1. INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, urban and drug-related violence, also known as other situations of violence, has increased in visibility and impact, becoming one of the most serious forms of violence in the Northern Triangle of Central America (El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras) and Mexico. Conventional distinctions between violence caused by armed conflict or war and that caused by criminal violence have become blurred across the region in terms of its humanitarian impact on the civilian population.

Worsening in recent years, levels of criminal violence in the Northern Triangle of Central America (NTCA) have been compounded by the area’s heightened significance as a drug trafficking region. The 2006 Mexican war on drugs resulted in altered regional drug trafficking routes and a shift in the balance of power among criminal groups, provoking an increase in fighting for territorial control, better organisation of groups, and a greater presence and use of increasingly sophisticated and better quality weapons. Heavy-handed policies and militarised strategy implemented by the region’s Governments have further contributed to destabilisation and high levels of violence (UNODC 2012, TNI 2012, FESCOL 2011).

The NTCA is considered one of the most violent areas in the world due to skyrocketing rate of homicides. While not experiencing conflict between warring parties, the region has seen epidemic levels of violence, defined by WHO as ten or more homicides per 100,000. Particularly high levels of violence were seen between 2009 and 2011. Homicides recorded between 2004 and 2013 in the NTCA numbered 143,5881 (41.9 homicides per day), with 15,328 in 2013. These totals, however, do not paint a complete picture and fail to include the as of yet unquantifiable number of violent deaths of unreported or missing people found in cemeteries or secret graves (UNODC, IUDPAS, IML, INACIF 2014).

High levels of regional poverty, injustice, inequality, and unemployment do not by themselves explain the rise in corruption and violence. Contributing factors range from increased consumer expectations, a lack of local opportunities and resulting social immobility, rapid unplanned urban growth, and changing communities and family units whose roles in some areas are replaced by mobs or gangs, to ineffectual education systems. To these factors are added the use of firearms, high rates of alcohol consumption, and drug trafficking (UNDP 2013).

Crime and violence bring with them measurable social and economic costs. Included in these are: reduced human development indicators; negative changes to individual, family, and community behaviour; erosion of social support and capital; and creation of an environment of fear and insecurity which causes people to abandon homes, businesses, and public spaces (UNDP 2013).

### Economic Costs of Crime and Violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COSTS</th>
<th>HONDURAS</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Millions</td>
<td>% GDP</td>
<td>Millions</td>
<td>% GDP</td>
<td>Millions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health costs</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>1281</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>1144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical attention</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of production</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional damage</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional costs</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public safety</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration of justice</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private security</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials (transfers)</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>885</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>2291</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1 Calculated using UNODC data for 2004-2012 and information provided by IUDPAS/INACIF/PNC/IML for 2013.
Homicides per 100,000 Persons and by Department in Honduras, Guatemala and El Salvador, 2013

North Central America - Homicide rates by department area (2013)

Homicide rate per 100,000 persons
- 0 - 10
- 10 - 35
- 35 - 60
- 60 - 85
- 85 - 110
- 110 - 135

Boundaries:
- Department
- International

Scale - 1:4,094,290 (44)
Projection - WGS84 / UTM 15N

Data sources:
- Boundaries: GADM
- Statistics: D.G. Medicina Forense, Observatorio de la Violencia UAH, BUDPAS (Honduras)
- INACIF/PNC (Guatemala)
- PNC/Instituto Medicina Legal (El Salvador)

MA001

Produced by MapAction
www.mapaction.org
info@mapaction.org
Other situations of violence (OSV), sometime referred to as unconventional violence, encompass civil unrest, riots, state repression, and mob and gang violence in which authorities frequently resort to military or political force to maintain or restore law and order. While these situations are not defined as armed conflict, the humanitarian impact can be equally serious to communities caught in the crossfire (ICRC 2011). This new type of violence has no clear political ends and does not adhere to basic rules of combat (ECHO 2013).

Humanitarian actors in the region are increasingly aware of this reality and are exploring ways to scale up humanitarian action to support victims of OSV. Donors such as ECHO have made financial decisions based on OSV (ECHO, HIP 2012).

However, to adequately respond to the impact of OSV, many challenges remain. These are both conceptual and practical, resulting from a lack of concrete information on the humanitarian consequences of OSV to gaps in an appropriate, reliable methodology for mitigating its magnitude, intensity, and scope. These challenges present considerable obstacles for decision makers responsible for planning operational and strategic responses to humanitarian needs emerging from OSV.

This study, conducted between February and April 2014 by a two-person team sent to Panama and the three NTCA countries, sought to identify the main effects of OSV on affected populations. The team reviewed secondary sources of information and interviewed over 90 key informants representing a broad range of organisations across the NTCA and the region.

The study focused on three main questions:
1. What is known about the humanitarian consequences of OSV in NTCA countries?
2. Can OSV be considered a humanitarian crisis?
3. How do we measure the humanitarian impact of OSV?

This document provides a detailed assessment of OSV and identifies its main direct and indirect effects, both visible and invisible across key sectors. Each thematic section begins with a problem tree and is followed by commonly used survival strategies, information gaps and indicators (existing or to be developed/adapted) that may help to measure impact.

There are six intersecting sectors and themes covered in the report, which were pre-selected in consultation with humanitarian actors: health; forced displacement/asylum or refugee claims/migration; education; livelihoods; protection; and humanitarian access.

The report is intended to assist humanitarian organisations to identify the effects of OSV in the affected population. It also provides a humanitarian analysis framework to guide the analytical process along with available indicators and those which need to be developed for measuring the impact, magnitude, and severity of the crisis. Quantitative measurement of the invisible effects is one of the most important challenges due to the lack of systematically available data.

Table of Contents

1. INTRODUCTION ................................................................. 1
2. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY ..................................................... 4
3. SECTORAL IMPACT, THEMATIC APPROACH ............................. 8
   HEALTH ............................................................................. 8
   FORCED DISPLACEMENT, ASYLUM REQUESTS, REFUGEES, AND MIGRATORY FLOWS (ILLEGAL AND DEPORTED) ...................... 14
   EDUCATION ....................................................................... 21
   LIVELIHOODS .................................................................... 25
   PROTECTION ........................................................................ 29
   HUMANITARIAN ACCESS .................................................... 36
4. ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK, CHALLENGES IN MEASUREMENT AND RECOMMENDATIONS 40
   Annex 1 - Map of NTCA Homicide Rate 2013 (MapAction) ............. 45
   Annex 2 - Map of Honduras Homicide Rate 2013 (MapAction) .......... 46
   Annex 3 - Map of Guatemala Homicide Rate 2013 (MapAction) ....... 47
   Annex 4 - Map of El Salvador Homicide Rate 2013 (MapAction) ...... 48
   Annex 5 - Acronyms of Organisations/Sources ................................ 49
   Annex 6 - Methodology ....................................................... 50
   Annex 7 - Sources .................................................................. 51
   Annex 8 - Proposed Indicators on the Humanitarian Impact of OSV ... 55
2. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Other Situations of Violence in the Northern Triangle of Central America: Invisible Borders, Spiralling Violence, and Normalisation of Terror

In recent years, the countries in the Northern Triangle of Central America (NTCA) – El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras – have seen an increase in the levels of violence perpetrated by armed groups, gangs, organised criminals, drug traffickers and some members of the state. According to UNODC data for 2012, Honduras ranks as the most violent country in the world, followed by El Salvador, with Guatemala not far behind (PNUD 2013, UNODC 2012). The period between 2009 and 2011 was particularly violent.

Changes in drug smuggling routes are a key reason for the increase in violence. Mexico’s ‘war on drugs’ since 2006 has disturbed the power balance among criminal groups in the NTCA and increased the number, range, and use of firearms. Drug trafficking, illegal groups, and clandestine powers have adopted strategies of violence to accrue benefits and guarantee impunity. The high levels of inequality in the region, the coup in Honduras in 2009, the US’s deportation of NTCA citizens who have criminal records, and the repressive mano dura policy response to the increase in violence have all aggravated the situation.

The states are not responding effectively or appropriately to victims’ basic demands for health, education, protection, and justice (REDELYC 2011). Distrust in state institutions is high, with high levels of corruption, a lack of access to justice, the incursion of organised crime into many military, political, and social structures, and the porosity of borders exacerbating structural weaknesses within state systems.

A huge percentage of crimes go unreported: between 2011 and 2013, the percentage of impunity for killings in the NTCA was 95% (La prensa gráfica 2014). This complicates enormously the calculation of the magnitude and intensity of the humanitarian impact of violence, especially related to the most ‘invisible’ impacts like forced displacement, disappearances, and extortion.

Some of the critical areas of the NTCA, also known as ‘red areas’, have identical characteristics to armed conflict zones: high levels of violence and criminality, large numbers of injuries caused by firearms, physical and sexual abuse, torture, extortion, kidnappings, forced recruitment, curfews (unofficial), confinement, invisible borders, a population in fear of violent death or crime, lack of state rule, corruption and impunity, limited access to health and other basic services, and limited access to protection and justice. Some of the population are forced into displacement to escape threats and violence, moving within the state, requesting asylum, or resorting to irregular migration.

This study addresses three analytical questions intended to:

- Improve understanding of the key humanitarian impacts of violence on the lives of the affected population, using a multi-sectoral approach and considering both direct and indirect effects.

- Identify and propose specific sectoral indicators to measure these impacts, identifying available sources at national or regional level.

- Provide an analytical framework that will help humanitarian actors decide the relevance of a humanitarian response based on the situation of the affected population, humanitarian access, and existing response capacities at the national and international level.

Definition of Violence

This study uses the term coined by the ICRC, other situations of violence (OSV), which refers to civil unrest, riots, state repression, post-election violence, gang violence, demonstrations, etc. The consequences can be as devastating and deadly to the civilian population as those of an armed conflict (ICRC 2011).

As indicated by Robert Muggah, violence is becoming a less structured phenomenon. It is increasingly moving away from traditional notions of conflict and wars to more dynamic and unstructured phenomena, linked to criminal violence, terrorism and civil unrest (IDRC 2012).

The Visible Impact of OSV in the Northern Triangle

In the last ten years (2004–2013), 143,588 homicides were recorded in the NTCA, around 41.9 homicides per day in an area of approximately 30 million people. However, the rate of underreporting is very high throughout the region, and neither does
this number include the numerous people who go missing and whose bodies are later found (UNODC 2014, IUDPAS, IML, INACIF).

Homicide rate per 100,000 people (UNODC, 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Homicide Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average global</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAR</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>39.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sudan (2013)</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNODC 2014 report (data from 2012)

At 90.4 homicides per 100,000 people, Honduras remains the most violent country in the world. El Salvador (41.2) and Guatemala (39.9) have higher homicide rates now than during their civil wars. Data from a UNODC report shows that the homicidal violence in the NTCA results in considerably more civilian casualties than in any other countries, including those with ongoing armed conflicts or war, such as DRC (28.3 in 2012) and Afghanistan (6.5 in 2012) (UNODC 2014). In 2012 the global average homicide rate was 6.2 per 100,000 people.

Young men are the main victims and perpetrators of organised murder and gang violence. Latin America has the highest levels of youth violence in the world. Central America has four times more male victims between 15 and 29 years than the rest of the world, and two out of every three homicides are committed by firearms (UNODC 2014).

The Hidden Humanitarian Impact of OSV

Murder, injury, assault, and physical threat are among the direct and most visible impacts of OSV. But there are also abandoned houses, limitations on public services, deteriorating public infrastructure, and the pervasive presence of security forces (police, military, private security, in hospitals, health centres and schools). There is a deeper impact, which creates dynamics that withhold the most basic rights and freedoms from communities, especially the most vulnerable.

Health Impact

- Daily exposure to high levels of violence permanently scars the psyche of a population, affecting the mental health of direct and indirect victims of violence.
- The health system is oversaturated, and cannot meet all health needs. Saving the lives of victims of violence takes precedence over the health needs of others. Victims of sexual violence do not receive adequate support from the health system (or the justice system).
- In areas where violence is most prevalent, the state is often absent and basic services lacking, especially access to emergency services and first aid.
- Risks of infectious diseases, such as dengue, are higher, as access of vector control and fumigation teams to carry out preventive activities can be limited.

Educational Impact

- Students are dropping out of school, some to prevent the risk of forced recruitment or sexual abuse, restricting their opportunities for the future.
- Schools are a place of risk instead of protection and the school route. Extortion and threats against teachers and high levels of violence are common.

Economic Impact

- When the main income-generating member of the household is killed or injured, family living conditions are likely to deteriorate. Expensive medical bills can add to the economic impact, and without a support network households can descend into extreme poverty.
- Widespread extortion affects traders, small shops and street vendors, as well as the final price paid by the consumer. In some areas there is a monopoly on commercial brands that reach the shops, or among traders, which is often linked to...
access payments or to businesses’ links with structures that have power within crime organisations with territorial control. These monopolies affect services such as water distribution and local transport or taxi services, as well as products.

- The losses from extortion payments, employment discrimination, access “fees” and price increases have a detrimental impact on the household economy of many families.

**Social Impact**

- Violence and organised crime have led to the loss of public spaces.
- The law of “see, hear, and be silent” results in self-censorship and limitations on freedom of expression among the community, reducing participation.
- Mistrust generates an increasingly claustrophobic situation. Confinement becomes not only physical but also permeates into the psychological and social spheres, restricting freedom of expression and further eroding the capacity of communities to organise and establish common resistance against violence.
- Community organisations have disintegrated. The collapse of community involvement in public or advisory/consultative activities increases the isolation and vulnerability of populations, and puts the socially and economically vulnerable at even greater risk.

**Forced Displacement**

The high levels of violence are activating forms of involuntary migration that could be described as forced displacement (PNUD 2013). This crisis of displacement remains hidden, only reported by the media in extreme cases. Lack of confidence in the authorities, apprehension of discovery, and the absence of official support for these victims of violence all contribute to their invisibility. The humanitarian impact is therefore difficult to measure or quantify.

Preliminary data from an unpublished UNHCR/JIPS study on Honduras shows that about 1% of the surveyed population had migrated internally due to insecurity. If we extrapolate this to the total population covered by the survey, around 30,000 people have been internally displaced due to violence. However it is considered that this ratio underestimates the potential magnitude of displacement in Honduras (UNHCR 2014, preliminary results, not yet published).

The results of a 2012 IUDOP survey in El Salvador (representative sample: 1,268 people) showed that 2.1% of respondents had changed their place of residence due to threats and violence (and 37% of them had moved twice or more). If we extrapolate the results (with a confidence rating of 95%) to the population of El Salvador, it would mean that 2.1% of its 6.2 million people opted for internal displacement as a strategy to escape violence (IUDOP 2012).

Comparing the figures of the preliminary UNHCR 2014 report with homicide rates and violent incidents in the NTCA, there is a clear link between increased violence and the substantial increase in asylum applications and in the recognition of refugee status for NTCA nationals (130% increase in asylum applications from 2009 to 2013, 31% increase in granting of refugee status between 2010 and 2012).

Thousands of people are also migrating illegally to avoid detection, leaving their lives in the hands of strangers operating outside the law. Some 185,000 people from the NTCA were deported in 2013 (a 46% increase since 2011), indicating the tendency of the NTCA population to resort to cross-border movement or irregular migration as a strategy to flee violence. Women make up about 20% of irregular migrants and are particularly vulnerable to human exploitation networks. In recent years there has also been a dramatic increase in the number of unaccompanied minors fleeing the region (UNODC TOCTA 2011, ACNUR 2014).

There is insufficient quantitative evidence to calculate the magnitude, trends, and needs for protection generated by the different types of forced displacement. The UNHCR/JIPS 2014 project aims to create and generate more evidence, to identify the profiles of the affected population, and to identify the drivers of displacement from particular geographic areas. Ongoing humanitarian interventions by ICRC and MSF are also contributing to generating evidence and understanding of OSV impacts. This information will enable humanitarians to identify issues beyond protection, which can guide complementary humanitarian support and long-term development interventions.

**The Geography of Violence**

The geography of violence follows the geography of the illegal drugs trade, of arms trafficking, of the battles for territorial control between organised armed gangs or between gangs and state forces, and of forced displacement. Violence is most prevalent in urban areas, along the borders and on the Atlantic or Pacific coast; normally areas controlled by organised crime, where armed gangs work with drug cartels, using murder and extortion to control territory. Five departments in Honduras have homicide...
rates above the national average: Cortés, Atlántida, Yoro, Colón, and Ocotepeque. The highest indices of lethal and non-lethal violence in Guatemala are in the departments of Zacapa, Chiquimula, Escuintla, Izabal, Guatemala, Santa Rosa and Petén (INACIF 2013). In El Salvador violence is worst in the departments of Cuscatlán, La Paz, Cabañas, Usulután, La Unión, San Vicente, San Salvador, and Sonsonate (IML).

**Demographics of the Victims of Violence**

It is necessary to develop vulnerability profiles of people affected by violence to better understand their needs and inform the humanitarian response, as well as to find entry points for development programmes and advocacy that can complement humanitarian action. As a starting point, several distinct groups can be identified as particularly vulnerable.

The inhabitants of the most violent ‘red areas’ are extremely vulnerable, and among this population, the elderly, disabled and chronically ill are particularly vulnerable, given the limited access to services. The LGBTI population is often subject to discrimination and abuse.

Many people who have been displaced by violence, either internally or transnationally, are in need of protection and health assistance while travelling or upon return or deportation.

Children are being raised in an oppressive environment of aggression, which limits their opportunities for education, health and development, and is also likely to cause psychological damage. They are being recruited by armed groups as informers and to carry out surveillance. Unaccompanied minors who migrate are also at significant risk. Data from the US Border Patrol indicate an alarming increase in the presence of minors from the NTCA. In 2011 there were 4,059 juvenile detainees; in 2013 this figure rose to 21,537 (UTEC 2013, UNHCR 2014). Surveys reflect violence, gang pressure and insecurity as factors for child migration (UTEC El Salvador 2013, UNHCR Children on the Run 2014). Boys fear for their lives and girls fear rape or disappearance (State University of San Diego and University of California in Santa Barbara, Elizabeth G. Kennedy 2014).

Women are victims of violence inside and outside the home. Some are exposed to high levels of sexual violence and physical and psychological abuse, which most often goes untreated.

**The Challenge of Measuring the Humanitarian Impact of OSV**

While underreporting is a key challenge to identifying the humanitarian impact of OSV, there are also many other obstacles to calculating the magnitude of the least visible humanitarian impacts of OSV.

One of the biggest difficulties is finding indicators that measure specific impacts of OSV. Beyond the most obvious (homicide, injuries due to violence, criminal acts linked to OSV, members of criminal groups, maps of violent areas), little information is specific or exclusive to OSV impact.

It could be possible to make an approximation through the intersection of a dataset, variables, or proxy indicators and geo-referenced systems (e.g. cross-referencing maps of areas with high violence and maps with socio-economic data, morbidity, or rates of schooling).

Information from opinion and victim surveys can be used as indicative in calculating levels of unreported crime or the number of victims of the most invisible impacts. Data from representative surveys with a high level of confidence can be used in combination with the population census (or population projections for that particular year) to approximate the number of people who might be affected.
3. SECTORAL IMPACT, THEMATIC APPROACH

HEALTH

EFFECTS

- Injuries from knives and firearms
- Loss of/reduction in community human resources (perpetrators and/or victims are mainly young men)
- Sexual assault: psychological and sexual/reproductive health problems (unwanted pregnancies, unsafe abortions, STDs, etc.)
- Increased health expenditure for families of OSV victims (in-debtedness)
- Deterioration of health status due to restricted access to healthcare (physical, territorial, economic, etc.)
- High levels of drop-out/discontinuation of medical and rehabilitation treatments
- Aggravation of chronic illnesses and disabilities

- Increased violent and aggressive behaviour
- Increase in addictions
- Depression, anxiety, distress, and post-traumatic stress
- Grief
- Insecurity and impunity increase fear, stress, and social mistrust in the community

- Increased health system costs
- Prioritisation of OSV victims for human and financial resources (emergency services overwhelmed by violence-related demand) to the detriment of other services
- Delays in care for ordinary patients and non-emergency surgical operations
- Increased need for war surgery specialists, mental health and first aid
- Limited access to high-risk areas for emergency services. Also for community health and vector control teams to fight malaria, dengue, etc.
- Low motivation and atmosphere of fear among healthcare staff (increased absenteeism, transfer requests, lack of coverage of health positions in high-risk areas, migration of health staff)
- Deterioration of health conditions in prisons

PROBLEMAS

DETERIORATION IN PHYSICAL HEALTH

DETERIORATION IN MENTAL HEALTH

IMPACT ON HEALTHCARE SYSTEMS

LETHAL CONSEQUENCES: HOMICIDE, SUICIDE

NON-LETHAL CONSEQUENCES: PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH, AND HEALTHCARE SYSTEMS

PRIMARY CAUSES

Extortion, torture, threats
High proliferation of and use of firearms and high-calibre weapons
Sexual violence
Physical and psychological violence
Confrontations among gangs and/or with State security forces
Gangs and criminal groups, territorial control, invisible borders, curfews, check points

SECONDARY CAUSES

Gangs, organised crime, cíclaves
High levels of domestic violence
Limited or deteriorated infrastructures
Existing structural weaknesses of the healthcare system (lack of adequate financial and human resources, limited mental health services, and limited integrated services for victims of sexual violence, etc.)
Corruption
Poverty, inequality
Abuse, accidents, violence in the migration routes
Impunity
Structural weaknesses in penitentiary centres, including in healthcare
OSV and the impacts of territorial control affect the physical, mental, sexual, and reproductive health and wellbeing of communities. This is especially true for those who experience elevated levels of violence and limited access to medical services as a result of structural deficiencies in the health system and limits on movement due to territorial control.

The most obvious and visible impact of OSV is death and injury (often from firearms) sustained by members of criminal groups and gangs and by state security forces (police, army, etc.). Civilians may be directly targeted for violence, but may also be caught in the crossfire, suffering collateral damage from confrontations between gangs and/or between gangs and state security forces.

Existing structural problems in the healthcare systems, which already provide only limited services to the population, are magnified by the enormous pressure placed on emergency services to save the lives of victims of OSV. The reallocation of specialised, usually expensive, care to OSV victims monopolises available human and financial resources to the detriment of other types of healthcare.

Assessments of the availability of and access to healthcare in Guatemala, Honduras, and El Salvador reflect the fact that violence interferes with essential healthcare services such that, in certain urban areas, many critical needs of the population go unattended due to high levels of insecurity. This creates a vacuum in service provision with existing healthcare structures unable to meet the demand for services (IRIN 2013).

Invisible borders also prevent vector control and community preventive health teams, who often work door to door, from accessing areas of high risk, increasing the vulnerability of affected populations.

Child vaccination campaigns, however, do not seem to be affected by limits on access. Key health sector informants indicated that there is awareness of the benefits of vaccination across the NTCA. During the conflict in El Salvador, for example, both sides would cease aggression to allow UNICEF child vaccination campaigns to be implemented.

Many civilian survivors of OSV do not seek medical or psychological care, afraid of their aggressors and unable to cross the multiple barriers to access to healthcare. Fearful of potential consequences to their own security, medical staff are often reluctant to treat victims of violence (MSF Urban Survivors).

Direct Impacts
Physical Health
External Injuries
External injuries are a main cause of mortality and morbidity globally and represent a considerable demand on human and financial resources in the healthcare systems of countries with high rates of violence and limited resources. Injuries produced by weapons (especially firearms), sexual violence, and other trauma leave victims in need of immediate attention and longer term physical and mental aftercare (PAHO 2002).

In 2013, 15,328 homicides were reported in the NTCA. Homicides recorded by country are: 6,757 homicides in Honduras; 6,072 in Guatemala; and 2,499 in El Salvador. To these figures should be added the number of unavailable and unrecorded violent deaths and the number of disappeared who have been found dead (INACIF, IUDPAS, IML, 2014).

### 2004–2013 HOMICIDE TRENDS IN THE NTCA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HONDURAS</th>
<th>GUATEMALA</th>
<th>EL SALVADOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Rate</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>3,639</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>4,507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>3,212</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>5,338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>3,118</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>5,885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>3,588</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5,781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>4,455</td>
<td>60.8</td>
<td>6,292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>5,280</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>6,498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>6,236</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>5,960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>7,104</td>
<td>91.4</td>
<td>5,681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>7,172</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>6,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>6,757</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>6,072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>50,561</strong></td>
<td><strong>66.88</strong></td>
<td><strong>58,039</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own calculations using information from IUDPAS, PNC (Honduras); IEPADES, INACIF, PNC (Guatemala); IUDOP, PNC/IML/FGR (El Salvador) and UNODC (information for 2004-2012)

In 2013, there were 41,780 medico-legal assessments in the NTCA for external injuries:
- 9,933 prosecutorial charging documents, evaluated with regard to injuries in Honduras in 2013, show that the use of violence affects both sexes proportionally (55.4% of cases men, 44.5% women) (IUDPAS).
- In El Salvador, 6,061 medico-legal assessments of injuries due to violence were reported (61.9% of cases men, 37.2% women, and 52 cases where the patient’s sex was not documented) (Instituto de Medicina Legal 2014).
- In Guatemala\(^2\), there were 25,786 medico-legal assessments (11,121 performed on men and 14,665 on women) (INACIF 2014). The ratio of women’s external injuries, compared with men, increases significantly from age ten (even when excluding external injuries caused by domestic abuse) (INACIF, IUDPAS, IML, 2014).
- The most vulnerable age groups are the same in all NTCA countries and comprise people aged 14-30 years (INACIF, IUDPAS, IML, 2014).

The lethal effect of gunshot wounds is high (especially involving multiple bullet impacts or when a high-calibre weapon is used), and immediate access to emergency services is vital for survival. Delays in qualified medical assistance often mean the difference between life and death for many victims or lead to chronic problems and disability. Firearm victims constitute the majority of patients in intensive care units of public hospitals, to the detriment of accident victims or people with other problems.

Deterioration in the health of chronically ill people and delays in surgical operations that are often set aside with the arrival of seriously wounded people requiring immediate operation, are further impacts of OSV. Patients often abandon treatment and rehabilitation programmes due to cost and limits on access to treatment. Access to healthcare and emergency services is conditioned by invisible borders and “curfews” in areas controlled by gangs and criminal groups, especially at night.

**Health on the Migrant Trail (see also forced displacement)**

In 2013, Doctors without Borders Spain\(^3\) (MSF-E) carried out 11,323 medical and mental health consultations among the Central American migrant population in transit through Mexico. During these consultations, 1,389 patients were treated for trauma, 879 patients for mental health problems, and 22 patients were victims of sexual violence. The main morbidities treated were skin diseases, acute respiratory infections, musculoskeletal diseases, gastrointestinal disorders, injury due to intentional physical violence, headache, sun exposure/dehydration, and a small number of acute diarrheal diseases.

In 2014, 43% of migrant patients treated by MSF in Mexico indicated having suffered from health problems prior to receiving aid. Of these, 60% said they had not received medical treatment in their home countries. The main reasons given were that they did not know where to go (42%), they felt it was unnecessary (20%), they had no money to pay for treatment/medicine (10%), they were fearful of arrest (7%), and they did not believe they had the right to be treated (5%) (MSF España 2014).

**Sexual and Reproductive Health**

- Levels of sexual violence are comparable to those in war zones. In 2013, there were 12,252 medical-legal evaluations for reported sex crimes\(^4\): 2,561 in Honduras (IUDPAS 2013); 6,552 in Guatemala (PDH 2013); and 3,139 in El Salvador (Medicina Legal 2013). These totals exclude unreported cases of sexual violence.
- Survivors of sexual violence receive scant support, and most are unaware of how to access assistance and treatment. Few hospitals offer treatment that incorporates physical, psychological, and prophylactic aspects. A holistic response to treating survivors of sexual violence is vital to reduce the risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases, unwanted pregnancies, and clandestine abortions. In Guatemala, MSF helped create a medical treatment protocol for victims of sexual abuse through support to the Public Ministry (MSF Urban Survivors).
- The representative survey carried out by MSF in Guatemala in 2011 among individuals aged 14-54 in two areas with high rates of violence showed that 25% of the adolescents (aged 14 to 20) had suffered sexual abuse during the previous year and that 6.3% of the women raped had become pregnant (MSF Urban Survivors).
- From 2008 to mid-2012, MSF and the Public Ministry gave medical and social aid to 3,617 victims of sexual violence and carried out 11,000 follow-up consultations to monitor prophylactic treatment, reinforce psychological coping mechanisms, and social support (MSF Urban Survivors).

\(^2\) The high number of reported injuries in Guatemala may be due to its larger population compared to the other two countries.

\(^3\) 396 surveys were administered to migrants treated by MSF-E between July 17, 2013 and February 28, 2014. The data is not a representative sample of the entire migrant population, but it provides an indication of overall findings. The results have not yet been published.

\(^4\) Assessments for determining sexual violence have been conducted by national institutes of forensic medicine.
Disability

OSV causes disabilities due to injury sustained compounded by delays in seeking medical treatment and poor levels of post-injury rehabilitation. There is little information on disability caused by OSV.

- Of the 9,500 injuries reported in 2011 in Honduras, one of every five led to a severe disability (IUDPAS 2012).

- Disability caused by violence or accident during cross-border travel is well known (for example, those caused by la Bestia (The Beast), the name given by the migrants to the Mexican train that is also known as The Death Train). The Association of Disabled Returning Migrants in Honduras reports that there are 300–450 returned migrants with disabilities (AMIREDIS). Returning migrants with disabilities often need physical and psychosocial support, and targeted opportunities for reintegration into a productive life.

- The Red Cross has stated that their assistance programme for disabled returnees from the migrant trail includes 200 people in Honduras.

- In November 2010, Mexican health authorities estimated that, in the first 11 months of 2010, between 300 and 350 people from Central and South America suffered serious falls or loss of limbs during train journeys.

Mental Health

Gaps in mental and psychological health services are the biggest shortfalls of the health systems in the three countries. In 2012, only 1-5% of the total health budget was earmarked for mental health (Dept of Health, MSPAS, MINSAL), significantly limiting the ability to respond to the considerable need for mental health and psychosocial treatment generated directly or indirectly by the violence.

Data shared by the Red Cross (in El Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras) on their psychosocial programmes in high-risk areas shows that the most common mental health effects are depression, angst, anxiety, post-traumatic stress, and constant worry. Poor psychosocial health affects victims of violence of all ages. Guidance and accompaniment during grieving are key support interventions along with psychological care during time of crisis and to mitigate high-risk behaviour (interviews with CRH, CRG, CRES, CRE, IFRC).

In Honduras, depression, anxiety, panic attacks, suicide attempts, and psychological problems from domestic abuse are the disorders most attended to in the Mario Mendoza psychiatric hospital. An average of 200 people are in the psychiatric hospital, many more than the 70 beds and available medication allow. An increase of mental illness in the high-risk departments of Atlántida, Cortés, and Choluteca has also been reported.

Impact on Health Systems

Rise in Health Costs

According to statistics from the Escuela de Tegucigalpa hospital in Honduras, over 2,700 persons were treated for gunshot wounds in 2013 (seven to eight patients per day). Surgical services were attending to one gunshot victim every three hours, totaling 4,398 wounded treated between 2012 and 2013. In addition, there were 2,384 patients with wounds caused by knives or blunt instruments. In total, emergency services treated more than 6,000 victims of violence. The hospital spends between 5,000 and 10,000 lempiras (USD 250–500) per day to treat each patient with OSV-caused injuries. Annually, the hospital spends some 60 million lempiras (approximately USD 3 million) to treat these patients, a figure which excludes the cost of rehabilitation and treatment of other fractures (interviews hospital Escuela, Tegucigalpa). Data from the two main hospitals in the capital of Guatemala, Roosevelt and San Juan de Dios, both resource centres for emergencies and external injuries, indicates that the most frequent needs are treatments for gunshot wounds, burns, and wounds caused by sharp objects. In 2012, Roosevelt hospital emergency services treated 34,929 patients for external wounds: blunt objects (22,436), fractures (5,212), multiple trauma (3,305), bullet wounds (890), and stabblings (462). According to hospital sources, each consultation costs over 2,000 QZ (approx. USD 250) (SIGLO 21). In

---

8 Drawings done by children that live in high conflict areas are similar to those done by children in war zones. They depict the dead, blood, destruction, weapons, and murders.
2013, injuries caused by blunt trauma, guns, and knives represented 96% of the five most treated injuries by Roosevelt hospital emergency services (SIGLO 21).

The administrator of emergency surgeries at Rosales hospital in El Salvador said that victims tend to have multiple injuries. Rosales Hospital treated 359 patients with multiple injuries (27% of the total cases reported by the Ministry of Health). The victims, often seriously wounded, had wounds to the head, chest, and stomach, which required urgent surgery, taking up the majority of intensive care services. 82% of these injuries were gunshot wounds, and 16 in every 100 victims treated died. Victims who survive gunshot wounds tend to suffer neurological consequences (paraplegia or hemiplegia), and amputations are frequent, resulting in disability and ensuing rehabilitation needs (interviews with MINSAL and Hospital Rosales).

In 2013, the El Salvador Ministry of Health (MINSAL) spent USD 2.3 million treating 1,324 patients (USD 106,000 more than in 2012). This is a large expense to the detriment of other patients and preventative healthcare services and increases the workload for healthcare workers. From a public health and cost perspective, treatment of injuries from OSV is a serious problem for El Salvador, demanding high levels of funding and resources (interviews with MINSAL and Hospital Rosales).

**Shortages/New Hardships**
- Overburdened emergency services due to the quantity and seriousness of injuries caused by OSV.
- Shortage of regional medical personnel specialised in war wounds and surgery.
- Insufficient personnel coverage at primary health centres in high risk-areas. Positions often remain unfilled or are held by trainee medical students.
- Shortage of emergency personnel and those with first aid knowledge in high-conflict areas where access to emergency teams is limited. Ambulance and first aid services are mostly made up of trained volunteers (e.g. Red Cross, firefighters). There is a need for specialised medical teams that can adequately treat injured parties *in situ.*

---

8 In cases of domestic violence and attempted suicide, patients generally presented with individual wounds.
- Using private vehicles or taxis to travel where ambulances may not have access.
- Health workers avoid threats and intimidation by prioritising services to members of or people connected to the gangs, whether or not they are emergencies.
- Increased police and/or private security in hospitals and health centres.
- Use of police or military escorts to gain access to high-risk areas (vaccinations, vector control campaigns, etc.).
- Not conducting fumigation or prevention campaigns in violent areas.
- Not updating epidemiological data from high-risk areas due to lack of control and access.
- Labour absenteeism.

**Information Gaps**
- Underreported or unrecorded estimations of homicides, disappearances, injuries, disabilities, sexual violence, etc.
- Number of OSV victims that have received psychological care.
- Magnitude of the mental health problem and main patient profiles.
- Number of injured by sex, age, type of weapon, municipality.
- Number and profile of especially vulnerable persons who abandon treatment.
- Number of attacks on hospital centres and/or health workers.
- Number of available comprehensive points of service that assist victims of sexual violence.
- Mapping of areas without access to emergency services or health centres.
- Mapping of areas with high incidence of injury and sexual abuse.
- Mapping of mental health centres at the municipal level.

**Indicators**

**Existing** (indicators available nationally, by department, municipality)
- Number of OSV-related deaths (by gender, age, zone, cause, weapon, and occupation of victim).
- Homicide rate (by type, national, department, municipality, and neighbourhood)
- Number of medical-legal assessments of victims
- Number of claims and convictions of criminal acts against persons
- Number of injured people treated by emergency services (type of weapon)

---

7 Some indicators are disaggregated by gender, age, zone, cause of death/type of injury, type of weapon, occupation, etc.). However, there is no integrated system for compiling and consolidating data and various sources (government, policies, medical-legal, hospitals, clinics, etc.) must be consulted. Making comparisons may be difficult due to the discrepancy of data and the slowness of the justice system, since people may be jailed preventively for years.

8 These indicators primarily measure levels of criminality with potential physical and mental impact on victims and the population.

9 Data exists, but is not consolidated. There are various official sources for health, healthcare providers and emergency services (Red Cross, firefighters, MSF, etc.).

10 Refers to indicators which exist but which could be verified by our consulting team, indicators for which there is information, or indicators which may be developed (qualitative/quantitative) to measure OSV.

11 Injuries en route may be caused by violence (for example, criminal groups that control the trains push migrants from the trains when they do not pay additional money demanded).

12 Key informants have reported that some healthcare staff vacancies remain unstaffed, or, depending on the zone, are filled by medical trainees.
FORCED DISPLACEMENT, ASYLUM REQUESTS, REFUGEES, AND MIGRATORY FLOWS (ILLEGAL AND DEPORTED)

EFFECTS

- Family break-up
- Loss of human resources (most youth, productive, and qualified people leave the country)
- Increased household expenditure and debts (to cover basic needs, displacement and new start costs)
- Loss of physical capital (houses, possessional, social capital (social networks), and financial capital)
- Lost livelihoods and income-generating activities
- School drop-out
- Physical and mental health deterioration
- Increased vulnerability of IDPs due to invisibility of the problem and lack of official recognition and support
- Limited or no access to basic services (health, protection, education, etc.)
- Multiple internal displacement and migration attempts by the same person or family exacerbate vulnerability

- Increased number of irregular migrants due to OSV
- Increased number of asylum seekers and refugees
- Increased number of deportees, from Mexico and USA especially (increased vulnerability upon return)
- Increased number of unaccompanied minors on the migration route
- High levels of debt (payments of coyotes, travel costs, additional fees, and extortion)
- Limited or no access to basic services (health, protection) while en route
- Increased risk of abuse, kidnapping, extortion on the migration route
- Forced recruitment by criminal gangs (drug traffickers, human trafficking, prostitution, etc.)
- Violence and sexual abuse exposure (increased STDs, unwanted pregnancies, etc.)
- Accidents, mutilations, disability
- Abuse and violence in detention centres

PROBLEMS

INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT

- Family
- Individual

MIGRATION FLOWS

PRIMARY CAUSES

- High levels of violence
- Sexual violence
- Family break-up
- Extortion, threats
- Forcible recruitment
- Confrontations over territorial control
- Low confidence in the Security forces and protection and justice systems
- Houses requested/taken by gangs and criminal groups (as warehouses, operational centres or torture houses casas locas)
- Invisible borders/territorial controls/limitations of movement and access
- OSV negative effect on livelihoods opportunities
- Adolescents required as "girlfriends" or partners by gang members

SECONDARY CAUSES

- Gangs, cíclás, organised crime
- Increased proliferation and use of guns (legal and illegal)
- Corruption
- Involvement of state security forces in criminal activities
- Inequality, poverty
- Drug trafficking at different levels
- High levels of domestic violence
- Impunity
- Lack of opportunities, limited access to education and technical training
- Weak structural and limited resources for programmes supporting informal, victims or witness protection, and social reintegration of gang members and other prisoners
The prevalence of violence in the NTCA and the most organised forms adopted by criminals are leading to surge in involuntary migration, or forced displacement. Forced displacement can be understood as the pressure on households to change their place of residence and main economic activity because of threats to life, livelihoods, health, and freedom.

In the NTCA, forced displacement is directly affected by OSV or, in the case of El Salvador, by generalised violence (PNUD 2013). Specifically, people are fleeing their communities because they refuse to sell their land to drug traffickers and want to avoid death threats being carried out. They are further seeking to keep their children safe from gang recruitment and violence and to free themselves from extortion by gangs (UNHCR 2014).

Violence perpetrated for criminal reasons and not necessarily because of ideology is a main cause of displacement (IDMC) and reason for illegal immigration by adults, youth, and children. Data trends show increasing numbers of unaccompanied minors migrating north. The numbers of minors apprehended at the US border increased alarmingly between 2011, with 4,059 minors detained, and 2013, when 21,537 minors were detained (UTEC 2013, UNHCR 2014). More than 57,000 unaccompanied children, mostly from Central America, have been caught entering the country illegally from October 2013 to June 2014; President Obama has asked for USD 3.7 billion in emergency funding to provide what he has called an "urgent humanitarian solution". Federal authorities are struggling to find more cost-effective housing, medical care, counselling and legal services for the undocumented minors (AFP 17/07/2014).

Surveys that reflect violence, pressure from gangs, and insecurity as factors for migration include UTEC’s Migrant Profile El Salvador, 2013. The UTEC survey (unrepresentative) interviewed 38 minors who migrated, 7.9% due to threats from gangs and 2.6% because of forceful recruitment by gangs. It also identified 824 adults, 3.6% of whom migrated due to threats from gangs and 4.1% due to crime. UNHCR’s Children on the Run 2014 (unrepresentative samples by country) found that 66% of 104 minors from El Salvador cited violence from organised criminals as the primary cause for migration; 20% of 100 minors from Guatemala identified general violence as the main cause; and 44% of 98 minors from Honduras had been threatened or victimised by criminals (UNHCR 2014).

There is a clear link between increased violence in recent years and the significant increase (130% between 2009 and 2013) in refugee and asylum applications (31% between 2010 and 2012) by NTCA nationals (UNHCR 2014, preliminary results not yet published). Many NTCA residents are fleeing their countries in the face of threats from organised crime, gangs, and drug dealers.

Since 2011, there has also been a 46% increase in NTCA deportees, numbering 185,000 in 2013. This data corroborates the trend in people crossing borders to flee violence in the NTCA (UNHCR 2014, preliminary results not yet published).

Displaced persons are extremely vulnerable due to the loss of physical protection and livelihoods as well as exposure to new risks in their search for a safer place. Invisibility increases their vulnerability, and continuous displacement due to fear limits further their access to basic services.

The flows of forced internal displacement are easily confused with other types of internal migration or with Central American transmigration. All these factors make it difficult to identify and design appropriate protection plans for the displaced population (Rubio 2013).

The humanitarian impact of this crisis in the NTCA remains hidden and unquantified, with insufficient quantitative evidence or records to permit accurate calculation of the scale; trends, and resulting needs for protection (UNHCR/JIPS 2014). Contrary to most traditional armed conflict, which produces visible and large-scale population displacement, the NTCA issue of forced migration has retained a low profile and is seldom reported by the media.

**Direct Impact**

Access to and protection of basic rights, beginning with the right to life and physical safety and including the rights to health, education, and livelihood, are threatened when people must move to escape violence. This creates invisible victims whose specific needs for protection are frequently overlooked.

**Internal Displacement**

Forced displacement is one of the most significant results of increased violence in the region and possibly one of the most hidden, because of underreporting of claims due to fear of being located, fear of reprisal, and mistrust of authorities. Displacement is
characterised by small-scale movement of individuals and families who must abandon their homes and neighbourhoods quickly and quietly, frequently fleeing during the night due to threats and violence. As there are no official records of these persons, it is difficult to provide evidence on the scope of the problem, though interviews and data from the three countries indicate that it is a widespread daily occurrence.

Eviction and displacement also occurs due to social conflict, natural resource exploitation, and mega-projects. In Guatemala, conflict between peasants/indigenous communities and mega-projects also leads to displacement. PDH reports displacement of communities by energy production or natural resources exploitation mega-projects (PDH 2013), examples of the non-urban impact of OSV.

The problem of displacement due to territorial control linked to drug trafficking organisations and routes was raised by reliable sources in Guatemala and Honduras, in the Petén and Bajo Aguán areas.

Displacement as a Protective Strategy
For individuals: Most common in cases of direct threats to specific persons, due to fear of forced recruitment of children and youth or potential sexual abuse of adolescents by gangs.

For families: In case of failure to pay amounts extorted, or threats to businesses and vendors, when houses are “claimed” by criminal groups from families living in areas with invisible but disputed borders.

Multiple Displacement
Multiple displacement of the same person or family due to lack of safety at different locations. Repeated dependence on family or friends exhausts supports, increasing vulnerability and need for protection. In the IUDOP 2012 survey, 2.1% of respondents said they had changed residences due to threats and 37% said they had moved two or more times (IUDOP 2012).

Homes Taken Forcibly by Gangs and Organised Crime
Entire families are forced to abandon their homes when these groups want them for strategic reasons, such as potential as arms or drugs warehouses, operations centres, or for use as torture facilities, known as “destroyer or crazy houses” (Proceso Digital 2012/ El Mundo 2011). In January 2014, there were reports of eight “crazy houses” discovered in a neighbourhood of El Salvador. Workers in the area said that 22 families had been displaced as a result (Proceso Digital 2014). 179 homes/buildings were recovered by the police in November and December 2013 (Infosur 2014). However, they are frequently not reoccupied for fear of reprisal or because of the destruction caused to them prior to their recovery.

Basic Rights: Health, Education, and Livelihood
Direct impact of basic rights due to displacement and abandonment of homes. Access to basic rights may be impeded, creating new needs for protection and support.

Gaps in Access to Justice
Displaced families lack access to justice and tend to not report violence due to fear and lack of confidence in the authorities. There are serious weaknesses in witness protection programmes and in investigation and conviction processes.

Magnitude of Internal Displacement
Evidence on the magnitude of internal displacement across the NTCA is incomplete due to a lack of reporting, limited official records, and few organisations which support internally displaced people (IDPs).

Findings from interviews conducted in the three countries, triangulated through numerous qualitative reports, indicated that internal displacement is a household phenomenon: nearly all the interviewees reported personally knowing displaced individuals and families.

A 2012 Latin American (LAPOP) survey included the question “Have you ever felt the need to change neighbourhood for fear of violence?” Results show that 15% of the people from Honduras surveyed answered yes, 9.91% of people from Guatemala and 15.64 % of people from Salvador (LAPOP 2012). Though the survey results do not reflect incidence of actual displacement, they do give a sense of the perception of the population’s need or desire to move due to insecurity in each of the three countries (LAPOP 2012):
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population projection 2012</th>
<th>Felt the need to change neighbourhood due to crime (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>8,385,072</td>
<td>15.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>15,073,375</td>
<td>9.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>6,251,495</td>
<td>15.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29,709,942</td>
<td>13.54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: LAPOP/INE/INE/DIGESTYC

El Salvador

In 2012, an opinion survey on a representative sample of 1,268 people was carried out and included a specific question on forced movement. In response, 2.1% of participants said they had changed their place of residence due to threats with 37% having changed two or more times (IUDOP 2012). By extrapolating the resulting percentage from the survey (representative, with a reliability index of 95%) to the totality of the population of El Salvador in 2012, it can be asserted that 2.1% of a population of 6.2 million may have been forced to change their place of residence internally due to the threat of violence (IUDOP 2012).

Honduras

Based on analysis of secondary data about internal migration (Permanent Survey of Households) and of violence and crime rates (Public Ministry Databases), evidence was found that indicates the existence of internal movement:

- Roughly 1% of the surveyed population that has migrated internally gave insecurity as the reason. Extrapolating this to the totality of the survey, roughly 30,000 people were forcibly displaced in 2013. This proportion no doubt underestimates the potential magnitude of internal migration in Honduras, since neither the sample nor the collection instruments in these general surveys are designed to capture this phenomenon (UNHCR/JIPS 2014 unpublished).

- A positive correlation between internal migration and violence and crime-rate indicators in the municipality of origin was observed as varying from 16%-33% between 2007 and 2013 (UNHCR/JIPS 2014 unpublished).

Migration Flows

Most people who migrate across borders due to OSV, and who could therefore seek asylum, do so in an irregular fashion. As a result, it is possible for the migrant to be intercepted and deported or repatriated to their country of origin without receiving help or protection against the causes that provoked their illegal crossing of the border in the first place. Thus, a new phase of victimisation and vulnerability is initiated which often leads to further cycles of displacement and protection violations (UNHCR/JIPS 2014 unpublished).

Migration Flows Central Region, 2013 - Costa Rica

Colour chart: Homicide rate per 100,000 inhabitants; Arrows: Solid red: Migratory flow for NTCA. Broken red: Migratory flow for South Americans and extra continentals. Yellow: South – South migratory flow. Blue: Deportations and repatriations

Source: CIDEHUM 2013


14 A recent study statistically verified that victimisation due to crime and the perception of insecurity among Central Americans plays a key role in decision-making on migration (see Hiskey, Malone, & Orces (2014), Violence and Migration in Central America, Americas Barometer Insights, Number 101). Information from interviews, case studies, and press reports further supports these findings (see CIDEHUM (2012), Desplazamiento Forzado y Necesidades de Protección, generados por nuevas formas de Violencia y Criminalidad en Centroamérica (Forcible displacement and the need for protection, generated by new forms of violence and criminality in Central America).

Irregular Migration as Protection Strategy

Violence is a primary reason for irregular migration in adults, young people, and children (UTEC 2013, UNHCR 2014, Kennedy 2014).

A 2014 study shows in its preliminary results that of 319 interviewed children from El Salvador, 60% said they were fleeing violence and threats from gangs. Of these, most are child or adolescent girls (61%) who fear rape, sexual abuse, and disappearance; 60% are boys who fear execution for refusing to join gangs (Kennedy 2014).

Increase in Irregular Migration

The number of migrants apprehended at the US border who declared they feared for their lives in their country of origin increased from 5,369 in 2009 to 36,174 in 2013. El Salvador, Honduras, Guatemala, and Mexico represent 70% of this increase (UNHCR 2014). From 2012 to 2013, the number of migrants repatriated to Guatemala via air increased 24% (DGM 2013). In Honduras from 2011 to 2012, an increase of 9,825 was registered (Migración 2013), and in El Salvador, 2012 saw 31,811 repatriated people (Migración 2013).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MIGRATION PROMPTED BY VIOLENCE. MSF Survey among migrant patients attended in Mexico, by country of origin</th>
<th>Honduras</th>
<th>El Salvador</th>
<th>Guatemala</th>
<th>Colombia</th>
<th>Nicaragua</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>64 (32%)</td>
<td>42 (47%)</td>
<td>13 (15%)</td>
<td>1 (100%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>120 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MSF Spain 2014, Migrant healthcare attention programme, Mexico.

Numbers of unaccompanied minors migrating irregularly are also increasing. In March 2014, the National Institute for Migration rescued 370 migrant children in one week who were passing through Mexico; 163 were travelling alone. Authorities assumed they had been abandoned by human traffickers (INM 2014).

Vulnerabilities Associated with Cross-border Movement and Irregular Migration

- On route, migrants suffer recurring violations of human rights, including: abuse, aggression, extortion, assault, and abandonment. They are also victims of more serious crimes such as kidnapping, recruitment, human trafficking, and murder.

- The National Commission of Mexico has registered the abuses migrants have suffered when passing through the country due to actions by organised criminals, who enjoy the tolerance, acquiescence, and participation of immigration authorities and police.

- Between six and eight in every ten women experience sexual violence during migration (AI 2010).

- Migrants also suffer abuse when arriving at their destination (e.g. excessive force from the police) in internment centres (e.g. psychological violence, incomprehension, lack of knowledge of rights, abuse, etc.) and in the repatriation process (returning to a threatening environment, meeting debts acquired to pay for the trip, etc.).

- Those most vulnerable to organised crime are unaccompanied minors, women travelling alone, and female heads of household with small children (UNHCR-CIDEHUM 2012).

- Serious mental and physical health problems.

Asylum Seekers and Refugees

According to UNHCR, a significant increase has been observed in the number of Central Americans asking for asylum or seeking refuge since 2008, fleeing their countries due to the threat of organised crime, gangs, and drug trafficking. This coincides with the peaks of fatality of the attacks and the increase in the number of homicides.

According to preliminary 2013 data from UNHCR, 18,577 refugees were registered as being of Central American origin, with 6,366 pending requests. However, these numbers only represent a fraction of the population that has been forced to flee and requires protection (UNHCR 2014).

In 2013, 1,448 asylum requests were recognised as refugees, 47% of whom were from El Salvador, 36% from Guatemala, and 17% from Honduras. Of these refugees, 75% are in the US, 14% in Canada, 5% in Mexico, 2% in Panama, 1% in Costa Rica, and 3% in other countries. There has been a 130% increase in asylum requests by people coming from NTCA countries compared to 2009. The rate of requests has increased from 18% in 2006 to approximately 35% in 2013 and 2014. The US and Canada remain the primary countries where people seek asylum. Although, in 2014, one in every 12 migrants is requesting protection from Mesoamerican countries (UNHCR 2014).
A study of migrants from the NTCA passing through Mexico\textsuperscript{16} revealed that most were from Honduras (50.3\%), 9\% were children, 48\% aged between 19 and 29, and 7\% women.

Generalised violence in Honduras, El Salvador, and Guatemala has become the second cause for migration with rates that vary from 3\% in Guatemala, 6\% in Honduras, to 12\% in El Salvador. Of the preceding percentages, in El Salvador 49\% claimed persecution by organised crime as a specific reason and 38\% mentioned generalised violence. The proportions leap to 70\% and 25\% in Honduras, and 62\% and 21\% in Guatemala.

**Indirect Impact**

**Breach of the Community Fabric.**

Displacement contributes to individualisation, community and family separation, fear, and social apathy. It provokes isolation and an increase in vulnerability of IDPs who lose both social and state support and find themselves in greater need of protection.

**Physical and Psychosocial Health Problems that Manifest in the Long-term.**

Displacement causes trauma, depression, anxiety, anguish, physical and mental deterioration, treatment interruption, and inattention to health problems or conditions with long-term negative impacts.

**Family Break-up**

Family break-up can lead to replacement of family links with gangs becoming the new “family”. This is especially common at early ages, leading to children becoming lifetime members of gangs who offer no option to leave them except via religious conversion or death should the gang be abandoned.

**Distrust.**

On behalf of the displaced families towards their new environment, and vice versa. Often families feel persecuted or watched.

**Disappearances**

Many migrants go missing on route, some are kidnapped and will only be released on payment of extortion, others are lost to trafficking or are killed and their bodies never

\textsuperscript{16} Data from a currently unpublished preliminary report, carried out in Mexico in 2013 by the Red de Documentación de las Organizaciones Defensoras de Migrantes en México and based on 9,313 entries from seven refuges in Mexico, indicates that most migrants were from Honduras (50.3\%).
found. These people are seen as commodities by criminal groups that control migration routes.

**Coping Strategies**
- Search for new work, social, and personal opportunities.
- Take on formal and/or informal loans.
- Payment for services of a coyote, a person who guides the migrant in the migratory route (often changing in each country): normally paid in advance at considerable cost.
- Abandonment of jobs, businesses, assets, and income-generating activities.
- Dropping out of school and absenteeism.
- Voluntary or forced use of birth control during the migration route to avoid unwanted pregnancy\(^\text{17}\).
- Support to family or friend in areas far away from the expelling neighbourhood.
- Sharing homes and resources with IDP families.
- Seeking support from grassroot organisations such as the church, NGOs, Red Cross, who provide limited services for migrants and/or returnees (shelters, calls, food, and transportation).
- Non-reporting, "see, hear, and say nothing".
- Appeal to programmes for recovering homes taken by the police.
- Requests for support from human rights organisations or UNHCR.

**Information Gaps**
- Lack of urban and rural systems for the identification and registration of IDPs, irregular immigrants and asylum-seekers.
- Mapping and identification of supporting organisations and emergency humanitarian assistance for urban IDPs.
- Information on key humanitarian needs of IDPs.
- Official, NGO, CBO, and community information on national and international mechanisms for the protection of IDPs, irregular immigrants and asylum-seekers.

\(^{17}\) Sources indicate that the coyote (male or female) often gives birth-control injections to prevent unwanted pregnancies. This is done at additional charge and usually accepted or requested by many women who take this route. In other cases, they are administered by the coyote to avoid problems during the route.

\(^{18}\) This refers to existing indicators, but which the consulting team was unable to verify, indicators for which there is information, or indicators that could be created (regarding quality/quantity) to evaluate the OSV phenomenon.

**Indicators**

### Existing
- Number of irregular immigrants returned to NTCA countries by land and air (disaggregation according to sex, age, unaccompanied status etc.).
- Number of illegal immigrants stopped at the border between Mexico and the US (disaggregation according to sex, age, unaccompanied status etc.).
- % of people who indicate their intention of immigrating.
- % of people who have moved because of violence or insecurity.
- Prices of human trafficking services and seasonal variations, or due to increased risk along the route.
- Number of dead or missing persons on the immigration route.
- Perception surveys (LAPOP, INE, IUDOP) where questions are asked about immigration or displacement caused by violence.
- An econometric study, which is being prepared by UNHCR in Honduras.

### To Create or Adapt\(^{18}\)
- Displaced families and individuals at an urban and peri-urban levels.
- Number and profile of persons displaced due to mega-projects.
- Profile of population at risk.
- Number of children who left or started school halfway through the course because of displacement or immigration.
- Number of women among the returnees or deportees (disaggregated according to demographic indicators and vulnerabilities).
- Number of massacres, kidnappings, recruitment of immigrants on the migrant route.
- El Salvador: number of vacant homes managed by the Social Housing Fund in high risk areas/number of dwellings exchanged by the Social Housing Fund when there are allegations of violence, after checking with a police report (as a proxy indicator).
The most direct, visible, and evident effects of OSV on education are related to access restrictions, a rise in risks and threats to teachers and pupils at school, and the loss of school hours. Abandoning studies is a main defence mechanism adopted by families, and especially adolescents, to avoid the risk of forced recruitment or sexual violence en route to or at school. A significant decline in young people in secondary education and professional training was found in areas affected by OSV.

As with issues of internal displacement, there is a lack of documented evidence reflecting the effect of OSV on education. What evidence that does exists is in the form of protective educational policies implemented by NTCA Governments. Among these are: the creation of school police corps in severe risk areas that focus on pupil safety to and from school; the presence of school police and military in the most at-risk educational locations; and the existence of a budget for educational security. Other related policies include temporary decrees that allow teachers to be transferred to different educational centres when there are security risks and threats.

Gangs in schools and the deterioration of teachers’ images are a worst case scenario to achieve real human development. Educating in an environment dominated by security risks and violence affects the relationships between students and teachers, between peers, friends, and strangers, and alters behaviour and incentives. The school changes from being a protective, stimulating place for development to an unsafe place that people may choose to temporarily or permanently avoid. This further limits opportunities for development and disrupts the potential workforce integration of thousands of young people in the region. It also contributes to irregular migratory flows, notably for young people in search of opportunities in other countries (UNDP 2013, UNHCR 2014).

**Direct Impact**

**OSV Exacerbate Structural Problems in Education in NTCA**

There are structural enrolment problems, especially from the basic to secondary level, which include limited infrastructure and travelling long distances to go to school, age (students who should be in higher grades because of their age generating early warnings of a risk of dropping out and/or repeating courses, and dropping out of school especially among secondary school students) (INE Honduras, INE Guatemala, El Salvador - Digestyce).

### Surveys and Media Monitoring: Violence in Primary, Secondary and Technical Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Key Findings</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Survey Sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>29.6% of respondents do not feel safe in school.</td>
<td>CONADEH 2012: Insecurity survey</td>
<td>840 people. Confidence level of the survey: 95%.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90% of teachers consider that their school is affected by gangs. Violence against students is mainly physical, through threats and robbery. Violence against teachers includes psychological threats, damage to vehicles, and assault.</td>
<td>PNPPRS 2011: Status of Gangs in Honduras</td>
<td>83 teachers in five educational centres in Tegucigalpa and Comayagua.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>30.8% of respondents report sexual violence in schools. 48.1% report robberies. 9.4% report sexual harassment among students and 5.4% report sexual abuse among students.</td>
<td>CONJUVE 2012: First national survey among youth of Guatemala</td>
<td>4,260 households. Confidence level of the survey 95%.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>57% of students are afraid to go to school due to external factors. 15% of students and 17% of teachers report the presence of gangs in school. 23% of students and 28.4% of teachers were victims or know people who were victims of gang harassment and bullying on their way to/from school.</td>
<td>UNICEF 2011: Violence in Educational Centres of Guatemala</td>
<td>131 educational centres: 817 student surveys, 215 school staff (teachers, directors and administrative staff) and 253 parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>42% of students experience violence at school. The most frequent aggression is robbery (33.4%), then verbal violence (18.6%), and physical violence (15.9%).</td>
<td>UNDP 2013: Human Development Report El Salvador</td>
<td>N.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,549 students were victims of sexual violence/aggression, as registered by the Legal Medical Institute in 2011.</td>
<td>Institute of Legal Medicine, sexual violence statistics 2011</td>
<td>Total sexual aggressions investigated in 2011: 2,947.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The main impact of gangs on the educational system is extortion, threats to students and to their families, violent behaviour, bullying and harassment, rape, attacks, and murder.</td>
<td>National Council of Education/ IUDOP 2011. National consultation “Education for a country without violence”</td>
<td>90 people (ten focal groups with representatives of different sectors of society).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Physical Violence Inside Schools and Colleges**

The general violent atmosphere in NTCA countries, intensified by OSV, causes violent behaviour observed in the streets and at home to be repeated in school among students, with verbal and physical violence replayed according to sex and gender. In addition, there are gangs active inside schools. Surveys about perception show that 30–42% of students have experienced physical violence in educational centres (CONADEH 2012 / CONJUVE 2011 / UNDP 2013).
Children and Male Youth More Exposed to Physical Violence; Girls and Female Adolescents More Vulnerable to Sexual Violence
Perception surveys document sexual harassment and abuse in schools. Girls and adolescents are at high risk of pressure to become girlfriends or partners of gang members, especially girls aged 13–15 who are not in gangs (CONJUVE 2011/Legal Medicine 2011/Interpeace 2011).

Forced/Pressured Recruitment to Gangs
Various sources indicate that gangs locate “personnel” sources in schools to assist with recruitment and coercion. In many cases, students are forced to join the gangs to preserve their lives, their physical integrity, and that of their families (PNPRRS 2011/UNICEF 2011/CNE 2011). However, there is no disaggregated data on numbers of school children in gangs.

Extortion
The extortion of teachers leads to resignations, transfers, and even temporary closure of schools (CAFTA. Network for children and adolescents 2012). Students and parents are also victims. There is high underreporting of extortion due to fear and institutional mistrust (El Heraldo 2013/29/07/ Prensa Libre 2014/10/02/Periodismo Humano 2012/12/03).

Dropping Out of School
While there are no quantified dropout rates attributed to OSV, sources indicate that the risks of sexual violence and recruitment have a strong negative affect on attendance, particularly for younger adolescents and girls (PNPRRS 2011). Media reports indicate school dropout rates of up to 20% in educational centres most affected by violence in El Salvador (Periodismo Humano, 2012).

Risk Due to Crossing Invisible Frontiers
Clashes between neighbourhood gangs over territorial control create “invisible borders” in communities. The risks and consequences of crossing borders to access secondary education increase due to the reduction in available educational institutions. To access secondary schools, students often must travel from one neighbourhood to another, putting their lives at risk when coming from territory of an opposing gang.

Murder
Students are at risk of murder on school premises (La Prensa 2013/09/06). In 2011, 139 students and six teachers were murdered in schools in El Salvador (Periodismo Humano 2012/12/03). In 2013, in Guatemala, 20 teachers and 28 students were reportedly killed (GAM 2013). Between January and February 2014, SIMEDUCO (Teachers Union in Rural Urban and Marginal-Urban Education in El Salvador) reported the killing of nine students and the disappearance of three more (SIMEDUCO 2014).

Teachers Abandon Schools
OSV has caused teachers to abandon schools and transfer from high-risk areas. This has mainly been documented in El Salvador (Ministry of Education and SIMEDUCO), where the Ministry of Education noted 125 teacher transfers from November 2010 to November 2011 (MinEd 2012). In Guatemala and El Salvador, sources also give accounts of this phenomenon, aggravated by the murder of teachers (GAM 2013).

Temporary Closure of Schools
Abandoning teaching responsibilities by teachers, due in part to high levels of extortion, has generated temporary closure of schools in high-risk areas in Honduras and El Salvador, according to media reports. Night schools and evening workshops have also been affected, and sources report an increase in long-distance and weekend education options.

Internal Displacement / Irregular Migration
Threats to students lead to displacement of families to protect their children, as well as irregular immigration and/or unaccompanied minor immigrants ( UNHCR 2014 ).

Indirect Impact
Reduction in the Number of Days that Pupils have Classes
Violence against teachers results in a reduction in the number of real school days for pupils, lessening education quality and disrupting learning cycles.

Increased Household Expenditure
Extortion increases household expenditure, which in turn may affect dropout rates, due to families being unable to cover the additional costs and needing adolescents to help contribute to meeting household expenses.

Coping Strategies
- Protective measures at family level to mitigate risk of violence including sexual abuse:
  - Accompanying minors to and from school
- Not allowing minors to go outside alone
- Not permitting children to attend school.
- Sometimes students give in to pressure from gangs or organised crime to preserve their lives and those of their families. On the other hand, students may join gangs in search of acceptance, recognition, or "to be cool."
- Improving school safety with private guards, and, in extreme cases, police or military. Reinforcing protective barriers (fences, barbed wire, gates, etc.). Temporary suspension of classes or teachers who do not attend class due to threats.
- Identification of "safe areas" and "risk areas" to better use available community space and mitigate social isolation of school aged children. Work with schools and communities to use available institutional support and developing strategies to mitigate risk, such as friendly school strategies etc.
- Use of forced displacement and/or irregular immigration as an extreme protection measure at household level.

Information Gaps
- Detailed information on the impact of gangs on education: main regions and areas impacted; number of children affected; number and age of student dropouts; number of schools closed; length of closure; days of classes lost; number of teachers resigning or moving and absenteeism rates; number and type of threats, mitigation strategies, etc.
- Perception surveys of both teachers and students.
- Qualitative analysis on the recruitment of children and adolescents into gangs.
- Data analysis on trends and protection needs.
- Quantitative and qualitative information on the impact of OSV on evening/night classes, weekend classes, distance learning, technical training, and non-formal and higher education.
- Detailed information on violence directly related to OSV in school.

Indicators

Existing
- Matriculation rate (initial-final by cycle/age/urban-rural).
- National school dropout rate (by cycle/sex/urban-rural).
- Over-age students by grade/sex (dropout risk indicator).
- Literacy rate (by region/age).
- Students/teachers who feel unsafe in centres of education (perception indicator).

To Create or Adapt
- School dropout rate at municipal/ neighbourhood level (by cycle/age/sex).
- Students killed, age/sex.
- Teachers threatened in high-risk areas.
- Teachers in high-risk areas applying for transfer after being threatened.
- Students/teachers who have had to pay extortion money in high-risk areas.
- Education centres that have shut down (temporary/permanently) because of OSV.
- Night/evening class education centres affected (closure/reduction in students) because of OSV-related phenomena.

---

19 Honduras has: 60 members of the School Police guard in 25 educational centres (La Prensa 2013/07/13). Guatemala has 65 police guards in 35 educational centres (Prensa Libre 2014/10/02). In El Salvador, the School Prevention and Safety Plan 2013-2014 aims to cover 345 educational centres, in coordination with the Ministry of Education, National Civil Police, Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Justice, etc. (Transparencia Activa 2013/25/09).

20 This refers to existing indicators, but that the consulting team was unable to verify, indicators for which there is information, or indicators that could be created (regarding quality/quantity) to evaluate the OSV phenomenon.
LIVELIHOODS

EFFECTS

- Impoverishment of extortion victims (formal and informal traders, SMEs, local transport business, taxis, etc.)
- Lack or minimal investment in formal or informal businesses to avoid increased extortion
- Abandonment of commercial activities, business (due to threats, lack of profit)
- Increased unemployment
- Extortion as source of financing
- Increased insecurity, social mistrust and lack of social support

- Threats and attacks on individuals, their families, and businesses
- Homicides
- Abandonment of commercial activities or businesses
- Unemployment
- Internal displacement or migration

- Increased internal displacement or migration looking for sustainable livelihoods
- Physical and emotional harm to traders, their families and businesses (occupations more at risk: SMEs, public transport and taxis, human rights defenders, lawyers, teachers, etc.)
- Impoverishment (increase in cost of basic needs) and losses for traders, families and businesses
- Lack of job opportunities and technical training for youth from high-risk areas
- Higher number of livelihoods linked to violence and criminal activities: illegal: extortion, hired guns, slavery, common crime, kidnapping, extortion, money laundering, etc.
- Legal: private security businesses, business front for money laundering, etc.
- Gang monopolies of shops, water business, local transport, and taxis in some areas.
- Illicit livelihoods are main sources of income in many areas used for human and drug trafficking
- Lack of or limited investment, both domestic and international
- Increased costs in security for traders and businesses
- Increased public spending (justice, health, etc.) and reduction in tax revenues

PROBLEMS

PAYMENT OF EXTORTION

NON-PAYMENT OF EXTORTION

EXTORTION

DETERIORATION IN OF LIVELIHOODS

PRIMARY CAUSES

Insecurity, fear, threats
Curfews, invisible borders, check points
Territorial control by gangs or criminal groups
Discrimination against people living in gang controlled areas
Lack of job opportunities, limited access to technical education or training opportunities

SECONDARY CAUSES

Drug traffickers, drug routes and traffic, transporters
Fights and violence among groups for territorial control
Corruption
Impunity
Involvement of state security forces in criminal activities
Structural weaknesses
Crime and violence cost an estimated 8% of regional GDP, including the cost of citizen security, court proceedings, and costs to the health system. Calculations in a World Bank report indicate that a 10% reduction in the levels of violence in Central American countries with high homicide rates could boost the annual per capita growth rate by up to 1% of GDP (WB 2011).

**Direct Impact**

**Forced Displacement and Migration**

Exorbitant levels of extortion and threats to small traders are the main cause of forced displacement. Abandonment of the business, and frequently the home, is the only option for many when unable to make extortion payments. These limits on access to work and a better life in their own countries are directly caused by high levels OSV (UNHCR CIDEHUM 2012).

**Extortion and Payments**

Extortion affects traders in the formal and informal economies, micro-businesses, and small and medium-size enterprises (SMEs) that are pressured and forced to make regular payments of “war taxes”. Payment delays or refusals often have deadly consequences. Public transport workers, market stalls, shops, grocers, beauty salons, kindergartens, ironmongers, clothing and footwear stores, mechanics shops, schools, street traders, and street children who beg and wash vehicle windscreens are subject to extortion. Fixed wage earners (government employees, teachers, etc.) are also subjected to regular extortion (GAM 2013, CONADEH 2014, IUDPAS 2012, CASA ALIANZA 2010).

In Honduras, 79% of companies that are members of the National Council of Small Businesses (CONAPES) and 80% of informal traders pay extortion money. The upward trend in extortion demands means that businesses cease to be sustainable and close (at the rate of two per week); consequently 25% of small business employees are losing their jobs each month (CONAPES 2013). Recent reports of losses from extortion include those of over 15,000 buses and taxis in Tegucigalpa and San Pedro Sula, forced to contribute USD 27.4 million to criminal organisations. Bus companies in Tegucigalpa and Comayagüela pay daily rates of USD 15–30 per bus, costing the transport sector over USD 1.2 million per month, and over USD 1 million per month in San Pedro Sula. It is estimated that 14,000 street vendors and stallkeepers in Tegucigalpa were required to pay extortion money of USD 15 every week in 2013 and that extortion contributed to the closure of 17,500 companies²¹ (Insightcrime 2014).

**Sexual Exploitation of Young People and Human Trafficking** by members of gangs and other criminal organisations (GAM 2013, CASA ALIANZA).

**Large Numbers of Deaths and Injuries in High-risk Occupations**

Traders, public sector transport operators (bus drivers and ticket collectors), taxi drivers, and motorcycle taxi drivers are livelihoods with the highest numbers of victims. In Honduras during 2012 and 2013, 153 taxi drivers and motorcycle taxi drivers and 32 passengers were murdered (CONADEH 2014). In Guatemala in 2013, 140 local public transport personnel (87 bus-drivers and 49 assistants) and 49 taxi drivers were murdered (GAM 2013). There are also significant numbers of victims among Guatemalan farmers (99 deaths in 2013). Other high-risk professions include security guards, police, teachers, lawyers, human rights defenders, and journalists (GAM 2013, CONADEH 2014).

**Place of Residence Becomes a Discrimination Factor When it Seeking Work**

Few companies offer work opportunities to residents of unsafe or poor neighbourhoods that are perceived to be dangerous. Abusive and illegal practices during interviews have been reported which include strips in search of body tattoos, intimate questions, and question on political inclinations (UNDP 2013, INTERPEACE 2013).

**Gangs with Legal and Illegal Sources of Income**

As well as engaging in illegal extortion, small-time drug dealing, acting as hired gunmen, robbery and kidnapping, gangs are diversifying their sources of income to include urban transportation, taxis, *rapiditos* (minibuses), and other services offered in areas they control, such as trucking, building supplies, and grocery stores, which are sometimes required to be “ceded” by force (UNICEF 2012, Wilson Centre).

**Joining Gangs as a Source of Income for Young People and Children**

Membership of a gang confers status and earns payments for jobs done. Work ranges from acting as look-outs or informants to becoming involved in illegal or criminal activities (extortion, drug-trading, acting as hired gunmen, etc.). “Recruitment” starts at age

---

²¹ According to Honduran Small and Medium-size Enterprise Association leader Victorino Carranza, of every 100 micro-undertakings that open, 97 close within ten months because of the impact of crime.
eight to ten. Hired guns and torturers are some services that gang members provide for criminal groups (CONJUVE 2011, CASA ALIANZA).

Increase in Security Costs for Traders and Companies
Security costs rise with the size of the company (SIC IDB 2013). A survey of business leaders in Guatemala indicates that 55% of those polled maintained their levels of investment in security, while 42% indicated their costs had risen. The overall result showed that companies covered by the survey invested on average 15.2% of their costs in protection; this percentage has risen compared with the previous survey in January (ASIES, business survey No. 57, July 2013).

Security Service Companies as Major Income Generators
The number of armed private security personnel is well in excess of the number of members of the public security forces in the three countries. Often these armed security guards have had little more than primary education, receive only limited training for their tasks, and generate a climate of terror and violence.

Investors and Skilled Workers and Professionals Leaving NTCA Countries
This departure is of high economic cost to those who remain (UNDP 2014). Crime and violence considerably restrict both the domestic and international investment climate, affecting opportunities and incentives for businesses to make productive investments, create jobs, and grow. Investors, skilled labourers, and professionals are abandoning the region, leaving high economic costs for those who remain (UNDP 2013). Emigrating professionals escaping from insecurity include licensed doctors and nurses, contributing to the shortage of skilled human resources in the health sector in NTCA countries.

Self-Limiting Commercial Expansion
Business owners limit profits and investment in business as higher profits lead to higher extortion demands (CRG 2014, UNDP 2014).

Increase in Formal and Informal Debt
Families incur debts having to pay extortion, hospital costs of firearm injuries, costs of forced displacement and the starting of a new life, paying people-smugglers and guides on the route to the north.

Increase in the Cost of Basic Food Items
In high-risk areas there are fewer stores and abarroterías (small local grocers). The market is less integrated; in many areas there are monopolies of stores owned by groups controlling the territory or by their relatives. Payment of access tolls by distribution companies leads to an increase in retail prices in these areas.

Additional Transport Costs for Work and/or Markets
The invisible territorial “borders” separating different gangs can increase travel costs. NTCA countries report the payment of tolls by people returning from work after the curfew. These payments are not to gain access but mostly to ensure the “protection” of their family during the absence of the head of household or during the night.

Indirect Impact
Negative impact on Domestic and Foreign Investment
In 2013, Guatemalan businesses identified the continuous presence of violence in the country as the main factor limiting the attraction of new investment (25.5%), followed by corruption in second place (17.1%) (FUNDESA 2013).

Wasted Human and Social Capital
Low skills and high rates of underemployment, particularly among young men and women in areas linked to gangs.

Without work there is nothing, without work there is no time, no present, no future, just poverty.
(UNDP focus group).

---

22 Payments for shootings on behalf of other organised criminal gangs are usually made to the gang rather than the person carrying out the crime directly.

23 Payments of up to USD 2,000 per person have been reported. Amounts depend on conditions offered by smugglers and the number of attempts included in the package. Options can run as high as USD 12,000 for unlimited attempts until the US is reached.
Coping Strategies
- Abandoning homes and/or businesses, internal displacement, and migration (FARO 2012).
- Payment of extortion money to one or more criminal gangs.
- Connection (voluntary or forced) to gangs and participation in criminal activities.
- Migration (albeit with the risk of family break-up, abuse on the trip, accident, kidnapping, human trafficking, etc.)
- Early school leaving and child labour to meet household economic needs.
- Increased spending on security.
- Companies providing services to micro-businesses and SMEs experience considerable personnel turnover in unsafe areas or pull out if the situation gets too violent (IDB MIPYMES diagnosis).
- Small-scale drug dealing.
- Prostitution, sexual favours.

Information Gaps
- Data on unemployment rates in high-risk areas.
- Demographic and socio-economic profiles of the population at risk in the various zones (disaggregated by sex and age).
- Accurate and up-to-date numbers of extortions experienced.
- Number or percentage of households to have lost main breadwinner.
- Number or percentage of households that have no fixed income.
- Household dependency ratios (productive members per number of dependents).
- Mapping of areas of influence of gangs with invisible frontiers, which indicate access and gaps in transportation routes and markets/supply chains.
- Seasonal calendar of work activities and temporary employment.
- Work opportunities linked to rehabilitation programmes.
- Cost of the basic family food basket in the different regions vs. average income levels.

Indicators

Possible Sources
Tools include use of official data, perception surveys, media, reports from trade associations, interviews with focus groups, and key informants. Sources include:
- Ministries, Departments of Security, Health, Labour, and Education at national and municipal levels
- International NGO and UN agencies
- Civil society, leaders, or community groups, church, private sector (consignment agencies, banks, trade associations, chambers of commerce, formal and informal credit bureaus, and local NGOs etc.)
PROTECTION

EFFECTS

- Increased female homicides and injuries
- Sexual violence (deterioration of sexual and reproductive health: increased STDs, unwanted pregnancies, unsafe abortions)
- Psychological consequences
- Human trafficking
- Forced or voluntary involvement with gangs
- Sexual exploitation
- Disappearances
- Increased insecurity and fear, deteriorates social interactions

- Increased numbers of homicides with child victims and/or perpetrators
- Forced involvement of children in gang activities and criminal acts
- Increased juvenile and child violence
- Sexual abuse, exploitation, and human trafficking of children
- Increased number of unaccompanied minor migrants
- Increased numbers of internally displaced children, with or without families
- Limited or no access to basic services (health, education, and protection)
- Increased numbers of street children, with no access to support, often at higher risk of violence, abuse, exploitation

- Victims of homicide, aggression, abuse, etc.
- Victims treated with special cruelty
- Mental health deterioration
- Forced invisibility of this group and its needs
- Helplessness accentuated by institutionalised lack of protection
- Extortion, also forced to support and or participate in criminal activities
- Increased forced displacement or migration of LGBTI
- Increased discrimination and vulnerability

GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

CHILD PROTECTION

LGBTI COMMUNITY

PROBLEMS

GAPS IN PROTECTION AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

PRIMARY CAUSES

Gangs, cficas, organised crime
High levels of violence, extortion, threats, abuse, exploitation
Territorial control by gangs or criminal groups
Existing structural protection and legal gaps
Invisible borders: limited access and movements, confrontations
Insecurity
Discrimination
Family break-up, rejection

SECONDARY CAUSES

Drug trafficking, drugs
Lack of trust toward government institutions
Proliferation and use of firearms (legal and illegal)
Limited resources and support for reintegration programs of minors with problems with the law
Inequity, poverty, inequality
High levels of sexual violence
Limited resources and services for integrated attention to victims of sexual violence
Corruption
Impunity
Inequity, poverty, inequality
Structural weaknesses of protection and legal system
High levels of domestic violence
Negative impacts of OSV are shown to be most intense in women, children, and LGBTI populations and result in increased rates of homicide, gender-based violence, human trafficking and slavery, crime and juvenile delinquency, and high numbers of unaccompanied migrant minors. OSV further increases existing structural weaknesses by augmenting the demand for basic services and access to justice. Normally there is no effective institutional response to these needs, increasing the vulnerability of these groups further.

Direct Impact
Gender-based Violence

Female Homicide by age range in Honduras and El Salvador in 2013

In 2013, there were 1,506 reported cases of homicides of women in the NTCA and a registered increase in deaths in Honduras and Guatemala. Honduras saw 636 violent deaths of women in 2013 (IUDPAS 2013 /IUDPAS 2012) and 653 deaths in Guatemala according to the National Civil Police24 (PDH with PNC data). In comparison, there were only 217 violent deaths of women reported in El Salvador in 2013, attributable to truces among gangs which have contributed to a general reduction of homicides since 2012 (Legal Medicine 2013). However, there was a reported increase of homicides of women of 149% between 2008 and 2011 (ISDEMU, cited in FLACSO 2013). The age groups mostly affected in the NTCA are women between 15 and 29 years.

Homicides of women have consequences at both household and community level, since traditionally women and girls care for the home and children. Furthermore, early exposure to violence during childhood negatively impacts the socialising and learning processes of children, contributing to the imitation of violent behavioural patterns (Global Movement for Children 2012).

Source: PDH/PNC 2013, INACIF 2014 (Guatemala).

Sexual Violence

The number of victims of sexual violence far exceeds the total number of violent deaths of women. In 2013, there were 12,252 medical-legal evaluations25 for sexual crimes: 2,561 in Honduras (IUDPAS 2013); 6,552 in Guatemala (PDH 2013); and 3,139 in El Salvador (Legal Medicine 2013). Those most vulnerable to sexual violence are between ten and 19 years of age.

Source: IUDPAS 2013 (Honduras) / IML - Legal Medicine 2013 (El Salvador)

24 Data is from the National Civil Police cited by the Human Rights Ombudsman. Data from INACIF, National Institute for Forensic Science, presented 758 necropsies of women during the same period (INACIF 2013).

25 Evaluations to determine sexual violence are done by Forensic Medicine Institutes in NTCA countries.
The Human Rights Council in Guatemala reported that the number of convictions for sexual violence in 2011 was equivalent to 14.3% of reported cases (PDH 2012). Re-victimisation of victims of sexual violence also occurs due to the lack of infrastructure for integrated attention and because of limited training and sensitising of government officials assessing victim needs.

Sources indicate substantial underreporting of sexual crimes. Discrepancies in data also exist, with different sources counting and reporting data differently. In Guatemala in 2013, there were 2,178 cases of sexual violence registered in the Public Prosecution for the period January to August (PDH 2013). In El Salvador, the National Civil Police (PNC) registered 636 cases for the same year (period January-March) (PDDH 2012-2013).

Sexual Crimes – Medical-Legal Evaluations by Age Range

![Graph showing sexual crimes by age range](image)

Source: UNAH/IUDPAS 2013 (Honduras); PDH 2013 (Guatemala); Legal Medicine 2013 (El Salvador)

However, there are limits to the data as most available information does not distinguish between cases of sexual violence directly caused by OSV and those caused by other factors.

Human Trafficking

The main victims of commercial sexual exploitation are adult women, female adolescents, and girls (Save the Children 2012). The risk of becoming a victim of human trafficking increases during irregular migration. There are alliances among gangs and drug trafficking organisations to control migrant transit routes and carry out illegal activities, among them human trafficking (Strategy Centre 2013). It is estimated that in the NTCA, the underreporting of victims of human trafficking is high (Save the Children 2012).

In Guatemala, according to the Public Prosecutor, there were 944 claims of human trafficking between 2010 and 2013, of which 159 were revoked by the sexual violence law. 570 victims were registered in Guatemala (Public Prosecutor 2013). UNODC estimates that per year only one in every 30 women trafficked with the purpose of sexual exploitation is detected (UNODC 212). Adequate calculations to obtain a more realistic number based on data from the Public Prosecutor’s Office and UNODC indicates that 27,376 people could potentially have been victims of human trafficking between 2010 and 2013 in Guatemala.

Women and Girls in Gangs

There is limited disaggregated information about numbers and profiles of women in gangs due in part to the sensitivity of the information and potential security risks to persons and organisations collecting it.

In Honduras, the National Programme for Prevention, Rehabilitation, and Social Reintegration estimates that there are 872 active female members in gangs in 14 Honduran cities (PNPQRS 2011). This number excludes supporters, girlfriends, and women who have not gone through the initiation rituals. Rituals include sexual intercourse with various members of the gang or consenting to physical abuse to “generate respect” (Interpeace 2011). The value of women in gangs focuses on committing crimes without drawing attention (i.e. extortion, drug transport, and courier activities), visiting prisoners and transporting elements to and from prison, and providing "sexual favours" in prisons (Interpeace 2011).

Disappearances of Women and Clandestine Cemeteries

In Guatemala, there has been an increase in disappearances of women since 2010, reaching 1,976 disappearances in 2012 (PDH 2013). Women most affected are aged between 13 and 19 years (PDH 2013). El Salvador reported 647 cases of missing women.

---

26 Information submitted directly by the Public Prosecutor on 10/03/14.
women in 2012 (PDDH annual report 2012-2013), and 392 missing women in 2013 (IUDOP 2013). Sources from both countries emphasise inconsistencies in the reported data, because in many cases there are reports of the disappearance, but no record when a person is found. In Honduras, there are reported discoveries of clandestine cemeteries with the bodies of women. During the last trimester of 2012, three cemeteries were found in Tela, La Ceiba, and San Pedro Sula (FLACSO 2013).

Access to Justice
Limited access to justice has multiple causes, including: fear of consequences of reporting; pressure from gangs or organised crime; corruption of state employees; and inefficiencies in the investigation and trial systems. In Honduras in 2010, the Office of the Public Prosecutor received 66,341 claims, of which only 12,154 were investigated, equalling 21.66% of cases (Oxfam 2012).

Child Protection
The increased presence and activity of organised groups in NTCA has aggravated an already alarming crisis of public safety. In mid-2010, the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights reported that Latin America had the highest levels of juvenile violence in the world. Data from the UN indicates that the juvenile homicide rate in Latin America is more than double that of Africa and 36 times higher than rates in developed countries. In El Salvador alone, 68% of homicide victims are age between 15 and 34, and nine of every ten victims is male (Wilson Centre 2011).

An additional risk factor linking children and adolescents to the gangs and which contributes to aggressive behaviour both on the street and in schools is violence experienced at home. Physical and psychological abuse within families is both fed by and feeds OSV. The number of registered cases of domestic violence in the three countries exceeds the general homicide and sexual violence rates.

Homicides of Boys, Girls, and Adolescents
Male youth aged 15 to 19 are most at risk of violent death. In Honduras in 2013, the homicide rate of men aged 15 to 19 years was 152.2 per 100,000 inhabitants (equivalent to 708 deaths) (IUDPAS 2013). In El Salvador in 2013, there were 470 deaths of men aged 15 to 19, compared to 451 for adult men (Legal Medicine 2013). In Guatemala in 2012, there were 572 deaths of male youth aged 15-19 compared to 503 for adult men (PNC 2012).

\[ \text{Homicide number} \]
\[ \begin{array}{cccc} \text{Age range} & 0-4 & 5-9 & 10-14 & 15-19 \\ \text{Homicide number} & 58 & 8 & 17 & 3 \\ \text{Homicide number} & 71 & 23 & & \\ \end{array} \]

Source: IUDPAS 2013 (Honduras) / Legal Medicine 2013 (El Salvador)

\[ \text{Homicide number} \]
\[ \begin{array}{cccc} \text{Menor de 15 años} & 78 & 35 & 69 & \\ \text{15-19 años} & & & \\ \end{array} \]


---

27 Information requested directly from IUDOP with data from the Institute of Legal Medicine 2013.

28 In 2012, in Honduras, Legal Medicine registered 3,088 cases of violence against women and 3,042 cases of domestic violence (FLACSO 2013). In Guatemala, there were 33,140 cases registered in 2012 (INE 2012), and in 2013 in El Salvador, there were 3,260 cases registered (Legal Medicine 2013).
Sexual Violence and Human Trafficking of Children

Human trafficking of children includes sexual commercial exploitation, labour exploitation, and child pornography (Casa Alianza 2012). Networks of members of gangs in the NTCA are used to promote and facilitate the transfer of victims of human trafficking. Smugglers are identified at a transnational level for the transport of boys and girls between countries in exchange for payment or compensation (Casa Alianza 2012). There is a low number of claims, and discrepancies in the consolidation of data when calculating the global magnitude of these crimes and in the process of attention to victims (Casa Alianza 2012/PDH 2013/PDDH 2013).

In El Salvador, the CONNA received just 11 cases related to human trafficking in 2013, providing service to 16 victims (CONNA 2013). In Guatemala in 2011 and 2012, three cases of human trafficking for organised crime were identified (PDH 2013), all executed by gangs and drug dealers.

The age groups with the highest risk of sexual violence are boys and girls aged ten to 14 and girls aged 15 to 19 years. Risks for female youth are compounded by gender-based homicide. Adolescent girls are at risk of sexual violence from multiple perpetrators, including gang members. Attacks are often related to "initiation rites", "birthday gifts", or as a result of rejection of offers made by gang members.

Minors in Conflict with the Law

There has been an increase in the number of minor offenders in the NTCA whose main crimes include theft, extortion, possession of weapons, and homicide (PDH 2013/PDH 2013/ PDDH 2013). Gangs and organised crime take advantage of the lenient criminal justice system for minors using them to commit crimes; children and adolescents are more likely to be let off or be punished through alternative sanctions. Adolescents aged 15 to 17 are most at risk (see PDH 2013), although in Honduras there are records of incorporation into gangs from the age of eight (PNPRRS 2011). To date, there are no reliable estimates of how many boys and girls are involved in gangs and criminal organisations.

Irregular Migration and Unaccompanied Minors

An increased interception of unaccompanied minors in the US since October 2011 has been noted, from 4,059 in the fiscal year 2011 to 21,537 in the fiscal year 2013 (UNHCR 2014). Gangs and organised crime a main cause for the migration of minors (due to direct victimisation, threats from criminals, and gender-based violence against girls and adolescents) (UNHCR 2014/WRC 2012/Casa Alianza). Over 57,000 unaccompanied children, mostly from Central America, were caught entering the country illegally from October 2013 to June 2014; President Obama has declared an emergency due to the lack of resources to provide housing, medical care, counselling, and legal services for the undocumented minors (AFP 17/07/2014).

Reported factors for migration included fear of: violence from criminals; forced recruitment; sexual violence; extortion; and dangers associated with school or gang violence in the community (UNHCR 2014). Sources and documents indicate a weaknesses in protection and tracking of minors once they have been returned to their countries and communities (see Casa Alianza 2012).

Preliminary results from a 2014 study indicate that of 319 minors who were returned, 60% of those interviewed from El Salvador were running away from violence and threats from gangs, the majority of them girls or adolescents (60%) whose main fear is of rape, sexual abuse, and disappearance. Similarly, 60% are boys who fear being executed for refusing to join the gangs (EG Kennedy 2014).

My grandmother told me to leave. If you do not join, the gang will kill you and if you do, the rival gang or the police will kill you, but if you leave, nobody will shoot you.

Kevin, Honduras, 17 years old (UNHCR 2014).

Boys and Girls on the Streets

Of the minors interviewed by Casa Alianza in San Pedro Sula, 9% claim to have left their homes because of persecution by gangs (Casa Alianza 2013). On the street, OSV are manifested through collection of "war taxes," human trafficking, child exploitation, recruitment, and commercial sex trade. Children living or working on the street are vulnerable to drugs and have limited access to health services.

---

30 Printed document unavailable online.
31 The sample size for the survey was 99 ex-members of gangs in prison.
32 The fiscal year is from September to September. For this reason, some numbers may not coincide with figures reported by the countries for the period January-December. A UNHCR study included a sample of 401 minors from El Salvador, Honduras, Guatemala, and Mexico. The figures presented only include countries from the NTCA.
33 This subject was analysed for Honduras only and included minors who live permanently or work and spend most of their day on the street.
34 The sample size was 102 minors in San Pedro Sula and 154 in Tegucigalpa.
Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans/transgender, and Intersex Population (LGBTI)

OSV Aggravates Structural Problems in the LGBTI Communities

The LGBTI population is affected by discrimination, limited access to their rights (e.g., identity, health, education, employment, and housing), "invisibility" of their needs, and limited access to justice (PDDH/PNUD 2013). OSV further reduces the possibility of integration and access to rights and basic services for the LGBTI population, especially for transgender women.

Homicides of Members of the LGBTI Community

Between 2009 and 2013, 120 violent deaths of members of the LGBTI community were recorded in Honduras. The most affected populations were gay men (56 deaths) and transgender women (54 deaths). Most of these deaths, 101 cases, were recorded after 2009 (Lesbian Network Cattrachas 2014). In Guatemala, there are at least 30 reports of transgender women murdered between 2009 and 2010, and four in the initial months of 2011 (OTRANS, REDLACTRANS 2012). In El Salvador, 44 homicides of LGBTI people were reported between 2008 and 2010 in which victims presented signs of torture (UC Berkeley 2012). Between 2012 and October of 2013, there were also 22 murders recorded (ASPIDH/COMCAVIS et. al. 2013). Sources indicate that violence against the LGBTI community has also been manifested through attacks, torture, arbitrary arrests, and abuse (in many cases by law enforcement).

In El Salvador, gangs often require new recruits to attack members of the LGBTI community as part of their initiation (UC Berkeley 2012). Generally, homicides are carried out with cruelty (especially on transgender women). Gangs and criminal groups also attack homosexuals.

Access to Justice

Access to justice is limited for LGTBI populations, especially transgender women affected by OSV. Discrimination of access and difficulty of claim tracking are common as are high levels of underreporting due to fear or mistrust of the authorities. Findings indicate little progress for investigations and prosecution of cases against the LGBTI community (Cattrachas 2013-Report Alternative to the recommendations of the Universal Periodic Review/ ASPIDH 2013/OTRANS 2012). Authorities rarely have staff members who are trained or sensitised to handle LGTBI cases (HIVOS 2012). Fear of retaliation, especially in cases involving crimes in which gangs are involved, is an additional obstacle to filing a claim (UC Berkeley 2012).

Difficulties on the Irregular Migration Route

Sources indicate that there are difficulties, especially for transgender women, during migration. These include sexual abuse or recourse to sexual favours to pay for the trip. In Guatemala, sources refer to specific cases of homosexual indigenous migrant minors who when deported, are not accepted into their communities because their sexual identity is not culturally recognised. It is thought that these minors initiate the migration route once again.

Impacts on Transgender Women

For transgender women, the higher their visibility, the greater the possibility of experiencing aggression (OTRANS 2012). The restrictions in access to rights because of their identity increases their vulnerability to sexual labour (Cattrachas 12/11/01- 146th period of sessions of the AICHR). They pay protection fees to gangs to be able to work in a particular place, and often they become involved in some of the gangs activities such as being informants, collecting extortion, helping in local drug trafficking, etc. Aside from the violence exercised by the gangs, there is also abuse carried out by some law enforcement officers including police and Government employees (PDDH/PNUD 2013).

Indirect Impact

Increase in the Perception of Insecurity among Women

Perception surveys show that women feel more insecure than men, especially in public places. In Honduras, 90% of women consulted felt insecure in the streets, on public transportation, and in markets (Centre for Women’s Rights 2011). In El Salvador, 39% of interviewed women exercise or have exercised sexual labour for a living (PDDH/PNUD 2013).

36 Printed document unavailable online.
37 There are differences between the figures from Cattrachas and the Observatory of Violence - IUDPAS. In 2011, Cattrachas registered 26 homicides while IUDPAS registered 16. Variations could follow differences in the monitoring of media and analysis of one on one cases.
38 Reports of processed cases for violent deaths of LGBTTI people in Honduras. Printed document unavailable online.
39 According to a survey from PNUD and PDDH in El Salvador with a sample size of 100 trans-women, 85% of interviewed women exercise or have exercised sexual labour for a living (PDDH/PNUD 2013).
40 Unrepresentative survey with a sample size of 105 women and 30 men.
47.6% of women consulted expressed feeling insecure in most environments that they encounter on a daily basis (USAID 2013)\(^41\).

**Coping Strategies**
- Women give in, due to pressure from gangs and or organised crime feeling that “have no other choice.”
- Members of the LGBTI community become "invisible" as a strategy for protection.
- Not reporting domestic or sexual violence due to fear, lack of institutional trust, or lack of information.
- Not sending girls and adolescents to school.
- Not socialising in the community.
- Using displacement or irregular migration as a means of protection.
- Not reporting crimes/abuse against the LGBTI community due to fear of retaliation.
- Where institutional support exists, promoting support for aid to victimised women, promoting safe spaces for children and adolescents, and options for creative use of free time. Promoting affirmative action of the LGBTI community to overcome structural obstacles for their inclusion.
- Use of community organisations to support victims of sexual abuse (noting that support to victims can put them and/or members of the organisation at risk).
- Publicly denouncing cases of abuse against the LGBTI community.
- Increase public reporting on reformed laws of violence against women.
- Improve state services, including: training and sensitisation for government officials; improvement of systems and integrated infrastructure for services to avoid re-victimisation; enactment of laws criminalising sex with minors under 14 years; state efforts to improve the prosecution of claims by the LGBTI community.

**Information Gaps**
- Disaggregated and systematic data on human trafficking, especially of minors.
- Unified system of information by State organisations in charge of trafficking.
- Disaggregated and systematic data on unaccompanied returned minors, especially regarding the post-return reintegration process including risk factors on the return route and in the household and community reintegration process.
- Analysis of differences between number of minors intercepted by border patrol in the US and Mexico vs. deported minors from the US and Mexico vs. minors taken in by Migration Authorities and child institutions in the countries.

**Indicators**

**Existing**
- Violent death and injuries to women (by age/urban-rural area).
- Violent death and injuries to minors (by age/urban-rural area).
- Medical-legal evaluations for sexual violence (by sex and age) against women, boys, girls, adolescents, and LGBTI population.
- Claims for sexual violence/domestic violence (by sex and age) – discrepancies in figures according to the institution that receives the claim.
- Sentences for sexual violence or domestic violence.
- Numbers of unaccompanied minors received, intercepted and/or deported by border patrol in the US and Mexico.
- Numbers of boys, girls, and youth in detention centres and typology of crimes.
- Weapons seized from boys, girls, and youth (number and type of weapon).

**To Create or Adapt\(^42\)**
- Consultations for sexual violence in health centres (national, regional, municipal).
- Number of LGBTI deaths (numbers, sex, age, type).
- Proportion of women victims of sexual violence (age / in the last 12 months / type of aggression).
- Total number of annual cases and types of sexual violence officially registered.
- Cases of human trafficking (by sex/age range/type).
- Cases of disappearances of women (claims) by age range.
- Perception levels of risks to women, boys, girls, adolescents, and LGBTI populations.
- Numbers of minors in gangs, and/or criminal organisations.
- Numbers of women in gangs, and/or criminal organisations.
- Number of persons disabled as a result of OSV and their social and economic profile.

---

\(^41\) Representative survey with a sample size of 2,143 adults by USAID in 2013 on the Percepción de La Inseguridad e Injusticia en las Instituciones Públicas.

\(^42\) Refers to existing indicators, indicators for which information exists, or qualitative/quantitative indicators that could be developed to measure the impact of OSV but were not fully verified by the consulting team.
HUMANITARIAN ACCESS

EFFECTS

- Significant reduction of humanitarian space
- No access or restrictions in some areas due to gangs’ territorial control (curfews, invisible borders, etc.)
- Negotiation with gang leaders needed to ensure access and safety (requiring contacts, time, and additional costs)
- Additional access and service provision limitations caused by lack or deterioration of infrastructure (roads, etc.)
- In case of emergency, organisations would prioritise areas where they are presence or safe to the detriment of high-risk affected areas
- Basic government and private services unavailable (e.g., emergency support, healthcare, community prevention, etc.)

- Increased awareness of humanitarian diplomacy and humanitarian principles needed
- Use of armed escorts (police, army, or private security) by the state when providing assistance and services in high-risk areas
- Use of armed escorts (police, army or private security services) by humanitarian and development organisations when operating in high-risk areas
- Operations and humanitarian personnel exposed to violence and crime (threats, extortions, robberies, abuse, etc.)
- Direct impact on physical and mental health of humanitarian staff
- Increased operational and security costs
- New profile of humanitarian worker required
- Loss of direct control over humanitarian operations (acting through local partners)
- Security deterioration may cause temporary or permanent cancellation of operations
- Robust security plans needed

- Difficulties in physical access to humanitarian aid and basic services
- Increased community and personal self-censorship, and low community engagement and participation in surveys etc. in high-risk areas
- Deterioration of physical and mental health of the population (threats, extortions, murders, etc.) due to their involvement with relief or development interventions
- Prisoners, IDPs, irregular migrants face greater invisibility and restrictions accessing aid

LIMITATIONS IN ACCESS TO AFFECTED POPULATION

SECURITY

POPULATION ACCESS TO HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE AND SERVICES

PROBLEMS

LIMITS TO HUMANITARIAN ACCESS

PRIMARY CAUSES

- Lack of existing infrastructures or physical access (roads)
- Proliferation and use of high-calibre fire-arms
- Territorial control by gangs or criminal groups. Battles for territorial control
- Invisible borders, curfews, “checkpoints”
- Loss or limitations of State control in some areas
- High levels of violence and insecurity
- Threats, abuses

SECONDARY CAUSES

- Criminal groups
- Social mistrust in communities
- Drug trafficking, drugs, carriers
- Political invisibility of the problems in some high-risk areas
- Existing structural weaknesses in protection and basic services (health, education, etc.)
- Corruption, implication of some elements of the state in criminal activities
- Confrontation between gangs, cliques, organised crime, and/or state security forces
- Structural weaknesses of penitentiary centres

Page 36 of 68
Humanitarian access can in itself be considered a victim of OSV. Sources operating in areas where gangs have territorial control have observed a significant reduction in humanitarian space. This has been illustrated not only in reduced physical access, but also in difficulties in interaction between OSV-affected populations and humanitarian actors. OSV-affected populations live increasingly confined environments, often under greater control of armed groups, and with less access to already scarce humanitarian actors. OSV but also in difficult humanitarian space. This has been illustrated in areas where gangs have territorial control and with less access to already scarce basic education and health services.

**Access to the Vulnerable Population**

- In areas of high risk, access needs to be negotiated to avoid an increase in risk both to the population accessing services and the humanitarian personnel carrying out the intervention. Access is therefore conditional on the presence and prior acceptance of humanitarian organisations in those areas. Local leaders and community councils can help organisations gain access to high-risk areas, as can civil society and religious organisations that are already operational there.
- “Curfews” and invisible borders limit access for both humanitarian personnel and the population (including public emergency services, firefighters, other voluntary groups, and Red Cross personnel).
- Poor infrastructure limits access for emergency vehicles due to the deterioration of roads, and roadblocks that limit free movement of vehicles in some areas.
- Some organisations prioritise response to areas where they have a presence or safe and guaranteed access.
- Both national and local Governments rely on the support of the police and army for emergency or preventive health interventions in high-risk areas.
- Some organisations use armed escorts (state security forces or private security companies) to ensure access and protection in high-risk areas.
- Lack of access and use of local partners for implementation sometimes leads to a loss of control over the humanitarian intervention.
- There are reports of access issues restricting fumigation and vector control teams in high-risk residential areas. Unconfirmed reports indicate that some primary healthcare centres in areas of high risk do not accurately report cases of infectious diseases. Underreporting may result both from members of the community being unable to access health centres and from health centre staff being unable to appropriately intervene in certain areas.

**Limitations on Access to Information**

- Increased security risks with regard to information gathering for both interviewers and interviewees in areas controlled by gangs.

- Widespread fear and distrust among the population concerning participation in community consultation processes. Institutions that have historically had access report that consultation is becoming increasingly difficult due to people’s fear.
- Confidentiality and limits on information sharing on access exist in several state departments, especially information related to security, police and security forces surveillance and mapping.
- Lack of awareness of humanitarian principles. Some organisations, such as members of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, complement operations with humanitarian diplomacy interventions, and with activities aimed at presenting and spreading humanitarian values among the public at large. In the specific case of the Red Cross, their work also includes information on the humanitarian principles of the institution as an additional protective mechanism, based on recognition of the emblem in their areas of intervention.

**OSV Not Included as an Element of Analysis in Planning**

Official disaster preparedness and contingency, and emergency response plans at national or municipal levels tend to overlook OSV components in their analyses. This is similar for many humanitarian organisations that operate in the area, including agencies responsible for emergency response coordination in the event of natural disasters (CONRED, REDLAC, etc.).

**Robust Security Plans Included in Humanitarian Interventions and Budgets**

Organisations are increasingly aware of the imperative to protect both their staff and the populations they serve. This typically means increased expenditure on security and protection. Security plans must also be sufficiently flexible to anticipate either the temporary or permanent cancellation of humanitarian programming when the deterioration of security demands it.

**A New Humanitarian Worker Profile Required**

Response in areas of high conflict requires the intervention of qualified personnel who are experienced in negotiation, security, and conflict resolution. This level of competency is often not easily available and humanitarian personnel may need to be trained specifically in these matters.

**Effects on Physical and/or Mental Health and Attacks on Humanitarian Staff**

- Exposure to stress and danger, such as physical or psychological threats or extortion, as a result of working in a complex context may necessitate psychosocial support for humanitarian workers.
Emergency personnel working in health centres, hospitals, and ambulances who treat members of rival gangs experience intimidation and threats as well as loss of first-aid kits and other medical supplies through theft.

- There are reports of participants in community consultations or programmes being murdered, and of extortions and abuse of humanitarian workers in certain areas.

This information should be collectively gathered and analysed, by humanitarian stakeholders, to strengthen security, prevention, and contingency plans, as well as to reinforce the coordination, complementary, and integrated response of various actors.

**Limits on Freedom of Expression**

Community participation in consultation programmes has decreased progressively. Reliable sources tell of at least two cases where community members who participated in focus group discussions were murdered, apparently as a result of expressing their opinions. In Guatemala, one person was killed; and in Honduras, eight community leaders were murdered after community consultations. The phrase “see, hear, and say nothing” is gaining currency in high-risk areas, often written in graffiti as a warning to communities.

According to key informants active in OSV areas, trends of child recruitment by gangs indicate a reduction in the initiation age from ten to seven. This is attributed to shorter court sentences handed down to children caught committing a crime. An increase has also been seen in numbers of young children on bicycles who report on community members and outsiders as well on patrols of state security forces accessing the territory.

Levels of physical and social isolation among NTCA residents is on the rise as a result of their unwillingness to participate in community activities.

**Fear of Sharing Opinions and Providing Information**

A loss of access to the population of certain areas has been seen along with fear of answering questions. Sources from the INE (National Institute of Statistics) for each country and the IUDOP (an organisation experienced in carrying out perception surveys in El Salvador) have confirmed this trend. Freedom of expression is restricted and “self-censorship” as a survival strategy is on the rise.

**Difficult Access to Basic Care and Humanitarian Aid for Prison Populations**

An especially vulnerable group are the incarcerated. They live in precarious conditions in dilapidated infrastructures with overcrowding that frequently exceeds penitentiary capacities by 200 or 300%. According to sources, they are regularly excluded from national preparedness and emergency response plans.

**Recommendations**

Within the context of OSV, humanitarian organisations are faced with a challenging and unfamiliar context. They need to:

- Consider the consequences of OSV in response strategies and operational guides, prioritising emergency programming that attends to the needs of the most vulnerable where and when state capabilities are overwhelmed. The specific context and the threats — to life and physical safety, to health and protection, as well as to access to basic services and livelihoods (or the lack of it) — need to be assessed by adopting a “do no harm” approach in all phases of intervention.

- Carry out a situation analysis on which to base humanitarian responses, identifying the priority needs of the affected population (health, education, protection, etc.), and analysing the driving factors behind the different types of violence and local dynamics. This may require development of humanitarian profiles to include relevant competences (negotiation, conflict resolution, and security).

- Negotiate access with representatives of gangs and armed groups and develop and use robust security policies for working in the OSV context.

- Employ a multi-sector approach and work with stakeholders that are familiar with the area have contacts with the population and local actors. Religious groups and the Red Cross were the most frequently mentioned potential partners with greater acceptance and presence in OSV areas.

- Existing violence prevention programmes are a valuable source of information as well as useful to identify potential partners and entry points for humanitarian intervention.

- Aside from local grassroots organisations, a number of international humanitarian actors have experience of working in contexts similar to those of OSV, among them ICRC (International Committee of the Red Cross), MSF (Médecins Sans Frontières), and UNHCR. Ties should be strengthened and information shared between humanitarian organisations that have access to high-risk areas.
Humanitarian organisations can contribute by producing a body of evidence, creating documents, photos, maps, case studies, and gathering information that can feed into (future) early warning systems. They can also document critical situations and help to devise the key messages that can influence decision makers.

Above all, it is imperative to identify and document the most invisible aspects of this crisis – such as forced internal and cross-border displacement, school dropout due to fear or threats, etc. – and to do so in an extensive manner with qualitative and quantitative detail. This will allow for improved advocacy with Governments, donors, and other stakeholders, and give greater visibility to the situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANISATIONS</th>
<th>ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Local presence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Familiarity with the context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contact with key local actors/stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Familiarity with and collection/analysis of evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experience in contexts of armed conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN System</td>
<td>Reinforcement of institutional capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support for national counterparts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collection/analysis and use of evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humanitarian coordination (including with Governments)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement</td>
<td>Auxiliary to the Governments in emergency response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experience in humanitarian action and emergency response in conflict and violent contexts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Presence of a wide network of volunteers at local, department and national levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greater recognition and access</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have existing violence prevention strategy and programmes at national and regional level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Robust security strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support advocacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Church, religious and social groups</td>
<td>Local presence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Familiarity with the context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contact with key actors/stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legitimacy given by the community and institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collection of evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support with advocacy and response planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Society</td>
<td>Local presence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Familiarity with the context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contact with key protagonists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legitimacy given by the community and institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>May be able to support the creation of evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support with advocacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK, CHALLENGES IN MEASUREMENT AND RECOMMENDATIONS

— ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK —

**POPULATION STATUS**

Drivers of the crisis

Pre-existing vulnerability factors

**IMPACT**

Direct and indirect impact by sectors:
- Health
- Forced displacement, asylum seekers, refugees, migration movements (irregulars and deported)
- Education
- Livelihoods
- Protection

Coping mechanisms of the affected population

Magnitude of the affected population and vulnerable groups

Intensity and severity of their condition

**HUMANITARIAN ACCESS**

Access to assistance by the population
Lack of basic services, destruction of social networks, self-censorship.

Access to the population by humanitarian actors
Humanitarian space, invisible borders, negotiations on access and security, etc.

Security
Risk and threats assessments, security plans, use of private or public security personnel

Logistics
Access, buildings, resources, infrastructures, etc.

**RESPONSE CAPACITY — ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES**

National government response
At national, provincial and municipal level. Presence of army and security forces in some areas

Non governmental response
Red Cross, NGOs, civil society, the church, private sector, etc.

International response
International humanitarian organizations, donors, private sector, etc.

**SEVERITY OF THE CRISIS AND HUMANITARIAN PROFILE**

Type of crisis

Affected areas

Affected groups

Trends

Information gaps
Analytical Framework

The recommended analytical framework above contains elements similar to those used in a situation of natural disaster. The framework includes the situation of the population (contributing/underlying factors of the crisis), identification of impacts and coping strategies, humanitarian access (population to aid and humanitarian actors to population) and the response capacities of institutions, NGOs, civil society and international organisations.

It is important to investigate thoroughly what information and evidence is already available for measuring the humanitarian impact of OSV. Valuable data can be provided by existing violence prevention and citizen security programmes that have data collection and monitoring systems in place and by the existing observatories or initiatives that monitor violence at country and regional level. The proposed analytical framework includes three essential pillars, which should be considered to gain an idea of the humanitarian scope and profile of OSV in the NTCA:

1. **Situation of the population**: Includes an analysis of the contributing factors to the crisis, pre-existing vulnerabilities, the main characteristics of (direct and indirect) repercussions of OSV by sector (health, education, livelihoods, protection, displacement, etc.), coping strategies of the affected population, size of the affected population, vulnerable groups, and the intensity and severity of living conditions.

2. **Humanitarian access**: This includes an analysis of the access of the affected population to humanitarian assistance, the access of humanitarian workers to the affected population as well as how security and logistics issues impact access.

3. **Capacity for response**: Looks at national level capacity of both government and non-governmental agencies (the Government, Red Cross, the Church and other religious groups, NGOs, the private sector, core organisations, etc.) and at the international level, the role of international humanitarian organisations, regional governments, donors, etc.).

Important challenges are the reliability, coherence, and consistency of the data gathered from different sources as well as weaknesses in the harmonisation and centralisation of the information. Likewise, there are limits on access to information from high-risk zones (due to invisible borders, fear and mistrust, security problems, etc.), which cause high levels of underreporting and holes in the statistics (unreported crime).

The greatest challenge is to capture both quantitatively and qualitatively the magnitude and severity of the more invisible consequences of OSV, such as forced recruitment, irregular, forced displacement (internal and across borders), abandoning education owing to violence, etc. This increases the difficulty in the profiling of the most vulnerable affected population as well as in gaining a reliable understanding of their priority needs.

**Measuring the Humanitarian Impact of OSV**

To measure the humanitarian impact of OSV, it is important to identify and agree on key indicators (both existing and to be created and adapted), information sources, gaps in information, as well as the challenges and limitations that exist for measuring impact.

This study has focused on identifying all these elements through a review of secondary data complemented with interviews with key informants at the national and regional level to identify key qualitative and quantitative indicators for the different sectors.

Although the zones with the highest incidence of violence were identified (see Annexes 1-4 and 8), limited time and the multi-sector focus have meant that it was not possible to conduct an in-depth analysis of the specific impact of OSV in any of the three countries, sectors, or particular groups affected.

For the next phase of OSV research, it is proposed that the humanitarian organisations should, either individually (according to their mandate) or collectively (as part of a coordinated initiative to analyse needs) identify and prioritise geographic areas and specific groups vulnerable to OSV in one of the NTCA countries, or in relation to one of the sectors, to try to measure the scale and severity of the humanitarian impact of OSV.

In the NTCA countries, there is a broad range of quantitative and qualitative information available that can assist in measurement of the various impacts of OSV on the population. It is important to bear in mind that, in most cases, the information available has not been designed to filter the OSV component and will require multiple levels of analysis.

A description is given below of the sources of information available and the key challenges related to that information. There is also a description of the opportunities to
measure impact based on the information available along with a series of practical recommendations.

**Information Sources in NTCA countries**
- Governmental offices: the Public Prosecutor’s Office, Human Rights Attorneys Offices (Guatemala and El Salvador) and the Justice and Human Rights Department (Honduras), Forensic Science Institutes, Inspectorates, the Judicial Agency, migration general directorates, institutes in the sector (for women, childhood and health), and other ministries (health, education), etc.
- Forces of law and order: National Civil Police, National Criminal Investigations Department (consultation of information based on data from PNC and DNIC), etc.
- Universities and monitoring stations that study violence (IUDPAS, IUDOP, GAM, Observatories of violence), human rights, urban health and women’s rights, etc.
- The National Red Cross of each country, international and local NGOs: Casa Alianza, OXFAM, MSF, Save the Children, and organisations that reflect sexual diversity, the Church and religious groups, etc.
- Think tanks: universities, Ca-Bi (Central America Business Intelligence), London University, Berkeley University, Vanderbilt University etc.
- International organisations: UNHCR, UNDP, UNODC, UNHCR, PAHO, World Bank, ICRC, IFRC, CEPAL, UNFPA, Small Arms Survey, Igarapé Institute, HASOW, ALNAP, IDMC, Woodrow Wilson Centre, and Amnesty International, etc.
- Private sector: Chambers of Trade, business associations, teachers’ unions, etc.
- Perception surveys: LAPOP, ENDESA, ENCOVI, CONJUVE, IUDOP, COHADEH, UNICEF, ENSMI, UPCV, etc.
- Public opinion polls: SICA, CEPAL, LAPOP, Latin Barometer, etc.
- National and regional media.

**Challenges Arising from Measurement**
- There are significant discrepancies in figures given by different sources, or by the same source for the same issue, making harmonisation of data challenging.
- In some cases, the reliability of different sources and/or the impartiality of the data are questionable.
- There are weaknesses in the systemisation of qualitative information and in the connection between the qualitative and quantitative analysis and findings.
- Difficulties in gaining access to primary sources and limits to the information they can provide.
- There are no integrated information systems with standardised indicators or mechanisms for exchange and dissemination.

**Opportunities for Measurement**
- Existence of monitoring stations at different levels (municipal, national and regional).
- Existence of recognised public opinion polls at national and regional level that generate reliable data (e.g. SICA, CEPAL, LAPOP, Latin Barometer, etc.).
- Existence of multiple programmes (government and non-government) to prevent violence, ensure safe cities, create child- and teacher-friendly schools, create safe community spaces, etc. which provide key information to measure and supply an information system.
- The transparency laws of the three countries facilitate access to government information that is freely available and can be requested online.
- Data on homicides, injuries, and acts of physical and sexual violence are recorded by a significant number of state agents at regional and national level (PNC, the Public Prosecutor’s Office, Forensic Science, etc.) and by non-State agents (national and local monitoring stations, human rights organisations, etc.). Often the official information available for the most important criminal actions is disaggregated according to gender, age group, and geographic area.
- There are maps of zones with high rates of homicides and criminality, which are updated regularly.
- Opinion polls and perception and victimisation surveys that are representative at national or sub-national level may be used in combination with population censuses (or projections) to calculate magnitude and help determine scale of the seriousness of certain problems and their humanitarian impact. In this study various, opinion polls were used to make an approximate calculation of the magnitude of certain impacts (e.g. on forced displacement). However, it is important to remember that these results are an approximate projection.

**Practical Recommendations for Measurement**

**Obtain Specialist Technical Support**
Humanitarian organisations have made numerous requests for the following:
- **Technical support for more concrete measurement** of the magnitude, seriousness, and impact of OSV, especially the more hidden and invisible aspects, such as forced displacement; and
- **The production of a similar report for Mexico.**
A thorough review of tools and methodologies used in various countries or contexts for measuring the OSV phenomena could assist the identification of best practices, according to the context, and serve as a sort of "toolkit".

Create an OSV Monitoring and Analysis Group at Regional Level
Based in Panama or in one of the NTCA countries, the group would jointly:
- Agree on and implement an integrated monitoring system that is simple, coherent, and relevant ("measures what you value and values what you measure").
- Gathers information from focal points in countries that permit the compilation of an annual regional report.
- Maintain a consolidated database available to stakeholders.
- Adapt existing mechanisms to incorporate specific OSV concerns (such as perception and victimisation surveys).
- Use the results of the analysis and evidence for advocacy actions and to elaborate key messages.

The group should include humanitarian organisations, INGOs, and the UN as well as universities and observatories and other initiatives studying violence who are present in the NTCA.

Identify Basic Indicators to Measure OSV
Use simple, relevant, and regular indicators, broken down – where possible – by gender, age, etc., to enable measurement of the magnitude of the impact of OSV. Indicators that already exist and those which need to be constructed are included in the analyses of humanitarian impact in each sector and in the indicators table in Annex 8.

Identify International Indicators Already Measuring or Which Could Be Adapted to Measure OSV
For example, indicators of citizens’ security (Regional System of Standard Indicators of Citizens’ Co-Existence and Security), IASC (Inter-Agency Standing Committee) indicators, minimum norms to protect childhood, the Geneva Declaration, etc.

Include OSV in Monitoring Systems Developed to Respond to Emergencies
Verify if a toolkit is available in the contingency, monitoring, emergency and prevention plans or the IASC Clusters Approach that may include a series of indicators to which OSV could be added.

Identify “Invisible” or Less Visible OVS Impacts Qualitatively and Quantitatively
Use monitoring of mass media, discussions with key actors and focal groups (such as displacement, risks at school, specific risk zones, etc.).

Permanent Monitoring and Analysis of Media
Identify the main sources for mass media and categorisation of news and data by sectors of interest.

Set in Motion Institutional Systems to Analyse the Phenomenon of Displacement
This work began in Honduras after the creation of the Inter-Institutional Commission for the Protection of Persons Displaced by Violence with the support of UNHCR UNHCR UNHCR

Reinforce Understanding of Humanitarian Issues and the Links between Humanitarian and Development Issues
There is an observed lack of understanding and awareness about the role played by humanitarian organisations (among Governments, civil society, and other development agents). It is important to boost understanding with a view to developing combined and complementary measures with development actors.

Strengthen the Capacities of the Competent Authorities and Local Organisations in the Different Sectors
Build awareness, familiarity with legal norms, record and monitor of cases, draw up guidelines for protection, etc.

Use Digital Geo-reference Technology and/or Traditional Maps that Can Be Superimposed to Combine Different Variables
Analysts could superimpose maps with different types of data for analytical purposes, for example using maps showing poverty, socio-economic indicators, available infrastructures (health centres, transport routes, etc.), and maps that show zones of high criminality or violence. This would enable a better understanding of the dynamics in different zones and support the identification of areas with greater potential vulnerability to be prioritised. Identifying, for example, zones with higher rates of abandonment of education, the number/type of injuries treated at health centres and emergency services provided by ambulances or first-aid teams, main causes of mortality given by health centres, zones with high indices of rape, mapping of activities to control vectors conducted in the zone, zones which reject or accommodate migration, etc.
Use Evidence Generated by Monitoring Systems

Use evidence generated by the established (or newly created) monitoring systems to:

- Document and promote actions that increase the visibility of the humanitarian impact of OSV. Also it can support the creation of profiles of the most vulnerable groups and advocate for adequate responses to their priority needs.
- Use the evidence generated by the OSV monitoring system and OSV interventions to prompt humanitarian action and to advocate for support for these invisible victims.

Annexes

1. Map of NTCA homicide rate 2013 (MapAction)
2. Map of Honduras homicide rate 2013 (MapAction)
3. Map of Guatemala homicide rate 2013 (MapAction)
5. Acronyms
6. Methodology
7. Sources
8. Proposed indicators to better measure and improve understanding of the humanitarian impact of OSV
Drug trafficking is a major factor contributing to high levels of violence and corruption in the NTCA. It further aggravates the burden on already saturated criminal justice systems. Areas such as Petén, which has a huge border with Mexico, are difficult to control.

Atlantis (in La Mosquitia, Honduras) and Sonsonate (Pacific coast of El Salvador) are strategic points on the drug route into the US.

The areas with the highest homicide and crime rates are mainly urban locations, coastal areas linked to drug trafficking and the border areas, especially between Guatemala and Honduras.
In 2013, five departments had homicide rates above the national average of 79 per 100,000 people: Cortés with 133.3; Atlántida with 115.1; Yoro with 105.3; Colón with 83.8; and Ocotépeque with 80.8. Eight other departments had rates between 37 and 79: Olancho; Comayagua; Francisco Morazán; Lempira; Santa Bárbara; Gracias a Dios; Copán; and Bay Islands.

According to UNHCR data, the departments with the highest homicide and crime rates in 2012 coincide with the place of origin of migrant returnees with which a direct relationship can be established between high levels of violence and cross-border displacement (UNHCR 2014[43]).

---

[43] Information about linking departure areas with levels of violence was shared by UNHCR from the preliminary results of a study not yet published.
The highest rates of lethal and non-lethal violence are concentrated mainly in urban centres in Guatemala city, along the border with Honduras, Belize and Mexico, and in coastal areas that correspond to the Zacapa, Chiquimula, Escuintla, Izabal, Guatemala, Santa Rosa and Petén departments (Map produced with INACIF 2013 data).
The concentration of violence is in Cuscatlán, La Paz, Cabañas, Usulután, La Unión, San Vicente, San Salvador, and Sonsonate (map and homicide rate calculation produced with IML data).
### Annex 5 - Acronyms of Organisations/Sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Organisation/Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACNUR / UNHCR</td>
<td>The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AI</td>
<td>Amnesty International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALNAP</td>
<td>Active Learning Network for Accountability and Performance in Humanitarian Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMIREDIS</td>
<td>Association of Disabled Returning Migrants (Honduras)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASPIDH</td>
<td>Solidarity Association to Promote Human Development (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BM / WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA-BI</td>
<td>Central America Business Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECLA</td>
<td>Economic Commission for Latin America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRC</td>
<td>International Committee of the Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IACHR</td>
<td>Inter-American Commission on Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIDEHUM</td>
<td>International Centre for the Human Rights of Migrants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNE</td>
<td>National Education Council (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONADEH</td>
<td>National Commission for Human Rights (Honduras)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONAPES</td>
<td>National Council for Small Businesses (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONJUVE</td>
<td>National Youth Council (Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONNA</td>
<td>National Council for Childhood and Adolescence (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONRED</td>
<td>National Coordinator for Disaster Reduction (Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRC</td>
<td>Honduran Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRC</td>
<td>Guatemalan Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRE</td>
<td>Salvadoran Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRE</td>
<td>Spanish Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DGM</td>
<td>General Directorate of Migration (Honduras/Guatemala/El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIGESTYC</td>
<td>General Directorate of Statistics and Census (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNIC</td>
<td>National Directorate of Criminal Investigation (Honduras)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECHO</td>
<td>European Community Humanitarian Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENDESA</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey (Honduras)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENCOVI</td>
<td>National Survey of Living Conditions (Honduras)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLACSO</td>
<td>Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGR</td>
<td>Public Prosecutor’s Office of the Republic (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRC</td>
<td>International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUNDESA</td>
<td>Guatemalan Development Foundation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAM</td>
<td>Mutual Support Group (Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HASOW</td>
<td>Humanitarian Action in Situations Other than War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIVOS</td>
<td>Humanist Institute for Cooperation with Developing Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IASC</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Standing Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDMC</td>
<td>Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDRC</td>
<td>International Development Research Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEPADES</td>
<td>Educational Institute for Sustainable Development (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMIL</td>
<td>Institute of Legal Medicine (Honduras / El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INACIF</td>
<td>National Institute of Forensic Sciences (Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INE</td>
<td>National Statistics Institute (Honduras / Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRIN</td>
<td>Integrated Regional Information Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISDEMU</td>
<td>Salvadoran Institute for Women’s Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUDOP</td>
<td>University Institute of Public Opinion (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UUDPAS</td>
<td>University Institute of Democracy, Peace and Security (Honduras)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIPS</td>
<td>Joint Initiative to create humanitarian profiles of IDPs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAPPOP</td>
<td>Latin American Public Opinion Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGBTI</td>
<td>Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINSA</td>
<td>Ministry of Health (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINED</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSF</td>
<td>Doctors without Borders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSPAS</td>
<td>Doctors without Borders - Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MP</td>
<td>Ministry of Public Health and Social Assistance (Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNA</td>
<td>Public Ministry (Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCHA</td>
<td>Boys, girls and adolescents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMS / WHO</td>
<td>Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Organisation of American States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPS / PAHO</td>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSV</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTTRANS</td>
<td>Pan American Health Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTRANS</td>
<td>Other Situations of Violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OXFAM</td>
<td>Trans Queens of the Night Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDH</td>
<td>Oxford Committee for Famine Relief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDDH</td>
<td>Human Rights Prosecutor (Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNC</td>
<td>Office for the Defence of Human Rights (El Salvador)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONG</td>
<td>National Civil Police (Honduras/Guatemala)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex 6 - Methodology

Research Methodology and Review of Secondary Information
This study sought to identify key aspects of the humanitarian impact of (OSV) as per the request and interest of organisations in the region. The objective includes identifying the direct and indirect impacts from a multi-sector perspective and proposes an analytical framework and indicators that measure this phenomenon and support humanitarian decision-making of this problem.

Analytical Questions
- What is known about OSV humanitarian consequences in NTCA countries? Review and analyse secondary information on OSV, focusing on identifying the direct and indirect, visible and invisible, short and long-term impacts in key sectors.
- Can OSV be created as a humanitarian crisis? Identify indicators and measurement options to account for the magnitude of the phenomenon and the humanitarian needs created by OSV.
- How do you measure the humanitarian impact of OSV? Provide recommendations and analysis elements to monitor and assist the decision-making of the humanitarian response in the area.

A team of two people worked in the area between February and April 2013, conducting a review of secondary information. They visited each of the three NTCA countries (Honduras, Guatemala, and El Salvador) where they conducted interviews (individually or in groups) with key informants and used findings from these interviews to include additional secondary information. Interviews with key informants included members of Government departments at national and municipal levels: health (primary only); education; emergency response coordination; governance, Public Prosecutor’s Office; Chancellor’s Office; CONRED/persons in charge of emergencies; Government institutions for child protection. Interviews further included; Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement; humanitarian, national, and international development organisations; NGOs; civil society; UN agencies; the church; observatories; think-tanks; universities; private sector representatives; Chambers of Commerce; journalists; and affected community members. The next phase included reviewing the additional secondary information and merging the information into a report that was shared and amended following input from people who participated in the review process.

OSV affected areas were not visited during this process, as this was not part of the scope of this study. However, there was an opportunity to talk to some people living in OSV areas to learn of their reality first hand.

The research included review of more than 300 secondary information documents, including reports, statistical data, perception surveys, project reports, lessons learned, baselines, journalistic articles and investigations, videos, etc. At least 93 key informants were carried out individually or in groups.

ACAPS wishes to express its' gratitude to NTCA Governments, UN agencies, national and international NGOs, civil society, donors, church, journalists, observatories, universities, the private sector, members of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and the community who dedicated time, data, and resources to contribute to the preparation and review of this document.
Annex 7 - Sources

**General**
- AECID
- ALNAP
- Amnesty International (AI)
- ASIES /Association for Research and Social Studies
- CABI
- Digestyc - Dirección General de Estadística y Censos, El Salvador /Digestyc - General Directorate of Statistics and Census, El Salvador
- ECHO
- ECHO 2013: HIP OSV Central America (2013)
- ECHO HIP OSV 2013
- El Faro
- Guatemalan Red Cross
- Geneva Declaration, the
- HASOW Institute
- Honduran Red Cross
- ICRC
- IFRC
- INACIF Guatemala
- Informe Mundial de homicidio en (2014) /Global Study on homicide in (2014)
- Insightcrime
- Instituto de Medicina Legal (El Salvador) /IML (El Salvador)
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística - INE, Guatemala /National Statistics Institute – INE, Guatemala
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística - INE, Honduras /National Statistics Institute – INE, Honduras
- International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)
- IUDPAS. Observatorio de Violencia - Honduras /IUDPAS. Violence Observatory - Honduras
- La prensa grafica
- Norwegian Red Cross
- OIT/ILO
- OXFAM
- PNUD /UNDP
- REDLAC: Diagnosing Violence in Latin America and the Caribbean: Costs, Causes and Responses
- Salvadoran Red Cross
- Save the Children
- Spanish Red Cross
- UNFPA: United Nations Population Fund
- UNICEF
- UNODC
- USAID
- Wilson Centre
- WOLA (Washington Office on Latin America)
- World Vision

**Health**
- Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS) / World Health Organisation (WHO)
  - World report on health and violence (2002)
- Organización Panamericana de la Salud (OPS/PAHO) /Pan American Health Organisation (PAHO)
  - Migration outlook of doctors and nurses in the region of Central America and the Dominican Republic (2011)
  - Basic Indicators of the Health of the Americas (2012)
  - Violence against women (2013)
- Secretaría de Salud, Honduras /Ministry of Health, Honduras
- Ministerio de Salud Pública y Asistencia Social (MSPAS), Guatemala /Ministry of Public Health and Social Assistance (MSPAS), Guatemala
  - Diagnóstico de la Salud 2012 (Guatemala) /Health Diagnosis 2012 (Guatemala)
  - Encuesta Nacional Materno Infantil (ENSMI) /National Reproductive Health Survey (ENSMI)
  - Encuesta Nacional de Condiciones de Vida (ENCovi) 2011 /National Survey of Living Conditions (ENCovi) 2011
- Observatorio de la Salud Urbana (OSU), Guatemala /Urban Health Observatory (UHO), Guatemala
- Ministerio de Salud (MINSAL), El Salvador /Ministry of Health (MINSAL), El Salvador
- Cruz Roja Honduras /Honduran Red Cross
- Cruz Roja Guatemalteca /Guatemalan Red Cross
- Cruz Roja Salvadoreña /Salvadorean Red Cross
Forced Displacement, Asylum Seekers, Refugees, and Migration Flows

- UNHCR. Children on the run. Unaccompanied children leaving Central America and Mexico and the need for international protection, 2014
- UNHCR CIDEHUM. Desplazamiento forzado y necesidades de protección generados por nuevas formas de violencia y criminalidad en Centroamérica. 2012. / UNHCR CIDEHUM. Forced displacement and protection needs created by new forms of violence and crime in Central America, 2012.
- Dirección general de migración de Honduras. / Directorate-General for migration in Honduras.
- Dirección General de Migración de Guatemala. / Directorate-General for migration in Guatemala.
- Dirección General de Migración y Extranjería, El Salvador. / Directorate-General for Migration and Immigration, El Salvador.
- UNHCR/JIPS
- Amnesty International
- Amnistía Internacional
- INM (Migration Institute of Mexico)

Data

DPAS, INACIF, IML, UNODC (2000-2012)

UNHCR, Children on the run. Unaccompanied children leaving Central America and Mexico and the need for international protection, 2014
- UNHCR CIDEHUM. Desplazamiento forzado y necesidades de protección generados por nuevas formas de violencia y criminalidad en Centroamérica. 2012. / UNHCR CIDEHUM. Forced displacement and protection needs created by new forms of violence and crime in Central America, 2012.
- Dirección general de migración de Honduras. / Directorate-General for migration in Honduras.
- Dirección General de Migración de Guatemala. / Directorate-General for migration in Guatemala.
- Dirección General de Migración y Extranjería, El Salvador. / Directorate-General for Migration and Immigration, El Salvador.

Media

- Proceso Digital 2012/ El Mundo 2011
- Proceso Digital 2012/ El Mundo 2011: Mad houses
- Infosur 2014: Police recover homes

Data

- IUDPAS, INACIF, IML, LAPOP, Barómetro de las Américas / IUDPAS, INACIF, IML, LAPOP, the Americas Barometer

Education

- Department of Education, Honduras
- Ministry of Education, Guatemala
- Ministry of Education, El Salvador
- National Programme for Prevention, Rehabilitation and Social Re-assimilation. The situation with Gangs in Honduras. 2011
- UNICEF. Violence in education centres in Guatemala. 2011
- National Education Board. IUDOP. Systemisation report and validation of the results of the national inquiry called "Education for a country without violence". 2011
- CONJUVE. First national youth inquiry (ENJU). Guatemala. 2011
- Interpeace. The violent and the violated. Gender relations in the Salvatrucha and Barrio 18 gangs in the northern triangle of Central America. 2011.
- UNICEF. Country statistics. Honduras, Guatemala, El Salvador

Honduras

- CONADEH. Insecurity Inquiry. 2012
- National Programme for Prevention, Rehabilitation and Social Re-assimilation. The situation concerning Gangs in Honduras. 2011

Media
- El Heraldo
- La Prensa
- La Tribuna

Guatemala
- CONJUVE. First national youth inquiry (ENJU). 2011
- UNICEF. Violence in education centres in Guatemala. 2011

Media
- Prensa Libre
- El Periódico

El Salvador
- Ministry of Education. Education statistics.
- Ministry of Education. Report from the Ministry of Education to the Legislative Assembly on applications for transfers of teachers processed in line with the provisional decree no. 499, which remains in force until November 26, 2011.
- Teachers’ Union for rural, urban and urban-marginal education in El Salvador. 2014.
- National Education Board. IUDPAS. Report on the systemisation and validation of the results of the national inquiry called “Education for a country without violence.” 2011

Livelihoods
- PNUD: The cost of violence in El Salvador 2008
- PNUD: The cost of violence in Guatemala 2008
- World Bank: Crime and violence in Central America; a challenge for development (2011)
- BM-IFC: Country financial profile of Guatemala (2010),
- BM-IFC: Country financial profile of Guatemala (2010),
- BM-IFC: Country financial profile of El Salvador (2010),
- World Bank: Expenditure on security and justice in El Salvador
- Data: DIGESTYC socio-economic indicators
- ANEP: ENADE 2013 survey
- OIT: Work by teachers and juveniles in Latin America (2013)
- ASIES: Perspectives and realities of women who work in the informal economy (2013)
- OML: Labour market indicators (2013) Honduras
- SISNAM Labour Indicators Honduras (2011)
- ASIES Corporate Survey (2013)
- CIDHUM/UNHCR 2012: Diagnosis: “Forced Displacement and the Need for Protection generated by new forms of Violence and Criminality in Central America”
- San Carlos University (Guatemala)
- GAM 2013: Fatalities report, broken down by profession and occupation
- CONADEH 2014: Deaths in the transport sector
- IUDPAS 2012: January to December 2014 report
- CASA ALIANZA 2010
- (CONAPES 2013),
- UNICEF: Study on Gangs (2012)
- CONJUVE 2011, Casa Alianza: Information about qualitative and quantitative criminal data
- Wilson Centre: Ceasefire in El Salvador.
- Criminals (CONJUVE 2011, CASA ALIANZA).
- CRG 2014, PNUD 2014: Information about blackmail
- FUNDESA 2013

Media
- Periodismo Humano
- La Prensa Gráfica

- Insightcrime 2014: Article about extortions
Protection
General Violence
- IUDPAS (Honduras). Bulletins from the Gender Monitoring Station.
- Interpeace. The violent and the violated. Gender reports in the Salvatrucha and Barrio 18 gangs in the northern triangle of Central America. 2011.

Child Protection
- World childhood movement. The situation of the Central American countries, Mexico, Cuba and the Dominican Republic in relation to violence against boys, girls and adolescents following the United Nations study on Violence against Children. 2012.
- UNHCHR. Children on the run. Unaccompanied children leaving Central America and Mexico and the need for international protection. 2014.
- Casa Alianza (Honduras) 2013. Girls, boys and youths surviving on the street.
- Casa Alianza (Honduras) 2012. Analysis of the situation of the rights of unaccompanied children on the run in the context of processes for their deporting and return to Honduras.
- National Childhood and Adolescence Board of El Salvador - CONNA.

LGBTI population
- CATTRACHAS Lesbian Network, Honduras. Reports and statistics on the LGBTTTI community.
- OTRANS, Sexual diversity network (Guatemala). Reports and statistics on LGBTTI community.
## Annex 8 - Proposed Indicators on the Humanitarian Impact of OSV

### Health

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variable and derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>State of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Fatal consequences | Homicides | - Number of homicides due to OSV  
- Homicide rate by OSV (number of homicides / 100,000 people) | Man / woman / age group / geographic location (national - department - municipality - zone - settlement) / type of weapon used | Exists: number and rate of homicides at national level.  
Exists: number of homicides at department and municipal levels | Frequent: annual / monthly / daily | PNC, UIDPAS, media | INACIF, PPO [Public Prosecutor’s Department], media | IML, PPO, media |
| Suicides | - Number of suicides  
- Suicide rate (suicides / 100,000 people) | Man / woman / age group / geographic location (national - department - municipality - zone - settlement). | Exists: at national / department level but need to improve to capture OSV connection. | Frequent: Annual / monthly | PNC, UIPAS, media | INACIF, PPO, media | IML, PPO, media |

### Non-fatal consequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variable and derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>State of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Deterioration in physical health | - Number of forensic evaluations on victims of violence  
- Number of patients who were victims of sexual aggression linked to OSV  
- Number of reports and/or convictions for personal injuries  
- % of people who say in health or OSV victimisation surveys that they have suffered injuries.  
To improve: consolidation of information about injuries from other sources: hospitals / health centres / programmes - MSF, Red Cross, etc.  
Desegregation of patients who are victims of sexual aggression and/or domestic violence within the family versus OSV (frequently connected to rape by multiple perpetrators) | Frequent: forensic evaluations available annually / monthly and at geographic level, depending on the country.  
Occasional: information about injuries and disabilities only available occasionally: can be improved by identifying key people in the ministry of health or hospitals, Red Cross, etc., to provide information gathered monthly or annually.  
Data on disabilities can be obtained from hospitals / social protection department / CICR but need to be broken down by OSV cause. | IUDPAS, forensic science, Public Prosecutor’s Office, PNC, Ministries of Health, hospital, school or tertiary hospitals which attend emergencies – public and private: Red Cross, MSF, health departments and municipal public health depts., media. | INACIF, Public Prosecutor’s Office, Ministry of Health (MSPAS), hospital, school or tertiary hospitals which attend emergencies – public and private: San Juan de Dios Hospital, Roosevelt Hospital, etc., Red Cross, PDH, Urban Health Department / Monitoring Station of Department of Guatemala, CA-BI, media. | Forensic Science Institute, PNC, Public Prosecutor’s Office, Ministry of Health (MSPAS), hospital, school or tertiary hospitals which attend emergencies – public and private: San Juan de Dios Hospital, Roosevelt Hospital, etc., Red Cross, MSF, PDH, Urban Health Department / Monitoring Station of Department of Guatemala, media. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variable and derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>State of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deterioration in mental health</td>
<td>% of mental health services, staff available / appointments attended owing to OSV (directly or indirectly).</td>
<td>Man / woman / age group / geographic area (department - municipality - zone – settlement) / type of problem / type of care given / place (hospital, school, health centre, etc.).</td>
<td>Not much data exist, except those related to specific programmes of MSF, the Red Cross and some health centres. To improve: identify sources for number of patients, most common types of mental health problems in zones with a high incidence of violence.</td>
<td>Occasional: data exist from specific programmes (MSF in Mexico, attention to NTCA migrants, the El Salvador Red Cross – psychosocial care in red zones), but unable to find consolidated data at national level. Meetings are recommended with health departments to map services available at national department level and to see which information is collected systematically (number of patients seen, type of diagnosis – stress, depression, bereavement, percent of patients who give up treatment, etc.).</td>
<td>Ministry of Health, MSF, PAHO, etc.</td>
<td>Ministry of Health (MSPAS), PAHO, etc.</td>
<td>Ministry of Health (MINSAL), the Honduras Red Cross, PAHO, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>Proposed indicators</td>
<td>Disaggregation</td>
<td>State of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</td>
<td>Frequency of measurement</td>
<td>Sources of information in Honduras</td>
<td>Sources of information in Guatemala</td>
<td>Sources of information in El Salvador</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact on health systems</td>
<td>• Number of cases of emergency care due to OSV. • % of patients attended owing to a firearm wound. • Number of attacks against health / installations workers. • Number of health centres with/without limited service due to violence. • Number of operating health centres which offer integrated care to victims of rape or OSV. • Number of emergency services available (ambulances, medical personnel, paramedics, people in the community / school trained in first-aid). • Number of ambulance services for OSV cases (hospital / Red Cross / fire brigades). • Number of night-time emergency services per zone. • % of budget allocated to security. • Number of hospitals / health centres with and without security staff. • Data on fumigation, control of disease carriers and house-to-house campaigns conducted (or not) in high risk zones. • Access to health centres (maps with health centres and access routes, depending on the territorial control and times, surveys and inquiry data). • Number of health centres / services which provide care in high risk zones, types of services available and service staff. • Number of cancelled and/or postponed surgeries.</td>
<td>Man / woman / age group / type of injury / geographic area (department - municipality - zone - settlement) / type of care given / itemisation of budgetary entries for emergency care, etc.</td>
<td>Exists: data on injuries treated included in hospitals’ annual reports. For consolidated official national figures, the annual reports of the Ministries of Health in each country may be used. They show the data for emergencies and budgets allocated. Financial data that itemise the budget and expenditure are available in annual reports from the ministry of health. To improve / develop: information about health services (treatment of injuries) and emergency services (Red Cross, volunteer firemen, etc.) exist, but have not been consolidated. Data for pre-budgetary entries are not always broken down into emergency treatment for victims of injuries caused by violence and accidents. Childbirth is often included. Some information exists, but it is not consolidated nationally.</td>
<td>Occasional / moderately frequent: reports on treatment for injuries compiled annually / monthly by hospitals, by the emergency services and first aid (not always available or shared). At departmental / municipal level, morbidity data (break-bone fever, malaria, etc.) appear in early warning systems of the Ministry of Health. Information about fumigation campaigns can be found at municipal level, but may be difficult to track down.</td>
<td>Ministry of Health (at national, departmental and municipal level); hospitals (public and private), emergency services and first aid (the Red Cross, fire brigades, etc.); health and municipal public health departments (they mostly have information about morbidity owing to break-bone fever, malaria, etc., and about the preventive health campaigns and activities of control and fumigation).</td>
<td>Ministry of Health (national, departmental and municipal level); hospitals (public and private), emergency services and first aid (the Red Cross, fire brigades, etc.); health departments and municipal health departments (they mostly have information about morbidity owing to break-bone fever, malaria, etc., and about the preventive health campaigns and activities of control and fumigation).</td>
<td>Ministry of Health (national, departmental and municipal level); hospitals (public and private), emergency services and first aid (the Red Cross, fire brigades, etc.); health departments and municipal health departments (they mostly have information about morbidity owing to break-bone fever, malaria, etc., and about the preventive health campaigns and activities of control and fumigation).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>Main variable and derivatives</td>
<td>Proposed indicators</td>
<td>Disaggregation</td>
<td>State of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</td>
<td>Frequency of measurement</td>
<td>Sources of information in Honduras</td>
<td>Sources of information in Guatemala</td>
<td>Sources of information in El Salvador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to services and care</td>
<td>% of population affected with access to basic goods and services offered by the Government / humanitarian organisations (are there any changes in the trends?).</td>
<td>Man / woman / age group / type of injury / geographic area (department - municipality - zone - settlement) / type of care received / times and aspects related to access (invisible frontiers), extra transport costs to prevent passing through certain zones, participation levels in appointments, etc.</td>
<td>To develop: Depends on the organisation and type of programmes being implemented as much of this information can be gathered in existing development programmes or those to prevent violence, means of communication, and other agencies or organisations in the zone. Information may exist about previous operations, other core organisations, civil society, the Church, the Red Cross, municipalities, etc.</td>
<td>Occasional: They may exist, but interviews with humanitarian agents suggested not. There are protocols, maps, and other valuable information in programmes to prevent violence or integrated programmes that include security as a transverse factor.</td>
<td>The media, the Government, the municipality, and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td>The media, the Government, the municipality, and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td>The media, the Government, the municipality, and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>Main Variable and Derivatives</td>
<td>Proposed Indicators</td>
<td>Disaggregation</td>
<td>State of Indicator (exist / needs improvement / to develop)</td>
<td>Measurement Frequency</td>
<td>Information Sources in Honduras</td>
<td>Information Sources in Guatemala</td>
<td>Information Sources in El Salvador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Force Displacement and Migration</td>
<td>Multiple Displacement</td>
<td>Invisibility of Displacement</td>
<td>Number of homes occupied by gangs that have liberated by police Number of reports of threats associated with displacement Number or % of people in displacement situations in need of protection</td>
<td>Abandoned or recovered homes by geographic zone / reports per geographic zone / Number of displaced people (estimated numbers)</td>
<td>Exists: Reports, but they don't reflect reality due to underreporting</td>
<td>Occasional: there are perception surveys that include this question (e.g. IUDOP and other surveys done at a municipal level, but these do not represent the whole population). The UNDP/JIPS is working on the subject of evidence of OSV related to forced displacement</td>
<td>Media monitoring, IDMC, Church, civil society, UNHCR-JIPS, perception surveys, qualitative reports, etc.</td>
<td>Media monitoring, IDMC, Church, civil society, UNHCR-JIPS, IUDOP, perception surveys, qualitative reports, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Force Displacement and Migration</td>
<td>Multiple Displacement</td>
<td>Number or % of people that suffer multiple displacement due to OSV (estimate)</td>
<td>Man / woman / age group / urban-rural / number of displacements</td>
<td>To develop: There are some unrepresented perception/victimisation surveys and qualitative information in reports that capture this phenomenon, but they generally remain invisible. Collaboration with governments to raise awareness about this phenomenon</td>
<td>Occasional: There are perception surveys that include this question (e.g. IUDOP and other surveys done at a municipal level, but these do not represent the whole population). The UNDP/JIPS is working on the subject of evidence OSV related to forced displacement</td>
<td>Media monitoring, IDMC, Church, civil society, UNHCR-JIPS, perception surveys, qualitative reports, church etc.</td>
<td>Media monitoring, IDMC, Church, civil society, UNHCR-JIPS, perception surveys, qualitative reports, church etc.</td>
<td>Media monitoring, IDMC, Church, civil society, UNHCR-JIPS, perception surveys, qualitative reports, church etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Force Displacement and Migration</td>
<td>Multiple Displacement</td>
<td>Number of migrants (adults and minors) intercepted/detained in the US or Mexico Number of migrants (adults and minors) returned to NTCA Number of requests for asylum from NTCA countries Number or % of concessions for refugee status from NTCA applicants (which countries) Number or % of migrants (adults/minors) that attribute OSV as a cause for migration Number or % of deaths / disappearances / abductions / extortions on the migration route Number of people injured and/or disabled by violence on the migration route</td>
<td>Man / woman / age group / country of origin / region or origin (department - municipality - region - neighbourhood) / type of victimisation on the migration route Absolute number of migrants returned by air/land including country of origin</td>
<td>Exists: Intercepted migrants, returnees, requests for asylum, concessions of refugee status, Number of deaths / abductions / extortions on the migration route (data from Human Rights Watch - not the total number, just the reported or estimated number) To develop: Incorporate OSV as a cause for migration in perception surveys for migrants on route or returnees, in surveys at service centres for migrants (shelters, health-care, etc.)</td>
<td>Frequency: Annual/monthly Intercepted migrants, returnees, requests for asylum, concessions for refugee status, data for homicide/abductions/extortions of emigrants (especially media and Defenders of Human Rights Mexico)</td>
<td>DGM, PMH, UNHCR-JIPS, Service Centres for migrants (NTCA, Mexico, US, etc.), church, etc.</td>
<td>Media, DGM, PMH, UNHCR-JIPS, Service Centres for migrants (NTCA, Mexico, US, etc.), church, etc.</td>
<td>Monitoring of media, GM, PDDH, UNHCR-JIPS, UTEC, Service Centres for migrants (NTCA, Mexico, US, etc.), church</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Cross border Displacement**

**Increased risk and vulnerability on the migration route**

International Sources: Qualitative report with data, %, and quantitative approximations Amnesty International, UNICEF, UNHCR, IDMC, WRC, London University, Wilson Centre, US border patrol, CNHD Mexico, etc.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main Variable and Derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed Indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>State of Indicator (exists/needs improvement/ to develop)</th>
<th>Measurement Frequency</th>
<th>Information Sources in Honduras</th>
<th>Information Sources in Guatemala</th>
<th>Information Sources in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Education | Dangers on the way to school | Recruitment and exposure to violence | • Number of students killed or injured on the way to school  
• Estimated number or % of students affected by violence  
(death/sexual violence/injuries/threats)  
% of students accompanied by family members to school | Exists: reports of homicide of students on their way to school  
To develop: Research if there are reports, data, or estimates from the Department of Education, UNICEF, or other sources that reflect this phenomenon. School dropout could be caused by various reasons, need to check if it is possible to include specific question about reasons or a section where teachers could include their observations/opinions or comment on school dropout data in normal environments compared to "red-flag" areas or centres related to gangs. Include question about school dropouts due to OSV (threats, fear of recruitment) in perception essays, % of students that are accompanied by family members to avoid risks on the way - related to work absences (?) or limit work hours to be able to accompany students | Occasionally: There are some reports of abuse to students (physical, sexual, threats) and homicides, but don't seem to be standardised | PNC, Department of Education, UNICEF, INACIF, PNC, Ministry of Education, UNICEF, information from international donors, NGOs with education programmes: Save the Children, Red Cross, etc. | Perception surveys for youth and families | PNC, Department of Education, INACIF, PNC, Save the Children, Red Cross, etc. |
| Education | School as a place of risk and not a place of protection | Risks to students | • Number of students that report abuse/violence at the education centre  
• Absolute number of students that drop-out per quarter/grade  
% of students that drop-out /grade/quarter (national - dept. - municipality - region - neighbourhood)  
% of students that report fear/insecurity at school (national - dept. - municipality - region - neighbourhood) | Exists: / needs improvement: school dropouts (need to include the option drop-outs caused by OSV); fear/insecurity in school (include in opinion and perception surveys) | Frequency: annual. school dropouts (not related to OSV)  
Occasional: reports and surveys with quantitative and qualitative data about fear, abuse, insecurity, and education centres | Department of Education, INE, UNICEF, data from international donors, perception surveys | Department of Education, INE, AECID, UNICEF | Department of Education, AECID, education centres, CNE |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact on the school system and staff</th>
<th>Male / female / grade / age range / urban - rural area / geographic area: national level - department - municipality - neighbourhood</th>
<th>To develop: include OSV causes in records of school drop-outs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of students that claim OSV as a cause for dropping-out of the education system (country / department / municipality / neighbourhood)</td>
<td>Schools with presence of police/number of policemen per school/country (department - municipality - area - neighbourhood)</td>
<td>Extorts/needs improvement: Extortions of teachers (there are reports and information from teacher associations and media); list of schools with a presence of police, list of number of policemen destined to protect school routes; information regarding temporary or permanent closing of education centres due to OSV; presence of gangs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of extortion reports from teachers</td>
<td>School quarter/shift (day, evening, night)/number of days closed</td>
<td>Occasional: extorted teachers and closing of education centres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number or % of teachers that change schools due to OSV</td>
<td>Number of schools with police presence at the school or on the way to school</td>
<td>Moderately occasional: schools with police presence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of schools with police presence</td>
<td>Estimate of education centres temporarily closed due to OSV</td>
<td>PNC, Education Department, monitoring media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Prosecutor, GAM, INACIF, monitoring media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>IML, monitoring media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public access to service and assistance</td>
<td>Male/female/ethnic group/type of injury/geographic region (department - municipality - region - neighbourhood)/type of attention received/ hours and aspects related to access (invisible border, additional transportation costs to avoid crossing certain areas, level of participation from the community in consultations, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To develop: depends on the organisation and type of programme that is implemented since much of this information may be collected from existent development or violence prevention programmes, media, other agencies or regional organisations. There could be information from previous operations, from community-based organisations, civil society, church, Red Cross, municipality, etc.</td>
<td>Occasional: Could exist, but during interviews with humanitarians the impression was that there were not. Existent protocols, maps and other valuable information from violence prevention programmes or integrated programmes that include safety an overlapping factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media, government, municipality and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, Red Cross, donors, NGO, civil society, church, UNDSS etc.</td>
<td>Media, government, municipality and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, Red Cross, donors, NGO, civil society, church, UNDSS etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>Main Variable and Derivatives</td>
<td>Proposed Indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Livelihood | Extortion | Payment for extortion | Number or % of businesses that pay extortion  
Number or % of reports of extortion  
Number or % of threatened people (in profession or trade)  
Total business losses due to extortion | Type of business / amount / frequency / type of company / variations in amount of payment/geo-graphic area; national level - department - municipality - region - neighbourhood | Exists: reports of extortion or % of business that pay according to survey form the Chamber of Commerce, etc.  
% of businesses or SME that close due to OSV, amount of economic losses caused by extortion, payments (from extortion) to different trades and areas | Moderately frequent: annual claims and surveys or annual reports from the Chamber of Commerce, and related news in media  
PNC / Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Commerce / CCIT / COHEP / private sector/printed and audio-visual media/departments of safety and security UNDSS, etc., | PNC / Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Commerce / FUNDESA / CACIF / private sector / printed and audio-visual media / departments of safety and security UNDSS, etc., | PNC / Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Commerce / ANEP / private sector / printed and audio-visual media / departments of safety and security UNDSS, etc., |
| Livelihood | No payment for extortion | Number of homicides of workers / professionals specifically due to OSV (suspicion of lack of payment)  
Number of attacks or injured people in different professions and trades (public transportation, taxes, merchants) | Male / female / age / type of homicide or injury / profession or trade/geo-graphic area; national level - department - municipality - region - neighbourhood | Exists: homicide data by trade or profession, reports of attacks or threats (PNC and media) | Moderately frequent: annual reports and data from PNC or trades. Frequent news in media, however it requires daily follow-up in media | PNC/Ministry of Labour/Chambers of Commerce/CCIT/COHEP/private sector/printed and audio-visual media | PNC / Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Commerce / FUNDESA / CACIF / private sector / printed and audio-visual media / departments of safety and security UNDSS, etc., | PNC / Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Commerce / ANEP / private sector / printed and audio-visual media / departments of safety and security UNDSS, etc., |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variables and derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>Status of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Negative impact in living environments</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Levels of criminal activity in OSV areas (homicides, assaults, robberies, etc.) related to livelihoods (taxis, traders, drivers and conductors on public transport, etc.). Number of SMEs which have closed due to OSV (threats, blackmail) and/or loss of jobs.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• % of economic losses caused by blackmail from criminal groups.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• % of expenditure on security by companies and traders.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Number of private security firms and security guards (compared to State security forces)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Unemployment rate in areas at risk of social exclusion and high criminality (by gender, age and level of education).</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Restrictions to physical access, routes and times (curfews) in the districts.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Mapping of markets, value chains, and prices in red zones (chamber of trade, department of industry, ministry of agriculture, NGOs and core organisations).</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Formal and informal credit sought from institutions.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Number of absences from work caused by stress or anxiety derived from OSV (medical appointments, psychosocial care, etc.)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Man / woman / age / type of homicide or injury / type of incidence of criminal activities in that area (robberies, blackmail, etc.) / type of business affected / geographic area: nationally - department - municipality - zone – settlement / market maps by key products / disaggregation of access routes and restricted zones / credit institutions available in most violent zones / trends in levels of shipments in zone or country.

Exists: data on criminal activity in the zone (PNC and means of communication), polls by chamber of trade with traders and/or craft guilds, reports and articles in the media which report on economic losses, quotas of blackmail, unemployment rates in the department or municipality and reports from security firms.

To develop: market maps and prices, access routes and restrictions or invisible barriers, coverage by public transport – which zones are excluded or with limited timetables: unemployment rate in red areas.

Occasional – moderately frequent: Information is accessible but not regular. Unemployment figures can be obtained from the Ministry of Labour. Specific information about violence, security, income and expenditure is available at chambers of trade, craft guilds and home questionnaires.

PNC: Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Trade / CCIT / COHEP / private sector / printed and audio-visual means of communication / UNDSS security departments, etc.,
PNC: Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Trade / FUNDESA / CACIF / private sector printed and audio-visual means of communication / UNDSS security departments, etc.,
PNC: Ministry of Labour / Chambers of Trade / ANEP / private sector / printed and audio-visual means of communication / UNDSS security departments, etc.,
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variable and derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>Status of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access of the population to services and assistance</td>
<td>- % of population affected who has access to basic goods and services offered by the government / humanitarian organisations (are there any changes in the trends?)&lt;br&gt;- Number of emergency services available and used in the communities in the red zones (day and night?)&lt;br&gt;- Number of members of the community with training who can carry out first aid.&lt;br&gt;- OSV considerations and performance protocols for red zones included in preparation, response and contingency plans.&lt;br&gt;- Participation level of the community in consultation processes for the design, realisation, and evaluation of projects.&lt;br&gt;- Number of beneficiaries / clients who leave the programme owing to OSV (threats, etc.).&lt;br&gt;- Plans to respond to emergencies and disasters including performance protocols to intervene in red zones and preparatory measures.</td>
<td>Man / woman / age group / type of injury / geographic area (department - municipality - zone - settlement) / type of care received / times and aspects related to access (invisible frontiers), extra transport costs to prevent passing through certain zones, participation levels in queues, etc.</td>
<td>To develop: depends on the organisation and type of programmes being implemented, as much of this information can be gathered in existing development programmes or those to prevent violence, means of communication and other agencies or organisations in the zone. Information may exist about previous operations, other core organisations, civil society, the Church, the Red Cross, municipalities, etc.</td>
<td>Occasional: they may exist but interviews with humanitarian protagonists suggested not. There are protocols, maps and other valuable information in programmes to prevent violence or integrated programmes that include security as a transverse factor.</td>
<td>Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td>Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td>Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, and community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Protection

#### Gaps in protection and access to justice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variable and derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>Status of indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Man / woman / age / urban-rural / geographic location (department - municipality - zone - settlement) / route or zone where the treatment originated / year of the disappearance</td>
<td>Exists: data about sexual violence (complaints, forensic evaluations, surveys on victimisation and perception, etc.), although not always broken down by the aggressor (which means it is difficult to know if the cause is OSV or domestic violence). Exists / to improve: Disappearances, human trafficking connected to OSV</td>
<td>Forensic Science Institute, PNC, Inspectorates, DNIC</td>
<td>INACIF, Public Prosecutor’s Office, PDH</td>
<td>Forensic Science Institute, PNC, PDDH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of forensic evaluations issued by competent agencies (country / department / municipality) Number of complaints Number of convictions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of victims in country / department / municipality / form of treatment Number of complaints Number of convictions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of minor infringements, minors involved in gangs and criminal organisations, unaccompanied migrant minors who are intercepted or deported. To develop / improve: minors who are migrants owing to OSV and minors who live on the street.</td>
<td>Frequent: Minor infringements, unaccompanied migrant minors, minors involved in gangs and criminal organisations. Occasional: Minors involved in gangs and criminal organisations, minors who are migrants owing to OSV, minors who live on the street.</td>
<td>PNC, DGM, UNHCR (studies), Casa Alianza, IHNFA, UNICEF, qualitative reports.</td>
<td>PNC, MP, PDH, DGM, UNHCR (studies), UNICEF, qualitative reports.</td>
<td>PNC, PDDH, DGM, UNHCR (studies), UNICEF, qualitative reports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Estimated number of women in country / department / municipality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of minors detained owing to legal infringements. Number of unaccompanied minors intercepted in the USA and Mexico. Number of unaccompanied minors returned to their countries of origin. Minors linked to gangs and organised crime. Minors who migrate owing to violence. Minors who live or work on the streets and are victims of OSV.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Protection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Man / woman / age / urban-rural / geographic location (department - municipality - zone - settlement) / route or zone where the treatment originated / year of the disappearance</td>
<td>Exists: data about sexual violence (complaints, forensic evaluations, surveys on victimisation and perception, etc.), although not always broken down by the aggressor (which means it is difficult to know if the cause is OSV or domestic violence). Exists / to improve: Disappearances, human trafficking connected to OSV</td>
<td>Forensic Science Institute, PNC, Inspectorates, DNIC</td>
<td>INACIF, Public Prosecutor’s Office, PDH</td>
<td>Forensic Science Institute, PNC, PDDH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGBTI Community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of forensic evaluations issued by competent agencies (country / department / municipality) Number of complaints Number of convictions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of victims in country / department / municipality / form of treatment Number of complaints Number of convictions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of minor infringements, minors involved in gangs and criminal organisations, unaccompanied migrant minors who are intercepted or deported. To develop / improve: minors who are migrants owing to OSV and minors who live on the street.</td>
<td>Frequent: Minor infringements, unaccompanied migrant minors, minors involved in gangs and criminal organisations. Occasional: Minors involved in gangs and criminal organisations, minors who are migrants owing to OSV, minors who live on the street.</td>
<td>PNC, DGM, UNHCR (studies), Casa Alianza, IHNFA, UNICEF, qualitative reports.</td>
<td>PNC, MP, PDH, DGM, UNHCR (studies), UNICEF, qualitative reports.</td>
<td>PNC, PDDH, DGM, UNHCR (studies), UNICEF, qualitative reports.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Qualitative reports with data % and quantitative estimates: Amnesty international (AI), UNICEF, UNHCR, IDMC, WRC (Women Refugee Council), London University, WILSON Centre, US border patrol, CNDH Mexico, etc.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variable and derivative</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>Status of the indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Security | Restrictions to humanitarian access | • % of organisations that use armed escorts (police, army or private).  
• % of organisations who have a security plan which is included systematically in meetings and communications.  
• % of humanitarian workers / volunteers who have received training in security.  
• % of the budget of organisation / project allocated to security.  
• Existence of evacuation protocols in red zones.  
• Security systems or indicators used as an early alert.  
• Number of blackmail or threats received.  
• Presence (or increase) of armed security forces in the zone.  
• % of personnel with capacity / training in conflict resolution and negotiation.  
• Mapping of groups with territorial control in the zone of intervention (% of members, modus operandi, etc.). | Mapping of humanitarian protagonists, security forces and criminal groups in the zones of intervention, aspects of the security plan, training plan and training in security, analysis of variables in trends in violence and stability, etc. | To develop: information about previous operations from other core organisations, civil society, the Church, the Red Cross, the municipality, etc. | Occasional: they may exist but interviews with humanitarian protagonists suggested not. There are protocols, maps and other valuable information in programmes to prevent violence or integrated programmes that include security as a crosscutting issue. | Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, civil protection, the Red Cross, NGOs, civil society, the Church, professional security firms, donors, UNDSS, etc. | Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, civil protection, professional security firms, the Red Cross, the donors, UNDSS, etc. | Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, civil protection, professional security firms, the Red Cross, the donors, UNDSS, etc. |

Mapping of humanitarian protagonists, security forces and criminal groups in the zones of intervention, aspects of the security plan, training plan and training in security, analysis of variables in trends in violence and stability, etc.

To develop: information about previous operations from other core organisations, civil society, the Church, the Red Cross, the municipality, etc.

Occasional: they may exist but interviews with humanitarian protagonists suggested not. There are protocols, maps and other valuable information in programmes to prevent violence or integrated programmes that include security as a crosscutting issue.

Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, civil protection, the Red Cross, NGOs, civil society, the Church, professional security firms, donors, UNDSS, etc.

Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, civil protection, professional security firms, the Red Cross, the donors, UNDSS, etc.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Main variable and derivatives</th>
<th>Proposed indicators</th>
<th>Disaggregation</th>
<th>Status of the indicator (exists / to improve / to develop)</th>
<th>Frequency of measurement</th>
<th>Sources of information in Honduras</th>
<th>Sources of information in Guatemala</th>
<th>Sources of information in El Salvador</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access of population to services and assistance</td>
<td></td>
<td>- % of affected population that has access to basic goods and services offered by the Government / humanitarian organisations (are there changes in trends?).&lt;br&gt;- Number of emergency services available and in use in communities in red zones (day and night?).&lt;br&gt;- Number of members of the community with training who can carry out first-aid.&lt;br&gt;- OSV considerations and performance protocols for red zones included in preparation, response, and contingency plans.&lt;br&gt;- Participation level of the community in consultation processes for the design, realisation, and evaluation of the project.&lt;br&gt;- Number of beneficiaries / clients who leave the programme owing to OSV (threats, etc.).&lt;br&gt;- Plans to respond to emergencies and disasters including performance protocols to intervene in red zones and preparatory measures.</td>
<td>Man / woman / age group / type of injury / geographic area (department - municipality - zone – settlement) / type of care received / times and aspects related to access (invisible frontiers), extra transport costs to prevent passing through certain zones, participation levels in queries, etc.</td>
<td>To develop: depends on the organisation and type of programmes being implemented, as much of this information can be gathered in existing development programmes or those to prevent violence, means of communication and other agencies or organisations in the zone. Information may exist about previous operations from other core organisations, civil society, the Church, the Red Cross, municipalities, etc.</td>
<td>Occasional: they may exist, interviews with humanitarians suggested not. There are protocols, maps and other valuable information in programmes to prevent violence or integrated programmes that include security as a transverse factor.</td>
<td>Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td>Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
<td>Means of communication, the Government, the municipality, community leaders or members of the community, OCHA, REDLAC, the Red Cross, donors, NGOs, civil society, the Church, UNDSS, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>