrimination, oppression	Growing social inequality and violence, forced migration, human rights violation	Educated young labour force, proper infrastructure
Rakhine State (Myanmar)	Communal violence, natural disasters, political instability	Severe human rights violation, displacement, restricted access to basic services	Involvement of international community, higher expectations from an elected government
Central African Republic	Armed conflict, political instability	Human deprivation, economic collapse, human rights violation, displacement, gender-based violence	Potential of quick recovery due to natural resource reserves and tourism sector development

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Even though the idiosyncratic nature of crises complicates the formulation of effective policies for intervention, there are always opportunities for peace, stability and resilient recovery. It is observed that many crisis-affected countries are rich in terms of natural resources. Some of them also have good prospects for tourism development to accelerate their recovery. Some countries have a solid base for peace talks and negotiations, which facilitates the post-crisis recovery. However, these opportunities require good governance, strong state institutions and international cooperation. There is especially a need for strengthening institutions through cooperation and collaboration within the OIC and on the international level.

In order to provide further insight on the humanitarian crises in OIC countries, Table 5.2 presents the distribution of vulnerable people in selected OIC countries based on seven different humanitarian needs. In these ten countries, there is a tremendous pressure on basic needs. Food supply and shelter appear to be highly demanded by the crisis-affected people in Yemen and Syria. Besides, the numbers of conflict-induced displacement have vastly increased in countries like Syria, Iraq, Sudan and Yemen. Many vulnerable people from the affected countries such as Yemen (13.5 million), Syria (12.1 million) and Iraq (7 million) are deprived of receiving WASH services (water, sanitation and hygiene).

Table 5.2: Distribution of Vulnerable People based on Humanitarian Needs in Selected OIC Countries (Millions)

COUNTRY	Food	Shelter	Displacement	Health	Wash	Education	Protection
Afghanistan	2.5	0.64	1.65	5.4	1.9	4	1.9
Iraq	4.4	1.2	3.2	6.7	7	3	10
Libya	1.5	0.10	0.37	1.9	0.68	0.15	2.44
Mali	1.9	0.50	0.062	2.2	0.84	0.81	0.75
Niger	3.4	0.09	0.15	1.4	1.5	0.21	1.2
Nigeria	4.5	1	2	1	2.2	0.40	1.64
Somalia	1	1.1	1.1	3.72	2.8	1.7	1.1
Sudan	4.5	3	3.1	5.2	3.8	2.5	3.5
Syria	8.7	2.4	8.5	11.5	12.1	2.4	13.5
Yemen	14.4	1.2	2	9	13.5	1.8	11.4

Source: Global Crisis Overview, 2016; The Crisis Overview 2016: Humanitarian Trends and Risks for 2017

In this connection, as a final exercise, an index called Index for Risk Management (INFORM) will be used in order to assess the risk of humanitarian crises in OIC countries. This index was recently developed as the first global, transparent tool for understanding the risk of humanitarian crises through a collaborative project of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) and the European Commission. The index comprises three dimensions of risk such as, Hazards & Exposure, Vulnerability and Lack of Coping Capacity.⁵ Accordingly, Somalia, Afghanistan, Yemen and Iraq are found to be highly risk prone countries in terms of humanitarian crises. These countries have higher level of risk in all the three dimensions of the index (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Risk of Humanitarian Crises and Disasters in Selected OIC Countries

COUNTRY	Rank	INFORM Risk	3 -Year Trend	Hazard & Exposure	3 -Year Trend	Natural	Human	Vulnerability	3 -Year Trend	Socio-Economic Vulnerability	Vulnerable Groups	Lack of Coping Capacity	3 -Year Trend	Institutional	Infrastructure
Most Risky OIC Members															
Somalia	1	8.7	↓	8.8	↓	6.2	10.0	8.3	↓	7.7	8.8	9.1	↓	9.3	8.8
Afghanistan	3	7.9	→	8.6	→	5.5	10.0	7.2	↓	6.9	7.4	8.0	→	7.4	8.5
Yemen	5	7.5	↑	8.1	↑	2.7	10.0	6.6	↑	4.8	7.9	7.9	↑	8.2	7.6
Iraq	6	7.2	↑	8.5	→	5.1	10.0	6.1	↑	2.8	8.1	7.1	↑	8.1	5.9
Sudan	6	7.2	→	7.1	→	3.5	9.0	7.1	→	5.4	8.3	7.3	↑	6.7	7.8
Mali	10	6.6	↓	6.2	↓	3.2	8.0	6.8	↓	7.7	5.6	6.8	↓	5.9	7.6
Syria	10	6.6	↑	8.4	→	4.4	10.0	6.0	→	3.6	7.7	5.8	↑	6.3	5.3
Nigeria	15	6.3	→	6.8	→	2.3	9.0	5.6	↓	4.1	6.8	6.6	↑	5.0	7.8
Palestine	17	6.1	↑	6.8	↑	2.4	9.0	6.8	↑	4.3	8.4	4.8	→	6.2	2.9
Libya	20	5.9	↑	6.5	→	4.2	8.0	4.7	↑	2.1	6.6	6.8	↑	8.1	4.8
Least Risky OIC Members															
Qatar	178	1.3	→	0.5	→	0.9	0.1	1.7	→	2.5	0.9	2.4	↑	3.9	0.5
Kuwait	154	2	→	1.4	→	2.2	0.5	1.6	→	2.0	1.2	3.7	→	5.4	1.6
UAE	154	2	→	3.3	→	5.4	0.4	1.1	→	1.8	0.3	2.2	↓	2.5	1.8
Gabon	129	2.6	→	0.9	→	1.5	0.2	3.0	↓	3.0	3.0	6.3	→	6.6	6.0
Suriname	129	2.6	→	1.6	→	3.0	0.0	2.1	↓	3.0	1.1	5.0	→	5.7	4.2

Source: Index for Risk Management (INFORM) Report, 2016

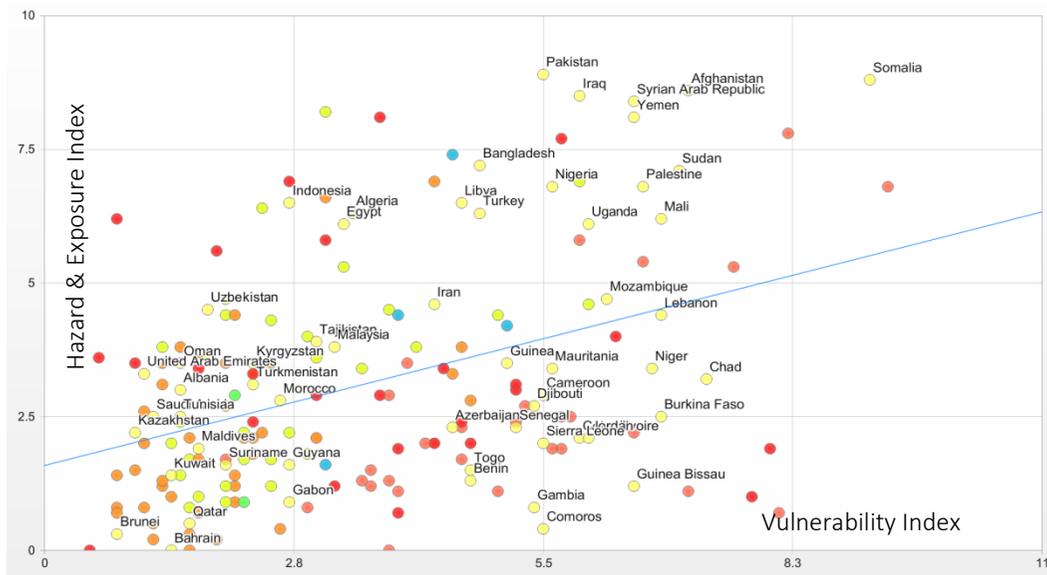
⁵ More information is available at <http://www.inform-index.org/>

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Figure 5.1 compares the vulnerability of OIC countries with the values of hazard & exposure index. It is evident that numerous OIC countries are amongst the most vulnerable countries with relatively high levels of exposure to humanitarian crises and relatively low coping capacity. On the other hand, levels of exposure, vulnerability and coping capacity of OIC countries to various disasters and conflicts are quite heterogeneous. While some countries are quite advanced in managing risks associated with potential humanitarian crises, others require substantial improvement in capacities to reduce vulnerabilities and cope with the risks. This fact creates an opportunity for intra-OIC (or south-south cooperation) in building resilience in vulnerable OIC countries.

In this context, recognizing the multifaceted nature of crises and the urgent need for strengthening resilience in OIC countries, there is a need for broader and longer-term perspective on achieving both lasting peace as well as sustainable development in a rapidly changing development environment. This will require promoting inclusive development, encouraging participation, strengthening solidarity and partnership, building up human capital, addressing climate change concerns and utilizing alternative financing mechanisms for humanitarian assistance and development.

Figure 5.1: Vulnerability vs Hazard & Exposure Index in OIC Countries (2015)



Source: Index for Risk Management (INFORM) , www.inform-index.org/

chapter six

FIVE REMEDIES FOR REDUCING VULNERABILITIES AND BUILDING RESILIENCE



Natural disasters and conflicts adversely affect the welfare of communities by increasing their vulnerabilities and worsening poverty, inequality and access to basic services, which further intensifies the risk of humanitarian crises. Despite the constant improvement in global welfare over the last decades, human deprivation remained persistently widespread. This shows that the current international system is not effective in managing humanitarian crises, particularly the protracted ones.

It is evident that there is a need for a paradigm shift in current risk reduction and management approaches of humanitarian crises at national, regional and international levels. Particularly, there is a need for OIC countries to develop their own mechanisms to reduce their vulnerability and strengthen their resilience to various crises. The OIC-2025 Programme of Action also emphasizes strengthening joint Islamic humanitarian action and enhancing Member States' resilience by developing integrated and inclusive measures.

As shown in the previous sections, linkages between drivers and impacts of humanitarian crises are very much intertwined and the humanitarian landscape is changing more rapidly today than ever. Fragility, poverty, conflict, governance, economic decline, displacement, natural disasters and human rights violations can be causes as well as consequences of one another. One element may increase vulnerability to others and prevent people from building resilience to cope with shocks. The complex, protracted and recurrent humanitarian crises that we observe today are a direct outcome of high vulnerability to these interconnected factors. However, the international community as well as the OIC community fail to adequately address the needs of the people suffering humanitarian crises. It is critical to note that more than 78% of total humanitarian funds were requested to finance humanitarian assistance in OIC countries, but only 57% of the required amount was collected, reflecting the daunting scale of the humanitarian funding gap and the need for innovative mechanisms for humanitarian assistance.

While these constitute major challenges in devising and implementing policies at the global level, but in particular on the OIC level, there are also significant opportunities inherent in Muslim communities offer new insights into shaping the humanitarian assistance and development landscape within OIC. The remarkable hospitality extended to Syrian refugees in the neighbouring countries at a time when they were treated rather inhumanely in some European countries reflects the strong solidarity mechanisms with deprived people in OIC countries. On the other hand, Islamic social finance tools not only serve the basic needs of the vulnerable people but also support them to be economically self-reliant. It comprises institutions rooted in Islamic

philanthropy, e.g. *zakah*, *sadaqah* and *awqaf* and in cooperation and solidarity. There is enormous potential to utilize resources available in this mechanism. A report from the Islamic Financial Services Board in 2015 quoted that the Islamic finance industry's assets are presently estimated to be worth USD 2 trillion and are set to become USD 5 trillion in 2020.

Due to the critical importance of exploring additional resources for more holistic solutions in the humanitarian development and resilience building against the shocks of political, economic social and natural disasters, the momentum of the promulgation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the World Humanitarian Summit (WHS) in May 2016 at Istanbul requires investigating modalities on how to unlock the unleashed potential of Islamic social finance (ISF) as a new resource for humanitarian actions and the resilience-building agenda.

In this context, recognizing the multifaceted nature of the crises and the need for strengthening resilience in OIC countries, this report proposes five sets of actions to reduce vulnerabilities, strengthen resilience and achieve both lasting peace as well as sustainable development in a rapidly changing development environment. These are:

- I. Promoting inclusive societies and inclusive development
- II. Strengthening social capital, mediation and partnership
- III. Investing in human capital and facilitating social mobility
- IV. Intensifying disaster risk reduction and management practices
- V. Mobilizing innovative financing mechanisms for humanitarian assistance and development

While these sets of actions are primarily identified to provide solutions to the developmental challenges faced by some OIC countries, they also reflect the potential of OIC communities to contribute to a better and more resilient world. In effect, idiosyncratic nature of crises complicates formulation of effective policies for intervention. However, there are common features in addressing the root causes of humanitarian crises, which helped to formulate above remedies. Some of the solutions can be easily achieved due to inherent characteristics of Muslim communities, while some others are already targeted at global level by international community for which it may be relatively easier to secure international support.

The rest of this section provides a detailed discussion of these proposals. As in the case of drivers and impacts of crises, the solutions are also very much connected to each other. For that reason, action or inaction in an area is also likely to affect the outcome of actions in other areas. Table 6.2 at the end of the section provides a summary of actions to be taken by different stakeholders.

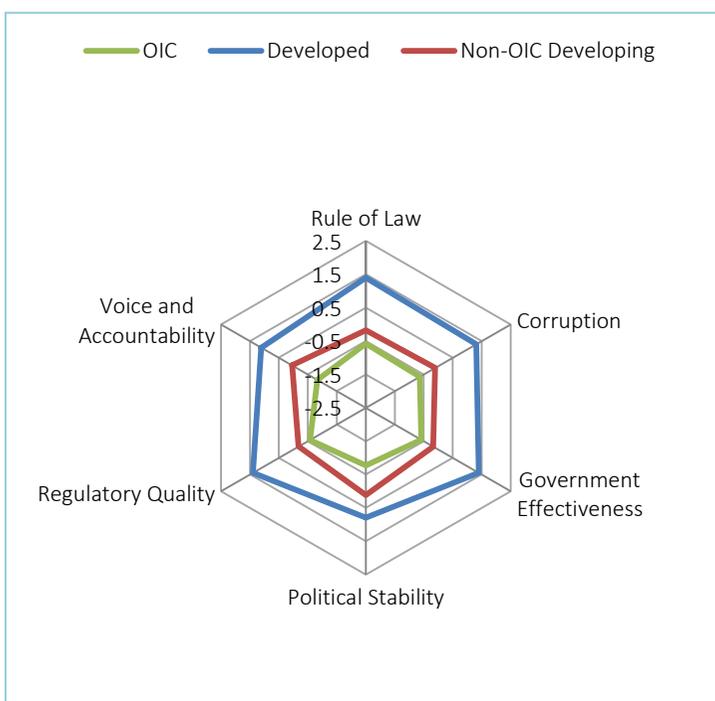
6.1 Promoting Inclusive Societies and Inclusive Development

Among the root causes of conflicts and humanitarian sufferings is the lack of good governance and inclusive development. Governance is the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented. Good governance is the transparent and accountable management of human, natural, economic and financial resources for the purposes of equitable and sustainable development.⁶ For good governance and inclusive development, there is a need to develop and implement inclusive development programmes and policies managed by strong national and local institutions, which target most vulnerable and marginalized people (inclusive growth and non-discrimination), ensure that everyone is involved in decision making processes (participation) and allow for closely monitoring whether policy choices are implemented (accountability and transparency).

In practice, OIC countries face significant challenges in improving governance and ensuring inclusive development. Figure 6.1 compares the averages of the six governance indicators for OIC countries with other country groups in 2015,

as estimated by the World Bank. While developed countries outperform developing countries in all categories, non-OIC developing countries also do comparably better than OIC countries. In none of the categories, OIC countries as a group attain a positive score. Non-OIC developing countries could attain a positive score only in political stability and voice and accountability

Figure 6.1: Institutional Quality and Governance (2015)



Source: SESRIC staff calculation based on World Governance Indicators 2016 of the World Bank.

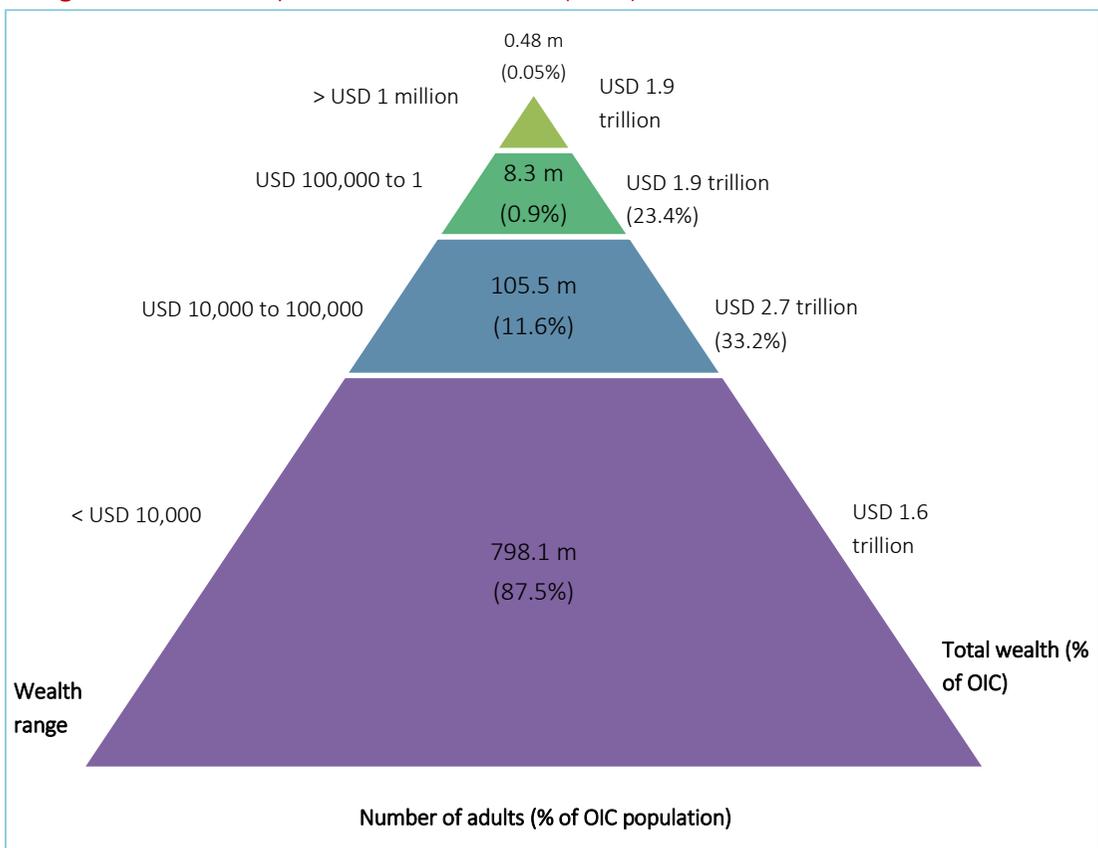
⁶ The Cotonou Agreement, Article 9.3, available at OHCHR - <http://goo.gl/AxOZGd>

6. Five Remedies for Reducing Vulnerabilities and Building Resilience

categories. Voice and accountability and political stability categories are the weakest categories for OIC countries. On the other hand, regulatory quality, though negative, is the strongest category for OIC countries. All these reflect the lower level of institutional quality in OIC countries.

Another important dimension of inclusive development is wealth distribution. Figure 6.2 shows the distribution of wealth in OIC countries according to the estimations of Credit Suisse. It shows that there is a large base of low wealth holders, with upper tiers occupied by progressively fewer people. In 2014, it is estimated that 87.5% of adult population in OIC countries (corresponding to 798 million adult people) possesses less than USD 10,000 average per capita wealth. They together account for only 20.1% of total wealth in OIC countries, with USD 1.6 trillion total wealth. On the other hand, just 0.05% of population owns 23.3% of total wealth and another 0.9% owns 23.4% of total wealth. Together, just less than 1% (namely 0.95%) of the population in OIC countries possesses 46.7% of total wealth in OIC countries. When compared to the world

Figure 6.2: Wealth Pyramid of OIC Countries (2014)



Source: SESRIC staff calculation based on data provided by Credit Suisse on Global Wealth for 2014.

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average and average of non-OIC developing countries, people with less than USD 10,000 wealth accounts for 69.8% of total population and 2.9% total wealth in the world and 77.6% of total population and 14.7% of total wealth in non-OIC developing countries. This reflects the fact that the share of people with low welfare levels is significantly higher than other country groups.

Lack of good governance and unequal distribution of welfare are only two examples reflecting potential sources of dissatisfaction and frustration that are observed during the early stages of civil uprisings. Constant inability to address such concerns is likely to heighten tensions among different strata of a society and potentially result in a conflict with severe humanitarian consequences, as historically observed in different parts of the world. In this regard, several important actions are identified for OIC countries to address the issues related to governance and inclusive development.

Ensure fair distribution of welfare and inclusive growth

The extent of unequal wealth distribution in OIC countries compared to other country groupings is found to be starker. The wellbeing of a society depends on the level of shared prosperity and inclusion of people to growth and development. This requires for all people, particularly the most vulnerable, to have opportunities to improve or maintain their wellbeing. Economic growth and development has been accelerated over the last century, but poverty, inequality and inadequate access to basic services remained a major concern. In this context, an inclusive development strategy is needed with specific actions targeting inequality reduction. Rising inequality is often accompanied by greater disparities in educational and health outcomes, exacerbating the vicious circle of exclusion and inequality.

Inclusive growth is economic growth that creates opportunity for all segments of the population and distributes the dividends of increased prosperity, both in monetary and non-monetary terms, fairly across society.⁷ A multidimensional understanding of inclusive growth is critical, as put forward by OECD (2015). This is not only about increasing per capita income of people, but more about education, health, employment and human rights. It is about breaking away from a vicious circle of educational failures, low skills, and poor employment prospects and health status. It is therefore about determining policies that can deliver improvements in the welfare of people with a more even distribution of the benefits of increased prosperity among people.⁸

⁷ OECD, available at <http://www.oecd.org/inclusive-growth/>

⁸ Bringing the *Maqasid Shariah* index into mainstream, which has been newly adopted by the Government of Malaysia Government, could be an option to measure strategically the indices for inclusive societies and inclusive development effort.

In this framework, it should be also noted that Islam allows every individual to utilize his ability and enter into any type of business or transaction (provided that it is permissible or *halal*) to generate more welfare. This leads the productive potential of people to be fully utilized and whole society to benefit from welfare improvements. It is completely normal to observe people with varying income levels (Qur'an, 43:32), but Islam does not allow wealth to be concentrated among a few individuals (Qur'an, 43:32) and develops several mechanisms to address the welfare gaps among the individuals (Qur'an, 70:24-25). Distributive justice in Islam requires guarantee of fulfilment of the basic needs to all; equity but not equality in personal incomes; and elimination of extreme inequalities in personal income and wealth. Therefore, it is important to recognize the need for inclusive development for wealthier and healthier societies. Finally, it is also important to note that for inclusive growth and distributive justice to take place, quality institutions are needed, where people can trust them.

Improve transparency, accountability and responsiveness of institutions for good governance

Institutions determine how decisions are made, how resources are allocated, how well markets function, how natural resources are governed, how conflicts are managed and how violence and crime are prevented and addressed (UN, 2015). Inclusive economic development can be achieved only in the presence of quality institutions and good governance. Good governance requires participatory, transparent, accountable, equitable, effective and consensus-based decision making, and promotion of the rule of law. Institutions must be able to respond to the needs of the poor and the most vulnerable as well as criticism that they may hear from the public in their practices.

To this end, special mechanisms (both vertical and horizontal)⁹ should be developed through which citizens can hold government to account. Among the major reasons for accountability failures are the capture of public institutions by powerful and resourceful groups, and the lack of representation of poor people. As depicted earlier, OIC countries are not performing particularly well in terms of good governance. Therefore, quality of institutions should be improved to provide better access to justice based on effective rule of law and equitable access to services, and effectively respond to the needs of people. Thereby, they can foster equality and trust among communities and create a culture of integrity in service delivery.

⁹ Vertical accountability measures allow citizens to hold institutions and states to account, such as through elections and lobbying. Horizontal accountability mechanisms involve state entities monitoring other state entities.

Enhance inclusive decision making and support civil society activities

Another factor that can contribute to inclusive societies and improved resilience is the participation of various segments of society in decision making processes. Inclusive decision making is an integral part of good governance. Islam also advocates for consultative decision making (Qur'an, 3:159). Inclusive decision making and multi-stakeholder consensus not only strengthen governance but play an important role in advancing reconciliation and supporting prospects for positive change towards peace and stability. It is natural to observe competing interests and priorities within a society, but inclusive decision making can be highly instrumental in building consensus and balancing those priorities, particularly in fragile and conflict-prone settings.

In an inclusive society, every individual with rights and responsibilities has an active role to play, regardless of their background. Participation in civic, social, economic and political activities is an integral part of inclusive societies. For this to happen, legal, regulatory and policy frameworks must be inclusive. Civil societies are fundamental for ensuring active participation and making public policies and institutions accountable. They facilitate people to express their diverse views and build mutual trust while acknowledging their differences. Therefore, individuals should be supported to engage in civil society activities for more inclusive societies.

Ensure equal access to public infrastructure and services

There are basic services provided by states and local authorities that improve the living conditions and welfare of people. These services – including education, health, transportation, recreational facilities, water and sanitation – also create conditions for people to have a sense of belonging and higher attachment to the state. As long as disadvantaged people have equal access to or benefit from these public facilities and services, differences in socio-economic status may not be a major source of social tension. It will subsequently alleviate a possible sense of exclusion or frustration. It is, however, important to note that access to services alone may not ensure proper utilization of these services by every citizen. If necessary, vulnerable and disadvantaged groups should be endowed with extra tools to make them benefit from these services due to their prior disadvantaged positions.

6.2 Strengthening Social Capital, Mediation and Partnership

Lack of social trust within communities increases the potential risk of violence and conflict. If it cannot be avoided, a single armed conflict has the potential to inflict devastating human suffering in addition to wiping out development gains accumulated over many years if not decades. Unfortunately for the OIC countries, the intensity of

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conflicts in OIC countries is on the rise and the number of armed conflicts exhibits an upward trend which is in contrast to the downward trend observed in non-OIC countries.

According to the Failed States Index (FSI) developed by the Fund for Peace, the OIC countries are more vulnerable to conflicts than other countries (Figure 6.3). A vulnerable state is a state perceived as having failed at some of the basic conditions and responsibilities of a sovereign government. Figure shows that OIC countries are

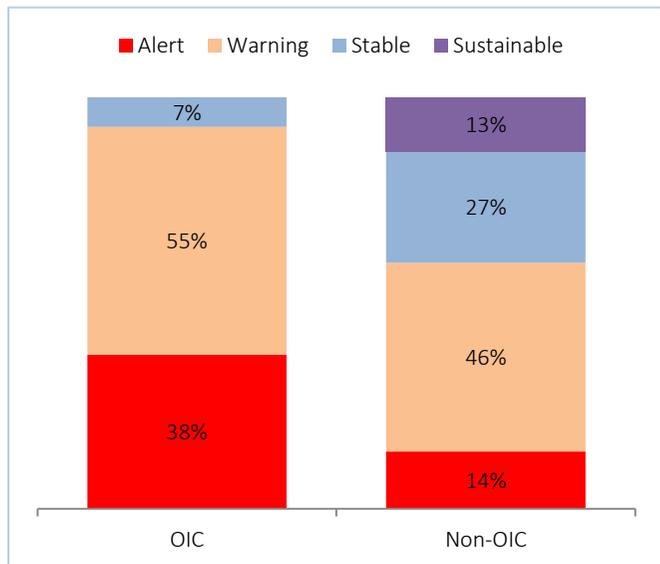
way more vulnerable than non-OIC countries with 38% of them classified as “Alert Category” which is the highest level of vulnerability and 55% classified as “Warning Category” which is the second highest level of vulnerability. This clearly shows that OIC countries need greater emphasis on building resilience to shocks and reducing vulnerability through more effective and inclusive governance systems, which will help prevent and mitigate the impact of violent conflict. In

order to reduce the vulnerability to crises, there is a need for strengthening social capital and mediation and strengthening capacities for conflict prevention and peacebuilding.

Strengthen social capital and eliminate discrimination of people

In societies where conflict and deprivation have weakened co-operation and collective action, there may be significant levels of mistrust between groups. Weak social capital can be considered among the causes of conflicts and potential humanitarian crises as well. It is particularly important to develop social cohesion among polarized or divided groups and communities, primarily through local education and dialogue, or through economic activity that binds them closer through shared value. There are several elements that can traditionally be a good source of strengthening social capital, such as religion and ethnicity. In presence of great diversity among the people in a society and weak governance, overemphasis on such elements could weaken social capital and

Figure 6.3: Conflict Vulnerability Index, Levels of Fragility (2016)



Source: SESRIC staff calculation based on The Fund for Peace FSI Index.

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can be a source of violence and conflict in such circumstances. Promoting peace and dialogue along with functioning institutions and rule of law can contribute to strengthening social capital and prevent any potential conflict. Having strong social capital will also reduce the extent of humanitarian crisis that may occur due to natural disasters.

For inclusive development, discrimination of people based on the group or social category to which they are perceived to belong should be eliminated. People who are victims of discrimination are marginalized in their societies and denied equal opportunities to reach their full potential and contribute to economic growth. Constant discrimination of people and denial of basic rights fuels social tensions and weaken social capital. The principles of equality in access to basic services and non-discrimination are among the most fundamental elements of international human rights law. Islam prohibits all forms of oppression, irrespective of the faith, gender, race or economic status. In Islamic tradition, it is known that there is no superiority between an Arab and a non-Arab, as well as between the white and the black (Qur'an, 49:13). Discrimination is not only a violation of human rights but also a major obstacle to achieving development. Conflicts stemming from various forms of discrimination as well as marginalization of vulnerable groups disrupt development, increase extreme income inequality and aggravate poverty. Elimination of discrimination promotes good governance, social cohesion and harmony, prevents conflicts and social unrest, and fosters development and fair distribution of resources.

Improve local and institutional capacity for conflict prevention

Strengthening conflict prevention, confidence building, peacekeeping, conflict resolution and post conflict rehabilitation in OIC member states as well as in conflict situations involving Muslim communities should be one of the top priorities of the OIC. However, neither the OIC nor the international community is able to replace the critical ownership and leadership role that each member country must assume in order to reduce and prevent violent conflict. Political as well as financial commitments at the national level must be made towards improving institutional capacity for building resilience and preventing conflicts. This can be facilitated by building cooperation with international and regional institutions in order to enable members of the OIC to avail of and apply documented experiences in a systematic manner.

Ensure effective mediation for peacebuilding and post-conflict recovery

It is natural to observe that people have different views and conflicting interests over many issues at different levels. There exists today a great diversity of traditions,

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cultures and opinions within Islamic societies that could be used to enrich the possibilities for pursuing peace-building efforts and resolving all existing conflicts. This requires effective mediation mechanisms. Islam not only encourages peaceful conflict settlement, but also introduces a systematic approach to end conflicts by means of conciliation (*sulh*) or arbitration (*tahkim*) or mediation (*wasata*). Islamic tradition provides plenty of evidences for recommending peaceful settlement of conflict. The Quran lauds all type of peaceful conflict settlement as long as they do not violate Islamic teachings (Qur'an, 4:114; 4:35; 49:9; 4:85).

However, it is evident that conflict resolutions in Muslim countries are generally taking longer, with constantly aggravating impacts on communities. When infrastructure for peace is not solid, it may threaten the stability of post-conflict recovery and lead to relapse into conflict. Effective measures to improve the infrastructure for peace include strengthening social capital and ensuring good governance and inclusive development.

Encourage volunteerism for a sense of common obligation

It is also important to encourage volunteerism in humanitarian context. Grounded in a shared understanding and a sense of common obligations, volunteerism strengthens trust, solidarity and reciprocity among citizens, and purposefully creates opportunities for participation. Today, maybe more than ever before, caring and sharing are a necessity, not a charitable act (UNV, 2011). It is therefore important to advocate for the recognition of volunteers, integrate volunteerism into development programming, and mobilize an increasing number and diversity of volunteers throughout the OIC.

Promote regional partnership for cooperation

Some OIC member countries are exposed to common natural hazards and face similar type of political risks due to their geographic proximity. In order to reduce vulnerabilities and build resilience at regional level, it is critical to share information, knowledge and good practices with the neighbouring countries on potential risks. In many disaster cases, neighbouring member countries find themselves on the same boat and sharing of timely information is belatedly recognized to be critical to avoid serious spill-overs between these countries. Moreover, cooperation is important not only bilaterally, but also through regional and international organizations and multilateral institutions as well as technical organizations to acquire best practices worldwide and develop the needed capacities.

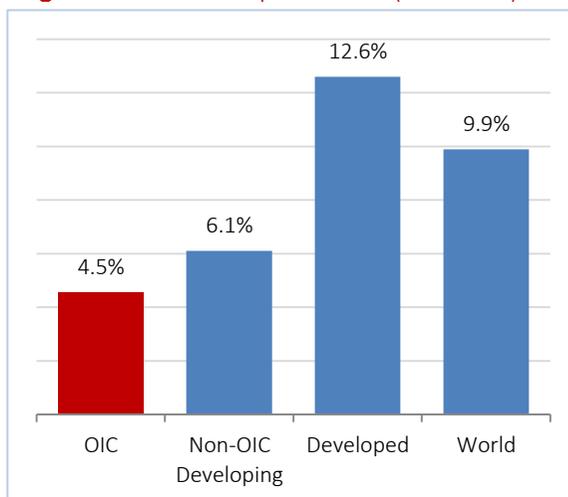
In this framework, intra-OIC cooperation should be enhanced to improve strategic planning for preparedness and response, to control and prevent disease outbreaks during emergencies, to reduce the crisis-induced migration through developing local

and national capacities and to improve the living conditions of already displaced population. Regional disaster response systems could be established with potential areas of cooperation including rapid emergency assessments, regional deployment of equipment and teams, coordination mechanisms with international organizations, and joint emergency information management. Despite the sensitivity of some conflicts in terms of international cooperation and intervention, efficient and effective mechanisms at regional level should be developed to help the countries and people in need.

6.3 Investing in Human Capital and Facilitating Social Mobility

Health, education and skills development are three critical areas where investment can make real difference in strengthening the resilience of people, reducing the likelihood of a crisis and recovering from a crisis situation. Investment in human capital can alter societal disagreements, improve relations and interactions and encourage changes in attitudes in ways that can reduce the risk of conflict and help build a sustainable peace. However, OIC countries are lacking behind the world averages in all these indicators, reflecting their vulnerability to crises. Health spending remains a major concern in OIC countries. While accounting for nearly a quarter of the world population, OIC countries accounts only for 4.1% of the global health spending. The total expenditure on health in OIC countries was about 4.5% of their GDP in 2015 compared to 6.1% in non-OIC developing countries. This is also far below the global and developed countries averages of 9.9% and 12.6%, respectively (Figure 6.4).

Figure 6.4: Health Expenditures (% of GDP)



Source: SESRIC staff calculations based on WHO Data.

Adult literacy rate is an important indicator of educational outcomes and social development. As shown in Figure 6.5, the literacy rates in the OIC countries are not impressive. With an average adult literacy rate of 74.5%, OIC countries as a group lag well behind the world average of 84.3% and also the non-OIC developing countries' average of 87%. Moreover, literacy rates are still below 50% in 9 OIC member countries (SESRIC, 2016).

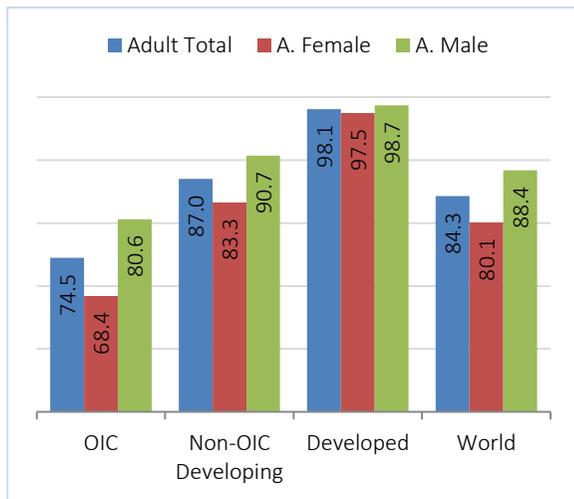
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Figure 6.6 shows the skills levels of employed people in OIC countries. According to the latest estimates of ILO, the share of people with low skills in total employment was 9.5% in 2016 and the share of people with high skills was 15.6% in OIC countries. When compared with other country groups, OIC countries display a smaller share of high skilled employees. As noted by SESRIC (2015), it is important to note that while the transition in developed and non-OIC developing countries are from medium skills to high skills employment, it is from medium skills to both high and low skills in OIC countries. This reflects the lower levels of economic development in some OIC countries that are not achieving progress towards jobs requiring complex technical and practical knowledge and tasks. This may be also an outcome of frequent crises observed in some OIC countries, depriving the skills set of affected people. In this connection, there is a need to develop strategies and programmes to improve health and educational outcomes and capabilities of people in technical and practical knowledge.

Strengthen health systems for resilience

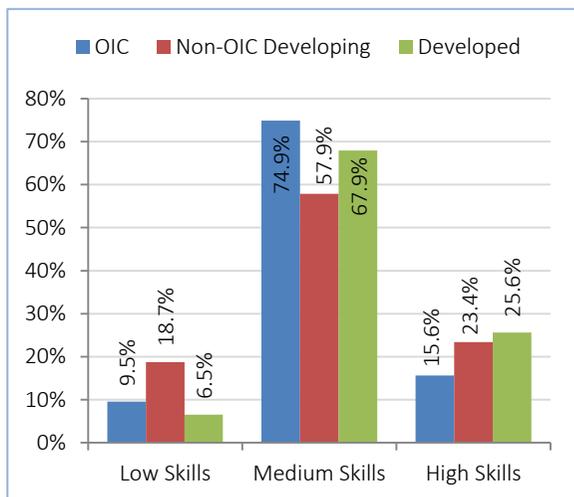
In situations of humanitarian crises, particularly due to protracted crises and complex emergencies, whole system for public services may be broken down and essential services required by the affected people may not be effectively provided. Particularly, insufficient provision of the health services can further exacerbate the emergency situation with disease outbreaks and other long-term health problems. Health

Figure 6.5: Literacy Rates



Source: SESRIC, 2016.

Figure 6.6: Skills Levels



Source: ILO - Trends Econometric Models, December 2016.

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professionals in conflict affected countries often have limited experience in analysing the major distortions of disrupted health systems and formulating measures to develop effective strategies and plans for health system revision. In order to reduce the vulnerability of people as well as manage emergency situations in times of crises, carefully designed and coordinated strategies and programmes should be developed to minimize the loss of lives and prevent pandemics.

The recent Ebola outbreak illustrated how the lack of an effective health system can affect the individuals and societies. High vulnerability to epidemics is particularly associated with poor health system management, poverty and weak governance. Health system should be strengthened by improving the coverage of basic health services and developing its capacity to effectively respond to major health shocks. The limited access to adequately trained health workforce is among the main reasons behind the low accessibility to health services particularly in rural and underserved urban areas. The OIC Strategic Health Programme of Action 2014-2023 (OIC-SHPA), adopted by the 4th Session of the Islamic Conference of Ministers of Health in 2013, provides important elements for strengthening health system and improving capacities for emergency health response and interventions.

Improve accessibility and quality of education

In many parts of the world, children leave school without acquiring the basic knowledge and skills they need for productive and healthy lives, and for attaining sustainable livelihoods. Poor quality education is jeopardizing the future of millions of children and youth across the OIC region. But evidence-based decision making is also highly challenging due to lack of sufficient data and capacity to systematically measure and track learning outcomes over time in many countries. On the other hand, skilled and well-educated workforce facilitates the absorption of foreign knowledge and technology from other countries through channels including international trade and foreign direct investments. Investment in human capital or education has, therefore, the potential to increase the capacity to obtain and utilize the knowledge developed elsewhere. Since the majority of the OIC member countries need such capacities to strengthen resilience and promote development, the issue of human capital development remains critical in widening the potentials to achieve long-term sustainable growth.

Promoting the quality of education at international and regional level is highly critical for creating better opportunities of growth and development. Despite some improvement in school attendance, there are OIC countries with considerably low level of schooling. The quality of education also remains a critical concern in many OIC

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countries. For effective human capital development that can lead to higher productivity and better competitiveness levels, attendance as well as quality of education at all levels (pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary) and all types (vocational, formal and evening) should be supported through effective programmes and policies. Low literacy rates and low levels of scientific outcomes reflect the dimensions of learning crisis in OIC countries. New and effective strategies should be devised to improve the learning outcomes in addition to improving participation to education. Educational resources and teaching conditions should also be upgraded to translate the higher participation to better learning outcomes.

Invest in skills development and enhance employability

The level of skills and qualifications of a person is a critical factor in enhancing the employability in the labour market. However, the benefits of skills development go beyond the employability. For an economy, skills development of workers with low qualifications in general increases productivity and strengthens long-term competitiveness. Productive and competitive economies are more likely to have strong institutions that pay attention to fair distribution of welfare and protection of human rights, and thereby to have lower fragility. By ensuring stable income and livelihoods, risk of social tensions that may precipitate civil unrest and violence will also be lower. In settings where workers with better skills and training receive higher earnings, people invest more in their human capital. Therefore, maintaining and upgrading the skills and competences of the labour force to meet and adapt the continuously changing working environments are all crucial for peace and stability.

On the other hand, the negative shocks to employment due to economic crisis, natural disasters or conflicts shrink the job opportunities and thus increase the unemployment rates. If necessary and adequate measures are not taken, those who lose their jobs may also lose some of their skills during long unemployment periods. The possibility of losing skills reduces the probability of finding new jobs. In order to facilitate a quick recovery of the job market in times of crisis, it is crucial to enhance skills and capabilities of labour force through various capacity building activities. If large segments of population, particularly the vulnerable and excluded groups, remain unemployed, idleness creates frustration and discontent among those groups and increases the fragility for further social unrest. Therefore, employment is vital in post-crisis / post-conflict situations for stability, recovery, growth and peace.

Address the challenges of youth and disadvantaged groups

Young population is one of the most important strengths of the OIC member countries and according to the current population projections it will remain a major strength

over the coming decades. It is projected that one third of them will be living in OIC countries in 2050 compared to one fourth of the total world young population currently living in OIC countries. While this offers a great opportunity for OIC countries, governments also have to face critical challenges in utilizing this great potential. Providing quality education and training, generating adequate number of jobs and easing transition from education to labour market, creating equal opportunities in skill formation and job market for both male and female, promoting intergenerational social mobility for better standards of living, ensuring active participation of youth in the society, and reducing addictions are some of the issues that need to be taken into consideration to effectively utilize this crucial potential in OIC countries. Entrepreneurial spirit of youth should be nurtured in order to allow them to utilize their skills and knowledge and contribute to socio-economic development of the societies in which they live.

In addition to the challenges in the area of education and employment, youth, women and some other disadvantaged groups in many OIC countries are experiencing tremendous levels of stress due to limited opportunities for social mobility and restrictions on fully participating in social, cultural, economic and political life. This state of affairs leads in many cases to social turmoil and political unrest. In order to tackle such problems, there is a role for all stakeholders. Governments should ensure equal access to opportunities, civil society organizations should support disadvantaged people to succeed, education institutions should consider the diverse background of students in their efforts to get good quality education and labour market players should be flexible in giving a second chance to those who fail to adapt to working environment. If youth people have lower prospects in entering into labour market after years of investment in their human capital, frustration will be immense.

6.4 Intensifying Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Practices

The geographic, social, economic and political diversity of OIC member countries make them susceptible to variety of natural hazards. The inherent societal vulnerabilities, which have aggravated over the past few decades, often transform the hazards into catastrophes causing heavy losses to lives, livelihoods and development infrastructure. The risk profile of OIC countries is being further intensified due to the impact of climate change (and variability).

It is evident that natural disasters are among the most important drivers of humanitarian crises and climate change is behind the increase in the number of natural hazards. As highlighted in the background report, OIC countries experienced a steeper upward trend in the occurrence of natural disasters during the last four decades. The

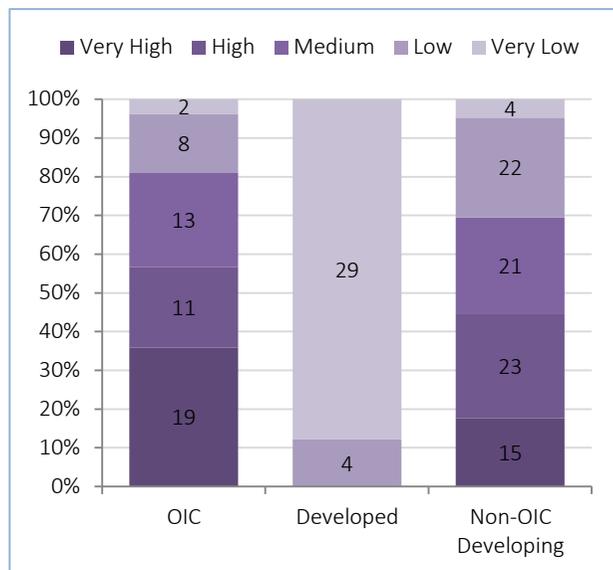
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major drivers of such a fast increase in the number of natural disasters among the OIC countries were floods, epidemics, earthquakes, storms and droughts. It is, however, noteworthy that while OIC countries account for around one fifth of total natural disasters in the world, they account for almost two fifth of total number of people killed by natural disasters in the world during 1970-2015. This reflects the level of vulnerability of OIC countries to disasters.

Therefore, it can be argued that it is not the level of exposure that intensify the risks of disasters and humanitarian crises, but the low level of resilience and high vulnerability to disasters. Vulnerability encompasses conditions determined by physical, social, economic and environmental factors or processes that increase the susceptibility of a community to the impact of hazards. Disaster vulnerability in OIC countries sources from a wide range of factors which, in turn, requires substantial and long-term commitment from all stakeholders to overcome these challenges. According to the World Risk Index (WRI), developed by the United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), 19 OIC member countries are classified within the highest vulnerability category, a number which is higher than the total number in non-OIC countries (Figure 6.7).

In order to minimize human and development losses due to natural disasters, the OIC member countries need to follow a holistic approach involving disaster mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery. In this connection, following recommendations are made for reducing risks of disasters and humanitarian crises.

Figure 6.7: Vulnerability to Disasters



Source: UNU-EHS, 2016.

Expedite the efforts for climate change adaptation

Environmental conservation, climate change adaptation and disaster mitigation are closely associated. Risks resulting from climate change caused by extreme events are on the rise and these risks are unevenly distributed, with potentially greater impact on the poor and disadvantaged communities. Today, more than 80% of the natural disasters are due to hydro-meteorological events, including floods, droughts,

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desertification, cyclones, storms and fires. Environmental degradation and climate change intensify the frequency and severity of hydro-meteorological hazards. Failure to act to address climate change intensifies the risks for disasters, particularly causing more droughts due to reduced rainfall, more flash flooding due to concentrated rainfall, increased riverine flooding due to melting of glaciers, more storms, cyclones and fires due to rising temperatures and sea-level rise.

Prudent environmental management can significantly reduce disaster risks and the adverse effects of climate change. In Islam, humans have to take full responsibility for their actions while exploiting the world's resources. The Qur'an teaches that men are the caretakers or steward (*khalifah*) on the earth (Qur'an 2:30), and are responsible for maintaining it. Similarly, water conservation in Islam is a matter of principle. The Prophet (pbuh) forbids wasting it even when it is available in abundance. He also cautions against its waste even while performing certain religious rites. However, humans, although they are selected to be caretakers of the earth, have been the source of distortion and devastation on it. The constant change in climate is likely to erode the earth's fine equilibrium (*mīzān*), which was perfectly created (Qur'an, 55: 7-10).

We should recognize the corruption (*fasād*) that humans have caused on the Earth is due to people's relentless pursuit of economic growth and consumption, which was also reflected in Qur'an (Qur'an, 30:41). It is found that people have made greater changes to ecosystems in the last half of the 20th century than at any time in human history. These changes have improved human well-being, but have been accompanied by ever increasing degradation of the environment (WRI, 2005). In order to enhance the resilience of people in OIC countries to future humanitarian crisis, the need for addressing climate change should be recognized and appropriate actions should be taken.¹⁰

Adopt a policy shift from response to prevention and mitigation

Most OIC countries still rely on the traditional disaster management structures mainly with post-disaster response and relief responsibilities, and lack the capacities for effective risk reduction. This grim fact is reflected in the poor risk reduction capabilities indicated by the Risk Reduction Index. Accordingly, about 75% of the OIC member countries are identified as having low or extremely low capacities for effective risk management policies, strategies and activities for reducing the impact of natural

¹⁰ It should be noted that, a group of Islamic experts prepared an "Islamic Declaration on Global Climate Change" in August 2015 and urged the Muslims to do more to fight global warming. The declaration has important insights and significant relevance to building resilience in OIC countries.

hazards on vulnerable local communities (UNISDR, 2011). On the other hand, individual efforts particularly for mitigation and preparedness have so far lacked the systemic facilitation and enhancement of collective disaster risk reduction capacities among the member countries as an effective mechanism for assisting the low income member countries that lack the required coping capacities and are the most at the risk of human and capital losses due to disasters.

Effective risk governance is crucial to identify disaster risks in a timely manner and to implementing schemes to reduce or minimize vulnerabilities and risks from impending hazards. Risk governance requires formulation of national and local policies supported by an appropriate legislative framework and spearheaded by institutional mechanisms that prioritize mitigation. Unfortunately the existing policies in most OIC member countries promote a response-oriented approach. No prior thought is given to allocating resources or implementing schemes for mitigation of risk. A policy shift from response to mitigation is a primary condition for a good system of risk governance. A change in policy will allow the allocation of resources and resetting of institutional priorities and mandates. It will lead to the creation of a culture of prevention. Very illustratively, the Prophet Noah was not supposed to rely only on divine intervention to survive a coming disaster, but has to construct his own ship and take necessary livelihoods with him, as indicated in Qur'an and some other religious sources.

Integrate disaster risk management concerns into national development planning

Disaster mitigation needs to be adopted across all sectors of development in countries/regions that are exposed to disaster risks so that losses to life and assets in all development areas can be minimized. Disaster risk management concerns should be integrated into national development planning in order to promote safer construction of buildings and infrastructure, apply land-use planning to reduce exposure of settlements and infrastructure to hazards, and introduce risk transfer through insurance of large scale infrastructure and critical facilities as well as community based disaster mitigation activities. Moreover, education, awareness and training programmes should be developed to enhance technical capacities and personal safety and citizen participation should be increased through community based disaster mitigation activities

In order to mainstream disaster risk management into development programs, the ministries and departments need to reform their approaches to project design, management and monitoring and evaluation. They need to modify the project procedures to ensure that disaster risk assessment and mitigation are integrated into different phases of the project cycle. The ministries and departments also need to develop in-house technical capacities or rely upon external technical resources to

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organize risk assessments for various mega projects and to incorporate mitigation approaches in them. It is important to set up a small disaster mitigation unit in each ministry. Such unit can serve as the focal point to ensure that disaster mitigation is integrated into all aspects of ministerial planning and management.

Strengthen the capacity of the institutions for disaster risk management

Another equally important requirement is the establishment of effective institutions at national, province and local levels to spearhead efforts for disaster mitigation. Due to its multi-disciplinary nature, disaster mitigation requires multi-sectorial coordination and cooperation. Therefore, the formation of multi-sectorial coordination and policy making bodies is crucial at all levels. Even coordination within the government system remains a major challenge due to the involvement of multiple ministries, departments, and technical institutions. In recent decades, governments have introduced disaster management committees to facilitate intra-governmental coordination and policy-making. Some countries have also set up national platforms for disaster risk reduction to facilitate coordination amongst multiple stakeholders including government and non-government.

The disaster management committees are forums for making decision, sharing information and agreeing on responsibilities. However, the implementation of those decisions requires constant follow-up, capacity development and accountability. Developing capacities is important because these organizations are crucial to ensure the implementation of policies through planning and organizing multiple functions, including disaster risk analysis, information management, training, implementing public awareness campaigns, early warning dissemination and ensuring compliance of land-use policies and building codes. Such organizations also serve as the focal points for organizing emergency response during disaster situations by facilitating coordination and deployment of multi-sectorial and multi-disciplinary resources. The experiences from different countries indicate that the setting-up of such focal organizations and coordination committees helps to harmonize efforts and achieve significant results in terms of disaster mitigation.

Improve strategic planning for response and recovery, and invest in local capacities

Recurrent disasters and crises disrupt economic, political and social systems of society and erode development gains of affected countries, thus pushing them into a downward spiral, where losses outweigh limited development gains and disaster risks continue to accumulate. Countries frequently affected by crises may be involved in a vicious circle of deepening vulnerabilities and increasing poverty, as in Sudan, Somalia and Yemen. On the other hand, disaster recovery offers a window of opportunity,

albeit transient, to change and transform the society. Post-disaster period provides a supportive political context to take decisions for transformative changes for (re)-building a more resilient society by reducing vulnerabilities, risks and removing underlying causes. An effective recovery process, however, requires timely policy guidance and financial, technical and institutional support in order to achieve maximum benefits from the rehabilitation and reconstruction process after disasters. When recovery is well managed, disasters may become opportunities for reducing risk and securing development. If recovery is managed only poorly, the disasters can undermine future development by deepening inequalities, worsening poverty, increasing vulnerabilities of affected populations and enhancing risks.

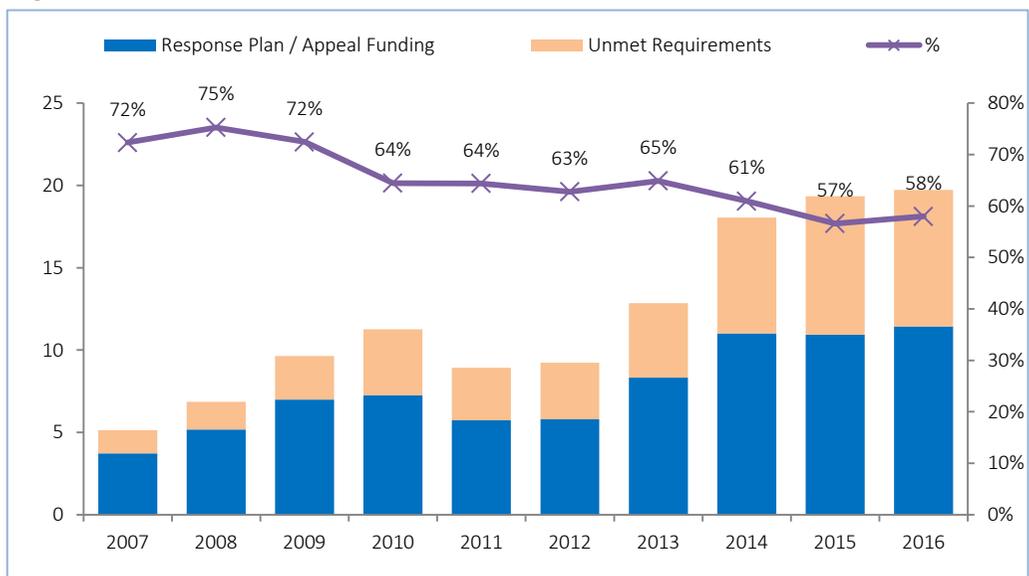
Rebuilding the affected areas in all dimensions of human development—social, economic, political, physical and cultural—poses a significant challenge after a disaster, because most governments and societies are not well prepared to organize post disaster recovery. Experiences in OIC countries and the world reveal considerable shortcomings and gaps that seriously hinder full recovery processes of disaster affected regions. The full recovery after a mega disaster will require considerable financial resources, skilled human resources, and strong coordination and institutional arrangements to accomplish swift recovery and sustained reconstruction to ‘build back better’ (see SESRIC, 2014, for the most common features of current recovery challenges).

Evidence from recent disasters has shown that recovery efforts by the affected population begin concurrently with humanitarian assistance. The affected population engages in spontaneous recovery activities as soon as the conditions permit. However, in the absence of a support mechanism for recovery, these spontaneous and sometimes haphazard recovery efforts could increase the vulnerability of the affected people. For this reason, it is important that planning for rehabilitation commences as soon as possible after the disaster. The objective is to support people’s own initiatives, strengthen their productive capacity early on when it matters most, and harness opportunities for reducing disaster risks.

6.5 Mobilizing Innovative Financing Mechanisms for Humanitarian Aid and Development Assistance

Given the increasing trend in the number of people affected from different types of crisis situations, USD 19.3 billion was appealed in 2015 for humanitarian assistance, but only USD 10.9 billion or 57% of the requirements were met. In 2016, USD 19.7 million was appealed in line with the increasing pressure on humanitarian system, however only USD 11.4 billion or 58% of the total amount was collected (Figure 6.8). More

Figure 6.8: Trends in Response Plan/Appeal Requirements

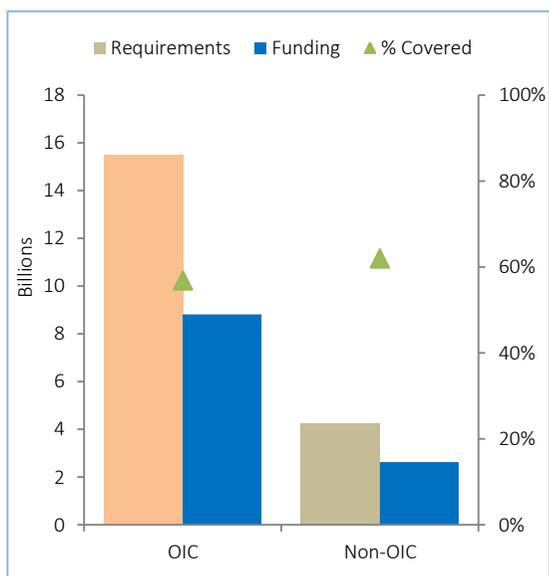


Source: UN-OCHA.

importantly, 78.5% of whole humanitarian funds were requested to finance humanitarian assistance in OIC countries. Total requirement in OIC countries in 2016 was USD 15.5 billion, while it was USD 4.2 billion in non-OIC countries; however, only 56.9% and 61.9% of these amounts could be collected for the appeals in both country groups, respectively (Figure 6.9).

According to the 2015 Global Humanitarian Assistance Report of OCHA, of total international humanitarian assistance, only 0.2% went directly to local and national NGOs and 3.1% to the governments of affected states (OCHA, 2015). Most international humanitarian assistance – 83% (USD 18.7 billion) in 2014 – continues to come from government donors. Besides, more than USD 5.8 billion or 24% of total international humanitarian aid came from the private donations. Large sum of Turkey's assistance to Syrian refugees in Turkey is not reflected in

Figure 6.9: Humanitarian Response Plans 2016



Source: UN-OCHA.

the figures. If this sum was reflected in international humanitarian assistance, it would make Turkey in 2014 the third largest donor by volume and the second largest by percentage of GNI. The donors from Gulf States have made significant increase in their contributions.

According to OCHA, it is projected that all the humanitarian partners will need at least \$20.1 billion to support 87.6 million people in 37 countries in 2016 (UN-OCHA, 2016). As can be seen from Table 6.1, around 75.6 million people from top ten OIC member countries are badly affected by various humanitarian crises and only 48.8 million are targeted for UN humanitarian assistance in 2016.¹¹ The prolonged crises in MENA regions have increased the appeal requirements to more than five times from 2012 to 2015. At the same time, it has expanded the funding gap. In 2015, total funding shortage in the MENA region was 45% of actual need (GHA, 2015a).

The daunting scale of the humanitarian funding gap requires innovative mechanisms for humanitarian assistance. In this context, while there is a need to improve the effectiveness of aid, harnessing the Islamic social financing model can be a sustainable solution to the existing humanitarian crises in different parts of the OIC member countries.

Table 6.1: Top 10 OIC Member Countries affected by the Humanitarian Crises in 2017

Country	People in Need (Million)	People Targeted (Million)	Requirements (Million/Billion USD)	% Change from 2016
Yemen	18.8	10.3	1.9 B	16%
Syria	13.5	12.8	3.4 B	6%
Iraq	11	5.8	930M	8%
Afghanistan	9.3	5.7	550.2 M	62%
Nigeria	8.5	6.9	1.054 B	118%
Sudan	5.8	4.6	952M	-
Somalia	5	3.9	964 M	-2%
Chad	4.6	2.7	588.8 M	9%
Mali	3.7	1.4	293 M	17%
Cameroon	2.9	1.2	309.6 M	33%

Source: Global Humanitarian Overview 2017, United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs OCHA (Data as of January 2017). Note: Preliminary estimates of some countries.

¹¹ At the beginning of 2016, 125.3 million people devastated by conflicts and natural disasters are in need of assistance, with a vast majority (71%) residing in OIC countries. Over 60 million of those people have been forcibly displaced and more than half are children.

Improve aid effectiveness and reduce aid dependency

Humanitarian aid, in nexus with resilience development, plays a critical role in alleviating the deprivation and suffering of people, particularly immediately after a humanitarian crisis and contributes to economic development and improvements in quality of life variables in many countries over the longer term. However, aids that are too narrowly focused and not consistent with long-term developmental objectives are unlikely to help reduce the vulnerabilities and build the resilience of the communities. It is evidenced that various factors, including lack of coordination and transparency, poor oversight, overly ambitious targets and unrealistic time frames, have too often prevented aid from being as effective as desired in different settings. Very high levels of aids over a sustained period turn to generate distorting effects, as they do not produce desired outcomes in policy ownership, local and institutional capacity development and long-term growth, as observed particularly in the cases of Afghanistan, Somalia and Sudan. Aid that does not improve the local capacities for sustainable development just heightens the dependency of countries on more aid flows.

In order to avoid protracted aid dependency in OIC countries, there is a need for aid dependent OIC countries to significantly improve effectiveness of aid that leads to sustainable recovery, capacity development of local institutions and policy ownership. Policies and programmes that target developing capacities, not only at institutional level but also at local and community level, should be developed and implemented harmoniously as to promote inter-linkage between each level. While international donors need see the immediate impact from humanitarian assistance intervention, the development of innovative mechanisms under Islamic social finance can be particularly effective as to provide additional financing support for components, which are related to resilience development initiative. Thus, the joint forces in humanitarian-development nexus between the traditional donors and Islamic social finance resources in achieving short term and long-term benefits for affected people, community and country can lead to a bigger impact, which is aid independency.

Develop alternative financial mechanisms for building resilience

Individuals, communities, and even countries at risk to disasters are left with limited sets of coping mechanisms. Informal coping strategies do not stand up well against series of shocks. There is a need to improve access among poor and vulnerable communities to financing tools that promote resilience and reduce disaster risk as well as governments and development institutions. Efforts should be made to promote

savings and investment for strengthening resilience and protecting assets and resources through pre-disaster prevention and mitigation.

Insurance is a customary and effective method of sharing risk, especially in developed countries. In recent years, microfinance, social funds, micro insurance, and catastrophe pools have generated great interest for use in increasing access to financing for disaster risk management. *Takaful*, or Islamic insurance, can be an important tool in building resilience in OIC countries. Moreover, in order to better support OIC countries affected by disasters, multilateral agencies such as the Islamic Development Bank (IDB) can create new instruments that provide member countries with not only contingent credit that can be immediately accessed in case of an emergency, but also finance resilience building efforts at different levels.

Moreover, as an innovative approach to building resilience, a new type of start-up philosophy and practice can be developed. The principle idea here is to address the humanitarian challenges from a 'for-profit' perspective, instead of a 'non-profit' one (whether considered within the scope of charity, *waqf* activity, or welfare policies), through encouraging start-up companies that focus on particular challenges of local communities, such as water sanitation or electricity. For this, a pool of funds for a business incubator would be created and this incubator would support start-up companies that develop new projects in reducing local vulnerabilities. That would diversify the actors involved in the process of prevention and post-crises management, promote solidarity, offer a new channel for youth employment and help to export successful projects from the Muslim world to the rest of the world.

Utilize Islamic social finance for humanitarian aid and development assistance

Given the highly critical instruments available for Muslim communities in helping the others, it is most appropriate and timely to utilize the ISF for addressing challenges related to various dimensions of humanitarian crises. In addition to reducing the humanitarian funding gaps, the Islamic social financing mechanisms can help to reduce the vulnerability of people and recover from crisis situations. This requires effective schemes to collect and distribute the resources under this mechanism. It is fair to argue that the tools of Islamic social finance are not being effectively utilized. If, for example, *zakah* is properly collected and managed, it can make big differences in changing the lives of vulnerable and affected people. Therefore, while incorporating the ISF into the humanitarian assistance, innovative financing models should be developed to create long-term impact on these people.

In order to be able to utilize ISF, there must be a mechanism to collect the resources from *zakat* (mandatory alms-giving), *sadaqah* (voluntary alms-giving), *qard-al hasan*

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(interest-free loan), and *awqaf* (endowment) and distribute to needy people in an effective manner.¹² This mechanism can be an effective tool for crisis-affected people in addressing their needs. These needs can differ across people. For the people who need immediate humanitarian assistance, it may be just basic needs, such as food, shelter and education. For others, particularly for those who are trying to recover from a crisis situation, it may include more sophisticated needs such as financing start-up of a business, receiving technical and vocational training or financing reconstruction of damaged houses and infrastructures. In this regard, ISF has potential to address the needs of people on the ground and pave their way for recovery from the crisis.

Lack of access to basic services, particularly to food, education and health, during crisis times may have long term impact on cognitive abilities of affected people. Similarly, lack of access to employment opportunities at times of protracted crisis may lead to de-skilling of people those who do not have opportunity to utilize their knowledge and capabilities. Lack of access to financial services in their efforts to recover from crisis may prolong the sufferings of people. In all these dimensions, an accumulated and professionally managed ISF can play a significant role in alleviating the human suffering and expanding the opportunities for recovery.

Strengthen collaboration between the OIC and UN Institutions on Islamic social finance for humanitarian actions

While ISF tools can be utilized by each state, collaboration at international level between relevant OIC and UN institutions through innovative financing mechanisms would be desirable in humanitarian interventions for people in fragile and conflict-affected OIC countries. This may require establishing an autonomous and independent governance structure that supports its delivery effectiveness for humanitarian assistance intervention.

The long-term nature of protracted crises has put these crises in the grey area of humanitarian and development finance. More than 90% of humanitarian appeals last longer than 3 years with an average length of 7 years (DI, 2014). To address this, there is growing consensus on the need to shift to longer-term funding and investment models as well as greater alignment of humanitarian, development and peacebuilding finance (UN, 2015). Developing multi-year humanitarian programs and mobilise resources for supporting the program is a two-way traffic. Without well-designed

¹² The resources have been dynamically mobilised by IDB for socio-economic agenda for the poor and the needy group in fragile post-conflict and occupied states. IDB created the Islamic Solidarity Fund for Development (ISFD) in 2007 and raised a total of USD 10 billion from the sources of *zakat*, *waqf* and *sadaqah* to finance various development activities. However, there is need for developing additional mechanisms to effectively utilize the Islamic social finance resources.

6. Five Remedies for Reducing Vulnerabilities and Building Resilience

programs to match funding modalities, convincing potential donors or investors to engage into any humanitarian activities is not that candid. Having no ready-donor and investor is equally challenging either to develop a tailor-made programming. Both components should be working hands-in-hands for more long-term realization of humanitarian assistance intervention.

In this framework, with involvement of relevant OIC and UN agencies, a global humanitarian instrument for humanitarian assistance can be developed based on ISF tools. In this scenario, the issuance of an inaugural humanitarian *sukuk* programme combined with cash *waqf* could pave the way towards sustainable and ideal humanitarian financing, leveraging the current capital market instruments and architecture to reach non-traditional and emerging donors. The long-term nature of *sukuk* financing combined with the perpetual nature of *waqf* could also contribute to more predictable and sustainable funding. It is equally important also to demonstrate how this funding mechanism could provide more value proposition to reduce the inefficiency in resource allocation to assistance programs and socio-economic development projects on the ground.

Technological revolution has led to the growth of crowd-funding and crowd-sourcing models, bringing forth the power of individuals to fund humanitarian response using Islamic Social Finance funds in the nature of *waqf*, *zakat* and *sadaqah* funds access to market and knowledge respectively, via online web-based platforms. The platforms enable organizations to connect directly with prospective donors, suppliers and knowledge providers potentially increasing speed and efficiency as well as enabling greater funding to be accessed by local first responders, in particular for resource mobilization, and for benefits of humanitarian action as a whole.

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Table 6.2: A Humanitarian Action Plan

THE IDENTIFIED RESILIENCE THEMES & RESPONSIBILITY		STRATEGIC ACTION PLANS			
		DO NEW	DO MORE	DO LESS	DO STOP
PROMOTE INCLUSIVE SOCIETIES AND INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT	Govt. Ministries related to Economic Planning & Social Affairs, local authorities	Mainstreaming <i>Maqasid Shariah</i> concept socio-economic development agenda in the OIC countries at national, state and local authority levels.	Strengthening the national governance as to promote transparency, accountability and equitable wealth distribution amongst the multi-level society	Implementing development with far-imbalance between urban and rural areas as to provide equal access to public infrastructure and basic-needs services	Centralization of wealth amongst the circle of powerful and influential groups
STRENGTHEN SOCIAL CAPITAL, MEDIATION AND PARTNERSHIP	OIC, Govt. Ministries related to Finance, Religious Affairs, Economic Planning & Social Affairs	Intensifying regional faith, tradition and cultures dialogues amongst the scholars as to reduce misconception, with greater involvement from the OIC to engage reputable OIC countries for peace-building efforts.	Strengthening the institutional capacity of OIC member countries via calling more support and regional cooperation with neutral parties	Providing assistance as a quick-solver to a problem, rather than root-causes of the social issues.	Silent on intensified efforts by any group as to promote Islamophobia and fraction amongst the different <i>mazhab</i> in Islam.
INVEST IN HUMAN CAPITAL AND FACILITATE SOCIAL MOBILITY	Govt. Ministries related to health, education & youth, private sector, as well as donors network	Doubling investment in youth for getting better quality of their education and health services, as to build new generation of educated and healthy Muslims population; Promoting economic empowerment amongst youth and women, as driving force for economic stability	Providing more national budget in developing infrastructures for schools and hospital, as well as scholarship for youth in developing their qualification and self-skills at higher education	Providing assistance with far-imbalance between urban and rural areas as to provide equal access to education and health services	Unequitable opportunity in distributing education and health assistance and services to rural youth in specific and poor people in general
INTENSIFY DISASTER RISK REDUCTION MANAGEMENT PRACTICES	Govt. Ministries related to Economic Planning & Public Works as well as donors network	Establishing a dedicated fund at national fund as a standby pool of fund for immediate intervention in any natural disaster.	Convincing donors network the importance of investing into Disaster Risk Reduction and Management in building more resilience to assistance on the ground	Developing program for humanitarian intervention without embedding the component of disaster risk reduction and management	Allocation no national budget for the Disaster Risk Reduction and Management, particularly to OIC Member-Countries prone to natural disasters
MOBILIZE INNOVATIVE FINANCING MECHANISMS FOR HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE AND DEVELOPMENT	Govt. Ministries related to Religious Affairs, Central Bank, Commercial / Investment Banks, Development Aid, Private Sector, Civil Society as well as donors network	Issuing innovative Humanitarian Sukuk or other instrument, which is different from type structure of corporate funding exercise, so that it places greater emphasize on impact and efficiency in resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation.	Mainstreaming the mobilization of ISF Components (i.e. <i>Waqf, Zakat and Sadaqah</i>) via crowdfunding platform, for which become the alternative source for <i>ad hoc</i> and cross-border humanitarian assistance intervention and resilience development initiative, with greater involvement from private sector for more sustainable development	Reducing unstructured and uncoordinated resource mobilization of the Islamic Social Finance to the same beneficiary, as well as duplication of resources from other actors.	Propagating mistrust amongst the Muslims about the potential of Islamic Social Finance for cross-border humanitarian intervention, due to lack of understanding on <i>Maslahah</i> needs and the robustness of funds' governance.

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