



DTM



A LONG WAY FROM HOME

Migrants' housing conditions in Libya

NOVEMBER 2020

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Photo (cover page):

In September, IOM launched a series of outreach campaigns and awareness raising sessions on COVID-19 prevention measures, key symptoms and how to seek medical help when needed. To ensure no one is left behind, informative leaflets were provided in six languages and “door-to-door” campaigns were carried out in remote areas.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CESCR	Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ECHO	European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operations
HLP	Housing, Land and Property
HNO	Humanitarian Needs Overview
ICMPD	International Centre for Migration Policy Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
MSNA	Multi-Sector Needs Assessment
NFIs	Non-Food Items
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (UN Human Rights)
UN	United Nations
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlement Programme
UNSMIL	United Nations Support Mission in Libya
UNSTATS	United Nations Statistics Division
WHO	United Nations World Health Organization

Photo: In response to the deteriorating living conditions and an increase in COVID-19 cases, IOM's Migration Resource and Response Mechanism (MRRM) teams provided core relief items including hygiene kits, mattresses, solar lamps and kitchen sets to migrants in July. The distributions took place in Tripoli (pictured), Al-Zawiya, Zwara, Al Gatroun, Sebha and Bani Waleed.

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PART 1 HIGHLIGHTS

HIGHLIGHTS

39%

of migrants live in severely overcrowded conditions.

Based on an analysis of six dimensions of adequate housing¹, the majority of migrants' housing conditions were classified as adequate or marginally adequate. However, several issues related to adequate living space, structural quality, security of tenure, affordability and, to a lesser extent, access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation, were identified. A total of 39 per cent of migrants reported living in severely overcrowded conditions, meaning more than six people per habitable room.

96%

of migrants reported having undocumented or no lease agreements.

A minority of migrants are in possession of documented lease agreements (4%). The majority (96%) reported having a verbal contract or no contract at all. Not having a regular legal status may contribute to migrants seeking shelter in informal settlements without security of tenure or services. This is of particular concern as it increases the risk of forced eviction: when faced with sudden price increases or unfair or predatory practices migrants may lack the means to protect themselves or exercise their rights.



Factors of vulnerability that are linked to inadequate housing include: economic status, migration intentions, gender and living with a disability.

The findings of this survey confirm that employment and economic status, migration intentions as well as gender are factors that appear to lead to increased difficulty in accessing and securing adequate housing. The precarious employment situation and marginalization in the labour market of some respondents seems to affect their access to decent accommodation. In turn, living in inadequate housing can lead migrants to be exposed to unhealthy, unsafe and exploitative housing circumstances increasing their overall level of vulnerability. In addition, disability appears to be a barrier to inclusion and accessing adequate housing.

21

On average each collective accommodation housed 21 migrants.

In the baladiyas of Tripoli, Misrata, Benghazi and Sebha, the number of migrants who shared accommodation varied greatly, but on average each setting, which varied in size, housed 21 people.

¹ The six dimensions of adequate housing analysed for the purpose of this report include: access to sufficient safe drinking water, access to improved sanitation facilities, sufficient living areas, security of tenure, affordability as well as structural quality and durability, and location (UN Habitat & OHCHR, 2010). Please refer to the subsequent chapters for more details.

More than half of migrants (54%) reported adopting livelihood coping strategies to be able to afford rental costs. The high proportion of individuals engaging in stress, crisis and emergency livelihood coping strategies shows that individuals are depleting their assets and compromising their future ability to provide for themselves in order to meet their immediate essential needs.

54%

of migrants reported adopting livelihood coping strategies to be able to afford rental costs.

A total of six per cent of migrants reported having been evicted (3%) or knowing someone who had been evicted (3%). A higher proportion of migrants reported having been evicted (5%) or knowing someone who had (5%) in the baladiyas of the Tripoli region than in the baladiyas of Misrata (2% and 2%, respectively) or Sebha (3% and 1%, respectively). One migrant reported this issue in the baladiya of Benghazi.

3%

of migrants reported having been evicted.

Migrants living in collective accommodation and at their places of work fared worse than those living in rented accommodation (paid for by themselves or by others). A greater proportion of migrants housed in either their workplaces or in collective accommodation were living in overcrowded accommodation of which the structural quality was substandard. In addition, they lacked security of tenure and affordable housing to a greater extent than migrants living in rented accommodation.



Migrants accommodated in both collective housing and in their workplaces are more likely to live in inadequate housing conditions.

Amongst migrants who reported facing accommodation issues, more than half (55%) reported that security and personal safety was either the main (37%) or the second most (18%) significant challenge they faced in living in their accommodation. The majority of migrants (74%) cited crime, violence or harassment in their neighbourhood while a minority (18%) detailed problems with accommodation infrastructure or buildings that were damaged or insufficient to protect them from the elements.

55%

of migrants who reported facing accommodation issues stated that security was the main or second most important issue.



PART 2 BACKGROUND

Photo: Faced with the pandemic, employment precarity and the ongoing conflict in Libya many migrants report feeling hopelessness, helplessness, frustration, fear and isolation. For World Mental Health day, the Mental Health and Psychosocial Support (MHPSS) team visited a migrant household in Janzour, on the outskirts of Tripoli, where Sudanese families found shelter, but were disconnected and unable to access humanitarian services.

IOM's MHPSS programme responds to these needs by reaching out to migrants in their communities and offering psychosocial awareness and art-based activities. These services aim at creating a safe space for migrants to express themselves and get the needed support during this time.

CONTEXT

Housing is a basic human need and is [central](#)² to social, emotional and economic well-being. Housing is closely tied to the way migrants and host populations live, organize their lives and their sense of security. As of [September 2020](#)³, over 584,000 migrants were in Libya residing in a variety of housing arrangements including rented apartments, migrant guest houses and accommodation provided by employers.

The right to adequate housing

The right to adequate housing can be understood as the right to live somewhere in security, peace and dignity. It is recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which states that “everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of themselves and of their family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care”. As a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, the right to adequate housing is of central importance for the enjoyment of all economic, social and cultural rights. As such, it cannot be understood as being merely the right to have a roof over one’s head and neither should it be considered exclusively as a commodity.

Despite its importance from a human rights perspective, approximately [1.8 billion people](#)⁴ around the world live in inadequate housing or in homelessness and in conditions which can be life- or health-threatening.

What is adequate housing?

While adequacy is influenced in part by social, economic, cultural, climatic and ecological factors, core, minimum and universal aspects of the right were identified by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. At a minimum, housing to be adequate must meet the following criteria:



Availability of services, materials, facilities and infrastructure: housing is not adequate if its occupants do not have safe drinking water, adequate sanitation, energy for cooking, heating, lighting, food storage or refuse disposal.



Security of tenure: housing is not adequate if its occupants do not have a degree of tenure security which guarantees legal protection against forced evictions, harassment and other threats.



Accessibility: housing is not adequate if the specific needs of disadvantaged and marginalized groups are not considered.



Habitability: housing is not adequate if it does not guarantee physical safety or provide adequate space, as well as protection against the cold, damp, heat, rain, wind, other threats to health and structural hazards.



Affordability: housing is not adequate if its cost threatens or compromises the occupants’ enjoyment of other human rights.



Adequate location: housing is not adequate if it is cut off from employment opportunities, health-care services, schools, childcare centers and other social facilities, or if located in polluted or dangerous areas.



Cultural adequacy: housing is not adequate if it does not respect and consider the expression of cultural identity.

2. United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) (2014b), “Special Rapporteur on Adequate Housing as a Component of the Right to an Adequate Standard of Living, and on the Right to Non-discrimination”. Available at <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Housing/Pages/HousingIndex.aspx> (accessed 20 September 2020).

3 International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2020c), “DTM Libya: Migrant Report Round 32”. Available at <https://migration.iom.int/reports/libya-%E2%80%94-migrant-report-32-july-august-2020> (accessed 20 September 2020).

4 OHCHR (2020a), “Housing, the Front Line Defence Against the COVID-19 Outbreak”. Available at <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=25727> (accessed 22 September 2020).

Adequate housing in Libya

In Libya, shelter was identified in the 2020 Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO) as the [second highest priority need for migrants](#)⁵ who are the population group most likely to live in inadequate accommodation.

In addition, migrants, who continue to face severe protection risks, are also [confronted](#)⁶ with restrictions and discrimination in accessing housing and basic services. An estimated 146,000 migrants and refugees were identified in the [2020 Humanitarian Needs Overview](#)⁷ as being in need of shelter and Non-Food Items (NFIs), an increase of [15 per cent compared to 2019](#)⁸.

In urban areas, such as Tripoli, Misrata and Sebha, [migrants are often unable](#)⁹ in practice, or because of their legal status, to rent adequate accommodation and as a result are constrained to live in overcrowded and sub-optimal conditions. The [criticality](#)¹⁰ of having access to adequate housing has become obvious with the COVID-19 pandemic, as people worldwide have been called to 'stay home' to curb the spread of the virus. Yet, overcrowded conditions coupled with a lack of access to water and sanitation makes those living in inadequate housing particularly [vulnerable](#)¹¹ to contracting the virus.

At the same time, the COVID-19 pandemic and the loss of regular and daily labour opportunities in Libya have exacerbated pre-existing needs. In addition to food and fuel price spikes, rent prices have reportedly [risen](#)¹² to a level many migrants are unable to afford, putting many at risk of eviction.

In addition, there is growing [competition](#)¹³ for a shrinking supply of affordable housing in some areas of Libya due to the armed conflict which caused substantial damage to housing structures and the contamination of previously densely populated areas by unexploded ordnances, such as South Tripoli.

“

The right to adequate housing can be understood as the right to live somewhere in security, peace and dignity.

5 United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) (2020c). "Humanitarian Needs Overview 2020, Libya". Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/libya_hno_2020-fullen_final.pdf (Accessed 25 October 2020).

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

8 OCHA (2019). "Humanitarian Needs Overview 2019, Libya". Available at https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/sites/www.humanitarianresponse.info/files/documents/files/2019_liby_hno_draftv1.1.pdf (Accessed 05 October 2020).

9 UN-Habitat & OHCHR (2009). "The Right to Adequate Housing". Available at https://www.ohchr.org/documents/publications/fs21_rev_1_housing_en.pdf (Accessed 04 October 2020).

10 UN-Habitat (2020). "Housing is Both a Prevention & Cure for COVID-19". Available at <https://unhabitat.org/housing-is-both-a-prevention-cure-for-covid-19> (Accessed 06 October 2020).

11 OHCHR (2020a). "Housing, the Front Line Defence Against the COVID-19 Outbreak". Available at <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=25727> (Accessed 03 October 2020).

12 OCHA (2020d). "Humanitarian Response Monitoring Libya, January - May 2020". Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/libya_hrp_2020_pmr.pdf (Accessed 03 October 2020).

13 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) (2020). "UNHCR Position on the Designation of Libya as Safe Third Country". Available at <https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/5f1edee24.pdf> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

The right of migrants to adequate housing

According to studies carried out by UN Habitat and OHCHR, migrants, and particularly irregular migrants, have a heightened risk¹⁴ of suffering from a range of human rights violations, including the right to adequate housing.

However, migrants' right to adequate housing is protected under several conventions and other instruments (Fig 1). In 1970, Libya signed the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights¹⁵, which states that everyone has the right to adequate housing, as part of the right to an adequate standard of living.

In addition, the protection of the right to adequate housing, while not explicitly referred to in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights¹⁶ (1981) is protected through the enjoyment of other human rights such as the right to privacy, the right to property and peaceful enjoyment of possessions, and the right to protection of the family.

Fig 1 Conventions relating to migrants' right to adequate housing

Article
21

Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees

State parties are obliged to provide refugees with treatment as favourable as possible, and not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with regard to housing.

Article
43

International Convention for the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families

Guarantees equal treatment in access to housing, including social housing schemes, and protection against exploitation in respect of rents to regular migrants and their families.

Convention
97

ILO Convention No. 97 concerning Migration for Employment (Revised)

Without discrimination, each Member is to provide to immigrants lawfully within its territory treatment no less favourable than which it applies to its own nationals, including for matters regarding accommodation.

Recommendation
30

Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination

General recommendation No. 30 (2004) calls on State parties to "guarantee the equal enjoyment of the right to adequate housing for citizens and non-citizens, especially by avoiding segregation in housing and ensuring that housing agencies refrain from engaging in discriminatory practices.

Source: OHCHR, 2018

¹⁴ UN-Habitat & OHCHR (2009). "The Right to Adequate Housing". Available at https://www.ohchr.org/documents/publications/fs21_rev_1_housing_en.pdf (Accessed 04 October 2020).

¹⁵ United Nations (1996), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, available at https://treaties.un.org/pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=IV-3&chapter=4&clang=en (accessed 11 October 2020)

¹⁶ African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights (1986). "African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights". Available at <https://www.achpr.org/legalinstruments/detail?id=49> (Accessed 11 September 2020)

PURPOSE

IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) conducted an assessment to provide a baseline understanding of the current housing conditions of migrants in Libya as well as related issues that migrants face in accessing and securing accommodation options. It explores the accessibility, availability, quality, use and awareness of housing options that migrants experience in Libya.

This study aims to identify the circumstances and factors that prevent migrants from being able to enjoy their right to adequate housing using [IOM's Determinants of Migrant Vulnerability \(DoMV\) model](#)¹⁷ to understand the factors at play at an individual, household, community and structural level. Based on this analysis, this study identifies gaps that may be tackled through appropriate programmatic responses and, where applicable, potential policy considerations to promote access to adequate housing.

As such, it provides a basis to explore how the right to adequate housing can be leveraged to provide a more integrated approach to the planning and provision of migration programmes and policies in Libya.

 **584,509**

migrants were identified by IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) during [Round 32](#) of data collection for the period September - October 2020 (IOM, 2020c).

¹⁷ IOM (2019a). IOM Handbook on Protection and Assistance to Migrants Vulnerable to Violence, Exploitation and Abuse. Available at https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/avm_handbook.pdf (Accessed 29 August 2020)

METHODOLOGY

This report presents findings of IOM Libya's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) migrant accommodation assessment conducted by IOM field staff between 23 August – 01 October 2020 in nine municipalities (baladiya) in the Tripoli, Sebha, Benghazi and Misrata regions (mantika¹⁸). Data was collected through a blend of individual interviews (1200) as well as key informant interviews and site assessment observations (300). The majority of interviews took place where migrants reside (98%), in compliance with COVID-19 related physical distancing guidelines, while a minority were held over the phone (2%).

A desk review of the main types of accommodation used by migrants in Libya helped to inform the design of the questionnaire as well as the locations of the interviews and site assessments. This desk review was based on a total of 3,288 interviews conducted in the Tripoli and Sebha regions by DTM over the period January 2019 – March 2020.

The key informant-level site assessment and interviews included questions on demographics, building and infrastructure, electricity & fuel, kitchen, NFIs, access to services and WASH.

The individual-level interview questionnaire included questions on socio-demographics, migratory intentions, contract tenure, employment situation, living arrangements, state of infrastructure and building as well as access to other essential services such as livelihood opportunities, health care and water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH). The individual interviews took place in collective accommodation settings¹⁹ (69%), workplaces (14%), as well as privately rented apartments and houses (17%).

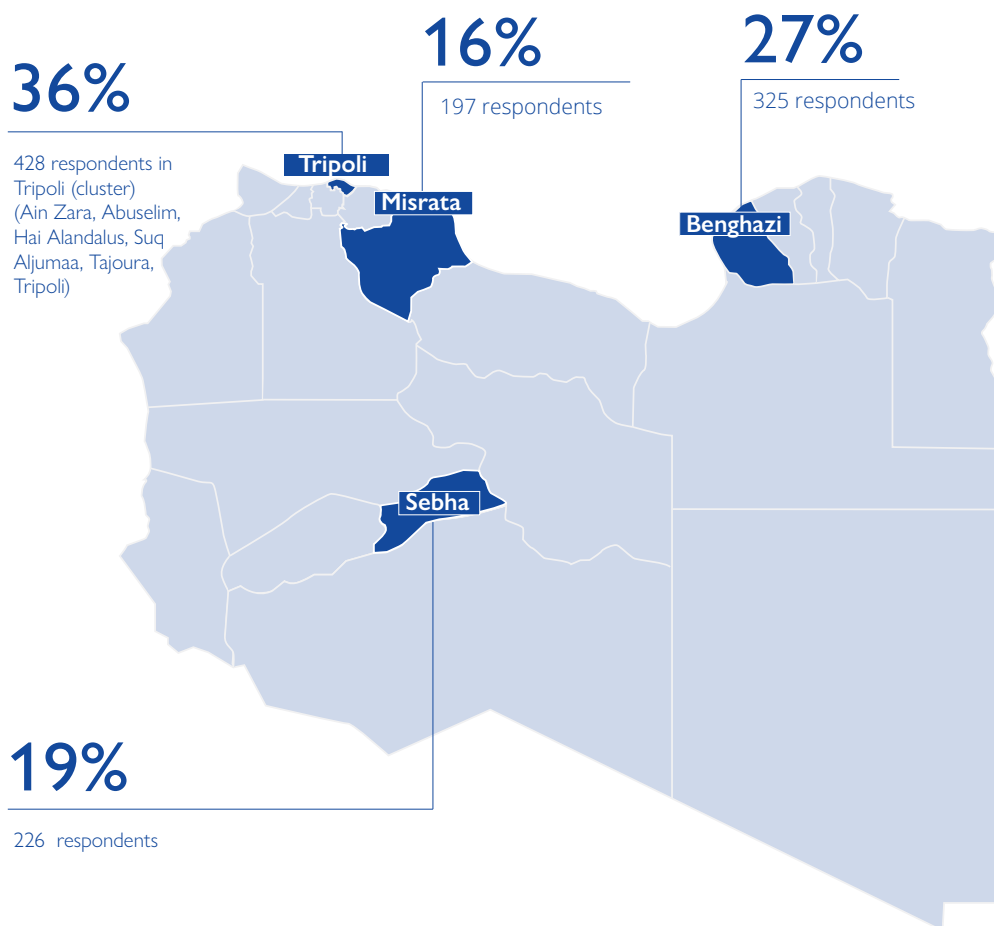
¹⁸ The term 'mantika' describes a major administrative and geographic area of Libya. There are 22 mantikas in Libya.

¹⁹ The term 'collective accommodation settings' describes a variety of housing arrangements (such as migrant worker guesthouses) where tenants typically share bedrooms and common facilities with other people not belonging to their household. Privately rented accommodation is understood as rented by individual or household for personal or family use.

The assessment tool included in-depth questions to assess the adequacy of housing of migrants in line with [UN HABITAT and OHCHR criteria](#)²⁰: a) basic infrastructure, b) lighting and ventilation, c) location, d) security, e) privacy, f) safe drinking water, sanitation and hygiene, g) accessibility, h) affordability and i) space.

The sampling size and location was designed based on findings of the desk review of migrant population and accommodation types per targeted location. The data collected in each location can therefore be considered representative of these locations and accommodation types.

Fig 2 Locations of migrants' accommodation assessed



*2% of the respondents were in the municipalities of Swani Bin Adam (1%) and Janzour (1%).

²⁰ UN-Habitat & OHCHR (2009). "The Right to Adequate Housing". Available at https://www.ohchr.org/documents/publications/fs21_rev_1_housing_en.pdf (Accessed 04 October 2020).

Limitations

- *Comparisons*

A lack of longitudinal data and detailed directly comparable data is a challenge to assessing migrants' housing conditions. While DTM has been collecting data on accommodation and related needs, this assessment is the first and most comprehensive up to date on the specificities of accommodation arrangements, availability, quality, use and awareness. Moreover, the survey took place nearly six months into the COVID-19 pandemic, which could have potentially aggravated the situation for some, as the crisis has resulted in [profound socio-economic impact for migrants in Libya](#)²¹. It is therefore difficult to extrapolate on the extent of the impact of the pandemic on the accommodation situation and conditions of migrants. However, this report provides a baseline and a snapshot of the current situation.

- *Length of survey*

A host of questions were required to capture the complex and multiple factors and circumstances preventing migrants from accessing adequate housing as well as their current housing conditions. As a result of the length of the questionnaire some respondents may have skipped some questions or responded hastily.

- *Sensitivity*

Respondents were asked about their migration intentions, security status, history and risk of eviction, price of rent and income. The sensitivity of this information may have led to under- or misreporting. For example, the majority of respondents (59%) chose not to answer the question on monthly income which may indicate respondents' hesitation to report this particular type of information.

- *Location*

The assessment does not include [transit houses](#)²² ("connection houses" or "foyers") which can be private houses, farms or abandoned factories and warehouses, which migration facilitators or shelter providers own or rent. Migrants transiting through Libya are often sheltered temporarily in such houses while waiting to organise or earn enough money to pay for the next leg of their journey.

Despite these limitations, the assessment is perceived as providing an accurate picture of the housing situation of the majority of migrants in assessed locations.

21 IOM (2020b). "DTM Libya: Covid-19 Impact Tracking Report #4". Available at <https://migration.iom.int/reports/covid-19-mobility-tracking-4-july-september-2020> (Accessed on 08 September 2020)

22 Altai Consulting (2017). Mixed Migration Trends in Libya: Changing Dynamics and Protection Challenges. Available at <https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/595a4db54.pdf> (Accessed on 08 September 2020).

MIGRANT DEMOGRAPHICS

Country of origin

Migrants surveyed were from 23 different nationalities. The majority (78%) came from neighbouring countries: Niger (28%), Sudan (23%), Egypt (20%) and Chad (6%) which is consistent with previously observed trends. The geographical proximity, historical ties and diasporic social networks are amongst the reasons why migrants in Libya tend to come from neighbouring countries. A smaller proportion came from other countries, mainly from West African nations (14%) such as Nigeria (5%), Burkina Faso (4%) and Senegal (2%).

Fig 3 Respondents' country of origin

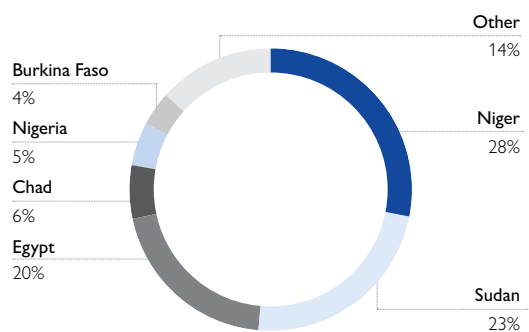
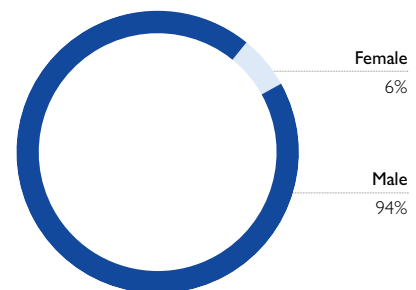


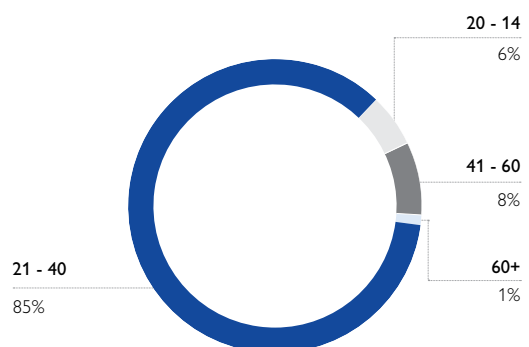
Fig 4 Respondents' sex breakdown



Sex

The majority of surveyed migrants were male (94%) while six per cent were female. The under-representation of female in the sample can be attributed to two main reasons. First the majority of migrants in Libya are men (89% according to [DTM Migrant Report Round 32](#)²³). Second, for socio-cultural reasons women respondents tend to be less likely to consent to interviews, especially as the interviews took place in migrants' homes.

Fig 5 Respondents' age breakdown



Age

The majority (85%) of migrants were between the ages of 21 and 40. Very few migrants interviewed were 20 years old or younger (6%) or older than 40 (9%) with only a very small minority who were older than 60 years old (1%). That the majority of migrants are young and of working-age reflects a general trend in Libya.

²³ IOM (2020c). "DTM Libya: Migrant Report Round 32". Available at <https://migration.iom.int/reports/libya-%E2%80%94-migrant-report-32-july-august-2020> (Accessed on 08 October 2020).

Photo: To better assist migrants in distress in remote areas IOM expands its outreach and provision of assistance through its Migrant Resource and Response Mechanism (MRRM) programme. MRRM brings together a wide range of services under one mechanism to provide aid to vulnerable migrants. IOM works closely with local communities to identify and ensure vulnerable migrants living in urban areas receive food, medical care, core relief items, shelter, protection and psychosocial support.

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PART 3 HOUSING SITUATION



Overview

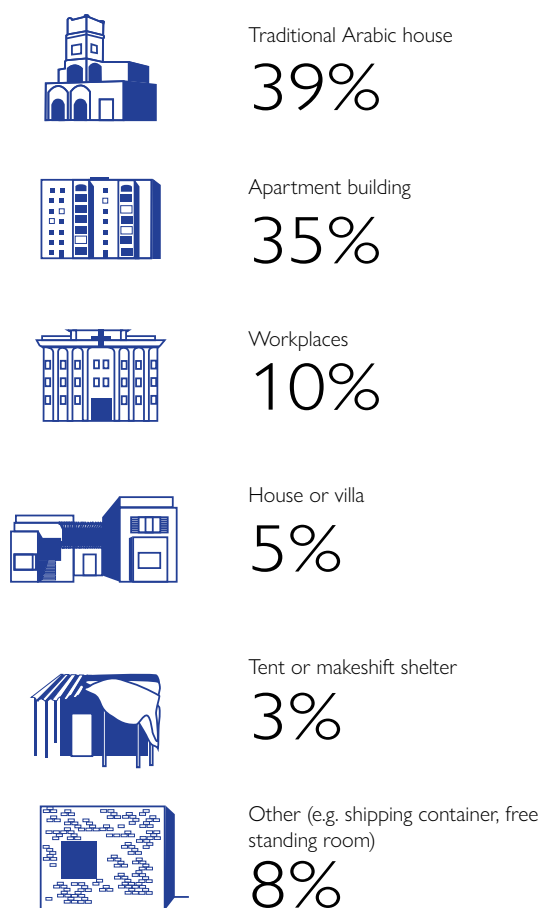
Types of tenure

The analysis of data collected highlights that the majority of migrants are renters (84%) while a few are hosted for free (16%), either by their employer in their workplaces (64%), by friends or family (24%) or others (e.g. NGOs or the owner) (12%).

Types of building

The majority of migrants live in apartment buildings (35%) and traditional Arabic houses (39%) (Fig 6). Fewer migrants live in other types of buildings such as work areas (10%), houses or villas (5%) or tents or makeshift shelters (3%).

Fig 6 Types of building and housing infrastructure



Types of occupancy

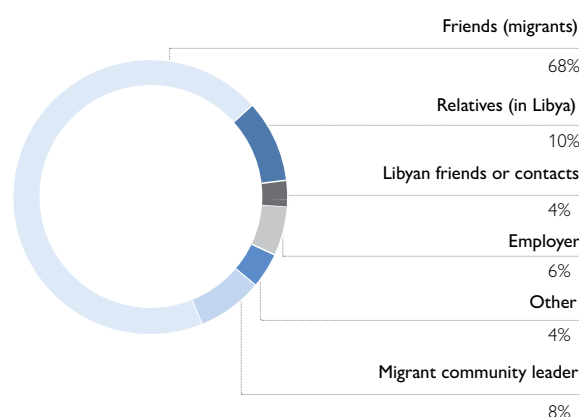
Migrants interviewed reported living in diverse single (5%) and multiple-occupancy (95%) dwellings. Most migrants reported living with both migrants they knew (68%) and migrants they did not know prior to moving in (57%). A smaller proportion of migrants reported living with their family (10%) and/or relatives (7%). Virtually no migrants reported living with their employer (<1%) or the owner of the accommodation (<1%). The majority of migrants (69%) reported sharing rooms with non-family members or non-relatives while 31 per cent reported not sharing.

The size and the number of people sharing the accommodation assessed varied greatly. On average there were 21 people living in the accommodation assessed, but the number of accommodation inhabitants ranged between two and 220.

Finding accommodation

Most respondents reported having found their accommodation through relatives in Libya (10%) or other migrants whether they be friends (68%), community leaders (8%) or community members (2%) (Fig 7). The majority of migrants reported having secured their accommodation in less than four weeks (65%). A minority reported having needed between one to three months (20%) or more than three months (15%) to find the accommodation where they currently reside.

Fig 7 Migrant's means of finding accommodation



ADEQUATE HOUSING INDEX

Analysis of migrants' housing conditions show that the majority of migrants are classified as adequately or marginally adequately housed across all six dimensions with the exception of security of tenure (Fig 8).

This index, developed for the purpose of this study, is based on the [UN-Habitat concepts and indicators](#)²⁴ of adequate housing and aims to capture the nature and the extent of the unsatisfactory living conditions of migrants.

About the index

This index is meant to provide a broad understanding of the current housing conditions of migrants in Libya. However, it should be noted that each of the pillars of adequate housing is multi-dimensional and that the indicators selected are not meant to, and cannot be considered as encompassing all of the factors impacting each of them. A more detailed, nuanced and contextualised summary of findings and factors influencing the six dimensions of adequate housing is provided in the subsequent sections.

Fig 8 Adequate Housing Index

PILLARS OF ADEQUATE HOUSING	INDICATORS	Adequate	Marginally inadequate	Moderately inadequate	Severely inadequate
Access to sufficient safe drinking water	Types of main source of water	92% improved water source	8% combination (improved + unimproved water source)	-	0% unimproved water source
Access to improved sanitation facilities	Type of sanitation facilities	78% improved sanitation	7% combination (unimproved + improved)	15% unimproved sanitation	0% bucket or no toilet
Sufficient living areas	Overcrowding (more than 3 people per habitable (9m ²) room)	40% ≤ 3 people / habitable room	14% 4 people / habitable room	7% 5 people / habitable room	39% ≥ 6 people / habitable room
Structural quality and durability & location	Habitation condition	37% no or negligible damage	24% minor damage	20% moderate damage	19% severe damage, destroyed or unfinished
Security of tenure	Type of contract	3% written contract or owner	-	66% verbal contract	31% no contract
Affordability	Livelihood coping strategy index	45% No coping	10% Stress coping	33% Crisis coping	12% Emergency-coping

24 United Nations Statistics Division (2020). "Sustainable Development Goals, Target 11 Indicators". Available at <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-11-01-01.pdf> (Accessed on 08 October 2020).

Overall, lower housing index scores were observed in Southern Libya (Sebha) than in Misrata, the six baladiya assessed in Tripoli and Benghazi.

Regardless of location, the main problems related to accommodation were related to living space, structural quality, security of tenure and affordability and to a lesser extent to access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation.

The majority of migrants had adequate access to safe drinking water and access to improved sanitation. However, a greater proportion of migrants' accommodations in Sebha were classified as lacking in the area of access to improved sanitation (48%) compared to Benghazi (2%), Misrata (1%) and Tripoli (16%).

Migrants living in collective housing and in their workplaces generally fared worse than those living in rented apartments (paid for by themselves or paid for by others). A greater proportion of migrants living in their places of work and collective housing were living in overcrowded accommodation of which the structural quality is substandard. In addition, they lacked security of

tenure and affordable housing to a greater extent than those in rented apartments.

Migrants who stated they intend to continue their journey onwards to another country fared worse across all dimensions of the index than migrants who expressed their desire to either remain in Libya, return to their country of origin or have no fixed intention. Those who expressed their desire to stay in Libya reported the lowest rate of moderately and severely inadequate housing conditions (38%) while those who reported they intend to migrate to another country reported the highest rate (51%). A total of 41 per cent of those who reported their intention to return to their country and those who have no fixed intention were classified as inadequately housed (severely and moderately inadequate housing conditions).

This is also confirmed by the fact that 85 per cent of migrants who intend to migrate to another country reported facing challenges regarding their accommodation compared to 45 per cent of those who intend to stay in Libya, 64 per cent of those who intend to return home and 42 per cent of those who do not have fixed plans.

Drivers of vulnerability

Employment status, gender and length of stay have been identified in [DTM Libya Migrant Vulnerability and Humanitarian Assessment](#)²⁵, as three key factors that significantly affect migrant's vulnerability and have implications on migrants' basic needs.

The findings of this survey confirm that employment status and more broadly, economic status, as well as gender and length of stay are all factors that appear to lead to increased difficulty in accessing and securing adequate housing. In turn, the lack of adequate housing can [lead](#)²⁶ migrants to be exposed to unhealthy, unsafe and exploitative housing circumstances increasing their overall level of vulnerability.

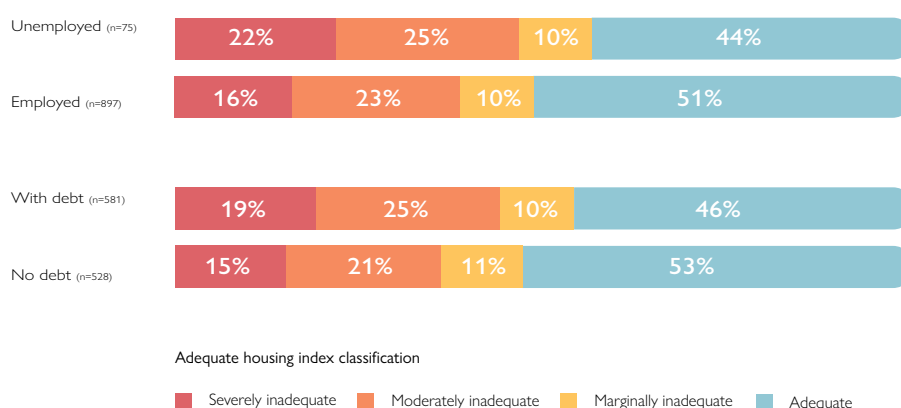
In addition, only a minority of migrants are in possession of documented lease agreements (4%). When migrants are unable to access affordable housing or do not have a secure legal status, they may resort to seeking shelter in informal settlements without security of tenure or services (including civil registration, healthcare, education, police, security and justice).

Migrants without lease agreements, as Libyan tenants in this situation, could become more vulnerable to forced eviction given that when they are faced with price increases or unfair or predatory practices they may lack the means to protect themselves or exercise their rights.

Economic status and employment

Access to adequate housing is closely related to an individual's economic status, and this applies to migrants as well. The analysis of the adequate housing index shows that unemployed migrants' accommodation is classified as moderately and severely inadequate to a greater extent than those who are employed (Fig 9). Unemployed migrants were shown to be lacking access to improved sanitation as well as living space and security of tenure to a greater extent than employed migrants.

Fig 9 Adequate housing index scores per employment status and debt



²⁵ IOM (2019b). "DTM Libya Migrant Vulnerability and Humanitarian Needs Assessment". Available at <https://migration.iom.int/reports/libya-migrant-vulnerability-and-humanitarian-needs-assessment> (Accessed 08 October 2020).

²⁶ IOM (2019a). IOM Handbook on Protection and Assistance to Migrants Vulnerable to Violence, Exploitation and Abuse. Available at https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/avm_handbook.pdf (Accessed 29 August 2020).

In addition, any level of debt is a [risk factor](#)²⁷. Data shows that migrants who incurred debt to pay for their migration journey reported living in accommodation which were classified as inadequate to a greater extent across all dimensions compared to those who had not (Fig 9). This seems to confirm that economic precarity and debt are factors of influence in migrants' accommodation adequacy and indicators of vulnerability to abuse and exploitation.

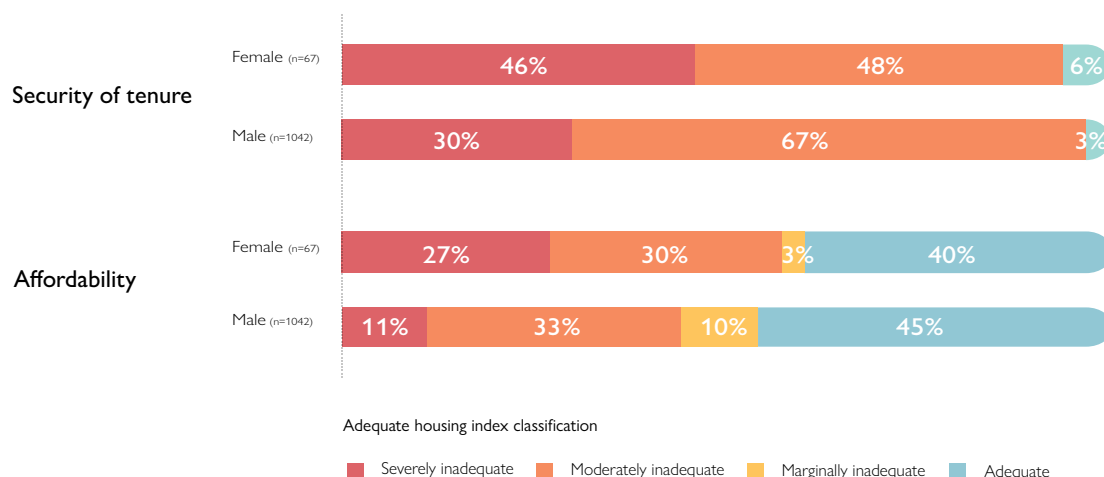
Gender

The analysis of the adequate housing index reveals that female migrants fared better than their male counterparts in all dimensions of adequate housing except in terms of security of tenure and affordability (Fig 10).

Studies have shown that women disproportionately [lack security of tenure](#)²⁸ compared to men and are more likely to be affected by [forced evictions](#)²⁹. This is in part due to generally higher levels of poverty and vulnerability to violence as well as some customs and laws which can be discriminatory against women or exacerbate pre-existing inequalities.

Amongst migrants who reported that a lack of formal rental contract was an issue, a greater proportion of women (100%, 7 individuals) reported having been forcibly evicted or the victim of conflict, threat or harassment compared to men (56%, 73 individuals). A greater proportion of women reported having been forcibly evicted or threatened by both the owner (57%, 4 individuals) or other inhabitants of the accommodation (71%, 5 individuals) compared to men (32%, 42 individuals and 32%, 40 individuals, respectively). A greater proportion of men, on the other hand, reported that their rent increased without notice (69%, 90 individuals) compared to women (43%, 3 individuals). This could be linked to the fact that fewer women than men tend to hold the responsibility to pay for rental costs and have control over household spending because of social and cultural norms, for example. The majority of heads of households (98%) were male.

Fig 10 Comparison of female and male adequate housing index scores for security of tenure and affordability



27 IOM (2019a). "IOM Handbook on Protection and Assistance to Migrants vulnerable to Violence, Exploitation and Abuse". Available at https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/avm_handbook.pdf (Accessed 29 August 2020).
 28 OHCHR (2012). "Women and the Right to Adequate Housing". Available at https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/WomenHousing_HR.PUB.11.2.pdf (Accessed 29 August 2020).
 29 UN-Habitat (2010). "Housing Policies, Habitat III Policy Paper 10". Available at <https://habitat3.org/wp-content/uploads/Habitat%20III%20Policy%20Paper%2010.pdf> (Accessed 29 August 2020).

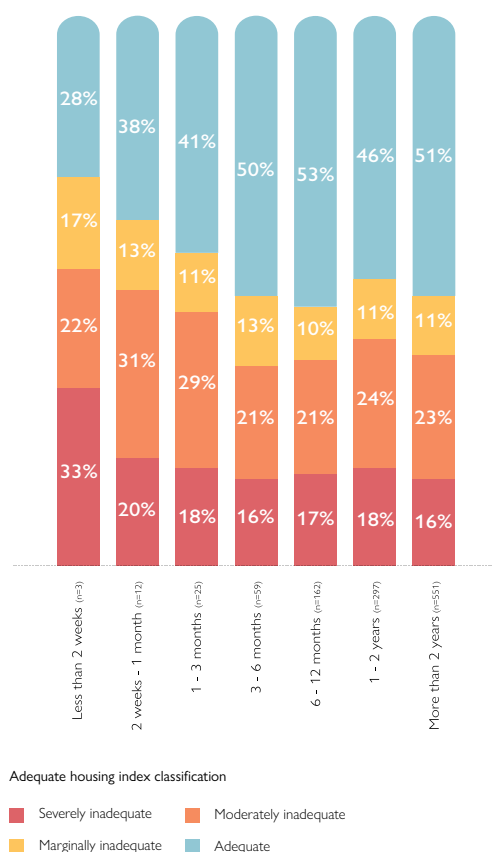
Length of stay

In line with previous reports, the survey results confirm that the length of stay appears to have an influence on migrants' vulnerability and basic needs. Migrants who reported having arrived in Libya within the last three months fared worse than those who have been in Libya for longer, especially in terms of adequate living space (overcrowding).

A greater proportion of migrants who have been in Libya for less than six months also reported that they considered their accommodation as inadequate (50%) compared to those who have been in the country for six months to two years (45%) or longer (44%).

Amongst migrants who reported having had issues due to a lack of a rental contract, a greater proportion of migrants who have arrived more recently reported that they had been forced to leave without notice (69%) compared to those who have been in the country for six months to two years (51%) or longer (62%). This could signal that because of the socio-economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic there is a higher risk of eviction.

Fig 11 Adequate housing index scores per length of stay



Legal status

A total of 10 per cent of migrants reported that lacking legal or civic documents (such as a proof of identity, visa or residence permit) was either the main or second most important challenge they faced in finding accommodation.

While some migrants may have the right to own or lease properties or land, they may lack some documentation (such as a proof of identity, residential registration or income statements) or be unable to open a bank account, which can [prevent them](#)³⁰ from completing administrative and practical procedures that are necessary to acquire (adequate) housing.

A [recent IOM study](#)³¹ of long term migrants in Libya showed that virtually all (99%) respondents were unbanked in Libya. Moreover, according to a 2017 ICMPD study, migrants in Libya were partly unable to access decent accommodation partly owing to the [fear of being reported](#)³² to local authorities, which can stem from the lack of documentation.



10%

of migrants reported that lacking legal or civic documents was either the main or the second most important challenge they faced in finding accommodation.

30 UNHCR (2015). "Emergency Handbook: Housing, Land and Property (HLP)". Available at <https://emergency.unhcr.org/entry/214524/housing-land-and-property-hlp> (Accessed 01 October 2020).

31 IOM (2019c). "Living and Working in the Midst of Conflict: The situation of long-term migrants in Libya". Available at <https://displacement.iom.int/system/tidf/reports/living-and-working-in-the-midst-of-conflict.pdf?file=1&type=node&id=8403> (Accessed 27 October 2020).

32 International Centre for Migration Policy Development, "Libya Case Study: An Unending Crisis – Responses of Migrants, States and Organisations to the 2011 Libya Crisis". Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Libya_CaseStudy_FINAL.pdf (Accessed 27 October 2020).




Photo: To better assist migrants in distress in remote areas IOM expands its outreach and provision of assistance through its Migrant Resource and Response Mechanism (MRRM) programme.

MRRM brings together a wide range of services under one mechanism to provide aid to vulnerable migrants. IOM works closely with local communities to identify and ensure vulnerable migrants living in urban areas receive food, medical care, core relief items, shelter, protection and psychosocial support.

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PART 4 PILLARS OF ADEQUATE HOUSING

Structural quality and durability

According to the [OHCHR and UN-Habitat adequate housing guidelines](#)³³, adequate accommodation must include certain facilities essential for health, security, comfort and nutrition. In addition, all beneficiaries of the right to adequate housing should have sustainable access to natural and common resources, safe drinking water, energy for cooking, heating and lighting, sanitation and washing facilities, means of food storage, refuse disposal, site drainage and emergency services.

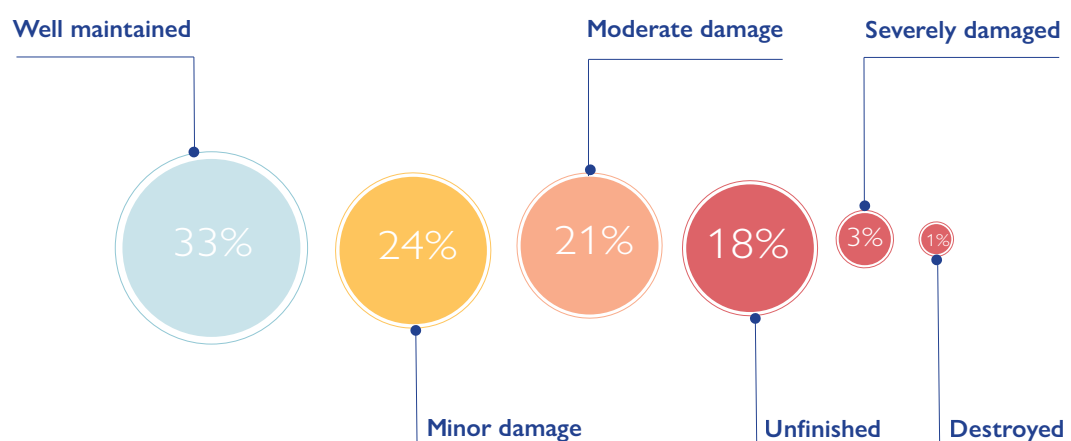
General building condition

The majority of migrants (57%) reported that the condition of their accommodation was either well maintained (33%) or had minor damage (24%) (Fig 12) (please see the detailed typology in Annex 1).

One in five migrant (21%) reported living in moderately damaged building or in buildings which are deemed inhabitable (22%) and were either severely damaged (3%), unfinished (18%) or destroyed (1%).

The majority of migrants reported that the main reason why the building was not repaired was for lack of the owner to fix the building infrastructure. The renovation and upgrade of poor-quality housing can [help reduce hazards potentially contributing to illness](#)^{34 35 36}.

Fig 12 Proportion of migrants' accommodation per condition of damage and structural quality



33 UN-Habitat & OHCHR (2009). The Right to Adequate Housing. Available at https://www.ohchr.org/documents/publications/fs21_rev_1_housing_en.pdf (Accessed 04 October 2020).

34 UN-Habitat (2010). "Housing Policies, Habitat III Policy Paper 10". Available at <https://habitat3.org/wp-content/uploads/Habitat%20III%20Policy%20Paper%2010.pdf> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

35 World Health Organization (WHO) and UN-Habitat (2010) "Hidden Cities: Unmasking and Overcoming Health Inequities in Urban Settings". Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/item/9789241548038> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

36 Habib, R. R. and others, "Housing Quality and Ill Health in a Disadvantaged Urban Community", Public Health, vol. 123, No. 2, February 2009, pp. 174-181.

The highest proportion of migrants' accommodation classified as destroyed, severe and unfinished were collective accommodation (26%) and workplaces (19%). In contrast, the highest proportion of migrants' accommodation which were identified as well-maintained or having minor damage was rented accommodation paid by others (83%), by employers (75%) or self-paid (69%).

Roof, walls, windows and doors

Approximately a fifth of accommodation's roofs (23%), walls (18%) and windows and doors (16%) assessed by key informants were identified as being moderately or severely damaged or destroyed (please see the detailed typology in Annex 2).

Overall, the majority of migrants (55%) reported that their accommodation was not suited to protect them from the cold and/or the heat. The main issue reported by migrants was the absence of fans (for the heat) and/or the lack of heaters (for the cold) as well as inappropriate house materials or design to ensure thermal comfort and protection against the weather.

Drainage and flooding issues

A total of 16 per cent of migrants reported having suffered from flooding or drainage issues at least once in the past 30 days. Issues with, or poor drainage of water can pose a general threat to the health, dignity and well-being of migrants as it can severely limit people's living spaces, mobility and access to services as well as [promote](#)³⁷ vector (disease-carrying agent) breeding. One of the main public health threat related to drainage or flooding issues is the increased risk of contracting diarrhoeal diseases from contact with contaminated water. In addition, inadequate drainage and/or flooding can damage infrastructure, dwelling and personal belongings, limit migrants' ability to find, be ready to undertake and pursue livelihood opportunities as well as cause stress.

1 in 5

migrant reported living in a building which is deemed inhabitable.



Adequate ventilation

There were a total of 55 per cent of migrants who reported inadequate ventilation in their accommodation either because of insufficient or the absence of vents or windows (41%), because the ceilings are too low (15%) or because of a lack or insufficient fans (2%). Adequate ventilation is key to [adequate indoor air quality](#)³⁸ and contributes to maintaining a healthy internal environment by preventing condensation and reducing the spread of communicable disease. In addition, it reduces the effect of smoke from indoor household stoves, which can cause respiratory infections and eye problems.



According to [OHCHR](#), adequate housing must provide an adequate space and offer protection from cold, damp, heat, rain, wind or other threats to health, structural hazards, and disease vectors. The physical safety of occupants must be guaranteed as well ([OHCHR, 2020](#)).



55%

of migrants reported inadequate ventilation in their accommodation

37 Sphere (2018). "The Sphere Handbook: Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion". Available at https://handbook.spherestandards.org/en/sphere/#ch006_001 (Accessed 21 October 2020).

38 Bonnefoy, X. (2007). "Inadequate Housing and Health: An Overview. International Journal on Environment and Pollution", Volume 30. Available at https://www.euro.who.int/_data/assets/pdf_file/0017/121832/E90676.pdf (Accessed 08 October 2020).

Access to energy (cooking fuel, generator fuel, electricity and power outages)

Power cuts and [deteriorating electricity supply](#)³⁹ have been recurrent in Libya and are affecting migrants as well as all other population groups, including internally displaced persons, non-displaced conflict affected people, returnees and host communities.

The majority of migrants in Tripoli (all six baladiyas), Misrata and Sebha reported intermittent or a lack of electricity in the past 30 days and in most cases (99%) because of power cuts. A minority reported that it was because of damaged infrastructure (3%) or because it was too costly (<1%).

In Benghazi, a fifth of migrants reported no power cuts while more than three quarters (78%) suffered from power outages on more than 20 days over a period of a month.

Power outages can impact the provision of a [continued supply of water](#)⁴⁰ through pumping from boreholes, which can hamper preventative hygiene measures to curb the spread of COVID-19. This is also confirmed by interviews with key informants who reported that 94 per cent of accommodations assessed suffered power cuts every day (89%) or very frequently (on more than half of the month) (5%).



of key informants reported that the migrants' accommodation assessed had **lacked power every day** in the past 30 days.

39 Reuters (2020). "Protests flare in Libya's Benghazi over power cuts, living conditions". Available at <https://fr.reuters.com/article/uk-libya-security-protests-idAFKBN2613Nj> (Accessed 15 October 2020).
40 OCHA (2020b). "Covid-19, Situation Report Libya #6". Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/covid-19_situation_report_no.6_libya_8june2020.pdf (Accessed 16 October 2020).

A total of seven per cent (80 migrants), the majority of which were in Hai Alandalus, reported that despite being connected to the public water network, the water supply is highly unreliable because of frequent power outages. To remedy this issue, some migrants reported using bottled water for drinking and in some cases protected wells for daily needs such as bathing and washing clothes.

Non-Food Items (NFIs)

A total of 40 per cent of migrants reported not having enough or having damaged mattresses or sleeping mats (35%). A minority (5%) reported not having any. There was a higher rate of migrants who reported not having or having a damaged mattress or sleeping mat in Tripoli (cluster) (74%) and in Sebha (33%) compared to Benghazi (15%) and Misrata (9%).

There was a higher proportion of migrants who lived in collective housing and in rented accommodation paid for by their employer or by themselves who reported not having a sleeping mat or a mattress compared to those living at their places of work or in rented accommodation paid for by others.

In comparison, 45 per cent of migrants reported urgently needing a mattress during [Round 32 of DTM Mobility Tracking](#)⁴¹ while in the [2019 Multi-Sectoral Needs Assessment \(MSNA\)](#)⁴² 40 per cent of migrants reported either not having or not having enough mattresses to cover their needs.



of migrants reported **having not enough, having damaged, or having no sleeping mats or mattresses**.

41 IOM (2020c). "DTM Libya: Migrant Report Round 32". Available at <https://migration.iom.int/reports/libya-%E2%80%94migrant-report-32-july-august-2020> (Accessed 01 November 2020).
42 REACH (2020). "2019 Multi-Sector Needs Assessment Libya". Available at <https://www.reachresourcecentre.info/country/libya/cycle/685/#cycle-685> (Accessed 01 November 2020).

Solid waste disposal

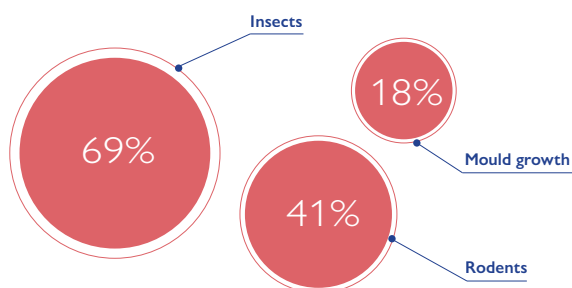
The majority of migrants (57%) reported having access to garbage disposal which is collected on a regular basis. While 41 per cent stated that they leave their trash in sites that are not designated for that purpose, such as a road or a public place (35%) or either bury or burn their trash (7%).

Inadequate solid waste management [represents](#)⁴³ a public health threat as it contributes to creating a favourable environment for insects, rodents and other vector agents.

Key informants reported that in nearly three quarters of accommodation assessed (73%) there was an infestation of insects or rodents, or mould growth. In the majority of cases (60%) two or more of these conditions were flagged. The most common conditions were insect (69%) and rodent (41%) infestations while 18 per cent reported mould growth (Fig 13).

Mould growth and dampness have been [linked](#)⁴⁴ with respiratory infections, asthma as well as general symptoms such as fatigue, headaches and difficulties in concentration. In addition, the control of disease carriers such as insects (such as cockroaches, flies, lice or fleas) and rodents (such as rats and mice) is essential to maintain healthy housing conditions.

Fig 13 Proportion of migrants who reported an infestation or mould growth in their accommodation



43 Sphere (2018). The Sphere Handbook: Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion. Available at https://handbook.spherestandards.org/en/sphere/#ch006_001 (Accessed 21 October 2020).

44 Bonnefoy, X. (2007). "Inadequate Housing and Health: An Overview. International Journal on Environment and Pollution", Volume 30. Available at https://www.euro.who.int/_data/assets/pdf_file/0017/121832/E90676.pdf (Accessed 08 October 2020).

Kitchen access and food storing

A total of 36 per cent of respondents reported not having access to a kitchen compared to 11 per cent of respondents in the [May 2020 Emergency Food Security Assessment](#)⁴⁵. The number of migrants without access to a kitchen in the six baladiya assessed in the Tripoli region (62%) was more than twice that of those in Benghazi (15%) and greater than in Misrata (23%) and Sebha (26%).

There was a greater percentage of migrants who reported not having access to a kitchen amongst those who live in collective accommodation (40%) and at their places of work (40%) compared to those who live in rented accommodation paid for by themselves (19%) or paid for by their employer (25%). Most respondents who reported not having access to a kitchen reported cooking in their bedrooms (46%), at a friend's house (20%), in another room in the accommodation (16%) or outdoors (5%). A minority reported not cooking and buying prepared food from restaurants (6%).

The majority of migrants (59%) reported having access to a functioning gas or electric stove in their accommodation, while 24 per cent stated that they had access to one which was damaged or needed repairs. A total of 17 per cent of migrants reported not having access to a gas or electric stove.

Having access to a kitchen can be the [opportunity](#)⁴⁶ for some to cook for themselves which can provide a sense of comfort, as well as favour connections with family and friends over cultural habits, such as traditional meals in shared accommodation settings with migrants from the same country and/or cultural background.



62%

of migrants in Tripoli (6 baladiya cluster) reported **not having access to a kitchen**, the highest reported rate in all assessed locations.

45 IOM (2020d). "Emergency Food Security Assessment Libya". Available at <https://migration.iom.int/reports/migrant-emergency-food-security-report-may-2020> (Accessed 19 October 2020).

46 Norwegian Refugee Council (2016). "Study on Adequate Urban Housing for Refugees". Available at https://www.nrc.no/globalassets/pdf/reports/adequate-housing-study-report-etc_18-11-2016_final.pdf (Accessed 11 October 2020).

Access to sufficient safe drinking water

Inadequate water quantity and quality is the [primary cause](#)⁴⁷ of most public health problems in crisis situations. To be [considered adequate](#)⁴⁸, housing should provide protection against exposure to agents and vectors of communicable diseases through: safe water supply, sanitary excreta disposal, disposal of solid wastes, drainage of surface water, personal and domestic hygiene, safe food preparation, and structural safeguards against transmission.

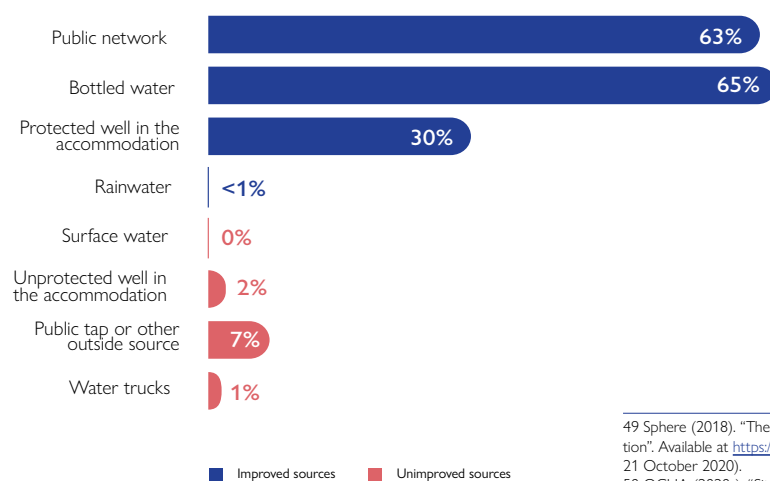
Nearly two-thirds of migrants (63%) reported relying fully (23%) or partially (40%) on the public network for their water needs (Fig 14). A total of 12 per cent of migrants reported relying only on bottled water and eight per cent on protected well inside their accommodation.

A total of 15 per cent of migrants reported an insufficient and discontinuous supply of water for personal and domestic uses. This issue was more acute in the baladiya of Misrata (25%) and Tripoli cluster (6 baladiya) (14%) (Fig 15).

Although strictly [prohibited in international humanitarian law](#)⁴⁹, the deprivation of access to water supply has been used as an intentional strategy by parties in the conflict in Libya. For example, in [April 2020](#)⁵⁰, the [intentional disruption](#)⁵¹ of part of the Great Man-Made River water supply infrastructure resulted in more than two million people (Libyans and migrants, and including 600,000 children), in the Greater Tripoli area (Tripoli, Tahourna, Bani Waleed and Gharyan) being without water for more than a week. In addition, this water cut also coincided with power outages in western Libya also imposed deliberately as a means of pressure.

Inadequate water supply and sanitation impact personal [health, hygiene and food safety](#)⁵² as it is essential for hydration, preparing and cooking food and keeping clean. Moreover, [everyone has the right](#)⁵³ to sufficient, safe, acceptable, physically accessible and affordable water.

Fig 14 Main sources of water over the past 30 days for personal and household needs (multiple-choice question)



47 Sphere (2018). "The Sphere Handbook: Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion". Available at https://handbook.spherestandards.org/en/sphere/#ch006_001 (Accessed 21 October 2020).

48 WHO (1989). "Health Principles of Housing". Available at https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/39847/9241561270_eng.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y (Accessed 05 October 2020).

49 Sphere (2018). "The Sphere Handbook: Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion". Available at https://handbook.spherestandards.org/en/sphere/#ch006_001 (Accessed 21 October 2020).

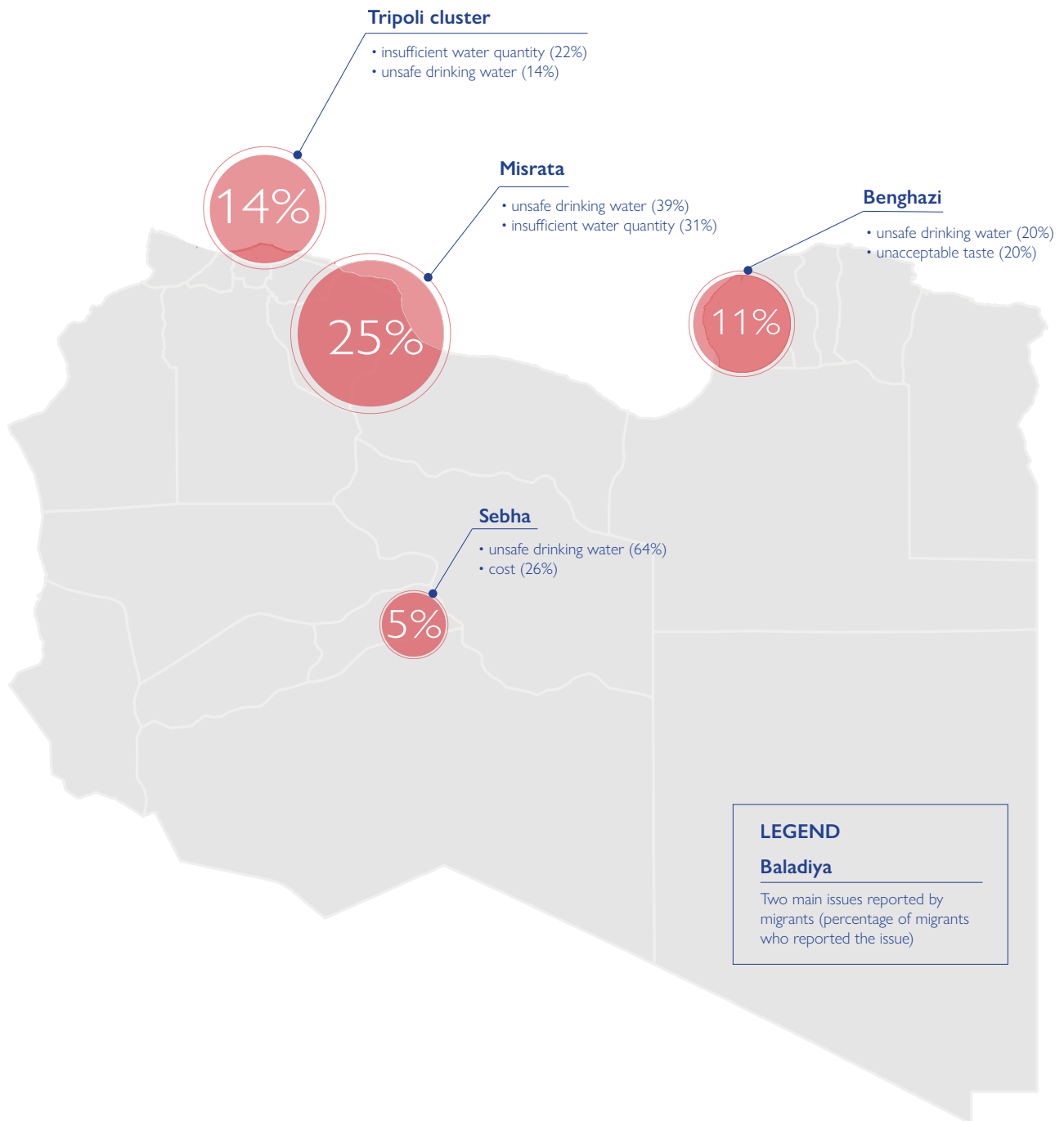
50 OCHA (2020a). "Situation Report Libya". Available at <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Situation%20Report%20-%20Libya%20-%2029%20Apr%202020.pdf> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

51 United Nations Support Mission in Libya (UNSMIL) (2020). "Statement by Yacoub El Hillo, Humanitarian Coordinator in Libya, on the disruption of water and electricity supply". Available at <https://unsmil.unmissions.org/statement-yacoub-el-hillo-humanitarian-coordinator-libya-disruption-water-and-electricity-supply> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

52 WHO (2018). "WHO Housing and Health Guidelines" Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/item/9789241550376> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

53 Ibid.

Fig 15 Percentage of migrants who lack sufficient supply of drinking water and two main issues per baladiya



Improved (uncontaminated) drinking water supply

[Improved drinking water sources](#)⁵⁴ are those that have the potential to deliver safe water by nature of their design and construction, and include: piped water, boreholes or tubewells, protected dug wells, protected springs, rainwater, and packaged or delivered water.

The majority of migrants reported relying on improved drinking water sources, except for a minority (2%) who reported relying on water from an unprotected well in the accommodation compound. However, despite relying on improved drinking water supplies, a total of 30 per cent of migrants reported that the drinking water they have access to causes them health problems, which suggests it may be [contaminated](#)⁵⁵ at its source, in storage or in its transportation. This issue was most acute in Misrata and Sebha where it was reported by 39 and 64 per cent of migrants, respectively. In comparison, 14 and 20 per cent of migrants in Tripoli (cluster) and Benghazi, respectively, reported a similar issue. In addition, a minority of migrants reported that the taste (15%), colour (6%) or odour (2%) of their water supply was not acceptable.

A total of 61 per cent of migrants reported that they stored water in clean and covered containers at all times, while 35 per cent reported to never do so (16%) or not having enough or having damaged containers (19%). Storing and handling water safely is [necessary](#)⁵⁶ to ensure treated water does not become re-contaminated.

A total of 12 per cent of migrants reported not having access to a bath, shower or washing facility in their accommodation. The situation was more acute for those living at their places of work (21%) and those living in collective housing (12%) compared to those living in rented accommodation paid for by themselves (5%) or paid for by others (8%).

54 WHO & UNICEF (2017). "Drinking water". Available at <https://washdata.org/monitoring/drinking-water> (Accessed 02 November 2020).

55 WHO (2018). "WHO Housing and Health Guidelines" Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/item/9789241550376> (Accessed 02 November 2020).

56 Ibid.

Affordability

Migrants reported paying on average 50 Libyan dinars for water per month. The median monthly cost of water was 40 Libyan dinars. Amongst those who accepted to state their monthly income and the monthly amount they spend on water (44% of total respondents, 539 individuals), migrants reported paying on average seven per cent of their monthly income on water. For water to be considered affordable, UNDP [recommends](#)⁵⁷ that its cost does not exceed three per cent of household income.



7% is the average percentage of migrants' monthly income spent on water, which is twice the proportion that can be considered affordable (3%).



Improved drinking water sources include: piped water, boreholes or tubewells, protected dug wells, protected springs, rainwater and packaged or delivered water.



Unimproved drinking water sources include: unprotected dug well, unprotected spring, surface water.

57 United Nations (2015). "International Decade for Action "Water for Life"". Available at https://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/human_right_to_water.shtml (Accessed 14 October 2020).

Access to improved sanitation facilities

Improving sanitation systems and infrastructure can [help protect](#)⁵⁸ the water, air, soil and food from contamination at the same time as reducing the risk of diseases. Improved sanitation facilities [include](#)⁵⁹: flush or pour-flush to piped sewer system, ventilated improved pit latrine, pit latrine with slab and composting toilet. While unimproved sanitation facilities [include](#)⁶⁰: flush or pour-flush not connected to piped sewer system; pit latrine without slab or open pit; bucket, hanging toilet or hanging latrine, no facilities, bush or field.

The majority of migrants (84%) had access to improved sanitation facilities, most of whom (68%) had access to flush or pour-flush to piped sewer system toilets only or in combination with other types of toilets. A minority of migrants (16%), mainly in the baladiyas of Sebha, Hai Alandalus and Ain Zara reported having only access to unimproved sanitation facilities, primarily flush or pour-flush toilets not connected to a piped sewer system, or no access to a toilet. The majority of migrants stated that they could access a toilet during the day and at night, however, 10 and 13 per cent reported only being able to access it during the day or at night, respectively.

A total of five per cent of migrants reported not having access to a toilet with a privacy screen or door, internal lock and lighting within reach, most of whom live in collective housing (66%) and at their places of work (29%).

The majority of migrants (97%) reported having access to a washing facility to wash their hands with soap in or near the toilet quarters. A minority of those living in collective housing (4%) and at their places of work (3%) reported not having access to such a facility. All those living in other types of accommodation reported having access to soap and a washbasin near the toilet areas.

Out of those who were not able to wash their hands with soap (3%), the majority (58%) reported that it was because soap is too costly, while others reported it was because the infrastructure is damaged or inexistent (21%) or because there is no water available (16%).



16%

of migrants reported not having access to improved sanitation facilities or any toilet at all.



Improved sanitation facilities

include: flush or pour-flush to piped sewer system, ventilated improved pit latrine, pit latrine with slab and composting toilet.



Unimproved sanitation facilities

include: flush or pour-flush not connected to piped sewer system, pit latrine without slab or open pit, bucket, hanging toilet or hanging latrine or no facilities, bush or field.

58 WHO and UN-Habitat (2010) "Hidden Cities: Unmasking and Overcoming Health Inequalities in Urban Settings". Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/item/9789241548038> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

59 WHO & UNICEF (2017). "Drinking water". Available at <https://washdata.org/monitoring/drinking-water> (Accessed 02 November 2020).

60 Ibid.

Adequate location

Housing location [is an essential determinant](#)⁶¹ of people's quality of life. [According to OHCHR](#)⁶², decent housing must be in a safe and secure location which allows access to livelihood options as well as essential services such as health-care services, schools, childcare centres and other social facilities. The notion of adequate location includes considerations related to the temporal and financial burdens of traveling to and from the workplace. Similarly, housing should be located at a safe distance from polluted sites or other sources of pollution that threaten the right to health of the inhabitants.

Access to livelihood opportunities

More than half of migrants (54%) reported living in accommodation which was within safe, reasonable and affordable distance of employment options and livelihood opportunities. While 46 per cent reported that employment options were either too far (54%), too costly to get to (47%) or involved an unsafe journey (37%).

The insecure job situation of some migrants and marginalization in the labour market they might experience could relegate them to lower socio-economic status which can lead to [economic discrimination in accessing housing](#)⁶³.

Access to health care

The majority of migrants (61%) reported having access to health care services within a safe and affordable distance and within a reasonable amount of time while more than a third of migrants (39%), reported having limited (13%) or no access (26%).

Amongst migrants with limited or no access to health services, cost was the issue most widely reported (88%) while for nearly two-thirds of migrants (63%) the distance from health services or facilities was also problematic.

This could possibly be explained by the fact that often as a result of restricted access to housing, migrant workers sometimes [resort](#)⁶⁴ to living in substandard apartments or rooms, as well as in informal settlements on the peripheries of cities, with limited or no access to essential services or facilities.

Moreover, legal insecurity (in the case of undocumented migrants) and the desire of migrants to increase their sense of protection amongst themselves, can also [contribute to the ghettoization of urban spaces](#)⁶⁵.

Proximity to a polluted site

A total of 17 per cent of accommodation surveyed by key informants were identified as being located near a polluted or hazardous site. The most commonly reported hazard or polluted sites near migrants' accommodation were places where domestic or solid waste is deposited (86% of cases). The bulk of migrants who reported such issue were in Sebha (48%) and Tripoli (cluster) (41%) (mainly in Hai Alandalus) and were living in collective accommodation or at their places of work.



46%

of migrants reported that their accommodation was **not located within safe, reasonable and affordable distance from livelihood opportunities.**

61 UN-Habitat (2019). "A Practical Guide for Conducting Housing Profiles". Available at https://unhabitat.org/sites/default/files/documents/2019-07/a_practical_guide_for_conducting_housing_profiles_-_revised_version.pdf (Accessed 09 October 2020).

62 OHCHR (2020b). "The Right to Adequate Housing Toolkit". Available at <https://www.ohchr.org/en/issues/housing/toolkit/pages/righttoadequatehousingtoolkit.aspx> (accessed 11 October 2020).

63 United Nations (2020). Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants, Jorge Bustamante. Available at <https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/4eef18a42.pdf> (Accessed 06 October 2020).

64 United Nations (2009). "Right to Adequate Housing", Note by the Secretary General. Available at <https://www.refworld.org/docid/4aa762e10.html> (Accessed on 25 September 2020).

65 Ibid.

Affordability

Affordable housing can [translate](#)⁶⁶ into better health outcomes given it frees up resources for other basic needs, including food, and also contribute to providing individuals with greater residential stability, which can help reduce stress.

Housing can be [considered](#)⁶⁷ affordable if its associated cost does not compromise the achievement of other basic needs. [The livelihood coping strategies for essential needs](#)⁶⁸ was used to assess housing affordability for the purpose of this study. Developed by the World Food Programme, the livelihood coping strategy index is an indicator which captures the behaviours in which vulnerable individuals engage to meet their basic needs, such as adequate housing, in times of crisis or shock. By gauging the extent to which individuals engage in certain behaviours that may erode their longer-term productive ability when faced with future emergencies, the index is an indicator of how resilient individuals might be in future.

Moreover, the excessive use of coping strategies signals the inability to meet short-term basic needs, such as housing, and the need to provide or boost purchasing power when individuals face hardships. Strategies are grouped under three categories depending on their severity:

- **Stress** strategies indicate a reduced ability to deal with future shocks because of a current reduction in resources or an increase in debts.
- **Crisis** strategies directly reduce future productivity, including human capital formation.
- **Emergency** strategies affect future productivity or the human dignity of household members and are more difficult to reverse.

More than half of migrants (54%) reported adopting livelihood coping strategies to be able to afford rental costs. The high proportion of individuals engaging in crisis and emergency livelihood coping strategies shows that individuals are depleting their assets and/or compromising their future ability to provide for themselves in order to meet their immediate essential needs.

The protracted conflict in Libya [has significantly damaged and destroyed](#)⁶⁹ homes and infrastructure impacting living conditions as well as leading, in some cases, to a lack of adequate housing options. In addition to decreased supply, the rising demand for housing in areas of displacement has caused a housing shortage and an increase in rental prices.

More than a third of migrants resorted to taking on an additional job (34%) and/or reducing expenditure on essential non-food items (34%) as a short-term fix for a lack of means to pay for rent or to continue living in their accommodation. The other most frequently adopted coping strategies by migrants to fulfil their housing needs included the use of their savings (27%) or purchasing food on credit (25%).



54%

of migrants reported adopting livelihood coping strategies to be able to afford rental costs.

66 WHO and UN-Habitat (2010) "Hidden Cities: Unmasking and Overcoming Health Inequalities in Urban Settings". Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/item/9789241548038> (Accessed 04 October 2020).

67 OHCHR (1991) "CESCR General Comment No. 4: The Right to Adequate Housing (Art. 11 (1) of the Covenant)", available at <https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/47a7079a1.pdf> (Accessed 25 October 2020).

68 United Nations World Food Programme (2018). "Essential Needs Assessment: Interim Guidance Note". Available at <https://docs.wfp.org/api/documents/WFP-0000074197/download/> (Accessed 18 October 2020).

69 OCHA (2020c). "Humanitarian Needs Overview 2020, Libya". Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/libya_hno_2020-fullen_final.pdf (Accessed 25 October 2020).

There was a higher rate of migrants living in collective housing (49%) and in their workplaces (38%) who resorted to crisis and emergency level strategies compared to those living in rented accommodation paid for by themselves (35%) or paid for by others (27%) (Fig 16).

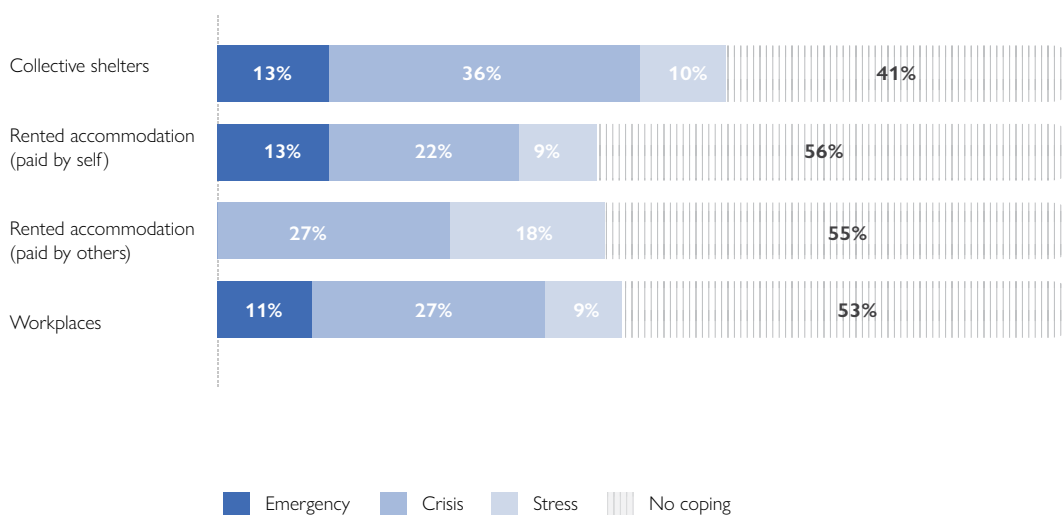
The highest proportion of migrants who reported adopting livelihood coping strategies to fulfil their basic need for housing were in Sebha (73%) and Tripoli (cluster) (53%).

Unreasonable rent increases

The principle of affordability also relates to the protection of tenants against unreasonable rent levels or rent increases. Overall, a total of 27 per cent of migrants reported that their rent had increased over the last six months. A greater proportion of migrants in Tripoli (cluster) (36%) and Misrata (29%) reported an increase compared to migrants in Benghazi (14%) and Sebha (27%).

Most concerning, a total of eight per cent of migrants reported having had their rent increased without notice because of a lack of lease agreement or contract.

Fig 16 Livelihood coping strategy scores per accommodation type



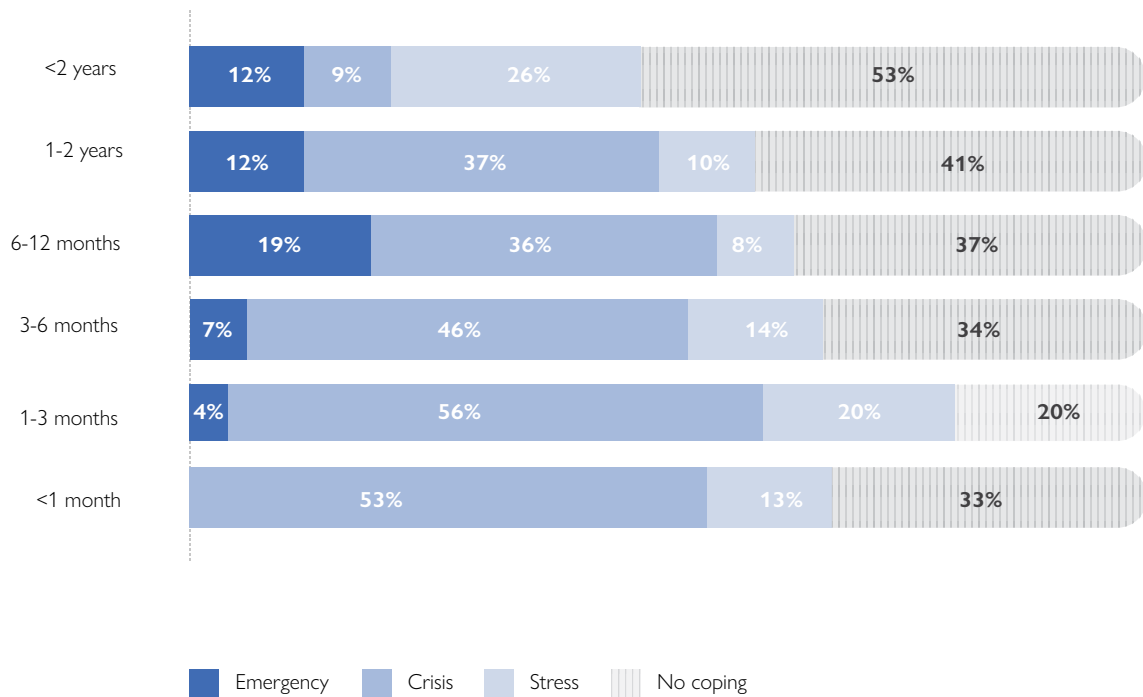
Length of stay

The analysis of the livelihood coping strategy index highlights that migrants who have arrived in Libya more recently generally resorted to using more coping strategies to afford rental costs (Fig 17).

However, migrants who have been in the country for longer resorted to more extreme (emergency level) strategies, which could signal that they have exhausted the least severe strategies and are turning to more damaging strategies which may hamper their longer-term productive ability or capacity to cope with future shocks.

This seems to confirm that while the use of livelihood strategies may be reversible, the prolonged and, in cases, intensifying insecurity coupled with the socio-economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic can deplete migrants' ability to deal with future shocks.

Fig 17 Livelihood coping strategy index per length of stay



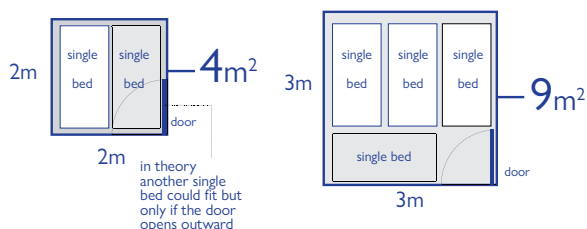
Adequate living space

A total of 21 per cent of key informants reported that migrants in assessed buildings slept in rooms other than bedrooms or domestic staff quarters, such as courtyards, halls, hallways or corridors, kitchen, or storage areas.

Although overcrowding is subjective⁷⁰ because it relates to social and cultural aspects, UN-HABITAT has established specific international standards⁷¹. Overcrowding is defined as the condition where the number of occupants exceeds the capacity of the housing space available. Overcrowding has been linked⁷² to negative physical and mental health outcomes and is considered a marker of poverty and social deprivation. For example, severe overcrowding is often associated⁷³ with poor living conditions through increased competition over resources (e.g. space, water, food and sanitation), which can also contribute to the transmission of diseases.

A total of 59 per cent of accommodation assessed by key informants were overcrowded, which means there were three or more people per habitable room of 9m². A room of 9m² is deemed to provide enough sleeping space for three people or fewer and for some furniture as well as appropriate ventilation. The minimum size of a habitable room for three people is 9m² as in the case of a 4m² room three people would need to sleep in one bed (Fig 18).

Fig 18 Examples of two rooms and measurement of adequate living space



70 Ramalhete, I., Farias, H. and Da Silva Pinto, R. (2018). "Overcrowding and Adequate Housing: The Potential of Adaptability". International Journal of Architectural and Environmental Engineering, Vol. 12/2018. Available at https://www.researchgate.net/publication/330245760_Overcrowding-and-Adequate-Housing-The-Potential-of-Adaptability (Accessed 12 October 2020).

71 UNSTATS (2020). "Sustainable Development Goals, Target 11 Indicators". Available at <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-11-01-01.pdf> <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-11-01-01.pdf> (Accessed 12 October 2020).

72 WHO (2018). "WHO Housing and Health Guidelines". Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241550376> (Accessed 05 October 2020).

73 World Bank Group (2020). "Covid-19 and the Urban Poor: Addressing those in slums". Available at <http://pubdocs.worldbank.org/en/304801589388481883/Addressing-COVID-19-and-the-Urban-Poor-SHORT-version-rev3-logos.pdf> (Accessed 05 October 2020).

However, despite overcrowding being a substantial issue in some cases, it should also be noted that during interviews, some respondents also indicated issues in this regard were less severe than in their previous residence in their home countries.

Density is also one of the factors in addition to poor habitability and lack of accessible civic services (water, electricity, sanitation), which can increase women's vulnerability to domestic violence⁷⁴. Less than half of respondents (41%) reported that as a woman (or in the case of male respondents that the women they live with) have access to separate facilities to ensure their safety, privacy and dignity. According to studies carried out by OHCHR⁷⁵, a lack of safe spaces and privacy may be a source of concern for women's physical safety.

“

I share an apartment with five friends from Chad. On the weekends, we visit our friends or invite them, we wash our clothes and clean the house together. It is crowded but in my village in Chad I grew up in a family of 18 persons. I miss my family.

Abdoulaye I.*

(*name changed to protect the interviewee's identity)

74 United Nations (2013). "Report of the Special Rapporteur on Adequate Housing as a Component of the Right to an Adequate Standard of Living, and on the Right to Non-discrimination in this Context, Raquel Rolnik". Available at <https://digitalibrary.un.org/record/766905?ln=en> (Accessed 20 October 2020).

75 OHCHR (2012). "Women and the Right to Adequate Housing". Available at https://www.ohchr.org/documents/publications/womenhousing_hr.pub.11.2.pdf (Accessed 20 October 2020).

Security and crime

Amongst migrants who reported facing issues regarding their accommodation, more than half (55%) reported that security was either the main (37%) or the second most (18%) important challenge they faced. The majority of migrants (74%) stated that this was due to the unsafe nature of their neighbourhood due to crime, violence or harassment. A minority (18%) stated that this was because the accommodation infrastructure or building was damaged or insufficient to protect them from the weather. Moreover, security concerns were reported as the main or second most important challenge in finding accommodation by 18 per cent of migrants who reported facing issues. The most frequently reported security concern was related to individual safety and security concerns including threats and crime.

A total of 19 per cent of migrants reported having been the victim of a theft, destruction of property, extortion and/or dispute in their neighbourhood in the past 30 days. The proportion of migrants who reported having suffered such crime was higher in Tripoli (cluster) (24%) and Sebha (21%) compared to Benghazi (9%) and Misrata (15%). This is also in line with [previous studies](#)⁷⁶ which reported the occurrence of crime, such as armed robbery and assaults, in migrants' accommodation.

 **55%**

of migrants who reported issues regarding their accommodation stated that security was either the main or the second most important challenge

 **19%**

of migrants reported having been victim of a crime in their neighbourhood in the 30 days prior to the survey

⁷⁶ UNSMIL (2018). "Desperate and Dangerous: Report on the human rights situation of migrants and refugees in Libya". Available at <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/LibyaMigrationReport.pdf> (Accessed 02 September 2020).

Security of tenure

A total of 68 per cent of migrants reported having a rental contract, the majority (64%) of which were verbal agreements (Fig 19). Nearly a third of migrants reported having no rental contract at all. This is in line with the findings of a 2018 joint IMPACT and UNHCR [report](#)⁷⁷, which showed that the majority of respondents relied on oral rental agreements.

Those sheltered at their places of work or living in rented accommodation paid for by others reported the highest levels of lack of a rental contract (54% and 58%, respectively). Those who rent accommodation paid for by themselves, were more likely to have a written contract (9%) than average. None of those interviewed who are housed at their places of work or in accommodation paid for by others or their employers reported having a written contract.

Although [international law explicitly recognizes the right to security of tenure](#)⁷⁸, according to the results of the survey, the majority of migrants (88%) reported that not having a written contract had not been an issue for them during their time in Libya.

The most common issues reported by migrants who had issues due to the absence of, or the presence of a verbal-only agreement (12% of total respondents), were rent increases (67%) and eviction against their will and without notice (58%). The lack of security of tenure as well as xenophobic or discriminatory sentiments may lead to the segregation of migrants in the urban space and [can facilitate](#)⁷⁹ their forced eviction. The issue of security of tenure was felt more strongly by migrants living in their workplaces and in collective housing, where 15 and 13 per cent of migrants, respectively, reported it was an issue compared to four per cent for those living in rented accommodation (paid for by themselves).

77 IMPACT & UNHCR (2018). "Refugees and migrants' access to food, shelter & NFIs, WASH and assistance in Libya". Available at https://www.impact-repository.org/document/reach/63b3fdcc/impact_lby_so_refugees_and_migrants_access_to_food_wash_shelter_november_2018.pdf (Accessed 20 October 2020).

78 UN-Habitat (2010). "Housing Policies, Habitat III Policy Paper 10", available at <http://uploads.habitat3.org/hb3/Habitat%20III%20Policy%20Paper%2010.pdf> (accessed October 2020).

79 United Nations (2010). "Right to Adequate Housing", Note by the Secretary General. Available at <https://www.refworld.org/docid/4aa762e10.html> (Accessed on 25 September 2020).

A total of six per cent of migrants reported having been evicted (3%) or knowing someone who had been evicted (3%). In comparison, five per cent of migrants reported having either been threatened with eviction (2%) or recently evicted (3%) according to the [2019 Multi-Sector Needs Assessment](#)⁸⁰.

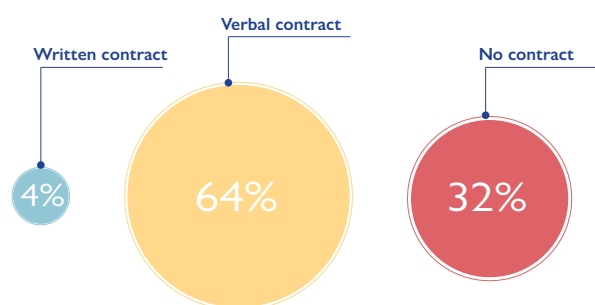
A higher proportion of migrants in the baladiyas of the Tripoli region reported having been evicted (5%) or knowing someone who had (5%) than in Misrata (2% and 2%, respectively) or Sebha (3% and 1%, respectively). Virtually no migrants reported this issue in Benghazi.

The conflict in Libya has caused destruction and damage to housing and infrastructure which, coupled with an influx of IDP arrivals has [led to rising rental prices and an overall shortage of adequate housing](#)⁸¹.



Tenure security is [defined](#) as the protection from involuntary removal from one's land or residence by the State, unless exceptional circumstances in which only by means of a known and agreed legal procedure, which in turn must be objective, equally applicable, contestable and independent (OHCHR, 2009).

Fig 19 Types of contract tenure



80 REACH (2020). "2019 Multi-Sector Needs Assessment Libya". Available at <https://www.reachresourcecentre.info/country/libya/cycle/685/#cycle-685> (Accessed 01 November 2020).

81 OCHA (2020c). "Humanitarian Needs Overview 2020, Libya". Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/libya_hno_2020-fullen_final.pdf (Accessed 25 October 2020).

Accessibility

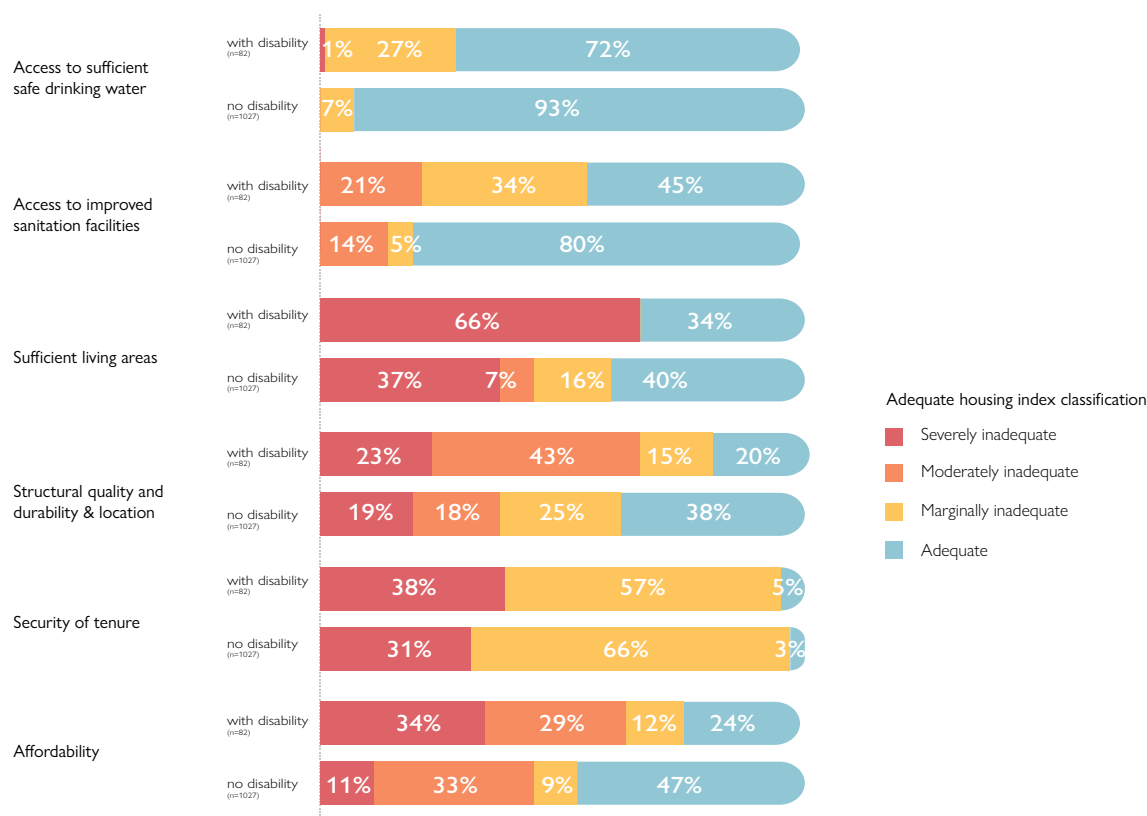
According to OHCHR⁸², adequate housing must be accessible to everyone, including disadvantaged or generally more vulnerable groups such as the elderly, children, the physically disabled, persons with persistent medical problems.

Migrants living with a disability

The analysis of adequate housing scores reveals that migrants living in accommodation where at least one person reported living with a disability (such as visual, hearing or physical impairments) fared worse in all areas than those where this was not the case.

For example, migrants' accommodation where there was at least one person with a disability were generally more crowded and the physical infrastructure was more damaged than those who did not report living with a person with a disability. Migrants living in accommodation where a person with a disability lived also reported higher rates of tenure insecurity and unaffordability than those where there was not. This could signal that it is more difficult for people living with a disability to access and secure adequate housing due to various barriers. This is of concern as people with a disability face increased risks⁸³ of isolation, neglect, abuse and exploitative treatment.

Fig 20 Comparison of migrants' accommodation conditions for those where at least one person lives with a disability and those where it is not the case.



82 OHCHR (2020b). "The Right to Adequate Housing Toolkit". Available at <https://www.ohchr.org/en/issues/housing/toolkit/pages/righttoadequatehousingtoolkit.aspx> (accessed 11 October 2020).

83 UNHCR (2016). "Vulnerability Screening Tool, Identifying and Addressing Vulnerability: A Tool for Asylum and Migration Systems". Available at <https://www.refworld.org/pdf/57f21f6b4.pdf> (accessed August 2020).

A man wearing a blue vest with logos, a light blue face mask, and sunglasses on his head stands in a doorway. He is looking towards a man who is seated in the foreground, seen from the back. The setting appears to be an outdoor or semi-outdoor area with a weathered wall and a window with a metal grille. There is some clutter on the floor, including a blue gas cylinder and some bags.

PART 5 CONCLUSIONS

Photo: In September, IOM launched a series of outreach campaigns and awareness raising sessions on COVID-19 prevention measures, key symptoms and how to seek medical help when needed. To ensure no one is left behind, informative leaflets were provided in six languages and “door-to-door” campaigns were carried out in remote areas.

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CONCLUSIONS

Housing is a [precondition](#)⁸⁴ for human survival. The benefits of adequate housing are undeniable and [include](#)⁸⁵ potential improvement to mental and physical health, livelihoods, living standard, welfare and the environment and also promote inclusive and active participation in social and economic activities.

Moreover, housing is closely related to health in the way that structure, location, facilities, environment and uses of human shelter impact people's well-being. This does not only refer to positive or negative impact on the physical well-being (e.g. due to availability or absence of adequate facilities related to water and sanitation) but also people's mental and social well-being.

The WHO [Health Principles of Housing](#)⁸⁶ identifies housing as the environmental factor most frequently associated with conditions for disease in epidemiological analyses, thus, adequate housing and living conditions are invariably associated with lower mortality and morbidity rates.

Research has shown that mental health [can be impacted](#)⁸⁷ by non-health policies and practices such as inadequate housing. For example, a [systematic review](#)⁸⁸ on the health impact of housing improvements highlighted that enhanced housing led to self-reported improved health and mental health outcomes, perception of safety and crime reduction as well as social and community cohesion.

84 Arias, E. (1993). "The Meaning and Use of Housing: International Perspectives, Approaches and their Applications". Available at <https://www.worldcat.org/title/meaning-and-use-of-housing-international-perspectives-approaches-and-their-applications/oclc/777893905> (10 October 2020).

85 UN-Habitat (2010). "Housing Policies, Habitat III Policy Paper 10". Available at <https://habitat3.org/wp-content/uploads/Habitat%20III%20Policy%20Paper%2010.pdf> (Accessed 28 September 2020).

86 WHO (1989). Health Principles of Housing. Available at https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/39847/9241561270_eng.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y (Accessed 28 September 2020).

87 WHO (2004). Promoting Mental Health. Available at https://www.who.int/mental_health/publications/promoting_mh_2005/en/ (Accessed 08 October 2020).

88 Thompson, H. (2001). "Health Effects of Housing Improvement: Systematic Review of Intervention Studies". BMJ Clinical Research. Available at https://www.researchgate.net/publication/11868614_Health_effects_of_housing_improvement_Systematic_review_of_intervention_studies (Accessed 08 October 2020).

“

On the farm in Niger where I worked before, we did not always have enough food or water, so I continued with my wife to Libya through the desert road. Friends I already knew in Libya helped me find a job and I am living with my wife and son in a small apartment now. Not all of my friends here had the same positive experience, but I am in good health.

Moussa E. from Niger*

(*name changed to protect the interviewee's identity)

Overcrowding was a substantial challenge across accommodation settings examined in this study, particularly for migrants living in collective housing. Correspondingly, across many indicators, those living in crowded spaces fared worse along adequate housing dimensions employed as analytical framework.

However, it should be noted that a sense of community and social networks often found in shared migrant accommodation may be of importance to some (newly-arrived) migrants who may face practical difficulties in obtaining information regarding employment, housing as well as information necessary to meaningfully exercise their rights. Through their social capital – the social resources embedded in their social relations – migrants can obtain such information and assistance in navigating a new context.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Housing and COVID-19

The results of this survey confirm that in light of the pandemic and its socio-economic impact, all migrants, including stranded migrants, regardless of nationality or migratory status, should be [included in all national COVID-19 response plans](#)⁸⁹. This should include measures to ensure that migrants have access to adequate accommodation, as well as information, health services, food and other social support systems, in order to mitigate the economic downturn.

Stranded migrants may also need additional support such as accommodation and socio-economic relief in case of income or job loss. Adopting a rights-based approach could also help in promoting equal access to housing resources and finding remedies in case of violations of housing rights.

Protection- and people-centred approaches

The different needs of migrants should be considered while designing programmes and policies aimed at improving access to adequate housing. Although everyone has the right to gain and sustain a safe and secure home and community, specific needs might vary and impact the choice of accommodation. This requires supportive and tailored approaches acknowledging the wide range of contexts migrants are transitioning and living through.

Moreover, the notion of adequacy, should be defined together with the people concerned. This cannot be achieved without an inclusive approach which recognises the agency, resources, rights, and responsibilities of migrants in addressing their housing situation.

By nature, housing policies and programmes are inter-related with the social, cultural, environmental, technical, security, economic, political and government contexts in which they are implemented. As such, any interventions should be centred around protection at the same time as being integrated across sectors and stakeholders through appropriate coordination mechanisms or partnerships.

89 IOM (2020a). "Covid-19 and Stranded Migrants. Available at https://www.iom.int/sites/default/files/documents/issue_brief_stranded_migrants.pdf (Accessed 04 November 2020).

These mechanisms should also ensure appropriate monitoring, review and revision of the programmes, policies and strategies.

Monitoring

Migrants will remain vulnerable to abusive and exploitative practices given their precarious legal and socio-economic status unless they enjoy protection under the law and are able to demand accountability. To be held accountable States [must put in place solid regulatory and independent mechanisms to enforce and monitor migrants' rights situation](#)⁹⁰. Monitoring will encourage transparency and prevent exploitation, collusion and mistreatment. Appropriate relief should also be provided to migrants, including through temporary measures as appropriate, such as the provision of shelter for migrants who are in a precarious situation.



Homes are anchors of human life - whether they be permanent or temporary, are located in one place or are transported from place to place, are owned or rented, or are in planned communities or squatter settlements. How housing is used and what it means to those who reside in it and to those who do not have a house to reside, are probably the two most important topics to housing policy, planning or design in any cultural context around the world.

Arias, Ernesto G. (1993), "The Meaning and Use of Housing. International perspectives, approaches and their implications".

.....

90 OHCHR (2014). The Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of Migrants in Irregular Situations. Available at https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/HR-PUB-14-1_en.pdf (Accessed 18 October 2020)

Tenure security

Further research should be conducted to better understand the [underlying causes](#)⁹¹ of tenure insecurity which may include factors such as market forces, the political economy, legal status, cultural or social factors.

WASH

The findings of this report highlight the importance of interventions targeting the problematic supply of and access to water, hygiene and sanitation, especially in a context where the COVID-19 pandemic and the impact of the protracted conflict are exacerbating particular health risks associated with poor sanitation and unsafe water.

For example, [according to WHO](#)⁹², studies have shown that safe storage can significantly reduce diarrheal disease. This highlights the potential and cost-effectiveness of such measures, in a context where 35 per cent of migrants reported not having safe water storage containers, or using damaged ones. To achieve maximum impact, these interventions should be [integrated](#)⁹³ across water, sanitation, solid waste management and drainage.

91 United Nations (2013). "Report of the Special Rapporteur on Adequate Housing as a Component of the Right to an Adequate Standard of Living, and on the Right to Non-Discrimination in this Context". Available at <https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/766905?ln=en> (Accessed 07 October 2020).

92 WHO (2018). "WHO Housing and Health Guidelines". Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241550376> (Accessed 05 October 2020).

93 WHO (2010). "Unmasking and Overcoming Health Inequities in Urban Settings". Available at https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/44439/9789241548038_eng.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y (Accessed 25 October 2020).

Photo: Collective shelter where more than 150 migrants live in Swani Bin Adam.





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ANNEXES



ANNEX 1





Accommodation condition typology definition and description

TYPOLOGY	DESCRIPTION
 Well maintained, no negligible damage	<p>The house provides good protection against the elements and the water and sanitation system is functioning. A dwelling with a broken window, minor damage from bullets or peeling paint falls into this category</p>
 Minor Damage	<p>Several walls, doors and/or windows are damaged (including small holes, water leakages, etc.). Water system may be only partly functioning</p>
 Moderate Damage	<p>Moderate but no structural damage. Many parts of the dwelling are damaged. Walls and/or roofs can have big holes. This category includes dwellings with rooms with all windows blown out or rooms completely burnt. Some rooms may still be liveable.</p>
 Severe Damage or destroyed	<p>Significant structural damage. Most of the doors and windows are badly damaged or destroyed. There are large holes in many walls, and some walls may be completely destroyed. Roof may have fully or partially collapsed. Water and sanitation system is affected, living conditions inside such building are difficult and unhealthy.</p>

Adapted from : [NRC](#), 2018

ANNEX 2

Roof, walls, window and door condition typology definition and description

TYPOLOGY	DESCRIPTION		
	Roof	Walls	Windows and doors
 None or negligible	No holes, no signs of water leakages	Peeling paint or a few small holes	Very little broken glass or windows or doors
 Minor	Roof is leaking in parts but no visible holes or cracks	Non-structural cracks, holes that can be easily repaired and don't let air inside the dwelling	Some glass broken, a few doors are slightly damaged
 Moderate	Some holes or large cracks, some rain is coming inside the dwelling	Holes in many parts of the walls, it's possible to see through them and there are perhaps some minor cracks in columns	Most of the glass and/or doors and/or windows are broken
 Severe	Large holes in the roof that would be hard to repair, or there is no roof	Large holes in many walls, major cracks in some columns, some walls may completely be destroyed, or there are no walls	Most of the glass is broken, many doors and/or windows are damaged or destroyed, or there are no walls

Adapted from : [NRC](#), 2018

ANNEX 3

Accommodation settings definitions

	TYOLOGY	DEFINITION
Rented accommodation	Rented accommodation paid for by themselves	Non-collective accommodation, i.e. accommodation rented directly by an individual or a household for personal or family use.
	Rented accommodation provided / paid for by employer	Non-collective accommodation, i.e. rented by an employer for an individual employee or their household for personal or family (non-commercial or mixed) use.
	Rented accommodation paid for by others	Non-collective accommodation, i.e. rented by another person or entity (who is not a member of the household residing in this accommodation, nor their employee) for the personal or family use of the individual or their household (excluding commercial or mixed use).
Collective accommodation	Informal camp-like settlements	A collection of temporary accommodations in urban or rural areas without adjoining buildings or structures and built using makeshift shelter materials such as tents, plastic, cardboard, fabric, or metal sheets, etc.
	Informal slum-like settlements	A collection of accommodation built in a predominantly urban areas within, in proximity to, or adjoining constructed or semi-constructed buildings. The accommodations used in this setting can be completely constructed (finished rooms/houses), partially constructed (such as rooms without ceiling/roof), or made using makeshift shelter materials such as cardboard or metal sheets etc.
	Communal / shared shelter settings (organized or institutionalized)	Shelters set-up by migrant households, migrant community, migration facilitators, NGOs, humanitarian agencies etc.
	Workplace	Accommodation in the same physical location (building, room, or other infrastructure such as workshops, warehouse, factories etc.) as the place of commercial or employment-related activity that employs migrants.
	Abandoned buildings	A building occupied by an individual, a household, or by several migrants, for which none interviewed are unable to identify the owner of the building. Also included are building which are pre-identified as "abandoned" by key informants.
	Other accommodation types	Other types of accommodation arrangement that do not fit the above criteria, e.g. public buildings such as schools.

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IOM's Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) tracks and monitors population movements in order to collate, analyze and share information to support the humanitarian community with the needed demographic baselines to coordinate evidence-based interventions.

To consult all DTM Libya reports, datasets, static and interactive maps and dashboards, please visit:

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