STATUS OF WOMEN'S RIGHTS IN REFUGEE AND INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT SETTINGS IN AFRICA:
THE CONTEXT OF AGA AND APSA

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Foreword

Forced displacement is a global phenomenon. Its impacts on security, development and governance in Africa is immense as the continent hosts over one-third of the global forced displacement population (either as Refugees or Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). However, according to Internal Displacement Monitoring Center (IDMC) 2020 Global Report on internal displacement, the issue is more pronounced in Africa where approximately 27 million people are forcibly displaced amongst which 19.2 million are IDPs attributed to conflict, human rights violation and disasters. According to UNHCR Global Trends (2019), Africa hosts 7.8 million refugees and asylum seeker and the highest number of IDP women and girls, accounting 40% of the A|oba! figure.

Women and girls are often sidelined from formal conflict resolution and mediation platforms or formal peace processes while they are the ones to carry the brunt of conflict and forced displacement. Moreover, the marginalization and vulnerabilities of women and girls are exacerbated in situations of displacement. Displaced women and girls are often at a greater risk of deprivation, neglect, abuse and a general deterioration of their wellbeing. They are confronted with specific risks including Sexual and Gender Based Violence (SGBV) and other human rights violations. They are often denied opportunity to effectively and meaningfully participate in decision making processes at various levels. There is therefore a need to promote and ensure the full and effective participation of women and girls in all peace building efforts including the planning and management of durable solutions to address internal displacement.

The African Union (AU) has put in place a progressive legal instrument for the protection and assistance of displaced persons. The AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs in Africa otherwise known as the Kampala Convention, the first legally binding instrument to protect the rights of IDPs places primary responsibility on the national authorities to provide protection and assistance to the IDPs as well as facilitate durable solutions. The instrument recognizes the specific risI‹s and vulnerabilities that women and girls face and their access to wide Set of protection which includes access to sexual health and support during occurrences of SGBV.

In line with the United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolution 1325 as well as subsequent UNSCR resolutions on women, peace and security, the AU adopted the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maput o Protocol), among other legal and policy frameworks, affording greater protection to displaced and refugee women and girls this past couple of decades. Furthermore, the AU Heads of State and Government committed in the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA) to ensure the full and effective participation and representation of women in peace processes including the prevention, resolution, management of conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction in Africa as stipulated in UN Resolution 1325 (2000) and to also appoint women as Special Envoys and Special Representatives of the African Union. In addition, the AU Strategy on Gender

Equality and Women's Empowerment (AU GEWE Strategy), is another transformational instrument put in place to mitigate, if not eliminate the major challenges encumbering gender equality, women's rights and women's empowerment in all spheres of life.

The AU through the African Governance Architecture (AGA) and African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) commits to take deliberate measures to meaningfully engage women in issues of conflict and crisis prevention, management and resolution as well as post-conflict reconstruction and development in Africa. Despite progressive legal frameworl‹s and policies, much work remains to be done to achieve durable solution for the protection of women and girl IDPs.

On the other hand, currently COVID-19 is claiming lives and disrupting livelihoods across Africa. Although everyone is at risk of being infected with this deadly virus, the effect is more pronounced among the most vulnerable. In refugee camps and IDP makeshift camps/sites where physical distancing is almost impossible and access to basic services are limited, the risk of infection and impact of the pandemic is much higher. The devastating impact of the pandemic further disproportionately deepen the exclusion and discrimination of women and threaten the achievement of a protective environment. Underlying issues, such as the facts that women globally predominantly carry the burden of providing for their families, including fetching water and cooking using firewood and these responsibilities have increased the risk of their exposure to the virus while they are also at risk for further violation of their rights during such public health crisis. Unfortunately, it is in these same contexts that women and girls are subjected to SGBV - rape, trafficking in addition to denial of basic social services which are gross violation of their human rights. Resources and human power allocated to ensure their protection tend to be reallocated in response to a public health crisis, thus, aggravating their vulnerability. The AU Commission through the Women, Gender and Development Directorate (WGDD) developed the AU Guidelines on Gender-Responsive Responses to COVID-19 to promote the integration of gender equality and the participation of women in COVID-19 responses and recovery plans.

As a key partner to the AU, UNOHCHR, UN Women and UNHCR work under their respective mandates to support the development and implementation of regional policies and initiatives that promote and respond to the needs of displaced women and refugees. This complements ongoing work by the agencies with AU Member States, AU human rights mechanisms, UN Special Rapporteur on the human rights of IDPs, civil society organizations and other relevant stakeholders to eliminate the root causes of displacement and build infrastructures for the protection of those in displacement.

Thus, this review and operational guidelines is developed in the context of AU's 2019 theme of the "Year of Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons: Towards Durable Solutions to Forced Displacement in Africa" and the 2020 theme, "Silencing the Guns: Creating conducive Conditions for Africa's Development". It aims to put to the limelight

the experiences of women and girls in IDP and refugee situations in Africa and support the effective and meaningful participation of displaced women in key AU political and peace and security institutions and processes. It also aims to highlight the opportunities available in AU policy frameworks on governance, peace and security to address the root cause of displacements and the gender differentiated impacts in a sustainable manner. The guidelines developed within the framework of this study aim to support and promote the integration of gender considerations within the AGA and the APSA.

Through this partnership, all institutions involved in this process ainn to promote coherent and coordinated action across the AU and UN for gender responsive policies, processes and initiatives at national, regional and continental levels aimed at addressing root causes of displacement and its impact on women. Furthermore, the collaboration underlines the importance of investing in the creation and strengthening of multi-sectoral partnerships and generation of sex disaggregated data as key enablers and accelerators of durable solutions to the refugee and IDP situations in Africa. We hope the recommendations of this paper and guidelines will inform AU and Member States in their efforts to meaningfully address the challenges of millions of forcefully displaced women and girls.

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Acronyms

ACDEG	African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance
AGA	African Governance Architecture
AGA-YES	African Governance Architecture – Youth Engagement Strategy
AGP	African Governance Platform
APSA	African Peace and Security Architecture
AU	African Union
AUC	African Union Commission
AU GPSP	African Union Gender Peace and Security Programme
BOWDI	Borno Women's Development Initiative
CAP	Common African Position (on Humanitarian Effectiveness)
CAR	Central African Republic
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CEFM	child, early, and forced marriage
CRRF	Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework
CSVRA	Country Structural Vulnerability Risk Assessment
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
ECCE	early childhood care and education
FemWise-Africa	Network of African Women in Conflict Prevention and Mediation
FGM	female genital mutilation
GBVIMS	Gender-Based Violence Information Management System
GIMAC	Gender is My Agenda Campaign
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDP	internally displaced person
IDTFCP	Inter-Departmental Task Force on Conflict Prevention
IMC	International Medical Corps
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IRC	International Rescue Committee
Kampala Convention	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa
LGA	Local Government Area
Maputo Protocol	Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa

NCR	National Commission for Refugees
NCFRMI	National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and IDPs
NGO	non-governmental organization
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OHCHR	United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
PCRD	post-conflict reconstruction and development
PSC	Peace and Security Council
RaDO	Rehabilitation and Development Organization
RCC	Refugee Central Committee
REC	Regional Economic Community
SEMA	State Emergency Management Agency
SDGEA	Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa
SGBV	sexual and gender-based violence
SRHR	sexual and reproductive health and rights
STD	sexually-transmitted disease
STI	sexually-transmitted infection
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNSCR	United Nations Security Council Resolution
UN Women	The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
WPS	women, peace and security

I. Executive Summary

Forced displacement – one of the major consequences of conflict, insecurity and disaster in Africa – leaves women and girls disproportionately vulnerable. Indeed, women and girls represented more than half of the 41 million people worldwide living in internal displacement at the end of 2018. They experience displacement differently to men and boys, facing specific challenges that must be better understood to provide them with the support they need.[1] In Burkina Faso, for instance, where violence led to a ten-fold increase in displacements in 2019, fully 65 per cent of adult IDPs were women.[2]

Women and girl refugees, returnees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) face specific risks including sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) and other human rights violations. Displaced women and girls tend to be at greater risk of deprivation, insecurity, abuse, neglect and a general deterioration of their well-being. Often, their sex and age also impede them from making their voices heard or participating in decisions on matters that affect them.[3] These risks exacerbate already present health, livelihood, education, and security concerns – as well as hinder their effective participation in peacebuilding and decision-making more broadly.

Despite the efforts of Member States, the United Nations (UN), the African Union (AU), Regional Economic Communities (RECs), Special Rapporteurs and other national and local actors – as well as the introduction of legal and policy frameworks to address the gendered issues arising from conflicts in Africa – considerable work remains to be done. There are major implementation gaps to be filled to achieve full protection and participation of women, ensure gender parity and support the achievement of durable solutions, including by mainstreaming gender in this discourse.

Since Member States and the AU declared 2019 the "Year of Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons: Towards Durable Solutions to Forced Displacement in Africa", it becomes even more pertinent to capitalize on the momentum behind this issue to ensure that future interventions capture the lived experiences of women and girls. This is necessary in order to adjust and align their inclusion within the AU's core governance, peace and security mechanisms and processes – mainly in the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) and the African Governance Architecture (AGA).

1. IDMC, "Women and Girls in Internal Displacement (2020)". Available at https://www.internal-displacement.org/publications/women-and-girls-in-internal-displacement.

2. IDMC, "Hidden in Plain Sight: Women and Girls in Internal Displacement", 5 Mar 2020. Available at https://reliefweb.int/report/world/hidden-plain-sight-women-and-girls-internal-displacement

3. UNHCR, "Tearing down the walls: Confronting the barriers to internally displaced women and girls' participation in humanitarian settings", 2019. Available at https://www.refworld.org/docid/5cd17b2d4.html.

Commissioned by the AU, OHCHR, UNHCR and UN Women, this continental study provides a contextual analysis of the forced displacement of women and girls in Africa, maps out relevant legal and policy frameworks, and makes policy recommendations to the AU, Member States and relevant stakeholders to fast-track the implementation of women's rights within the context of AGA and APSA. Such analysis provides a crucial underpinning element in any durable solution for refugees, IDPs and returnees in Africa. The study benefited from field visits to three key countries with sizeable and diverse populations of forcibly displaced persons, namely Central African Republic, Ethiopia, and Nigeria. As part of this study, gender-mainstreaming guidelines were developed to support and promote the integration of not only gender considerations within AGA and APSA but also to help both architectures become more reflective of the importance of the participation of displaced women and girls (IDPs and refugees) in decision-making, policy development, planning, programming, implementation and monitoring (see Annex).

Key findings

- **Pre-existing gender inequality, human rights violations and gender discrimination are exacerbated in conflict settings** including the following harmful practices: child, early and forced marriages; female genital mutilation (FGM); domestic violence; rape; limited access to livelihood opportunities; witchcraft-related abuses and violations, among others.

- **The vulnerability of forcibly displaced women and girls is compounded by other factors** including, but not limited to, being a child bride or a teenaged mother, unaccompanied, separated, widowed, single head of household, a survivor of sexual and gender-based violence or living with disability.

- **Women and girls experience sexual and gender-based violence from a variety of actors** – including family members, security forces, individuals and armed groups.

- **The sexual and reproductive health needs of forcibly displaced women and girls are dire,** with insufficient resources allocated to addressing them.

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- The consequence of **the typically subordinate position of women in society** – including the huge time burdens on women and girls, violence, and denial of access to services – **continues to perpetuate the power imbalance between men and women and girls and boys** in these communities.

- **Gender equality** is fundamental to the well-being and rights of all persons of concern (including women and girls) and **should be central at each level of intervention** and approach to supporting displaced persons.

- While **quality education and health services are limited for forcibly displaced persons generally, they are even more restricted for women and girls.** Displacement often results in the discontinuation and disruption of education for girls in particular because they are at increased risk of child labour, abuse and exploitation. Schools are often overcrowded and lack accreditation, qualified teachers and a conducive environment for learning. Hospitals have a paucity of qualified health-care personnel and equipment and can usually offer only basic services.

- **Forcibly displaced women are neither meaningfully nor consistently engaged in peace processes and talks.** Indeed, they are often absent or play minimal roles in formal negotiation and mediation processes and in the monitoring and implementation of peace agreements.

- There is **a clear correlation between the level of women's participation in decision-making and the effectiveness of the programmes, policies and laws that affect them.** At present, initiatives related to IDPs and refugees disregard the interests of women and girls, thereby undermining sustainable solutions. The meaningful participation of women and girls makes it much more likely that interventions will account for their needs as well.

- Women are **insufficiently represented in decision-making positions within camps.** Existing patriarchal norms and regressive sociocultural and gender attitudes and practices discourage or even exclude female participation. In addition, women and girls may be afraid to be singled out by armed groups. They may have little time to get involved or assume additional responsibilities because of caregiving demands or other circumstances.

- **Some AU Member States have not ratified conventions and protocols** pertaining to the protection or promotion of the rights of female refugees, IDPs and returnees. Furthermore, those Member States that have ratified these frameworks have yet to effectively domesticate, implement and report on them. For example, no State Party has yet reported on the Kampala Convention. Some countries are grappling with corruption which diverts much needed resources from those who have been forcibly displaced.

- **There are a number of good practices** within Member States, the AU, international, local and regional non-state actors and several offices of the United Nations to protect and support women and girls, especially those who experience SGBV. **However, existing SGBV services are wholly inadequate and highly under-resourced, considering the staggering number of women and girls who need those services.**

- The **complexity of displacement necessitates a framework of coordination** of various actors and mechanisms that seeks to address not only the immediate causes and consequences of displacement but **that also deals with the underlying root causes of displacement and seeks to prevent it.** AGA and APSA are thus potentially useful mechanisms that must be leveraged to seek and attain truly durable solutions. It is critical to foster coherence and synergy between the two architectures in this regard.

- The restructuring of the AUC, and in particular the proposed merger between the Department of Political Affairs and the Peace and Security Department, is likely to positively impact the synergy between AGA and APSA; however, care must be taken to ensure that elements of AGA including structural conflict prevention, addressing democratic governance deficits, upholding human rights and humanitarian assistance are not subsumed by conflict mitigation and response.

- Securing and sustaining peace in conflict situations requires making gender equality and women's empowerment and rights an integral part of conflict prevention and early warning in post-conflict reconstruction and development (PCRD).

1. Introduction

Background

An estimated 70.8 million people are forcibly displaced globally with approximately 26.4 million originating from Africa; women account for half of the world's internally displaced persons (IDPs).[4] As of 2018, there were 7.4 million refugees and asylum seekers and 17.8 million IDPs across the continent.[5] Almost half of the world's displacement is caused by conflict (46.4 per cent),[6] followed by natural disasters, human rights violations and governance deficits. In addition to the devastating experiences caused by displacement, all refugees and IDPs are more susceptible to further human rights violations due to the multiple vulnerabilities generated by their circumstances.

Women are especially at increased risk of experiencing sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) and other socioeconomic violations. Furthermore, in the IDP context, women and girls experience additional human rights challenges characteristic of displacement situations. These risks include loss of livelihood and legal documentation and lack of effective access to several important rights and services. There is also an existing pattern of discrimination that conflict exacerbates and can lead to violations of women's rights to housing, land and property[7]. The gender-related concerns for internally displaced women relate primarily to two core issues: first, safeguarding women and girls from rape, abduction, forced sexual slavery, genital mutilation[8], torture and murder and second, upholding their rights to equal access and full participation in assistance programmes.[9]

The Common African Position on Humanitarian Effectiveness (CAP) emphasized the need to address root causes and identify sustainable solutions to tackle the challenges of forced displacement in Africa. It is against this backdrop that the African Union (AU) declared 2019 the year to focus

4.   See UNHCR, "Global trends: Forced Displacement in 2018", 2019, p. 74, available at https://www.unhcr.org/5d08d7ee7.pdf and UNHCR, "Global Trends 2010: 60 years and still counting", 2011, p. 33. Available at https://www.unhcr.org/4dfa11499.pdf (accessed April 2020).

5.   UNHCR, "Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2018",2019. Available at https://www.unhcr.org/5d08d7ee7.pdf (accessed on 1 August 2019).

6.   NRC/IDMC, "2018 Global Report on Internal Displacement - Sub-Saharan Africa", 16 May 2018. Available at https://www.refworld.org/docid/5b28b7211.html (accessed on 1st August 2019).

7.   See A/HRC/23/44

8.   Reference is made to the case that occurred in Sierra Leone in December 1996 when over 1,000 young internally displaced girls were forcefully circumcised in a mass ceremony. It is probable that the risk of being subjected to forced FGM was greatly increased because of the girls' IDP status and the congregation of a large number living together in an insecure setting.

9.   See https://www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/202003-twice-invisible-internally-displaced-women.pdf.

on refugees, returnees and internally displaced persons. This theme coincided with the AU's commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of the adoption of the 1969 Organisation of African Unity Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of the Refugee Problems in Africa (OAU Refugee Convention) and the tenth anniversary of the adoption of the 2009 AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (known as the Kampala Convention).

The past decade saw increased attention paid to refugee women and girls in the context of United Nations work on women, peace and security as well as the Maputo Protocol, among other legal and policy frameworks. The AU channels its commitment within this discourse through the African Governance Architecture (AGA) and African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA). Although institutionally linked, APSA focuses mainly on conflict and crisis prevention, management and resolution as well as post-conflict reconstruction and development in Africa.[10] AGA is "inspired by the Constitutive Act of the African Union (AU) that expresses the AU's determination to 'promote and protect human and people's rights, consolidate democratic institutions and culture and ensure good governance and the rule of law'".[11] Another positive development is growing recognition that APSA and AGA must properly consider gender and take deliberate measures to

more meaningfully engage women in their respective programming. Indeed, this development is a priority in the current APSA Roadmap 2016–2020.[12]

It is on the basis of the above that the AU, OHCHR, UNHCR and UN Women commissioned the study to build on existing documentation and take stock of the policy frameworks in place that could better support – and make recommendations for – the meaningful engagement of displaced women and girls as well as for addressing the gendered impact of displacement within the context of AGA and APSA.

This report is divided into five sections. Section 2 provides a contextual analysis for the issue at hand, looking at the experiences of women and girl refugee and IDPs. Section 3 explores relevant policy and normative frameworks and their implication for the protection of displaced women and girls. Section 4 builds on this and provides an overview of two main AU architectures: AGA and APSA. Section 5 delves into three case studies based on field visits to Central African Republic (CAR), Ethiopia, and Nigeria – all of which have sizeable populations of forcibly displaced persons – and examines the situation of women and girls in particular. Section 6 concludes with policy recommendations for Member States, the AU and its Organs, Regional Economic Communities (RECs), development partners and humanitarian actors. The Annex consists of gender mainstreaming guidelines developed to

10. The African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA), http://www.peaceau.org/en/topic/the-african-peace-and-security-architecture-apsa.

11. African Governance Architecture (AGA), http://aga-platform.org/about.

12. APSA, APSA Roadmap 2016 – 2020. Available at http://www.peaceau.org/uploads/2015- en-apsa-roadmap-final.pdf (accessed on 1 August 2019).

ensure that issues and concerns affecting women and girls, especially those who are displaced, are consciously and deliberately taken into account in decision-making at the political level and from design to implementation of policies, programmes and initiatives at the strategic level within the frameworks of AGA and APSA.

Study purpose

The study aims to build on existing documentation and take stock of policy frameworks already in place that could better support and make recommendations for the meaningful engagement of women and girls and address the gendered impact of displacement within the context of AGA and APSA. Specific outcomes include the following:

- **mapping of relevant AU policy frameworks and tools,** identifying their implication for the protection of displaced women and girls as well as addressing implementation gaps;

- **contextual analysis of the forced displacement** of women and girls supported with specifics case studies derived from field visits;

- **policy recommendations to fast-track the implementation of women's rights** by AU Member States, AU Organs (particularly by the AU Peace and Security Council) and other stakeholders; and

- **guidelines to assist gender-responsive actions to promote gender equality,** women's

empowerment and the meaningful participation of women and girls in peace processes.

Methodology

A qualitative research method was used for data collection and analysis was carried out in six phases: inception, mapping, data collection, data analysis, reporting and review/validation. This approach involved field visits to gain first-hand knowledge about the experiences and varying situations of displaced women and girls and how they might be engaged in finding solutions. Apart from diverse geographic representation, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, and Nigeria were chosen for their significant populations of IDPs (Nigeria), refugees (Ethiopia) and the prevalence of forced displacement and returnees (CAR). One-on-one interviews, as well as focus group discussions, were carried out with refugees and IDPs, humanitarian workers, camp administrators, and government officials. Focus group discussions with forcibly displaced populations focused on the most marginalized, including adolescent girls, teenaged mothers, widows, women with disabilities, single-headed households and survivors of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV).

This study is limited in both time and scope and is therefore not exhaustive. Substantial time is required to more thoroughly comprehend the experiences and the situations of forcibly displaced women and girls. Time did not permit researchers to conduct in-depth discussions with respondents who might have been more

open about their experiences. To mitigate this limitation, the researchers employed one-on-one interview methods, as well as a participatory approach, in engagement with respondents. The researchers also interviewed humanitarian actors working closely with these women and girls to better understand the current situation. Consultations were also carried out with individuals who are familiar with the workings of AGA and APSA.

Terms and concepts

Refugee – "Person with a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion who is outside the country of his [or her] nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself [or herself] of the protection of that country."[13]

Internally displaced persons - "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border."[14]

Returnee - The term 'returnee' refers to a refugee who has returned to her country of origin or former habitual residence, whether by means of spontaneous return, facilitated voluntary repatriation programmes, or under operation of the cessation clauses of the 1951 Convention.[15] The term is also used to apply to IDPs who have returned to their former places of habitual residence within the State. Although 'returnee' does not have a legal status, it is a description of their factual situation.

Gender mainstreaming - "the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated". [16]

13. Article 1A(2) of the 1951 Convention as amended by its 1967 Protocol.

14. Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, Introduction, paragraph 2.

15. 1951 Convention, art. 1C. See also UNHCR, Guidelines on International Protection: Cessation of Refugee Status under Article 1C(5) and (6) of the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (the 'Ceased Circumstances' Clauses), HCR/GIP/03/03, 10 February 2003.

16. UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), Mainstreaming the Gender Perspective into All Policies and Programmes in the United Nations System, Report of the Secretary-General, 12 June 1997, E/1997/66. Available at https://www.refworld.org/docid/464ae2652.html (accessed on 20 December 2019).

2. Forced Displacement in Africa:

A Contextual Analysis

About 26.4 million Africans are people of concern, including 17.7 million IDPs, 6.3 million refugees and 925,000 returnees.[17] About 57 per cent of forcibly displaced people are under 18, of whom over half are girls.[18] The largest number of forcibly displaced persons come from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), South Sudan and Nigeria.[19] According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), conflicts caused 75 per cent of displacement in Africa in 2018. As of mid-2019, there were 10.8 million new displacements worldwide. More than two-thirds of the new displacements associated with conflict occurred in sub-Saharan Africa, which has suffered ongoing and new violence, droughts and floods.[20] According to the latest IDMC report in September 2019, the "persistent instability in Ethiopia, Nigeria and the DRC has driven some of the highest levels of internal displacement in 2019".[21] The DRC, Ethiopia, Nigeria and South Sudan were among the countries with the highest number of new displacements in the first half of 2019, followed by Burkina Faso and Mali.

Forced displacement is not just a humanitarian and protection issue; it is also a developmental problem. Inevitably, it impacts a range of social, political and economic processes that affect the well-being of individuals, communities and the prosperity of nations. Whether displacement is caused by conflicts, violence, disasters or a combination of factors, humanitarian and development actors need to take long-term sustainable measures in the planning, implementation and monitoring of assistance to displaced populations. Such measures should include ensuring that emergency response is integrated into long-term support to addresses the extreme vulnerabilities that displaced persons face and that short-term humanitarian response alone cannot address.

In Africa, many are still displaced and scattered around insecure camps. For instance, in countries like Somalia, the DRC, Nigeria and South Sudan, issues of the "humanitarian and civilian character" of camps and settlements arise and can mean that inhabitants face serious security risks.[22] Sexual and gender-based violence remains a common feature in many camps

17. UNHCR, "Regional Summaries", http://reporting. unhcr.org/sites/default/files/gr2018/pdf/03_Africa. pdf#_ga=2.201610774.665380572.1589271638-1043462970.1589271638.

18. Ibid.

19. See IDMC, Briefing Paper "Number of IDPS by age at the end of 2019", https://www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/202004-age-disaggregated-IDP-data-paper.pdf . See also UNHCR, "Global trends 2018: Trends at a Glance", p.4 and p. 74.

20. IDMC, Global Report on Internal Displacement (2019), http://www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/2019-IDMC-GRID-Summary.pdf (accessed on 15 October 2019).

21. IDMC, Internal Displacement from January to June 2019 (Mid-Year Figures) , http://www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/2019-mid-year-figures_for%20website%20upload.pdf (accessed on 15 October 2019).

22. IDMC, Africa Report on Internal Displacement (December 2017), https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/20171206-Africa-report-2017-web.pdf (accessed on 15 October 2019).

and settlements, particularly affecting women and girls. Many IDPs live in chronic poverty with little or no means of livelihood – a situation that is further strained by severe curtailments of their movement in some camps.[23] Many camps remain inaccessible due to bad or non-existent roads, or insecurity issues arising from various sources, thereby seriously affecting access to humanitarian aid by displaced persons.[24]

In all situations, the displacement issue in Africa is devastating for children and their future prospects – a situation which in turn impacts the continent's future prosperity.[25] According to UNICEF, 250 million children reside in countries affected by armed conflict and "the consequences for these children can be deep-seated and long-term, including physical and psychological effects".[26] Specifically, children who are forcibly displaced experience limited access to needs and services including food, potable water, education and health

care and remain at risk of violence and exploitation.[27] For instance, 75 per cent of adolescent refugees and half of refugee children of school-age are out of school.[28] For girls, these tragic figures are further amplified. Some parents prevent their daughters from accessing education due to sociocultural norms.[29] In other instances, teenage pregnancies play a critical role in the extent to which girls access education.

As the study indicates, a broad range of legal and policy frameworks to protect refugees and internally displaced persons in Africa already exist. However, due to limited political will, Member States have fallen short in enforcing safeguards that address root causes and rights violations and thus induce or worsen displacement.[30] It remains vital for the AU to hold its members accountable on behalf of their vulnerable citizens who are entitled to urgent protection and support.

23. Judy A. Benjamin and Khadija Fancy, "The Gender Dimensions of Internal Displacement: Concept Paper and Annotated Bibliography", UNICEF/IDP Gender Issues Paper (1998). Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/0D530FFE231BCDB6C1256C360045B8B4-Gender%20Dimension.pdf.

24. OCHA Nigeria, "Humanitarian Needs Overview 2019", https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/01022019_ocha_nigeria_humanitarian_needs_overview.pdf (accessed on 12 October 2019).

25. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Uprooted: the Growing Crisis for Refugee and Migrant Children. (New York, September 2016).

26. Overseas Development Institute (ODI), Innovations and challenges in protecting children in armed conflict New approaches to psychosocial support and education, Report from roundtable discussions, 20 November 2017. Available at https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/12060.pdf (accessed on 2 December 2019).

27. A. Kadir and others, "The Effects of Armed Conflict on Children", Pediatrics, 2018; vol. 142, No. 6: e20182586 (2018), pp. 1–16.

28. UNHCR, "No more excuses: Provide education to all forcibly displaced people" in Global Education Monitoring Report (Paris, France, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2016). Available at https://en.unesco.org/gem-report/no-more-excuses.

29. Overseas Development Institute, "Innovations and challenges in protecting children in armed conflict: New approaches to psychosocial support and education", Report from roundtable discussions, 20 November 2017, https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/12060.pdf (accessed on 2 December 2019).

30. NRC, IDMC and AU, The national responsibility to protect internally displaced people: The Kampala Convention, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia 8 - 10 December 2014, http://www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/201505-af-national-responsibility-to-protect-idps-kampala-convention-workshop-report-en.pdf (accessed on 5 December 2019).

Experiences of women and girl IDPs and refugees

Globally, as of 2018 there were at least 2.6 million internally displaced girls under five, 4.6 million between five and 14, 3.9 million between 15 and 24, 7.9 million between 25 and 59, and 1.7 million women over 60.[31] Women and girls are most acutely affected by displacement in Africa. Specifically, sub-Saharan Africa has the highest number of internally displaced women, accounting for 8.2 million which makes up 40 per cent of the global figure.[32] Based on the existing literature and statistics of displacement in Africa, it is glaring that the "face of the crisis is mostly female"; indeed, women and girls comprise more than half of camp populations.[33] The situation has led to the recognition that the experiences of women and girls in situations of displacement require close examination, coupled with the need to strengthen the commitment of key stakeholders to ensure the inclusion of women in Africa's development agenda, as outlined in AU's strategy for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (GEWE).[34]

During the 7th Annual Humanitarian Symposium on the Gender Dimension in Forced Displacement in Africa; Towards Durable Solutions, the AU Commissioner for Political Affairs, HE Minata Samate Cessouma reiterated that "the gender perspectives of forced displacement are sidelined, often with far-reaching negative impact".[35] Additionally, during the 33rd Gender is My Agenda Campaign (GIMAC) and the AU Summit in 2019 under the theme "Towards Gender-Responsive Durable Solutions to Forced Displacement", the African Union prioritized the Gender Equality Agenda indicating that equality was to be measured across six areas: governance, peace and security, human rights, health, education and economic empowerment.[36]

Women and girls often find themselves on the fringes of society; they may be discriminated against and marginalized as second-class citizens, even in apparently normally functioning societies. These vulnerabilities are perpetuated and acutely exacerbated by displacement. Furthermore, navigating daily life as a female IDP or refugee becomes more treacherous in situations where

31. IDMC, Thematic Series, Hidden in Plain sight: Women and Girls in Internal Displacement (2020). Available at https://www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/202003-twice-invisible-internally-displaced-women.pdf.

32. Ibid.

33. Global Partnership for Education, "Forced displacement in Africa has a female face" (2019). Available at https://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/forced-displacement-africa-has-female-face (accessed on 20 August 2019).

34. AU, AU Strategy for Gender Equality & Women's Empowerment 2018-2028, https://au.int/sites/default/files/documents/36195-doc-au_strategy_for_gender_equality_womens_empowerment_2018-2028_report.

pdf (accessed on 20 December 2019). The GEWE strategy focuses on six key pillars: Women's Economic Empowerment and Sustainable Development; Social justice, protection &Women's Rights; Leadership & Governance; Gender Management Systems; Women, Peace and Security; Media and ICTs.

35. AU, "7th annual humanitarian symposium on gender dimension to forced displacement in Africa opens", Press Releases, 18 November 2019. Available at https://au.int/en/pressreleases/20191118/7th-annual-humanitarian-symposium-gender-dimension-forced-displacement-africa, (accessed on 21 December 2019).

36. GIMAC, "Towards Gender-Responsive Durable Solutions to Forced Displacement"

displacement is the result of civil conflict and violence.[37] Since IDPs have not left the borders of their country, the likelihood that they are still suffering as a result of the factors that made them flee in the first place is high.[38] This is especially true if persecution is as a result of being part of an identifiable ethnic or religious group. Thus, IDPs could be targeted by the state, host communities or belligerents from opposing ethnic groups.

Returnee women and girls face another significant challenge, especially in regard to female combatants and the psychosocial experience of post-conflict communities. For instance, female returnees have come back to their communities with children and yet many peacebuilding programmes fail to account for their special circumstances, a fact that hinders reintegration.[39] Some female returnees with children are shunned by their communities. Their own families may refuse to accept responsibility for children born during conflict, referring to them as "bush babies".[40]

Additionally, returning female combatants remain ostracized and therefore exposed to more abuse by members of their communities than male counterparts.[41] Their marriage prospects may diminish, particularly when they are survivors of rape.[42] Returning to normal life often requires intense psychological rehabilitation that is usually unavailable. As female returnees from protracted displacement come back with new ideas, attitudes, skills and cultural experiences, they can encounter resistance or rejection. In South Sudan, returnee women were often labelled "loose and shameless" for no longer conforming to the norms of femininity.[43] In Uganda, such women experience marital friction which has even led to brutal killings.[44] It is worth noting here that some female returnees maintained changes upon their return that had a positive impact on their livelihoods (Somalia and Chad),[45] and on their economic and political roles post-conflict (Sierra Leone).[46]

37. 33rd Pre-Summit Consultative Meeting on Gender Mainstreaming in the African Union 3 - 4 February 2019, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Available at https://www.un.org/en/africa/osaa/pdf/events/2019/20190311/33rd_GIMAC_Recommendations.pdf (accessed on 20 September 2019).

38. Lucia C. Hanmer and others, "Addressing the Needs of Women and Girls in Contexts of Forced Displacement: Experiences from Operations" (Washington, D.C., World Bank Group, 2019). Available at https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/documents-reports/documentdetail/138521556825963608/addressing-the-needs-of-women-and-girls-in-contexts-of-forced-displacement-experiences-from-operations (accessed on 20 September 2019).

39. Onaedo C. Ejiofor, Samuel Oni, and John V. Sejoro, "An Assessment of the Impact of Internal Displacement on Human Security in Northern Nigeria (2009- 2016)",

AUDRI, vol. 10, No 1 (2017), pp. 19–42. Grace Maina, "An Overview of the Situation of Women in Conflict and Post-Conflict Africa", ACCORD Conference Paper, Issue 1, 2012. Available at https://media.africaportal.org/documents/ACCORD_Conference_-_An_overview_of_the_situation_of_women_in_conflict.pdf.

40. Ibid., p. 5.

41. Ibid.

42. Ibid.

43. Maria Elena Ruiz Abril, Women's economic empowerment in conflict and post-conflict countries, (SIDA, 2009), https://www.sida.se/contentassets/a7f86b2b8a774b0dacb7bce5f689dae5/14881.pdf.

44. Ibid.

45. Ibid.

46. Ibid.

Gender equality is fundamental to the well-being and rights of all persons of concern and should be central at each level of intervention to support forcibly displaced persons. It is crucial that the commitment to women and girls recognizes their diversity in terms of age, ethnicity, place of origin, legal status, religion, language, ability, sexual orientation and identity.[47] In order to find a durable solution to support forcibly displaced women and girls, it is paramount to understand the acute risks and barriers they face without drawing too many generalizations.

The introduction of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 in 2000 provided impetus to ensure that the needs of women and girls in particular are considered, and that gender is mainstreamed in all aspects of global development programmes and activities dealing with peace and security. The same has been seen in various AU frameworks that call for the incorporation of women's perspectives into various aspects of programme design. In reality, humanitarian institutions are faced with numerous priorities that divert their attention from the specific concerns of displaced women and girls.[48] Scholars, practitioners and policymakers recognize the need to take a two-pronged approach

which requires balancing programmes specifically targeting displaced women and girls while also ensuring that gender issues are incorporated into all aspects of policies and programmes.[49] This comes with a clear understanding that displaced women and girls should not be treated as "passive beneficiaries of aid" but rather as "equal partners with rights". [50]

In finding a lasting solution to address gender issues for IDPs and refugees, gender mainstreaming needs to be part of national and local processes if the rights of displaced women and girls are to be fully addressed by key stakeholders at all levels. This is especially true in governments of displacement-affected countries. For instance, Member States must ensure gender-sensitive planning and gender-responsive budgeting with clear indicators to measure participation or contribution by sex, age and socioeconomic background.[51]

According to the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Framework on Durable Solutions, IDPs have reached a durable solution "when they no longer have any specific assistance and protection needs that are linked to their displacement and can enjoy their human rights without discrimination on account of their displacement."[52] This includes their return, local integration, and settlement.

47. UNHCR, UNHCR Policy on Age, Gender, and Diversity (2018), pp. 15–16.

48. Brookings Institution, Improving the Protection of Internally Displaced Women: Assessment of Progress and Challenges (2014). Available at https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Improving-the-Protection-of-Internally-Displacement-Women-October-10-2014.pdf (accessed on 11 September 2019).

49. Ibid.

50. UNHCR issued a new "Policy on Age, Gender and Diversity" in June 2011 and the accompanying "Forward Plan for 2011–2016".

51. Brookings Project on internal displacement "Improving the Protection of Internally Displaced Women: Assessment of Progress and Challenges", https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Improving-the-Protection-of-Internally-Displacement-Women-October-10-2014.pdf .

52. Brookings Institution, IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons (Washington, D.C., 2010).

A durable solution also means prioritizing gender equality and the needs of forcibly displaced women and girls across key areas that address governance, peace and security, human rights, health, education and economic empowerment. In other words, finding a durable solution to protecting displaced women and girls means addressing barriers that hinder not only their survival but also their meaningful participation within humanitarian settings. The following section analyses the experiences of women across the six key areas of health, education, security, SGBV, governance, and livelihoods.

Sexual and gender-based violence

Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) is a term used to describe various human rights violations that propagate stereotypical roles that reject the notion of human dignity.[53] SGBV frustrates the development of the individual and can take the form of physical, psychological or socioeconomic violence or sexual abuse. SGBV is also a direct violation of an individual's human rights. While men and boys can also be victims, the overwhelming majority of survivors are women and girls.[54] The alarming rate of SGBV against women and girls in Africa is maintained by the persistence of harmful gender norms, poverty and conflict, among other factors.[55] SGBV poses significant risks to the health and well-being of women and girls, including physical injuries, psychological trauma, unwanted pregnancy, and sexually transmitted infections.

Women and girl IDPs and refugees face significant risk of SGBV because many find themselves isolated and without the usual safeguards provided by partners, family members or their own communities.[56] At the same time, there have been cases where the very people charged with protecting and assisting female IDPs and refugees have perpetrated SGBV against them. Perpetrators can include family members or friends charged with looking after a young girl, for instance, or security forces, soldiers and even peacekeepers.[57] Some of these abusers may also include camp leaders, vigilante groups, police officers, soldiers, other camp residents or even people from outside the camp.[58]

In mid-2016, Human Rights Watch (HRW) documented the sexual abuse of at least 43 women and girls in seven IDP camps in Maiduguri.[59] Four of the victims were drugged and raped, while the other 37 were coerced into sex through false marriage promises and material and

53. Ibid.

54. UNHCR, "Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced People: Guidelines for Prevention and Response" , May 2003, p.7.

55. UNFPA, "Gender-based violence". Available at https://esaro.unfpa.org/en/topics/gender-based-violence.

56. Brookings Institution, Improving the Protection of Internally Displaced Women (Washington, D. C., 2014). Available at https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Improving-the-Protection-of-Internally-Displacement-Women-October-10-2014.pdf (accessed on 11 September 2019).

57. UNHCR, "Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced People", Guidelines for Prevention and Response, May 2003, p. 14.

58. Human Rights Watch, "Nigeria: Officials Abusing Displaced Women, Girls", 31 October 2016. Available at https://www.refworld.org/docid/5820b5134.html (accessed on 10 November 2019).

59. Ibid.

financial assistance so desperately needed due to the poor living conditions of the camps.[60] In such circumstances, women and girls have limited or no access to justice and medical services to help them recover from such traumatic experiences nor are their abusers held accountable.[61]

The sexual abuse of girls often leads to sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and pregnancy, putting them in the even more difficult position of childbirth in camps that often lack basic midwifery services or seeking an unsafe abortion – both of which can lead to maternal mortality. The situation can also result in transmission of HIV and/or sexually transmitted infection (STIs). For instance, patients requiring attention for HIV and/or STIs more than doubled (from 200 to 500) in a period of just two years from 2014 to 2016 in a camp of 10,000.[62]

Another report indicated that thousands of women and girls have been abused by Nigerian security forces and a militia force called the Civilian Joint Task Force (CJTF), with many having already been abused by Boko Haram before their "liberation".[63] These authorities have gone as far as to purposely separate women from their husbands by placing them in remote "satellite camps" while detaining the men and boys. Notable among these camps is Bama Hospital Camp, established in 2015;

it was replaced by Bama Secondary School Camp in 2017, where women and girls were sometimes raped in exchange for food.[64]

Many IDPs indicated that they went to the camps because they were told to do so by the military or were forcibly taken there after their villages were burned down.[65] With limited basic resources like food, women and girls find themselves in extremely vulnerable situations. In such dire conditions, exploitation continues as women are coerced into having sex in exchange for food or forced into becoming "girlfriends" as a matter of survival.[66] Amnesty International's Country Director noted that sex in these highly coercive circumstances is always rape, even when physical force is not used.[67]

In reality, preventing and responding to SGBV in the context of internal displacement has been challenging in the face of existing factors that hinder proper interventions. Ensuring displaced women have access to justice and remedies for those who suffer gender-based violence is key to getting to durable solutions. Women in these situations need to be able to claim their rights and seek redress for their violation. However, most often women do not report these violations and, even when they do, there are few, if any, recourse mechanisms such as safe and confidential

60. Ibid.
61. Availability of medical services for SGBV survivors is largely dependent on the international community especially in terms of service delivery, drugs, supplies and equipment resulting in limited medical response to SGBV survivors among the displaced populations. See https://reliefweb.int/organization/unhcr.
62. Ibid.
63. Amnesty International Nigeria, "'They Betrayed Us': Women Who Survived Boko Haram Raped, Starved and

Detained in Nigeria", 24 May 2018. Available at https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr44/8415/2018/en/.
64. Ibid.
65. Ibid.
66. Ibid., p.11. Amnesty International estimates that between the end of 2015 and mid-2016 thousands starved to death in one camp alone in Borno State, north-east Nigeria.
67. Ibid., p.10 Osai Ojigho, Amnesty International's Country Director.

reporting, SGBV referral and follow-up mechanisms to register complaints and concerns.

In some camps, customary systems tend to take the place of legal systems dominated by male religious/community leaders to resolve GBV cases. This means that sometimes resolutions fail to lead to long-term solutions and recovery for the victims. Mostly, women and girls are advised by camp leaders on ways to prevent being violated by avoiding certain places, like farms that are far from the camps, and by restricting their movement at specific times especially at night. Both suggestions fail to address the underlying issues. Even where psychosocial support is given to women and girls affected by SGBV, facilities in the camp are at times unable to meet the demand for these services.[68]

Unmet health needs

Forced displacement has significant effects on the health and well-being of women and girls.[69] This may come in the form of direct injury due to violence or indirectly in the form of trauma, infectious diseases, malnutrition and sexual and/or reproductive health

concerns. There are several risk factors that lead to health problems during displacement: poor sanitation and waste management, overcrowding, economic and environmental degradation, poverty, and unsafe water system.[70] These conditions are exacerbated by limited access to health care, food shortages and the absence of good shelter. Displaced persons are at risk of acute respiratory infections from exposure to cold in temporary shelters that fall apart when severe weather conditions occur.

Women are highly vulnerable to physical and mental health problems due to trauma and unique health needs.[71] Due to their experience of SGBV, women and girls are at significant risk of unintended pregnancy, unsafe abortion, maternal morbidity and mortality, STIs and poor mental health effects.[72] Certainly, mental health issues are prominent in displaced populations – particularly among those affected by conflict and who have experienced violence and loss of loved ones. Post-traumatic stress disorders, panic attacks and anxiety are common disorders.[73] A study done in Sudan on women's health in IDP camps found that most women do not use birth control.[74] This situation

68. A. Ager and others, "Local constructions of gender-based violence among IDPs in northern Uganda: Analysis of archival data collected using a gender- and age-segmented participatory ranking methodology", Confl Health vol.12, No. 10 (2018). See also UNHCR, SGBV Strategy 2012-2016: Chad, https://www.unhcr.org/56b1fd9f9.pdf (accessed on 5 December 2019).

69. E. T. Owoaje and others, "A review of the health problems of the internally displaced persons in Africa", Niger Postgrad Med J, 23 (2016), pp. 161–71.

70. The Sphere Project, Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response, 2011 edition (Practical Action Publishing, 2011), pp. 287-354. Available from: http://www.spherehandbook.org/.

71. J. Austin and others, "Reproductive health: A right for refugees and internally displaced persons", Reproductive Health Matters , Vol. 16 (2008), pp. 10–21.

72. Ibid.

73. E. M. Getanda, C. Papadopoulos and H. Evans, "The mental health, quality of life and life satisfaction of internally displaced persons living in Nakuru County, Kenya", BMC Public Health, issue 15(2015), p. 755.

74. G. Kim, R. Torbay and L. Lawry, "Basic health, women's health, and mental health among internally displaced persons in Nyala Province, South Darfur, Sudan", Am J Public Health 2007, Vol. 97 (2007), pp. 353–361.

reflects restricted access to contraceptives, a fact compounded by limited access to health care, and constrained movement. Limitations also include forced marriage, lack of freedom to divorce or leave a marriage, and decision-making constraints within the household.

According to UNHCR, reproductive health care for forcibly displaced persons is a crucial element in providing then the basic human welfare and dignity that is their right.[75] Refugee and IDP women face "unwanted, unplanned, and poorly spaced pregnancies" because they lack access to contraceptive services.[76] Health providers escalate the situation by spending little or no time educating or advising women and girls who also face pressure from their families and communities to "replenish" the population.[77]

Many refugee women and their newborns are at risk of health problems related to pregnancy and delivery, including pregnancy complications and miscarriages.[78] During flight and early settlement, women may be forced to give birth on roadsides, in forests, or in temporary shelters, with conditions hazardous both to them and their infants. Pregnancy and childbirth complications – such as severe bleeding, obstructed labour,

and unsafe abortion – are often more serious for displaced women and may lead to infertility and death. There are reported cases of forcibly displaced pregnant women being detained due to security screening processes and giving birth, without assistance, in overcrowded detention centres while witnessing disturbing or horrific acts that could affect their mental health.[79] A female IDP recalled how she and her children were made to watch as her husband was hung from the ceiling and beaten by security forces; the last thing she remembers was passing out from what she was witnessing.[80]

Tackling the health problems of displaced women and girls requires a high level of political commitment at local, state and federal government levels. Firstly, such political commitment requires tackling the underlying restrictions on women's rights and the root causes of conflict and insurgency through a combination of diplomacy and good governance. Secondly, an emergency preparedness plan should be activated to effectively deal with displaced women and girls or for when natural disasters occur.[81] It is crucial to remember that proper coordination remains critical for the success of the proposed emergency preparedness plan.[82]

75. UNHCR, "Reproductive Health in Refugee Situations: An Inter-Agency Field Manual" (Geneva, 1999).

76. Liz Creel, "Meeting the Reproductive Health Needs of Displaced People", Measure Communication Policy Brief, (2002), http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/ownload?doi=10.1.1.515.9773&rep=rep1&type=pdf.

77. Ibid.

78. Ibid.

79. Amnesty International Nigeria, "'They Betrayed Us': Women Who Survived Boko Haram Raped, Starved and Detained in Nigeria", 24 May 2018, https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/afr44/8415/2018/en/.

80. Ibid.

81. O. O. Odusanya, "The health of internally displaced persons", Niger Postgrad Med J , online serial (2016) vol. 23, issue 4 (2016) pp. 159–160, http://www.npmj.org/text.asp?2016/23/4/159/196241.

82. Ibid.

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) in north-east Nigeria provides "comprehensive reproductive health kits that contain contraceptives for family planning, commodities for pre-natal, safe delivery and post-natal care for pregnant women, treatment of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) including the prevention of HIV/AIDS and the clinical management of rape".[83] As the supply does not yet meet the need, UNFPA aims to redouble its efforts. Although some female IDPs have access to health care in the camps, it is often rudimentary and fails to address serious health issues. This inadequacy often exacerbates the vulnerability of poor women and girls who may be exposed to sexual exploitation as they seek alternative ways to raise funds to pay for better health care services outside camps.

Livelihood insecurity

Livelihoods and livelihood opportunities are among the first casualties when people are forced to flee from their communities due to violent conflict.[84] Particularly for women, there is usually a shift in the gendered division of labour where women increasingly take up economic responsibilities and often become the primary earners as men are unable to fulfil their traditional roles as heads

of household. The latter increases the pressure on women to provide for their family in addition to their care work, leaving them even more vulnerable. In Africa, many IDPs and refugees who were farmers, shopkeepers and other business owners tend to lose their livelihoods when they flee thus leaving behind assets, customers, and professional and social networks.[85]

In conflict areas like Borno State in Nigeria, the loss of access to farms is a major deprivation that goes beyond incomes and livelihoods. Lack of access to livelihoods not only causes impoverishment and dependence on humanitarian assistance but it can also lead some IDPs and refugees to resort to negative coping strategies that increase susceptibility to serious economic exploitation.

Livelihood disruption is one of the main challenges confronting affected populations, with a devastating impact on women in particular. Many women are now single heads of household due to separation from spouses who were either killed, kidnapped, disappeared or disabled. Women are less financially autonomous and are thus greatly disadvantaged – often unable to acquire food, pay school fees for their children or for services and documentation.

83. United Nations Population Fund News, "In crisis, access to reproductive health care often determines if women and girls live or die, says UNFPA Executive Director", 17 October 2019, https://nigeria.unfpa.org/en/news/crisis-access-reproductive-health-care-often-determines-if-women-and-girls-live-or-die-says.

84. Brookings Institution, Gender and Livelihoods among Internally Displaced Persons in Mindanao, Philippines.

Available at https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Gender-and-Livelihoods-Among-IDPs-in-Mindanao-Philippines-July-2013.pdf(accessed on 17 October 2019).

85. IDMC, Internal displacement in Africa: A development challenge. Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Full%20Report_772.pdf (accessed on 17th October 2019).

Prior to displacement, women face pre-existing gender inequalities as a result of unequal access to opportunities; this inequality underpins limited access to resources and skills, thereby increasing exposure to abuse, including sexual exploitation.[86] The situation is even worse for those in inaccessible areas where they lack access to food, supplies and services, and are not able to engage in normal livelihood activities such as farming and trade due to the limited movement associated with insecurity.[87] Women take on whatever low-end work they can find including petty trading in cheap commodities and sex for food. Refugee women take on insecure jobs often made more difficult by strict government policies that restrict their ability to work.[88] Indeed, these are just some of the struggles refugees face in transitioning from country-of-origin livelihoods to the country of asylum especially with little or no cash assistance.[89]

Since the 1980s, recognition of the need for a displaced person to access to cash led UNHCR to employ effective and efficient cash-based interventions. In 2016, UNHCR implemented the 2016–2020 strategy to institutionalize cash-based interventions.[90] Cash-based initiatives are aimed at helping displaced people better meet their daily needs. Studies confirm that cash and voucher assistance can help to better deal with, and get access to, services following incidences of SGBV.[91] Access to cash also has the benefit of reducing the risk of transactional sex practices and marriage at a young age or even child marriage. Money gives women and girls a choice; it gives them dignity and autonomy.[92]

Steps have also been taken to make use of the proliferation of information and communications technologies (ICTs), like mobile phones, as these can greatly improve self-reliance by giving displaced populations access to markets, finance and employment opportunities.[93] However, it is important to note that displaced persons often lack the requisite digital infrastructure. UNHCR's vision for connectivity for refugees aims to promote partnerships and investments to ensure that all refugees, and the communities that host them, have access to "affordable usable mobile phones and connectivity to leverage on communications, education, health, self-reliance, community

86. OCHA Nigeria, "Humanitarian Needs Overview 2019", https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/ethiopia_humanitarian_needs_overview_2019.pdf (accessed on 16 October 2019).

87. Ibid.

88. Veronique Barbelet and Caitlin Wake, Livelihoods in displacement: From refugee perspectives to aid agency response HPG Report (2017), https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/11729.pdf (accessed on 17 October 2019).

89. Ibid.

90. UNHCR, "UNHCR Strategy for The Institutionalisation of Cash-Based Interventions 2016-2020". Available at https://www.unhcr.org/584131cd7.pdf (accessed on 17 October 2019).

91. Cash & Voucher Assistance and Gender Based Violence Compendium, Practical Guidance for Humanitarian Practitioners (2019). Available at https://reliefweb.int/report/world/cash-voucher-assistance-and-genderbased-violence-compendium-practical-guidance.

92. IDMC, Internal displacement in Africa: A development challenge (October 2012). Available at https://www.internal-displacement.org/publications/internal-displacement-in-africa-a-development-challenge (accessed on 17 October 2019).

93. UNHCR, "UNHCR Strategy for The Institutionalisation of Cash-Based Interventions 2016-2020". Available at https://www.unhcr.org/584131cd7.pdf (accessed on 17 October 2019).

empowerment, and durable solutions".[94] These initiatives from international humanitarian agencies can only be achieved with the consent and cooperation of national governments since they generally need local infrastructure to help facilitate the initiative.[95]

Agriculture has also been used to improve the livelihood situations of forcibly displaced persons. An example is a project facilitated between the Government of Kenya and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and funded by Government of Japan. The objective of the project was to support livelihoods in food insecure households in the Rift Valley and northern regions through agriculture.[96] Beneficiaries had access to seedlings and fertilizers to cultivate at least one acre of land.

The improvement of livelihood opportunities for forcibly displaced persons and efforts to address limited access to housing, water, sanitation, health and education services remain a development challenge; however, tackling the issues is critical to helping vulnerable populations become self-sufficient once again and reducing poverty in targeted areas.[97] Beyond providing skills and

funds, it is critical to connect displaced persons and host communities to local, national, regional and international market opportunities leading to sustainable livelihoods and economies. For refugees in particular, it becomes important to address restrictions of the right to work and seek livelihood opportunities. It is also vital to ensure that the perspectives of forcibly displaced persons form the basis of livelihood support.

Limited educational opportunities

Education is substantially disrupted in the lives of displaced girls. In situations of displacement, educating girls and women becomes not only a livelihood strategy but also a path to conflict resolution, promoting alternative pathways to building peace, social cohesion and citizenship.[98] Camp realities indicate the prevalence of child marriage as a strategy employed by families to keep girls safe. Girls are married off to elders or military leaders on the assumption that doing so guarantees protection for the girls and their families; ultimately, however, child marriage undermines the rights of girls.[99]

94. UNHCR, "Connecting Refugees: How Internet and Mobile Connectivity can Improve Refugee Well-Being and Transform Humanitarian Action" (Geneva, September 2016).

95. UNHCR, "UNHCR Strategy for the Institutionalisation of Cash-Based Interventions 2016–2020". Available at https://www.unhcr.org/584131cd7.pdf (accessed on 17 October 2019).

96. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, "Project Highlights – Kenya". Available at http://www.fao.org/in-action/nadhali/en/ (accessed on 29th July 2020).

97. IDMC, Internal displacement in Africa: A development challenge (2012). Available at https://www.internal-displacement.org/publications/internal-displacement-in-africa-a-development-challenge(accessed on 17 October, 2019).

98. Diana Kwobe Adweya, "Defending the right to education for displaced women and girls", Forum for African Women Educationalists, https://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/defending-right-education-displaced-women-and-girls (accessed 18th October 2019).

99. Ibid.

According to UNICEF, displacement places a huge strain on the already inadequate educational infrastructure for children who live in camps. Displaced [100]girls are five times more likely to be out of school than other children as they are often not part of national education systems or are unable to afford resources to support their education.[101]

Even in cases where displaced children have access to free education, it is often through parallel systems and is of poor quality. In these cases, schools are less likely to have qualified teachers or accreditation for the children to access higher education. Due to lack of funding, such schools tend to be overcrowded and lack sufficient facilities and resources. Where girls have to access education outside the camp, families are often not able to afford school fees or equip their daughters with resources for study. Given that families lose livelihoods and income due to displacement, it is a struggle to cover the cost of school fees and classroom supplies.

Interventions such as early childhood care and education (ECCE) provide a vital source of psychosocial support and a degree of stability and normalcy that children require in their already traumatized lives.[102] It also reduces their vulnerability to exploitation and plays an important role in encouraging integration into host communities.[103] Unlike boys, girls are expected to take up household responsibilities to support the family including caring for siblings, cooking and cleaning – especially if they are the eldest child. Their roles and responsibilities often take precedence over their need to access education and often leads to missing school or dropping out altogether.[104] Early marriage and pregnancy are also barriers for girls in accessing education.[105]

Education systems must be fit for purpose for displaced children. Displacement disrupts children's educational pathways, and many need support to re-enter formal schooling.[106] Many also lose their documents including birth and school certificates during displacement; without these documents, displaced children may be unable to enrol in school at all.[107] Getting replacement documents is often arduous and may also be dangerous for those required to return to their area of origin as part of the procedure.[108]

100. United Nations Children's Fund and IDMC, Equitable access to quality education for internally displaced children, https://www.unicef.org/media/56196/file/Equitable%20access%20to%20quality%20education%20for%20internally%20displaced%20children.pdf (accessed on 18 October 2019).

101. See United Nations Children's Fund statement on the education programme, https://www.unicef.org/nigeria/education (accessed on 18 October 2019).

102. United Nations Children's Fund and IDMC, Equitable access to quality education for internally displaced children, https://www.unicef.org/media/56196/file/Equitable%20access%20to%20quality%20education%20for%20internally%20displaced%20children.pdf.

103. Ibid.

104. See https://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/defending-right-education-displaced-women-and-girls.

105. Ibid.

106. United Nations Children's Fund and IDMC, Equitable access to quality education for internally displaced children, https://www.unicef.org/media/56196/file/Equitable%20access%20to%20quality%20education%20for%20internally%20displaced%20children.pdf.

107. Ibid.

108. Ibid.

Physical Insecurity

Displacement is both a cause and consequence of insecurity. While forced displacement is primarily regarded as a humanitarian and human rights issue, it also presents a security challenge.[109] Initiatives on forced displacement should address issues of physical and food security as well as ensure that those affected are included in the process of facilitating peace within their communities.[110] Returnees may also be forced to move again if the underlying drivers of insecurity and displacement in their home country remain unaddressed. Insecurity in places of refuge often leaves people with little choice but to flee again. Thousands of IDPs fled from camps in Kajo-Keji in South Sudan's Central Equatoria province to escape fighting between government and opposition forces and clashes among insurgent groups.[111] In Central African Republic, a hospital sheltering displaced persons was attacked in the town of Zemio. The same response happened in Cameroon when hundreds of IDPs fled their camps after suicide bombings killed some of the residents.

Beyond the general insecurities experienced by displaced populations, women and girls are often at risk even within the camps as they remain susceptible to all kinds of violence and additional insecurity. Despite advancements in terms of camp security in Somalia, women have still reported cases of rape within the camp.[112] Protecting women from such violence requires structural measures to increase protection and lessen the risk for women living within the camps. These structural measures include improving the camp layout, security patrols, lighting, providing firewood so that women and girls do not need to travel long distances, locating water sources and latrines in safe areas, and also employing women as guards.[113] In some camps, basic everyday chores that women undertake, such as fetching firewood or water have become risky activities that greatly increase their vulnerability to physical attacks. Despite their susceptibility to such insecurity, women and girls are rarely consulted on security matters – a fact that often leads to woefully inadequate solutions.

109. IDMC, Internal displacement in Africa: A development challenge (2012), https://www.internal-displacement.org/publications/internal-displacement-in-africa-a-development-challenge (accessed on 17 October 2019).

110. Elizabeth J. Rushing and Margarite Clarey, "Internal Displacement and the Global Compact on Refugees: Are Today's Returning Refugees Tomorrow's IDPs? ",14 November 2017, https://www.unhcr.org/events/conferences/5a12a6467/internal-displacement-global-compact-refugees-todays-returning-refugees.html; NRC, "Operationalising Returns in the Global Compact on Refugees," Briefing note, January 2018, https://www.nrc.no/resources/briefing-notes/operationalising-returns-in-the-global-compact-on-refugees/ (accessed on 19th October 2019).

111. Htun Htun, "Kachin IDP Camps Cut Rations for Men," The Irrawaddy, 6 April 2017, https://www.irrawaddy.com/news/kachin-idp-camps-cut-rations-men.html (accessed on 19 October 2019).

112. Brookings Institution, Improving the Protection of Internally Displaced Women: Assessment of Progress and Challenges, Brooking- LSE, Project on Internal Displacement (Washington, D. C., 2014), https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Improving-the-Protection-of-Internally-Displacement-Women-October-10-2014.pdf (accessed 19 October 2019).

113. Judy A. Benjamin and Khadija Fancy, "The Gender Dimensions of Internal Displacement: Concept Paper and Annotated Bibliography", UNICEF/IDP Gender Issues Paper (1998). Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/0D530FFE231BCDB6C1256C360045B8B4-Gender%20Dimension.pdf(accessed on 19 October 2019).

While women are seen as victims of insecurity within and outside camps, they are also, in some cases, regarded as security threats. When this happens, it often leads to the stigmatization of women and girls as terrorists or suicide bombers in their communities of refuge. This notion originates in several recorded attacks by women and girls in Nigeria. For instance, in February 2016 two female suicide bombers attacked a site for IDPs in Dikwa Local Government Area (LGA), located west of the capital of Borno in Maiduguri, killing 58 people and injuring 80.[114] Boko Haram uses women and girls, disguised as IDPs, in suicide attacks.

This tactic has been effective in turning community members against each other.[115] The situation then leads to more stringent screening processes by government forces which degrade and humiliate women and girls. Some of these women IDPs trek up to eight hours from their hometowns only to be detained by security officials, sometimes for more than three months, and interrogated about their possible link to armed groups.[116] Despite the fact that the overwhelming majority of IDPs

are innocent civilians, a misperception is emerging which considers IDPs as security threats – a situation which in itself presents a significant risk to IDPs and will likely fuel tensions between IDPs and their host communities. Security responses to these perceived threats can be restrictive and inhumane to displaced persons; they can involve family separation, arbitrary detention, ill treatment, and even torture.[117]

The deployment of trained female security officers, or female peacekeepers, is essential to safeguard displaced women and girls and prevent exploitation and sexual abuse. UN Security Council Resolution 1820 emphasizes the role of peacekeepers in protecting civilians and the need to increase the number of female peacekeepers.[118] Female security/police officers and peacekeepers are often useful in encouraging the role of women in camp security. They can more easily support conflict-affected women who would have difficulty speaking to male officers.[119] Although female security officers are sometimes deployed to camps to support displaced persons, their numbers are

114. Protection sector Working Group, Nigeria, Enhancing Security and Protection around IDP settlements, April 2016, http://www.globalprotectioncluster.org/_assets/files/field_protection_clusters/Nigeria/files/pswg-position-paper-on-enhancing-security-and-protection-around-idp-sites_april-2016_en.pdf (accessed on 19 October 2019).

115. Aimée-Noël Mbiyozo, "Refugees are Boko Haram's latest soft target", Institute for Security Studies, 18 April 2018, https://reliefweb.int/report/nigeria/refugees-are-boko-haram-s-latest-soft-target (Accessed 19 October 2019).

116. Human Rights Watch Nigeria, "Officials Abusing Displaced Women, Girls", https://www.hrw.org/news/2016/10/31/nigeria-officials-abusing-displaced-women-girls (accessed 2 December 2019)

117. Saskia Brechenmacher, "Stabilizing Northeast Nigeria After Boko Haram", Working Paper, May 2019 (Washington, D.C., Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 2019). https://carnegieendowment.org/2019/05/03/stabilizing-northeast-nigeria-after-boko-haram-pub-79042 (accessed on 20 December 2019).

118. Security Council resolution 1820 (2008) on sexual violence during wars, https://undocs.org/en/S/RES/1820(2008)

119. Fatima Kyari Mohammed, "The Causes and Consequences of Internal Displacement in Nigeria and Related Governance Challenges", SWP Working Papers, https://www.swp-berlin.org/fileadmin/contents/products/arbeitspapiere/Mohammed_2017_Internal_Displacement_Nigeria.pdf.

often limited.[120] Hence, the increased recruitment and deployment of female security officers and peacekeepers remains crucial to the security of displaced women and girls.

Barriers to participation in decision-making

Governance, within the context of IDP and refugee camps, refers to the way they are managed and how displaced populations participate in decision-making that affects their lives. When issues that trigger displacement occur, key stakeholders within the humanitarian space undertake the movement and management of IDPs and refugees to make provision for their support. This assistance involves moving them to various camps where they are under the care of humanitarian institutions, states and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Community leaders and committees play a key role in the implementation of humanitarian assistance in camps and women must be equitably and meaningfully engaged and represented in the management, leadership structure and decision processes in the camp.[121]

There is a correlation between the level of women's participation in decision-making

and the effectiveness of the programmes, policies and laws that affect them.[122] Essentially, meaningful participation is likely to increase the probability of successful outcomes of interventions. The participation of displaced women and girls is possible across different spaces (individual/household, local/community and national) but their engagement could be passive or come through information-sharing, consultation, collaboration in decision-making or full decision-making.[123] Sometimes, women may be in the room but not at the table.

Evidence likewise indicates a low level of participation by women not just within the camps but also in peace processes and decision-making spaces, including in the political arena. Matters of concern, as they relate to IDPs and refugees, remains largely defined by men and male interests which undermine women's concerns.[124] Community leaders and committees play a key role in the implementation of humanitarian assistance in camps and while women make up a majority of the population, they are often underrepresented in community participation and leadership.[125] This is usually due to the influence of traditional patriarchal structures, especially where approaches to camp services rely on

120. BBC News, "Nigeria sends female police to protect Boko Haram victims", 7 November 2016, https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-37895348.
121. UNHCR, "UNHCR Age, Gender and Diversity Accountability Report 2016", https://www.unhcr.org/595cdf5c7.pdf.
122. Brookings Institution, Improving the Protection of Internally Displaced Women: Assessment of Progress and Challenges, Brookings -LSE Project on Internal Displacement(Washington, D. C., 2014), https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Improving-the-Protection-of-Internally-Displacement-

Women-October-10-2014.pdf (accessed on 19 October 2019).
123. UNHCR, "Tearing Down the Wall: Confronting the Barriers to Internally Displaced Women and Girls' Participation in Humanitarian Settings", https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/70156.pdf
124. Ibid.
125. Devanna De La Puente, "Women's Leadership in Camps for Internally Displaced People in Darfur, Western Sudan," Community Development Journal, Oxford University Press, vol. 46, No. 3 (2011) pp. 365–377.

existing customary structures that fail to promote the potential role women's leadership could play in reinforcing gender inclusion.[126] This does not mean that women's participation is completely non-existent in camps although it is very limited as many communities in this context rarely perceive women's concerns beyond issues often viewed as within women's spheres.[127]

Through general assemblies and focus group discussions within the camps, women are likely to be consulted on, for instance, specific concerns relating to SGBV and unaccompanied children while men participate more in security-related matters.[128] These consultations occur through existing groups within the camp where they meet monthly to discuss specific issues. Many of these groups are male-dominated except for female associations and groups.[129] It is crucial to understand the detrimental impact that male relatives inside households can have on how much women are able to actually voice their concerns and represent others in the camp outside of their homes.[130]

In addition to the influence of men, women often face a number of barriers to meaningful participation. Women and girls are limited by a lack of education which renders them poorly equipped to navigate male-dominated structures. They also have fewer livelihood opportunities, a situation that exacerbates their dependency and reinforces traditional gender roles. The overall impact is a weakening of their confidence to participate in wider camp life. Even where a woman manages to participate, it is not necessarily as meaningfully as it could be especially if few other women can also engage or that those who do have only limited capacity to advocate for other women.

Additional barriers to women's participation in camp governance structures include SGBV, disability, lack of understanding of the purpose and benefit of women's participation and the gender norms that overburden women with household responsibilities and childcare.[131] Women's care work often reinforces comments like "women are too busy to participate" as seen in studies carried out in Nigeria, Iraq and Ecuador.[132] This was also experienced in Angola, Cameroon and the Central African Republic where women indicated that "taking on unpaid leadership roles or increasing their participation in community activities meant they would have to sacrifice time that could be used to earn income".[133]

126. Ibid.

127. Fatouma Zara Laouan, CARE Rapid Gender and GBV Assessment Borno State: MMC and Jere (CARE, January 2018) https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/sites/www.humanitarianresponse.info/files/documents/files/maiduguri_jere_january_2018.pdf (accessed on 10 October 2019).

128. Ibid.

129. Ibid.

130. IOM/Women's Refugee Commission, Women's Participation in Camp Governance Structures Learning Report. https://www.humanitarianlibrary.org/sites/default/files/2019/02/Womens%20Participation%20Learning%20Report_Final_BL.pdf (accessed 5th December 2019).

131. Ibid.

132. Ibid.

133. UNHCR, "UNHCR Age, Gender and Diversity Accountability Report 2016",https://www.unhcr.org/595cdf5c7.pdf.

Beyond women's participation within camps, it is often difficult to ensure the inclusion of women in decision-making positions in communities where women's participation in politics is already limited. Although such participation is on the rise globally, it remains stubbornly slow in many AU Member States including Nigeria and Morocco.[134] However, it is crucial to recognize the impressive situation in African countries such as Rwanda, where women make up 61.3 per cent of parliamentarians, followed by Namibia (45.7%), South Africa (42.7%) and Senegal (41.8%) – all of which are higher than the United States (23.5%).[135]

134. Zipporah Musau, "African Women in politics: Miles to go before parity is achieved", Africa Renewal, https://www.un.org/africarenewal/magazine/april-2019-july-2019/african-women-politics-miles-go-parity-achieved (accessed on 20 October 2019).

135. Alex Thornton, "These countries have the most women in parliament", World Economic Forum, https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/02/chart-of-the-day-these-countries-have-the-most-women-in-parliament/.

3. Legal and Policy Frameworks

International Frameworks

Certainly, progress has been made on a global scale to advance the rights of forcibly displaced women and girls through the elaboration of standards, policies and laws at international, continental, regional and national levels. However, it is likewise the case that much more needs to be done in terms of implementation. Several international instruments have been crucial in driving the rights and protection of forcibly displaced women and girls.

Convention and Protocols Relating to the Status of Refugees

International humanitarian concern for refugees has been established through existing international refugee laws in the form of the Convention and Protocols Relating to the Status of Refugees (1951), the centrepiece of international refugee protection today.[136] The Convention defines a refugee as someone who "owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable, or owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country".[137] The core principle of 'non-refoulement' asserts that a refugee should not be returned to a country where they face serious threats to their life or freedom and it is binding on all States –whether or not they have acceded to the Convention.

The Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees (1967), alongside the above Convention, forms part of the global legal instruments that explicitly cover the most important aspects of the rights of victims of forced displacement. Both declare that refugees deserve, at minimum, the same standards of treatment enjoyed by other foreign nationals in a given country. The Protocol excludes geographical and time limits that were part of the 1951 Convention. Although refugees are granted special status through these laws, IDPs remain the largest group of forcibly displaced persons and therefore require critical attention.

The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement define internally displaced persons as "persons or group of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violation of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not

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136. Draft Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, United Nations General Assembly resolution 429(V) (A/RES.429) of 14 December 1950, http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/3b00f08a27.html.

137. Convention relating to the Status of Refugees ,1951, Article 1A(2).

crossed an internationally recognized State border."[138] Over time, there has been a growing acceptance among governments of principles in general. This development has led to the use of the Guiding Principles, visible in the adoption of national laws and policies to address the problem of internal displacement.[139]

CEDAW

In light of existing global legal frameworks within the discourse of forced displacement, there is greater recognition of the peculiarities of the experiences of women and girls. There are a number of global frameworks with the primary aim to address and promote the human rights of women and girls. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was established in 1967 with the aim to address and eliminate discrimination against women in all its forms.[140] CEDAW presents essential protection elements for forcibly displaced women and girls at all processes of repatriation, local integration and resettlement.[141] This women-driven Convention complements and reinforces the 1951 Convention Relating to the

Status of Refugees as amended by its 1967 Protocol, and other human rights treaties. Although violence against women is not explicitly mentioned in CEDAW, in its General Recommendation No. 19 the Committee on the Elimination of Violence against Women recognizes that gender-based violence amounts to discrimination under CEDAW.

In 2010, CEDAW decided at its forty-seventh session to adopt a general recommendation on women in conflict prevention, conflict and post-conflict situations.[142] The objective is to guide States Parties on measures to ensure full compliance with their obligations to protect, respect and fulfil human rights following CEDAW. The Committee recognizes that forcibly displaced women and girls are especially subject to gross human rights violations at various phases of displacement.[143] The Committee recommends that States Parties take measures to address the specific risks and particular needs of internally displaced and refugee women as well as promote their meaningful participation and inclusion in a design making process. [144]

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138. Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, https://www.globalprotectioncluster.org/_assets/files/tools_and_guidance/protection_of_idps/Guiding_Principles_on_Internal_Displacement_EN.pdf (accessed on 15 October 2019).

139. Global Protection Cluster, Regulatory Frameworks on Internal Displacement: Global, regional and national developments, http://www.globalprotectioncluster.org/_assets/files/tools_and_guidance/Internal%20 Displacement/unhcr-gpc_reg_framework_idp.pdf (accessed on 15 October 2019).

140. Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly resolution 34/180, A/RES/34/180, of

18 December 1979). Entry into force 3 September 1981, in accordance with article 27(1).

141. Alice Edwards, Legal and Protection Policy Research Series: Displacement, Statelessness and Questions of Gender Equality under the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, UNHCR, PPLAS/2009/02 August 2009.

142. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women. General recommendation No. 30 on women in conflict prevention, conflict and post-conflict situations, https://www.ohchr.org/documents/hrbodies/cedaw/gcomments/cedaw.c.cg.30.pdf (accessed on 10 December 2019).

143. Ibid.

144. Ibid. p. 57 (a-i).

Beijing+25

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women in September 1995, is another "visionary agenda for the empowerment of women".[145] It remains one of the most comprehensive global policy frameworks and blueprints for action for the global realization of gender equality and the human rights of women and girls.[146] The Platform for Action covers 12 critical areas of concern still relevant to the experiences of women and girls: poverty; education and training; health; violence; armed conflict; economy; power and decision-making; institutional mechanisms; human rights; media; environment; and the girl child.[147] In 2020, the international community marks the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Beijing Declaration (Beijing+25), providing further impetus to accelerate gender equality and the global empowerment of women and girls, especially those who are living in displacement.[148]

UNSCR 1325

Over the years, there has been growing recognition that women are indispensable actors in the promotion of sustainable peace and security in post-conflict transitions. Recognizing and promoting the role of women in peace processes contributes to sustainable peace. It creates opportunities to improve the gender equality outcomes in peace processes by ensuring that women's concerns are addressed.[149] In 2000, UNSCR 1325 was passed under the Presidency of Namibia. This resolution was the first formal international effort to mainstream the role of women in peace and security, bringing to the forefront of security and development discourse the concept of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda along the following four interrelated thematic areas:

- **Participation:** ensuring the increased participation of women at all levels of decision-making

- **Protection:** safeguarding women and girls from sexual and gender-based violence

- **Prevention:** improving the intervention strategies set out to prevent violence against women

- **Relief and Recovery:** advancing relief and recovery measures towards addressing international crises through a gendered lens.

UNSCR 1325 emphasized the need to "ensure increased representation of women at all decision-making levels

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145. UN Women, "Beijing+5 Political Declaration and Outcome", https://www.unwomen.org/-/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/csw/pfa_e_final_web.pdf?la=en&vs=800 (accessed on 10 December 2019).

146. Ibid.

147. Ibid.

148. UN Women, "CSW64 / Beijing+25 (2020)", https://www.unwomen.org/en/csw/csw64-2020 (accessed on 20 December 2019).

149. Krishna Kumar, "Women and Women's Organizations in Post-Conflict Societies: The Role of International Assistance", draft paper (8-21-00), (Washington D. C., Center for Development Information and Evaluation, United States Agency for International Development, 2000).

in national, regional and international institutions and mechanisms for prevention, management and resolution of conflict".[150] This resolution laid the groundwork for strengthening efforts towards violence against women, girls and other vulnerable groups in conflict settings as seen in subsequent Resolutions 1820, 1888 and 1612.[151] Collective efforts have been made to ensure that UNSCR 1325 cascades to continental, regional and national levels through the appointment of a Special Envoy on Women, Peace and Security by the AUC Chair in 2014, the launch of the Programme on Gender, Peace and Security (2015–2020) within the AUC's Peace and Security Department, and by extension APSA, the development of Regional and National Action Plans for its implementation, and the development of a continental results framework to monitor the implementation of the WPS agenda in Africa[152] among other actions and initiatives.[153]

Continental Frameworks

OAU Refugee Convention

The growing number of refugees fleeing wars and internal conflicts in Africa in the 1950s led to the adoption of the 1969 Organisation of African Unity (OAU) Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa (OAU Refugee Convention).[154] This regional instrument builds on the 1951 UN Refugee Convention, extending the definition to include refugee protection for individuals who fled their home country because of "external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order."[155] The OAU Refugee Convention instituted an important shift from control to the management of externally displaced people.[156]

The Convention's provisions prohibiting "subversive activities" may be read as contrary to present customs protecting rights of expression, association and assembly.[157] However, by placing

150. UN Women, "Women's Participation and a Better Understanding of the Political" in A Global Study on the Implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325, https://wps.unwomen.org/pdf/CH03.pdf (accessed on 12 September 2019).

151. Anna Knoll and Lidet Tadesse Shiferaw, "Tackling the triggers of violence-induced displacement: The contribution of the African Peace and Security Architecture and African Governance Architecture", European Centre for Development Policy Management Discussion Paper 228, 2018, www.ecdpm.org/dp228. See also Security Council resolution 1612 (2005) on Children and armed conflict (accessed on 15t August 2019).

152. AU Continental Results Framework, Monitoring and Reporting on the Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Africa, Office of the Special Envoy on WPS, AUC, 2019.

153. AUC, Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Africa (Addis Ababa, 2016), https://www.un.org/en/africa/osaa/pdf/pubs/2016womenpeacesecurity-auc.pdf.

154. UNHCR, "Human Rights and Refugees", Fact Sheet, No.20, https://www.refworld.org/docid/4794773f0.html.

155. UNHCR, "Emergency Handbook", https://emergency.unhcr.org/entry/55772/refugee-definition (accessed on 20 December 2019).

156. UNHCR, "Handbook for the Protection of Internally Displaced Persons", Global Protection Cluster Working Group, December 2007.

157. Article 3, Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, 1001 U.N.T.S. 45, entered into force June 20, 1974.

responsibility for refugee protection with individual States, the instrument pioneered the idea of sharing responsibility. As the African Union commemorated the 50th Anniversary of the adoption of the OAU Refugee Convention, it called on relevant stakeholders to "support Africa, through global advocacy and actions, to find durable solutions to forced displacement in Africa, and to assist the leadership of African Member States in ensuring ratification and adoption of the pivotal African and Global instruments."[158]

A recent report reviewing the Convention asserts that, although widely ratified, it still faces national implementation challenges in AU Member States including the "tendency to view refugees as a security concern".[159] The report recommended that the AU and UNHCR should support States Parties to implement the Convention's Article II(4) stating that "where a Member State finds difficulty in continuing to grant asylum to refugees, such Member State may appeal directly to other Member States and through the OAU, and such other Member States shall in the spirit of African solidarity and international co-operation take appropriate measures to lighten the burden of the Member State granting asylum."[160]

Kampala Convention

The first legally binding regional instrument for the protection of IDPs was the 2006 Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region, known widely as the Great Lakes Pact.[161] The Pact does also includes the Dar es Salaam Declaration which consists of ten protocols set against the backdrop of four priority pillars.[162] Specific to this study is the Humanitarian and Social Pillar which includes protocols for the protection of IDPs, returnees, women and children.[163] In 2009, the AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention)[164] was adopted.

This landmark instrument established a common regulatory standard for IDPs. According to the UN Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons, the Kampala Convention "goes beyond the Guiding Principles by articulating the need for a holistic response to internal displacement, based on a combined framework of international human rights law and international humanitarian law".[165] The Convention is regarded as a major advancement towards building a legally binding regulatory

158. Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (OSSA), "Theme: Towards Durable Solutions for Forcibly Displaced Persons in Africa", Africa Dialogue Series (ADS 2019), https://www.un.org/en/africa/osaa/events/2019/ds2019.shtml (accessed on 11 December 2019).

159. Tsion Tadesse Abebe, Allehone Abebe and Marina Sharpe, The 1969 OAU Refugee Convention at 50, ISS Africa Report, October 2019, https://issafrica.s3.amazonaws.com/site/uploads/ar19.pdf (accessed on 15 December 2019).

160. Ibid.

161. International Conference on the Great Lakes Region (ICGLR), Great Lakes Pact and additional protocols, http://goo.gl/Hlm08p(accessed on 20 August 2019).

162. IDMC, The Great Lakes Pact and the rights of displaced people: A guide for civil society (IRRI, September 2008).

163. Ibid.

164. https://au.int/en/treaties/african-union-convention-protection-and-assistance-internally-displaced-persons-africa.

165. Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of internally displaced persons, A/HRC/26/33 (April 2014) p. 10, http://goo.gl/25Zjus (accessed on 1 September 2019).

framework for the prevention, protection and assistance of IDPs and articulates the roles of all stakeholders including States in this regard. The Convention takes an innovative approach by ensuring its responses are tailored to the specifics of displacement in Africa. For instance, it places communities at the centre of the humanitarian process and takes into account the complexities of internal displacement in Africa.[166]

The UN Special Rapporteur continues to engage in constructive dialogues with African Union Member States, the United Nations and other stakeholders (including IDPs) to promote the rights of internally displaced persons as well as encourage States regarding ratification, domestication and implementation of the Kampala Convention. Moreover, as an active member of the Global Protection Cluster's Task Team on Law and Policy, [167] the mandate contributed to the development of draft laws for the protection of internally displaced persons in Ethiopia. Ethiopia's ratification of the Kampala Convention – unanimously passed by Ethiopia's parliament in February 2020 – both a key regional legal instrument aimed at protecting, assisting and resolving the plight of IDPs and a significant achievement for a country dealing with massive displacement provides an impetus to the mandate of the Special Rapporteur in other AU Member States.

The Convention adequately acknowledges and addresses the unique vulnerabilities of internally displaced women through specific provisions dealing with women, including Article 7 which obliges States to protect and assist IDPs in situations of armed conflict.[168] Article 9 obliges States to protect displaced persons from sexual and gender-based violence in all its forms and takes special measures to provide women and girls with appropriate services to address their specific needs.[169]

While this Convention remains a welcome achievement for Africa, it still suffers from inadequate ratification and ineffective implementation. Although adopted in 2009, it did not come into force until December 2012. Thirty-one AU Member States are now party to the Convention. South Sudan, Equatorial Guinea, Mozambique and Somalia became the most recent countries to ratify the Convention.[170] To date, however, twenty-four African countries have yet to ratify the Convention. The limited progress seen in ratification and effective implementation can be attributed to a lack of political will and action to effectively domesticate the Convention within local laws and policies.

AU Member States are also at varying levels of domestication and implementation of the provisions of the Kampala Convention. States have done so by developing national laws and

166. IDMC, Regulatory Frameworks on Internal Displacement: Global, regional and national developments, https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/UNHCR-GPC-Reg-Framework-IDP.pdf (accessed 20th August 2019).

167. https://www.globalprotectioncluster.org/themes/law-and-policy-on-internal-displacement/.

168. African Union Kampala Convention, Article 7.

169. African Union Kampala Convention, Article 9 (c-g).

170. See AU Kampala Convention Status List.

policies on IDPs (as seen in the DRC, Kenya, Mali, Somalia and Uganda). Other States – such as Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Rwanda and Somalia – have fully or partially established structures for the coordination and monitoring of responses to displacement. Others, including Mali, have designated ministerial roles for IDPs at diverse levels.[171]

The AU – alongside RECs and other institutions such as the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), the UN Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of IDPs, ACHPR Special Rapporteurs, United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and the UN Refugee Agency (UNHCR) – have supported AU Member States in their efforts to ratify and implement the Kampala Convention for the protection of IDPs in Africa. This includes building the capacity of relevant stakeholders on AU humanitarian law and policy as well as the development of a Kampala Convention model law that is widely shared with Member States.[172]

Implementation-related gaps must be addressed to relieve millions of Africans who live as IDPs in their own countries. Moving towards a durable solution requires the increased ratification of the Kampala Convention – its domestication

and implementation. Where women and girls are concerned, implementation remains both especially elusive and the consequences particularly dire.

Maputo Protocol

The Maputo Protocol remains the most comprehensive and progressive regional instrument on women's rights. The Protocol lays out provisions to address the issues of women who are forcibly displaced, in distress, living with disability or who are widows or elderly. It places a responsibility on Member States to eliminate discrimination against women and promote their rights by introducing and effectively implementing a range of proactive measures. A product of years of activism by women's rights organizations and activists, the Protocol encompasses rights that were not included in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights or CEDAW such as measures against harmful practices. It also clearly raises global standards on women's rights and lays out the obligations of governments to fulfil these rights.[174] So far, forty-nine States have signed and forty-two have ratified the Protocol.[175]

During the 33rd Pre-Summit Consultative Meeting on Gender Mainstreaming in the AU, held in Addis Ababa in February 2019, recommendations prioritized the ratification, adoption and implementation

171. IDMC, 2017 Africa Report on Internal Displacement (December 2017), https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/20171206-Africa-report-2017-web.pdf (accessed on 12 October 2019).

172. AU, "Model Law For The Implementation Of The African Union Convention For The Protection Of And Assistance To Internally Displaced Persons In Africa", January 2018.

173. IDMC, 2017 Africa Report on Internal Displacement (December 2017), https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/20171206-Africa-report-2017-web.pdf (accessed on 12 October 2019).

174. Nebila Abdulmelik, AU Roadmap, All for Maputo Protocol Programme (2019 – 2028) (April 2019).

175. See AU Treaties Status List – Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.

of the Kampala Convention and the Maputo Protocol to advance the protection of women's rights and eliminate harmful practices exacerbating the vulnerability of displaced women.[176] Women's rights are fundamental to human security and sustainable peace; hence, the Maputo Protocol complements the Kampala Convention by paying particular attention to the needs, realities and rights of women and girls in forced displacement settings.

The table below shows the correlation between the top five IDP countries and their ratification of the Protocol. Only two of the top five countries have not yet ratified the Protocol. Nigeria ratified four years before DRC but, unfortunately, has not yet domesticated the Protocol.[177] Although DRC was one of the early ratifiers, the Protocol was only adopted into national law in March 2018.[178] Ethiopia remains one of the late ratifiers and has placed many reservations on the Protocol. It becomes increasingly important to address the issue of ratification, domestication and implementation as Sudan, DRC and Ethiopia are also among the top refugee-hosting countries on the continent.[179]

TABLE : Correlation between the global distribution of women living in internal displacement triggered by conflict and violence as of the end of 2018 and the ratification of the Maputo Protocol.		
Countries	Displaced persons	Date of ratification
DRC	1,543,000	June 2008
Somalia	1,327,000	Not yet ratified
Nigeria	1,093,000	December 2004
Ethiopia	1,067,000	July 2018
Sudan	1,036,000	Not yet ratified
Sources: African Union, List of Countries which have signed, ratified/acceded to the Protocol to the African Charter on Human And Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa; IDMC, Women And Girls in Internal Displacement 2018		

176. GIMAC, "33rd Pre-Summit Consultative Meeting on Gender Mainstreaming in the African Union", 3-4 February 2019, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, https://www.un.org/en/africa/osaa/pdf/events/2019/20190311/33rd_GIMAC_Recommendations.pdf (accessed 10 September 2019).

177. Alliances for Africa (AfA), "A Statement on Women's Human Rights in Nigeria at the 62 Ordinary Session of the African Commission on Human and People's Rights (ACHPR)" (25 April – 9 May 2018), https://alliancesforafrica.org/a-statement-on-womens-human-rights-in-nigeria-at-the-62-ordinary-session-of-the- african-commission-on-human-and-peoples-rights-achpr/.

178. IPAS, "Legal access to abortion expands in Democratic Republic of Congo", IPAS, 26 July 2018, https://www.ipas.org/News/2018/July/Legal-access-to-abortion-expands-in-Democratic-Republic-of-Congo.

179. Sulaiman Momodu, "Uganda stands out in refugees hospitality", Africa Renewal, December 2018 – March 2019, https://www.un.org/africarenewal/magazine/december-2018-march-2019/uganda-stands-out-refugees-hospitality.

The Maputo Protocol makes specific provisions for displaced populations, as well as those impacted by armed conflict, in Articles 10 and 11 which speak to the right to peace and protection of women in armed conflict respectively. Article 10 (2a-e) outlines that "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the increased participation of women in:

a. programmes of education for peace and a culture of peace;

b. the structures and processes for conflict prevention, management and resolution at local, national, regional, continental and international levels;

c. the local, national, regional, continental and international decision-making structures to ensure physical, psychological, social and legal protection of asylum seekers, refugees, returnees and displaced persons, in particular women;

d. all levels of the structures established for the management of camps and settlements for asylum seekers, refugees, returnees and displaced persons, in particular, women;

e. all aspects of planning, formulation and implementation of post-conflict reconstruction and rehabilitation."[180]

Article 11(3) of the Protocol requires "States Parties undertake to protect asylum seeking women, refugees, returnees and internally displaced persons, against all forms of violence, rape and other forms of sexual exploitation, and to ensure that such acts are considered war crimes, genocide and/or crimes against humanity and that their perpetrators are brought to justice before a competent criminal jurisdiction."[181]

It is particularly noteworthy that the Protocol explicitly acknowledges the feminization of displacement (forced and voluntary migrations) in Africa. The Protocol is silent, however, on displacement of women and girls due to ecological, climate and economic crises.

While the Maputo Protocol focuses on women, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child specifically addresses issues concerning the girl-child. In particular, the Charter protects girls from harmful social and cultural practices that hinder their welfare, dignity, normal growth and development.[182]

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180. Maputo Protocol, Article 10 (2a-e).

181. Maputo Protocol, Article 11(3).

182. The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, Article 21.

While these are the main policy and legal frameworks relevant to this study of the gendered impacts of displacement and policy responses to it, the figure below outlines several relevant AU mechanisms that deal explicitly with displacement. The complexity of displacement necessitates a framework of coordination of various actors and mechanisms to address not only the immediate causes and consequences of displacement but to also deal with the underlying root causes of displacement with the ultimate objective of prevention. AGA and APSA are thus well-suited mechanisms that must be leveraged in order to seek and attain truly durable solutions.

Relevant AU Mechanisms on Displacement

Policy Organs

Permanent Representative Sub-Committee on Refugees, Returnees and IDPs in Africa

Specialised Technical Committee on Migration, Refugees and IDPS

Peace and Security Council

African Union Commission Department of Political Affairs, HARDP (Humanitarian Affairs, Refugees and IDPs)& Peace and Security Department

African Commission on Human and Peoples Rights- Special Rapporteur for Refugees, Returnees, IDPS and Asylum Seekers

183. Nebila Abdulmelik, and Tsion Belay. "Advancing Women's Political Rights in Africa: the Potential and Promise of ACDEG", Africa Spectrum, vol. 54 (2) (2019) pp. 147–161.

Resourcing

Fund on Refugees and IDPs

Peace Fund

Special Emergency Assistance Fund

Specialized Agency

Africa Humanitarian Agency

Normative Fremeworks

OAU Convention on Refugees

Kampala convention

Humanitarian Policy Framework

Common African position on Humanitarian effectiveness

4. AGA and APSA

AU Architectures on democratic governance, human rights and peace and security

The transformation of the Organisation of African Unity to the African Union in 2002 heralded a new dawn for human rights and gender equality in Africa. Unlike the 1963 OAU Charter, the Constitutive Act made explicit commitments to gender equality.[183] This shift laid the foundation for several gender-specific policy frameworks and commitments including: the 2003 Maputo Protocol; the subsequent 2004 Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA)[184]; the 2009 AU Gender Policy; the Declaration on the African Women's Decade (2010-2020);[185] and the AU Strategy on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (2018-2028). Reaffirming the commitment of AU Member States to gender equality broadly, the 2007 African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (ACDEG) contains numerous provisions pertaining to women and girls and their participation in governance processes, although it is not a typical

women's rights instrument.[186] The ACDEG is regarded as the most comprehensive singular AU instrument on democratic governance, rule of law, constitutionalism, human rights and gender justice in Africa.

These policy and legal frameworks form part of the AU Shared Values instruments on democratic governance. AU Shared Values encompass a wide range of values and principles including gender equality, respect for human rights, rule of law, access to justice, democratic governance, youth empowerment, participation and durable solutions to humanitarian crises.[187] These values are embodied in the various instruments, decisions and declarations that have been adopted by the OAU/AU including the Kampala Convention, as well as the OAU Convention on Refugees.[188]

To coordinate, track implementation, and support Member States in translating the norms and values embodied by the Shared Values instruments into meaningful results for citizens, the AU established two architectures. The African Governance Architecture (AGA) and the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) are the two interrelated and mutually reinforcing

184. Solemn Declaration On Gender Equality in Africa, https://www.mrfcj.org/pdf/Solemn_Declaration_on_Gender_Equality_in_Africa.pdf.

185. African Women's Decade, https://au.int/en/documents-43.

186. Nebila Abdulmelik, and Tsion Belay. "Advancing Women's Political Rights in Africa: the Potential and Promise of ACDEG", Africa Spectrum, vol. 54 (2) (2019) pp. 147–161.
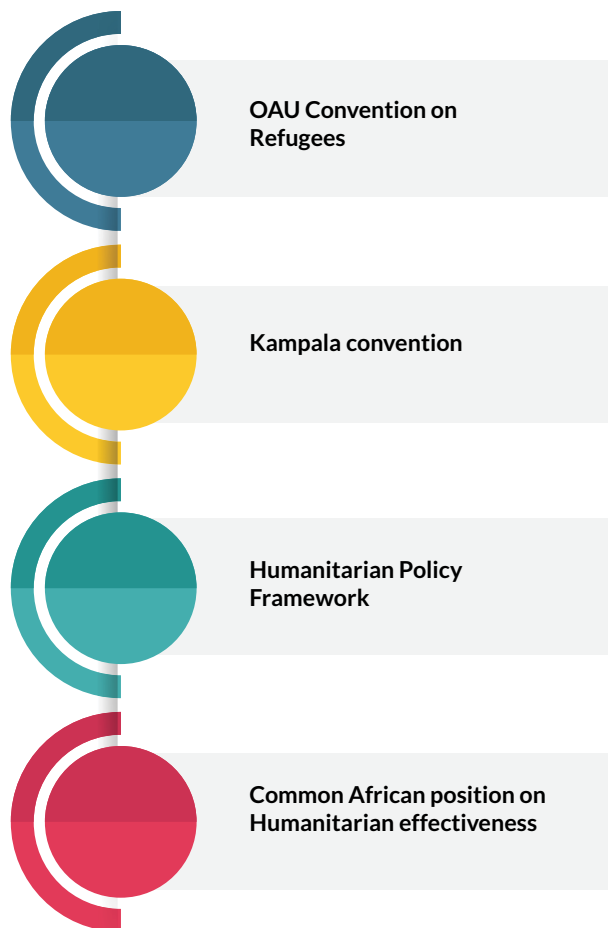
187. Faten Aggad and Philomena Ako, "Understanding the African Union and its Governance Agenda: African Governance Architecture and the Charter on Democracy, Elections and Good Governance", European Centre for Development Policy Management (March 2017).

188. See AGA website http://aga-platform.org/about.

189. See EX.CL/Dec.525(XVI) and Assembly/AU/ Decl.1 (XVI).

190. Khabele Matlosa, "The African Union's African Governance Architecture Linkages with the African Peace and Security Architecture", GREAT Insight

mechanisms put in place to promote and advance democratic governance, and peace and security respectively. As is briefly highlighted in the ensuing section, the AGA and APSA have the potential to play a significant role in promoting the rights of women and girls, including those who are refugees and IDPs.

African Governance Architecture (AGA)

The African Governance Architecture was established in 2010 on the basis of AU Decisions on Shared Values that called for "putting in place a Pan-African Architecture on Governance as a framework for dialogue between the various stakeholders."[189] AGA's establishment was an acknowledgement by AU Member States that "shared values on democratic governance are at the heart of continental integration, addressing structural root causes of crises and conflict in Africa, and attainment of sustainable development".[190] The AU explicitly acknowledged "the role of women, youth and civil society in promoting Shared Values and the importance of securing and enhancing their participation in the development, popularisation and domestication of these values".[191]

AGA was established in the lead up to the fifty-year celebration of the founding of the African Union. It was an important time for the continental body to reflect upon its achievements, take stock of progress and evaluate the challenges that continued to confront the AU, and make proposals for how to address the challenges. It was acknowledged that despite significant progress, democratic governance deficits constrained Africa's integration and sustainable development across AU Member States. Indeed, despite the adoption of progressive norms and policies

Magazine, vol 4, issue 1 (December 2014/January 2015), https://ecdpm.org/great-insights/peacebuilding-statebuilding/african-unions-african-governance-architecture-linkages-african-peace-security-architecture/.

191. Declaration on the Theme of the Summit: "Towards Greater Unity and Integration Through Shared Values" Assembly/AU/ Decl.1(XVI).

192. Faten Aggad and Philomena Ako, "Understanding the African Union and its Governance Agenda: African Governance Architecture and the Charter on Democracy, Elections and Good Governance", European

by the AU and RECs, domestication, implementation and monitoring of the norms and policies by AU Member States remains fraught with significant obstacles.

In addition, institutions charged with monitoring or overseeing the implementation of norms and policies on democratic governance in Africa continued to face challenges related to sustaining a consistent engagement with AU Member States.[192] This is due to lack of coherence, coordination and synergy among the institutions. Indeed, despite the establishment of norms and institutions to promote democratic governance, implementation at national level was inadequate.[193] AGA's value proposition, therefore, was to foster the elusive implementation of democratic governance norms, facilitate harmonization of AU Shared Values instruments, and coordinate initiatives in democracy and governance, including in humanitarian affairs.[194]

The AGA is comprised of AU Shared Values and norms on democratic governance as well as their monitoring and implementation institutional mechanism, the African Governance Platform (AGP). The AGA is thus an institutional and political platform that seeks to implement the Shared Values instruments and provide coordination, coherence and synergy across the various AU Organs, institutions and RECs that comprise AGP Members and

have mandates on democracy, governance, human rights and humanitarian assistance.

More specifically, Platform Members include the Peace and Security Council, the Pan African Parliament (PAP), the African Committee of Experts on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACERWC), the African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights, the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR), the Economic and Social Council, and the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM).[195] AGA aims primarily to address structural conflict prevention with a focus on five main domains: human rights and transitional justice; democracy consolidation, including electoral processes, political parties and citizen engagement; constitutionalism and rule of law; humanitarian affairs; local governance, public service and accountability mechanisms.[196]

As noted earlier, gender equality is one of the values that underpins many of the Shared Values instruments, and prime among these are the Maputo Protocol and the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa. Furthermore, ACDEG, the primary instrument upon which AGA derives its mandate, has a number of provisions that not only reiterate the necessity of women's participation, representation, and leadership in development, governance and decision-making spaces, but also mandate States

Centre for Development Policy Management (March 2017).

193. Ibid.

194. Declaration on the Theme of the Summit: "Towards Greater Unity and Integration Through Shared Values" Assembly/AU/ Decl.1(XVI).

195. See http://aga-platform.org/about.

196. African Governance Architecture Platform Rules of Procedure, 2016, http://aga-platform.org/sites/default/files/2018-10/Rules%20Of%20Procedure%20FINAL.pdf.

197. Nebila Abdulmelik, and Tsion Belay, "Advancing Women's Political Rights in Africa: the Potential and Promise of ACDEG", Africa Spectrum, vol. 54 (2) (2019)

Parties to take measures in this regard, including by eliminating all forms of discrimination to guarantee women's rights.[197] To this end, one of the stated guiding principles of AGA is the promotion of gender equality and youth.[198]

While the promise and potential of African Governance Architecture is yet to be fully realized – due to its largely informal convening power and lack of a legally binding instrument – AGA has made significant gains in promoting and consolidating democratic governance in Africa. As the overarching mechanism for coordinating AU Organs and institutions on democracy, human rights, governance, constitutionalism, rule of law and humanitarian affairs, the AGA Platform has institutionalized regular dialogue among the various stakeholders through annual joint planning and coordination meetings. Through these meetings, various issues and strategies, including on human rights generally, as well as gender justice, elections, refugees and IDPs are tabled for discussion and action.

AGA Platform Members have equally leveraged each other to promote their mandates. For instance, AGA Platform Members engage and collaborate with the Pan-African Parliament (PAP) to promote awareness, ratification, domestication and implementation of AU Shared Values instruments. The Organs and institutions also work closely with the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) to track

compliance with the AU Shared Values commitments that Member States have made.

The ACHPR and the ACERWC have also developed a joint general comment on ending child marriage that affects refugee communities and IDPs, especially in times of conflict. These initiatives have great potential to include issues related to refugees, IDPs and women as exemplified during the 2019 themed year on refugees and IDPs where there were several joint initiatives by the Platform Members to address challenges faced by refugees, IDPs and women and youth in particular.

AGA Platform Members are, for instance, developing a Ten-Year Action Plan on Human Rights whose scope and elements include gender equality and the rights of refugees and IDPs.[199] The Platform has also set standards for evaluation and reporting regarding implementation and compliance with ACDEG.[200] Two State Reports (Togo and Rwanda) have been received and are presently under review. During the review, the Platform is expected to examine the extent to which Member States have adopted laws, policies and practical measures to protect their most vulnerable populations including women, children, refugees, IDPs, and persons living with disability.

Furthermore, the State Reporting Guidelines for ACDEG also give the African Governance Platform, as well as the Secretariat, a specific mandate to

pp. 147–161.

198. See http://aga-platform.org/about.

199. See Draft 10 Year Action Plan of the Human and Peoples Rights Decade in Africa.

200. See Guidelines for State Parties Reports under African

Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance. Annex 1 to Rules of Procedure (2016).

201. Rules 4d, 7g. Guideline X/27 and X/34. Guidelines for States Parties Reports under African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance. Annex 1 to Rules

ensure the robust engagement of citizenry, especially youth, women and "relevant stakeholders" in the process.[201] While the implementation of these provisions is left primarily to the discretion of both States Parties and AGP members, the Guidelines nevertheless provide an important entry point to ensure the engagement of displaced populations, and in particular women and girls, in this accountability mechanism.[202]

The African Governance Report, now in its second run, is another contribution of the AGA Platform that provides an assessment of African governance and serves as a baseline to assist Member States to step up efforts to enhance governance.[203] The report aligns with the annual theme of the AU for 2019 which focused on refugees, returnees and IDPs. This emphasis offered significant potential for Member States to assess how they fared in terms of protecting the rights of these vulnerable groups and made recommendations to address their unique challenges.

AGA has convened regular dialogues and consultations with various stakeholders on democratic governance including women, youth, civil society, think tanks, Member States, and AGA Platform Members to foster citizen engagement in Platform

Member/AU policy discussions and decision-making processes.[204] Since 2012, the Platform has convened dialogues on themes related to the annual AU Summit theme.[205] Some of the High Level Dialogues that have been convened by AGA have focused on the following topics: (i) the state of democratic governance in Africa; (ii) the enhancement of constitutionalism and the rule of law in Africa; (iii) the strengthening of governance in resolution of conflicts in Africa; (iv) women's equal participation and leadership in political parties in Africa; (v) reflecting, celebrating and advancing human and peoples' rights in Africa; (vi) enhancing young people's participation and representation in governance in Africa; (vii) winning the fight against corruption; and (viii) refugees, returnees and internally displaced persons.

Discussions at the 2019 Dialogue focused on global and regional normative, policy and institutional frameworks for forced displacement and the extent to which Member States are implementing these norms. The main AU instruments in this regard are the OAU Refugee Convention and the Kampala Convention, as well as the Common African Position on Humanitarian Effectiveness. Insights and perspective from both female and male refugees, IDPs, civil society and humanitarian

of Procedure (2016).

202. Nebila Abdulmelik, and Tsion Belay. "Advancing Women's Political Rights in Africa: the Potential and Promise of ACDEG", Africa Spectrum, vol. 54 (2) (2019) pp. 147–161.

203. The African Peer Review Mechanism, The Africa Governance Report: Promoting African Union Shared Values, AGA, January 2019. https://au.int/sites/default/files/documents/36418-doc-eng_the_africa_governance_report_2019_final-1.pdf.

204. Faten Aggad and Philomena Ako, "Understanding the African Union and its Governance Agenda: African Governance Architecture and the Charter on Democracy, Elections and Good Governance", European Centre for Development Policy Management (March 2017), p. 1.

205. Kennedy Kariseb, "Reflections on the role of the African Governance Architecture framework on the human rights discourse in Africa: Trends, challenges and opportunities", LLM thesis, University of Pretoria, p. 37.

206. Anna Knoll and Lidet Tadesse Shiferaw, "Tackling the triggers of violence-induced displacement:

actors provided useful reflections on how to achieve durable solutions with an emphasis on addressing the structural root causes of conflict, upholding rule of law, constitutionalism, protecting and promoting human rights and good governance in Member States. Discussions also looked at the role played by the AU through the AGA and other mechanisms.

Through the AGA Youth Engagement Strategy (AGA-YES), AGA has promoted structured, strategic and nuanced youth participation in democratic governance processes. This engagement is based on the understanding that effective involvement of young people in African governance and democratic processes is key to the realization of socioeconomic and political development on the continent. Young people across Africa are often frustrated and disenfranchised; increasingly, they opt to leave their homelands. The attempt to leave the continent, via the Mediterranean, can meet with tragic consequences. Desperate youth may also resort to crimes, including violent extremism, some of which may be fostered within IDP and refugee camps, as is seen in Nigeria.[206]

The AGA and APSA have great potential to address the structural root causes of this state of affairs by adopting and supporting Member States to implement strategies and initiatives that address the

issues faced by young people across Africa. AGA recently convened a continental youth consultation themed "Youth and Forced Displacement in Africa – Trends, Challenges and Prospects towards Durable Solutions" in line with the AU 2019 theme[207] that identified specific issues and opportunities to address youth-related challenges including for young people in refugee and IDP camps.

Since its operationalization in 2012, the AGA has undertaken several activities, programmes and initiatives to involve women in the fulfilment of the AU's development agenda. In preparation for its High Level Dialogues, the AGA conducts gender pre-forums to promote women's inclusion and involvement in peacebuilding and democratic and governance processes in Africa. In this regard, the AGA is aligned to the five-year Gender Peace and Security Programme Strategy adopted by the African Union Commission. The Strategy is designed to serve as a framework for AUC's work in gender equality and women's empowerment in conflict prevention, protection, participation, capacity-building and knowledge management.[208] In 2019, a gender pre-forum and humanitarian symposium was held with the following theme: "Gender Dimension of Forced Displacement in Africa: Towards Durable Solutions".[209]

the contribution of the African Peace and Security Architecture and African Governance Architecture", Discussion Paper No. 228, September 2018, https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/ECDPM-2018-DP-228-Tackling-triggers-violence-induced-displacement-apsa-aga.pdf.

207. See AGA 8th High Level Dialogue Programme Booklet, http://aga-platform.org/sites/default/files/2019-12/%5BENGLISH%5D%208th%20HIGH-LEVEL%20DIALOGUE%20BOOKLET%20%5Bp2%5D%20%281%29.pdf

208. The Gender Peace and Security Programme 2015-2020 was launched on 2 June 2014 by the AU Commissioner for Peace and Security in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

209. African Union, "7th annual humanitarian symposium on gender dimension to forced displacement in Africa opens", press release, 18 November 2019, https://au.int/en/pressreleases/20191118/7th-annual-humanitarian-symposium-gender-dimension-forced-displacement-africa (accessed on 21 December 2019).

210. Sophie Desmidt, Philomena Apiko and Karl Fannar Sævarsson, "Women and mediation in Africa under the

African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) and the nexus with AGA

The African Peace and Security Architecture was established in 2002 to respond to the persistent challenge of conflict across the continent. The APSA predated the establishment of AGA by almost a full decade, which reflects the priorities and exigencies of the time during the transformation of the OAU to the AU. While democratic governance was considered important at the time of the APSA's establishment, emphasis was placed on addressing issues related to peace and security. APSA was founded on a legally binding instrument – the Protocol to the Peace and Security Council – whereas AGA was founded on soft law Assembly declarations. APSA is thus structured around five pillars: the Peace and Security Council, the African Standby Force, Panel of the Wise, Continental Early Warning System and the Peace Fund.[210] The African Union Commission plays a critical role in coordinating the work of the pillars.

Each of the five APSA Pillars is also closely linked to the work of AGA and while these are not expressly stipulated, there is convergence on the imperative of sound and democratic governance in addressing conflict in Africa. Indeed, peace and security and democratic governance are increasingly acknowledged as interrelated and mutually reinforcing. This represents a significant shift from the previous position whereby governance within the continent

APSA and the AGA", European Centre for Development Policy Management Discussion paper No. 217 (2007).

211. African Union Commission, Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want, https://www.un.org/en/africa/osaa/pdf/au/

had been relegated to a secondary role, with peace and security taking centre stage. The recognition that governance and peace and security are mutually reinforcing and complementary has a bearing on the relationship between AGA and APSA.

Aspirations 3 and 4 of Africa Agenda 2063 reaffirm that democratic governance, peace and security are the key imperatives for sustainable socioeconomic development in Africa.[211] The two pillars are therefore mutually interdependent, integrated and interlinked. Aspiration 3 expresses the desire for "An Africa of good governance, democracy, respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law". Aspiration 4 expresses the desire for "A peaceful and secure Africa" which entails establishing functional "mechanisms for peaceful prevention and resolution of conflicts" at all levels.[212] This is envisioned as "a first step, for the promotion of dialogue-centred conflict prevention and resolution" with the objective that by 2020 all guns will be silent. In addition, the Aspiration calls for nurturing a culture of peace and tolerance among Africa's children and youth through education.

It is important to underscore that AGA has, as one of its objectives, facilitating "joint engagement with APSA in strategic interventions: preventive diplomacy,

conflict prevention, and post-conflict reconstruction and development in Africa."[213] The Peace and Security Council, which is one of the pillars of APSA and also a member of the AGP, has as one of its goals "to promote and encourage democratic practices, good governance and the rule of law, protect human rights and fundamental freedoms, respect of sanctity of human life and international humanitarian law, as part of efforts for preventing conflicts."[214] These goals indicate a convergence of both AGA and APSA objectives.

The AU Assembly of Heads of State and Government has also called for "a stronger action in the area of conflict prevention, management and resolution, as well as in the area of peacebuilding and post-conflict reconstruction."[215] The AU Assembly mandated the AUC "continue its efforts towards ensuring synergies and complementarity between AGA and APSA and for establishing the AU Commission Interdepartmental Conflict Prevention Task Force (IDTFCP)."[216] There are several Shared Values instruments that facilitate interactions between AGA and APSA.[217] These normative frameworks include the Constitutive Act, the Solemn Declaration on the Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa (CSSDCA) of 2000, the Protocol

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agenda2063.pdf Popular Version (April 2015).

212. Ibid.

213. See African Governance Architecture website page Why AGA?, http://aga-platform.org/about (accessed on 18 November 2018).

214. Protocol to the PSC, Article 3(f).

215. African Union, Decision on the Report of the Peace and Security Council on its Activities and the State of Peace and Security in Africa. Assembly of the African Union. Doc.Assembly/AU/7(XXV) (accessed on 15 June 2016), https://au.int/sites/default/files/decisions/9664-

assembly_au_dec_569_-_587_xxiv_e.pdf.

216. Ibid.

217. K. Matlosa, 2014. "The African Union's African Governance Architecture linkages with the African Peace and Security Architecture", GREAT Insights Magazine, volume 4, issue 1 (December 2014/January 2015), http://ecdpm.org/great-insights/peacebuilding-statebuilding/african-unions-african-governance-architecture-linkages-african-peace-security-architecture/ (accessed on 24 October 2014).

218. Ibid.

Establishing the Peace and Security Council, the 2007 African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (ACDEG) and the 2009 Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) Policy Framework.[218]

AGA and APSA have also been instrumental in the formulation and adoption of various strategies to address challenges faced by women, including refugees and IDPs. These include the newly adopted African Transitional Justice Policy Framework, the Draft Conflict Prevention Framework and the Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) Framework. Through these frameworks, the AU has supported some of its Member States, such as Central African Republic, by undertaking a PCRD needs assessment, the Gambia, South Sudan and Mali on transitional justice processes and by conducting the inaugural Country Structural Vulnerability Risk Assessment (CSVRA) in Ghana. These initiatives, while perhaps not comprehensively so, have addressed and included issues faced by women, refugees and IDPs as central to finding durable solutions.

The chief challenge, however, has been how to put into practice the common objectives through complementarity between AGA and APSA and the Shared Values instruments, thereby generating coherence in policy and coordinated action.[219] The main areas of engagement between AGA and APSA have been the technical and political meetings of AGA and the

operations of the PSC. AGA and APSA have also been involved in election monitoring in various countries within the continent.

CSVRA is central to conflict prevention in Africa and looks into root causes of violence such as poor governance, and corruption.[220] It has the potential to build synergy between AGA and APSA as was demonstrated by the Ghana CSVRA that focused on both architectures.

In 2020, the AU theme is "Silencing the Guns"; indeed, this is one of the flagship initiatives of Agenda 2063. Silencing the guns in Africa goes beyond a focus on peace and security and entails addressing the structural root causes of conflict that revolve around democracy consolidation, human rights and good governance, including humanitarian affairs. The expectation is that AGA and APSA will strengthen their synergies and place significant emphasis on the particular challenges and opportunities that can enhance gender equality and address issues faced by women, including sexual and gender-based violence, access to sexual and reproductive health rights, economic empowerment, access to justice and decision-making processes.

Although there is great potential, as highlighted above, to enhance synergy between AGA and APSA in conflict prevention, one key problem is the reluctance of the AU and its development partners to allocate sufficient resources to conflict prevention. This is significant because addressing the structural causes

219. Yann Bedzigui, "Enhancing AU responses to instability Linking AGA and APSA", Institute for Security Studies Policy Brief 113 (2018), p 5.

220. Interview with Dr. George Mukundi, former Head of AGA Secretariat.

221. Gustavo de Carvalho, "Conflict Prevention: What's in it

of conflict that lead to IDPs and refugees has important implications for women and children. To date, the focus remains on reactive initiatives and interventions rather than conflict prevention.[221] The AUC and donors still prioritize peace and security operations (PSOs) over conflict prevention in terms of resource allocation.[222] Though figures available on the AU's efforts to enhance governance are patchy, the cost of mediation and preventive diplomacy was estimated at US$ 35 million in 2016 with a projected increase to US$ 43 million while the cost of PSOs was estimated at US$ 1.2 billion per annum.[223]

The other challenge that has hindered effective interaction between APSA and AGA is limited coordination between the AUC's Peace and Security Department (PSD) and the Department of Political Affairs (DPA) which serve as the host of the secretariats of APSA and AGA respectively. While there is notable progress, it is critical that both departments work together more effectively to link conflict prevention, mitigation, resolution and post-conflict reconstruction and development.[224] The ongoing AU institutional reforms propose to significantly improve synergy and cooperation between the two departments. In November 2018, during the extraordinary AU Summit in Addis Ababa, the Assembly made a decision to restructure the AUC and, more specifically, to merge PSD and DPA under one Commissioner for Political Affairs, Peace and Security.[225]The change of structure and portfolios of senior leadership of the AUC are scheduled to come into effect in 2021 when the tenure of the current commissioners ends.[226]

The restructuring of the AUC is likely to reduce bureaucracy and enhance the synergy and coherence between AGA and APSA, allowing for a more holistic approach to addressing the entire conflict cycle, beginning with the underlying structural causes, managing and resolving conflict, inculcating peace and rebuilding lives. If this happens, the impact and ramifications would be significant – particularly for forcibly displaced women and girls who most bear the brunt of conflict.

AGA and APSA gender-related initiatives

The Gender, Peace and Security Programme, launched in 2015 and ending in 2020, represents an important step in ensuring greater attention is paid to gender equality and women's rights in peace operations and peacebuilding processes. The programme seeks to ensure the implementation of gender policies

for the AU?", Institute for Security Studies Policy Brief 103, (May 2017), p 8.

222. Faten Aggad and Sophie Desmidt, "De-securitising conflict responses in Africa: What prospects for a structural conflict prevention approach?", European Centre for Development Policy Management Discussion Paper No. 209 (2017), p. 10.

223. Ibid, p. 18.

224. AU Department of Political Affairs, "The African Union Peace and Security Council and the Department of Political Affairs Consultations on Ensuring Greater

Synergy between the African Governance Architecture and the African Peace and Security Architecture", press release, http://www.peaceau.org/en/article/the-african-union-peace-and-security-council-and-the-department-of-political-affairs-consultations-on-ensuring-greater-synergy-between-the-african-governance-architecture-and-the-african-peace-and-security-architecture (accessed on 28 October 2018).

225. Ext/Assembly/Draft/Dec.1(xi)Rev.2 para 3.

226. Ibid., para. 10.

227. Sophie Desmidt, Philomena Apiko and Karl Fannar

and legal frameworks, including the AU Gender Policy, UNSCR 1325 and other policies, frameworks and resolutions in the Peace and Security Department of the AUC as well as other APSA institutions.[227] There are numerous challenges to the implementation of this programme, including the fact that there is currently only one dedicated staff member to run it.[228] Nonetheless, the existence of this programme is an opportunity that must be seized.

The AU Special Envoy on Women, Peace and Security, Bineta Diop, was appointed by then AUC Chair, Nkosazana Dlamini-Zuma in 2014; this was the first intergovernmental body to designate such a role.[229] Diop's office has an important function in advancing the global Women, Peace and Security Agenda across the continent as well as in enhancing Africa's voice, perspectives and realities worldwide. Her mandate aligns with UNSCR 1325 pillars: prevention, protection, and advocating for the enhanced participation of women in processes that affect their lives, particularly with regard to conflict prevention, mitigation, resolution and PRCD.

A continental results framework to monitor and report on the implementation of the

WPS Agenda in Africa was developed under the auspices of the Special Envoy, an important step in creating an accountability tool for the various pronouncements and normative frameworks adopted by AU Member States over the years.[230] The Special Envoy has also carried out solidarity missions and raised the issue of forcibly displaced women and girls as well as returnees in various forums.

In collaboration with partners, her office organized a PSC Open Session on the Role of Women in Conflict Prevention and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding: the Contribution of Women Refugees, IDPs and Returnees, thus giving more visibility to the matter.[231] The Open Session resulted in a call for the development of guidelines (see Annex) "on mainstreaming the experiences of women and girls, particularly those in the refugee and IDP camps, in AU policies, strategies, processes and initiatives regarding conflict prevention and resolution, mediation and post-conflict reconstruction, with a view to address the issue of finding durable solutions for IDPs and returning refugees."[232]

The establishment of a pan-African network of women in conflict prevention and mediation in 2017 provided further affirmation of the AU's commitment

Sævarsson, "Women and mediation in Africa under the APSA and the AGA", European Centre for Development Policy Management Discussion Paper No. 217 (2007).

228. The information was gleaned from a discussion with Nadia who heads the Gender, Peace and Security Program under the Peace and Security Department at the AUC.

229. African Union, Continental Results Framework: Monitoring and Reporting on the Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Africa (2018-2028), 2019, https://au.int/sites/default/files/documents/35958-doc-continental_results_framework_

wps_.pdf.

230. Ibid.

231. African Union, "Interview with Special Envoy for Women Peace & Security", African Union newsletter, June 2019, https://au.int/ar/node/37027.

232. See 833rd Meeting of the PSC, 19 March 2019, http://www.peaceau.org/en/article/the-833rd-meeting-of-the-au-psc-open-session-on-the-theme-the-role-of-women-in-conflict-prevention-and-post-conflict-peacebuilding-the-contribution-of-women-refugees-internally-displaced-persons-and-returnees-in-africa.

to enhance women's roles in peace processes,[233] although it is too early to make a proper assessment of its impact. FemWise-Africa is a subsidiary mechanism of one of the five pillars of APSA – the Panel of the Wise, alongside the Pan African Network of the Wise – established to address the glaring absence of women in mediation and peace processes. FemWise-Africa thus seeks to contribute substantially to the Women, Peace and Security Agenda mainly through coordinating a strong pool of African women ready for deployment in mediation and broader peace-related processes. Increasingly, there is greater emphasis on enhancing the preventive capacities of grassroots women in an effort to prevent violence, and manage, contain and resolve conflict at the micro level.[234]

With a target of 100 women inducted annually, FemWise-Africa has inducted

190 women members as of May 2020. The network of women operates through a secretariat and a steering committee co-chaired by HE Catherine Samba-Panza, former President of the Central African Republic and HE Dr. Speciosa Wandira, former Vice President of Uganda.[235] The high profile personalities involved with FemWise-Africa are strategically engaged to advocate for the implementation of commitments to ensure greater representation, participation and leadership of women in peace processes. Although the Secretariat of FemWise-Africa sits in the Peace and Security Department of the AUC,[236] the home of APSA, it engages with AGA through deployment of its members to Election Observer Missions and through its efforts to enhance the participation of women in preventive diplomacy and mediation processes – a shared mandate of both architectures.

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233. Sophie Desmidt, Philomena Apiko and Karl Fannar Sævarsson, "Women and mediation in Africa under the APSA and the AGA", European Centre for Development Policy Management Discussion Paper No. 217 (2007).

234. Interview with Mukondeleli Mpeiwa, Coordinator of FemWise-Africa Secretariat, December 2019.

235. See "Operationalisation of 'FemWise-Africa'", http://www.peaceau.org/uploads/final-concept-note-femwise-sept-15-short-version-clean-4-flyer.pdf.

236. See AU, 2019 African Union Handbook, https://au.int/sites/default/files/pages/31829-file-au_handbook_2019_english.pdf.

5. Case Studies

Central African Republic

Background

According to UNICEF, the Central African Republic is the third largest humanitarian crisis in the world, just after Yemen and Syria, in terms of the proportion of the total population in need of humanitarian assistance.[237] The country has suffered decades of instability and stalled development but it was the 2013 crisis, escalated in 2017, that led to the forced displacement of a fourth of its population.[238] In March 2013, the Séléka rebel alliance overruled then serving president, François Bozize.[239] The violence that erupted pitted Séléka against a self-defence group called Anti-Balaka, prompting large-scale violence with religious undertones.[240] In May 2017, the clashes between armed groups escalated, driving more people to flee from their various communities.[241]

The unrest in CAR has led to an estimated 601,994 internally displaced and 538,696 seeking refuge in adjacent countries.[242] At the same time, CAR is host to close to 7,500 refugees, the majority of whom come from neighbouring DRC, South Sudan, and Chad.[243] Fifty-two per cent are women.[244] Although conflict is the main cause of displacement in CAR, disaster-related displacement occurs periodically, including as recently as October 2019 when floods displaced tens of thousands in Bangui.[245] The situation aligns with the results of a 2018 Climate Vulnerability Index which placed Bangui as the city most at risk due to global climate change alongside Liberia's Monrovia and Congo's Mbuji-Mayi.[246]

In February 2019, a peace agreement brokered by the AU was signed between the Government of CAR and 14 armed groups active in the country. Since signing the peace agreement, there has been no major crisis with massive casualties.

237. United Nations Children's Fund, UNICEF Central African Republic Humanitarian Situation Report, December 2018, https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/UNICEF%20Central%20African%20Republic%20Humanitarian%20Situation%20Report%20-%20December%202018.pdf (accessed on 29 October 2019).

238. IDMC, "Central African Republic Overview", http://www.internal-displacement.org/countries/central-african-republic (accessed on 29 October 2019).

239. Nathalia Dukhan, The Central African Republic crisis. GSDRC Applied Knowledge Services (Birmingham, UK, University of Birmingham, 2016).

240. Submission by the UNHCR for the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights' Compilation Report, Universal Periodic Review: 3rd Cycle, 31st Session, Central African Republic.

241. Project Ploughshares, "Central African Republic (2014 – first combat deaths)", https://ploughshares.ca/

pl_armedconflict/central-african-republic-update-of-status-2014/ (accessed on 29 October 2019).

242. Central African Republic Refugee Response, https://data2.unhcr.org/en/situations/car (accessed on 29 October 2019).

243. UNHCR, UNCHR CAR Factsheet 2019.

244. UNHCR, "Central African Republic: Refugees and IDPs", https://reliefweb.int/report/central-african-republic/central-african-republic-refugees-and-idps-situation-31-october-2017 (accessed on 30 October 2019).

245. The New Humanitarian, "Deadly Floods Uproot Tens of Thousands in Central African Republic's capital", 6 November 2019, https://www.thenewhumanitarian.org/photo-feature/2019/11/06/Central-African-Republic-capital-Bangui-deadly-floods-displaced.

246. Patrick Galey, "Two-thirds of African Cities Face Extreme Climate Risk", Mail and Guardian, 14 November 2018.

However, there are still small-scale incidents and numerous violations of the peace agreement that keep residents vigilant.[247] There were 17 incidents against aid workers in CAR in March 2019 according to OCHA. Two aid workers were killed from January to March 2019, and 10 were injured.[248]

Months after the peace deal, a trickle of refugees returned to the shattered country, but one in four Central Africans remain either internally displaced or living in nearby states.[249] In 2016, the Government of CAR decided to shut down camps in Bangui. This forced people to return to their areas of origin where they struggled to find shelter because their homes had been destroyed in the crisis.[250]

CAR is one of the signatory states to the Kampala Convention. However, dire humanitarian needs and turbulent governance have made it difficult for the country to fulfil its obligations to forcibly displaced persons under the Kampala Convention and other legal and policy frameworks.[251] Notwithstanding the crisis, CAR developed a draft policy on internal displacement in 2015, as well as a draft IDP Law and National Action Plan.[252] However, these documents are yet to be endorsed.

Situation

A field visit was carried out in Bria, home to the largest IDP camp in CAR. Discussions were held with UNHCR staff, partners including OCHA, IOM and ACTED, host community members and displaced populations. Focus group discussions and one-on-one interviews were conducted with women with disabilities, teenage mothers, single and widowed women, members of the women's association and members of the site coordination committee, which serves as camp leadership.

Women and girls are the most affected by the conflict in CAR. The ongoing crisis compounds their already fragile socioeconomic status, coupled with discriminatory legal norms and violent sociocultural practices. As one humanitarian worker noted, "women bear it all. They bear the absence [of men, of support systems], the violence, and

247. Institute of Security Studies, "The CAR's Peace Deal under threat", 1 October 2019.

248. United Nations Children's Fund, UNICEF Central African Republic Humanitarian Situation Report (2019), https://reliefweb.int/report/central-african-republic/unicef-central-african-republic-humanitarian-situation-report-22 (accessed on 30 October 2019).

249. NRC, "Vouchers help returnees to rebuild their lives", https://reliefweb.int/report/central-african-republic/vouchers-help-returnees-rebuild-their-lives (accessed on 30 October 2019).

250. Ibid.

251. Brookings Institution, "Celebrating the Kampala Convention on Internal Displacement as Conflict Escalates in the Central African Republic: A Bittersweet Anniversary", https://www.brookings.edu/blog/up-front/2013/12/03/celebrating-the-kampala-convention-on-internal-displacement-as-conflict-escalates-in-the-central-african-republic-a-bittersweet-anniversary/ (accessed on 6 December 2019).

252. National Legislative Bodies / National Authorities, République Centrafricaine: Politique nationale sur la protection et l'assistance aux personnes déplacées internes en Centrafrique - Draft, July 2015, https://www.refworld.org/docid/5a2559174.html(accessed on 12 December 2019).

the burden." Indeed, the Gender-Based Violence Information Management System (GBVIMS) recorded 7,243 cases of gender-based violence between January and July 2019, of which 31 per cent were cases of physical violence.[253] Much of the violence against women and girls takes place on their way to and from school, as they seek livelihood opportunities, through harmful practices including child, early and forced marriage (CEFM) and/or female genital mutilation (FGM), domestic violence, and sexual violence by armed groups.[254] The women and girls interviewed at the IDP camp in Bria confirmed that sexual violence is not an uncommon experience within and outside the camp where girls are raped on their way to farms or to fetch firewood.

Another form of violence that appears widespread emerges from accusations of witchcraft. Those who are accused of witchcraft are often among the most vulnerable, most of whom are female, including unaccompanied and/or separated children, the elderly and widows. Those accused of witchcraft are subject to horrendous forms of violence and torture including beating, immolating, killing and ostracism from families and communities. Conflict has exacerbated this practice and armed groups capitalize on the situation for financial and political gain.[255] The matter is made worse because sorcery is punishable by law and convictions do not require evidence. The result is that many women and girls are convicted merely on the basis of accusations levelled against them.[256]

There are few recourse mechanisms for sexual and physical violence, let alone emotional violence, which results in limited reporting of cases. Certainly, women's associations, in attempting to address various forms of SGBV in the camps, are stifled by numerous challenges including limited resources and capacity as well as regressive gender norms and the normalization of violence.

Early pregnancy is not uncommon, resulting in school drop-out and, for some, becoming heads of household at a very young age. Most of the young mothers interviewed between the ages of 17 and 23 dropped out of school after becoming pregnant. All 12 were single mothers and one was a widow. Although the women would like to go back to school, they lack the resources and support to do so. For those who have no family support, there is no one to take care of their babies while they attend school. Although emergency schools exist, they lack qualified teachers – a concern that came up repeatedly. According to one member of the site coordination committee in Bria, there can be as many as 150 students in one classroom. In some cases, parents with basic education have been enlisted as teachers to address the problem of limited teachers.

Women and girl IDPs in CAR also grapple with numerous health issues including malaria, typhoid and diarrhoea. Interviewees confirmed that they received limited sexual and reproductive health

253. UNHCR, "Gender-Based Violence Information Management System (GBVIMS) report", July 2019.
254. Information gleaned from interview with UNHCR Protection Officer in Bangui, 1 November 2019.
255. Tom Esslemont, "Witch Burning Rebels Stoke Central African Republic Violence", Reuters, 26 November 2015.
256. eNCA, "The Crime of Witchcraft in Central African Republic", 27 February 2018.

care information and services. Many of the women also shared that they had given birth at Bria Hospital, as there were no facilities in the camp for childbirth and limited to no pre- or post-natal care or support. When asked about family planning, some interviewees indicated that it was mentioned by their doctor during their first visit to the hospital. The young mothers, who have as many as four children by the time they are 23 years and neither husband nor reliable or sustainable livelihood sources, seemed open to contraception if made available to them.

Livelihood is a major issue for women and girls in CAR. At present, some of the women and girls engage in farming, tailoring, firewood selling, bead making, pastry selling and general petty trading. Due to the crisis, the majority of women are head of their household. Some of the women lost their husbands during the conflict while others were abandoned by their partners. In households where husbands are present, women still lack financial or general household support as the insecurity has left men without work. Domestic violence is compounded by the frustration of men who are unable to provide for their families. This difficult situation means that in addition to the household responsibilities saddled on displaced women, they often continue to experience limited and unreliable sources of income. For security reasons, movement is often restricted which means that refugees and IDPs cannot travel far to access farmland or markets or other

economic opportunities thereby holding them in acute poverty.

Security remains precarious both in and out of the camp. Within the camp and its surroundings, dwellers grapple with banditry, violence and insecurity. This frightening situation is complicated by the presence of members of Anti-Balaka within the Bria camp. Although major incidents have reduced substantially, particularly since the signing of the Peace Agreement, people are still reluctant to return to their homes due to the volatile security situation. Such an outbreak was seen in once peaceful Bria just after the crisis in Bangui and in September 2019 in Birao.[257] When asked about security, a young mother in Bria responded, "We have no security in this camp. We only trust in God." The need to address the prevailing insecurity by implementing the Peace Agreement, mainly by demobilizing and disarming armed groups and building social cohesion, consistently emerged as a necessity towards peace by all interviewed stakeholders.

Women have been at the forefront of rebuilding from one conflict to the next: as heads of household and leaders outside the home. Despite the latter role, there remains a limited number of women in camp leadership. At most, women take part in consultative processes organized by the women leaders in the camp on issues that concern them the most. For instance, women leaders may organize meetings with females in the camp to discuss family

257. Al Jazeera, "Fresh fighting kills 23 in Central African Republic", 15 September 2019, https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2019/09/fresh-fighting-kills-23-central-african-republic-190915051958285.html (accessed on 29 October 2019).

matters, issues of gender-based violence or to generally keep them abreast of new camp rules. It is often a chance for women to report their experiences, which the woman leader takes to the larger camp committee. Out of the 33 members of the site coordination committee, only four are women. When asked about the limited representation of women, male block chiefs indicated that most women were not educated and also did not have any interest in participating in decision-making on a bigger platform even though women are often sensitized to take part.[258] Some of the women interviewed indicated that they initially had no interest in participating in camp leadership because they feared being singled out by armed groups; others simply had no idea that they could apply.

Beyond leadership within the camp, women contribute to peacebuilding across their various communities. In Gobolo, a community predominately inhabited by Muslim Fulanis, Christian and Muslim women live and work together peacefully. The women run an income-generating association to support each other. With other women's groups, they advocate for social cohesion among diverse religious groups as part of promoting peace in Bria. Select members have been trained in mediation; however, the extent to which they have been able to use what they have learned in real-life situations is not well documented. It is essential to enhance the meaningful participation of women in peace processes to achieve a durable solution in CAR.

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258. A block consists of about 16 households.

Key General Recommendations

1. Prioritize programmes that address SGBV and provide SRHR information, education, counselling and services and enhance support to teenage mothers and survivors.

2. Ensure that women, including refugees and IDPs, are meaningfully engaged in peace processes, including in mediation, disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR), reconciliation and social cohesion processes, support groups and women's rights organizations already working with refugees and IDPs.

3. Address and work to shift regressive sociocultural norms that perpetuate discrimination, violence and inequalities between men and women, girls and boys and work to eliminate accusations and criminalization of witchcraft.

4. Provide funds and trainings to enhance skills and support the start-up or scaling up of businesses to improve livelihoods.

5. Provide support for mental health services, including psychosocial support and address trauma.

Ethiopia

Background

With over 763,000 refugees[259], Ethiopia is host to the one of the largest refugee populations in the world. The country has the third highest number in Africa after Uganda and Sudan, with women making up 52 per cent. Most of these refugees include those forcibly displaced from Eritrea, Somalia, South Sudan and Sudan and they currently live in camps in five regions of Ethiopia: Afar, Benishangul-Gumuz, Gambella, Somali and Tigray. As of May 2020, over 340,000 were South Sudanese refugees residing in Gambella, making up the largest group of refugees. Ethiopia's out-of-camp policy, especially regarding Eritrean refugees, allows them to reside outside of camps in Addis Ababa, with self-sufficiency as a prerequisite. Refugees from other population groups are also permitted to reside in Addis Ababa where there are specific protection or health needs.

The nine pledges made by Ethiopia following the Global Compact of Refugees in 2016 to ameliorate poor conditions for refugees concern an expansion of the out-of-camp policy, local integration, documentation, increased access to education, irrigable land, livelihood opportunities and other basic social services. As part of enhancing access to employment, donors have pledged US$500 million towards Ethiopia's industrial parks, under the condition that 30 per cent of jobs be allocated to refugees. This allocation is likely to benefit women refugees primarily since most workers in industrial parks, above 90 per cent in some cases, are women. However, due to potential protection risks which refugees may face there, most employment opportunities for refugees may not be in industrial parks.

The commitments made were affirmed in Ethiopia's roadmap for the Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) launched in November 2017 and further cemented in the revised Refugee Proclamation of February 2019 which replaced the previous refugee law of 2004. The 2019 Proclamation is hailed as one of the most progressive on the continent and additionally details access to social services, access to justice, free movement and freedom to choose one's residence. A number of useful national level policy frameworks and strategies have been developed in this regard, including a National Refugee Strategy for Prevention and Response to GBV (2017 – 2019), a Community-Based Protection Strategy (2019 – 2021) as well as a Country Refugee Response Plan (2019 – 2020).

Furthermore, Ethiopia is signatory to a number of relevant global and continental policies on forcibly displaced populations including the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol, the 1969 OAU Refugee Convention, and the 2003 Maputo Protocol on the Rights of African Women. Ethiopia has signed but not yet ratified the 2009 Kampala Convention for the Protection and Assistance of IDPs, although the country has recently announced that it is finalizing the ratification process.

259. UNHCR "Operation Portal- Refugee Situation", https://data2.unhcr.org/en/country/eth (accessed on May 31, 2020)

Situation

Field visits were carried out in six camps across the Somali and Gambella regions in Ethiopia between September and October 2019: Aww Barre, Sheder, and Kebrebeyeh outside of Jijiga and Ngunyyiel, Tierkidi and Jewi in Gambella. Refugees in Aww Barre, Sheder and Kebrebeyeh were exclusively Somali and in Ngunyyiel, Tierkidi and Jewi they were exclusively South Sudanese. Discussions were held with the following:

■ refugees themselves;

■ focus group discussions as well as one-on-one interviews were held with single mothers and those who were head of their household, young women, teenage mothers, elderly women, women from minority clans, adolescent girls, unaccompanied and/or separated girls, divorced women, women who were married underage, lactating mothers, women with disabilities, women in leadership within the women's association as well as the Refugee Central Committee (RCC);

■ officials from the Agency for Refugees and Returnee Affairs (ARRA), UNHCR's government counterpart responsible for camp coordination and management as well as education and health care;

■ the Rehabilitation and Development Organization (RaDO), an implementing partner of UNHCR focused on addressing sexual and gender-based violence as well as issues related to the elderly and those living with disabilities in Jijiga;

■ the International Rescue Committee (IRC), another partner of UNHCR that runs the Women and Girls Wellness Centres in Aww Barre and Sheder as well as other programmes around reproductive health and SGBV;

■ judges from the Mobile Court;

■ Save the Children, Plan International and International Medical Corps (IMC),partners of UNHCR that run SGBV prevention and response programmes, mental health, nutrition, early childhood care and education (ECCE), child protection and also operate women-, girl- and youth-friendly centres in Gambella; and

■ UNHCR staff.

A woman in Sheder shared that despite the existence of various forms of violence – including domestic violence, sexual assault, rape, female genital mutilation (FGM), child, early and forced marriage (CEFM) – the greatest and most dominant form of oppression women in the camp faced was the onerous burden of responsibility they carry. According to feedback from across all six camps, women assume the burden of caring for their homes, their children, worrying about where the next meal will come from, where essential resources could be sourced, monitoring and dealing with the health of all family members; in short, women in camp must ensure the survival of everyone. Indeed, the immense burden of camp women is palpable, as is the absence of male support to reduce these burdens.

Another woman in Jewi shared the following: "My husband is alive but it's almost as though he's not there. I'm the same as those without husbands. He doesn't support me at all. He beats me." Another woman in Tierkidi similarly stated: "Women with husbands are just as bad off as women without husbands. They abuse us, they take the money we make, they don't work, they don't do anything!" The consequence of the subordinate position of women in society is reflected in huge time burdens on women and girls, violence towards them and denial of access to services – all of which continues to perpetuate the power imbalance between men and women and girls and boys in these communities.

The organization and structure of the community of refugees in each camp visited in the Somali region appears very well-organized and planned. There are associations for women, youth, the disabled and minorities. The Refugee Central Committee (RCC) consists of an equal number of female and male members, as well as representatives from these groupings, adopting the age, gender and diversity principle. Where the Chair is male, the vice chair is automatically female. In Aww Barre, the Chair was a woman. Aww Barre even had an office for its women's association, the only one of the three camps to have one. The RCCs in the three camps visited in the Gambella region were dominated by men. This was in contrast to Jijiga which followed a strict principle of gender parity. In Jewi, of the 17 RCC members, only three are women. In Nguenyyiel, out of 16 members of the RCC, only two were women. In Tierkidi, the figures were slightly better with five out of 15 being women.

Both Aww Barre and Sheder in Somali region had a Women and Girls Wellness Centre run by IRC – a space for women to gather, relieve stress, enjoy social interactions and engagements, exchange views on new community developments, improve literacy and numeracy and learn new skills (such as beadwork, crocheting, baking, and hair styling). All three camps in Gambella had women- and child-friendly spaces run by IMC and/or Save the Children. Some of these spaces also served as youth centres, with sports and game facilities, libraries and computer centres. The women- and child-friendly spaces equally serve as a platform for passing on pertinent information and carrying out sensitization sessions on a range of issues such as sexual and reproductive health matters, sanitation and hygiene, and preventing the outbreak of disease.

In Somali region, community-based protection systems were in place, as were traditional mechanisms for addressing conflict and dispute – although further interrogation is needed to examine whether these mechanisms have been favourable for women, particularly in terms of responding to sexual and gendered forms of violence and exploitation.

There are mobile courts that go around to the various camps to hear cases brought to them by the refugees. In Gambella, the regional State Supreme Court runs the mobile courts in four of the seven refugee camps, increasing access to legal services for refugees in need. There are also Zonal Courts (at camp zone level)

and a High Court (at RCC level) in place as well. This is run by the RCC and serves as a traditional mechanism for resolving disputes. Based on anecdotal evidence, as well as conversations with female members of the court, however, this mechanism is neither favourable nor fair to women. For instance, cases of wife battery are not heard in the court and almost considered a non-issue that is 'cultural' in nature. There does appear to be a preference, however, to use traditional courts unless the matter is purely legal and something seen as beyond the purview of the traditional court such as registration and procuring legal documents.

Coordination meetings are held periodically to ensure coordination between the various actors operating in the camps, including ARRA, UNHCR, and implementing partners. The level of coordination in all six camps appears efficient and a model that others could learn from. A good example is how Save the Children carries out programmes for youth that include the provision of women- and girl-friendly spaces in the three camps where Plan does not operate and vice versa – thus avoiding duplication. The lack of adequate resources further underscores the need for effective coordination to maximize their use.

Joint annual participatory assessments are conducted by UNHCR, ARRA, partners and refugees – the outcomes of which result in the adaptation and/or refocusing of interventions. Standard Operating Procedures are in place and used by the relevant parties with a multisectoral approach to deal with and respond to cases of sexual and gender-based violence.

Reporting and referral systems are also in place – with some challenges faced in terms of follow-up as well as low levels of reporting and poor uptake of services due to stigma, fear of retaliation, cultural tolerance to violence and poor service-seeking behaviour, particularly concerning health and psychosocial services.

The majority of cases reported in the Somali region (about 59 per cent) are domestic violence cases. The most prevalent forms of sexual and/or gender-based violence in the Gambella region, based on reports and anecdotal evidence, include domestic/intimate partner violence, rape, child, early and forced marriage – including wife inheritance of widows, and harassment. There is silence around abuse, due to a number of factors including stigma and shame as well as mistrust and lack of faith in accountability and justice mechanisms – particularly regarding sexual violence such as rape – which impacts reporting as well as the ability to address and manage the consequences.

There are currently no safe houses in or around the camps. Survivors are usually referred to one-stop centres in Jijiga and Gambella and transferred to other camps as necessary. This response is part of efforts by UNHCR and other partners to integrate refugees into the national system, as envisioned in the CRRF as well as the new refugee proclamation. Individual psychosocial counselling and case management is available to survivors, as well as legal counsel, medical treatment of rape, material support and dignity kits.

Many of the problems shared by the refugees in the Somali region, including domestic violence, rape, FGM, child, early and forced marriages, neglect, desertion, and dropping out of school seem to trace back to, and be compounded by, the dire economic situation refugees find themselves in. FGM is still prevalent as it is seen as a way to ensure the marriageability of daughters. Families prefer to marry off their underage girls to give them a chance to escape the cycle of poverty as well as to boost their economic status through dowry. Domestic violence increases with economic woes such as not being able to make ends meet within the home and the idleness of men with little to no economic prospects.

Rape and other forms of sexual assault are compounded when girls and women must fetch firewood when ethanol distribution is drastically reduced due to budget constraints and charcoal is too expensive for families to purchase. Girls drop out of school due to child marriage and also because the prospects beyond school are not promising.

Girls are seen as more useful to the family engaging in both paid and unpaid domestic chores. In one focus group discussion with young women under 30 in Kebrebeyeh, all eight married between the ages of 15 and 17 and were now all divorced with children. The burden of caring for their children fell squarely on them and their families. The situation was not very different in the Gambella region.

Refugees bemoaned the poor quality of services and facilities in both the education and health-care institutions in the camps.

Anecdotal evidence of expectant mothers giving birth on the floor of the health-care centres, in wheelbarrows, and even on the road to the health-care centre were shared during the focus group discussions in the Somali region. Despite the existence of an ambulance in every camp, respondents noted that this was insufficient for the volume and level of care required in the camps – particularly considering that those same ambulances would be used to ferry patients to referral hospitals in Jijiga and elsewhere. The unclean state of the health-care centres, as well as the lack of constant electricity, was also a cause of particular concern – especially for respondents in Aww Barre.

In terms of education, refugees in the Gambella region noted the high volume of students per class. Figures shared ranged from 70 to 160. Insufficient classrooms necessitate teaching in shifts and the ratio of girls to boys in higher grades, particularly in secondary school dwindles drastically. In Nguenyyiel, out of 500 pupils in grade eight, 400 are boys and only 100 are girls. In Jewi, a young woman in Grade 12 shared that in her class of 95 students there were only four girls, including herself. Girls often miss school because they fall sick but also because they are responsible for household chores such as fetching water and firewood, grinding grains, and taking care of younger siblings and other chores. Often, they are responsible for collecting rations that are distributed by humanitarian actors. The lack of an energy source in homes means that students cannot study after dark and the lack of lighting negatively impacts retention and results.

The lack of school feeding in elementary schools in Nguenyyiel also contributes to absenteeism or missing school altogether. Furthermore, Nguenyyiel does not have a secondary school – an absence that exacerbates the situation for girls who have completed primary school. As some girls asked: "What else can I do but get married? What are my prospects?" Some female students walk to Tierkidi, a neighbouring camp, to attend secondary school but the two-hour journey is not always safe. Similarly, while Jewi has a secondary school open to refugees and the host community, it is just outside of the camp and closest to Zone A. This means that for those living in Zone D, it can take up to 1.5 hours to get to school.

The relationship between refugees and host communities in many cases is strained, even in situations where they share a common language, religion and ethnicity. This can perhaps be explained by the scarcity of resources in the peripheral regions of Ethiopia where refugees are placed.

Key General Recommendations

1. Further explore and address the role and impact – economic, psychosocial and otherwise – of alcohol and khat (a narcotic drug that is widely used within these communities, particularly in Jijiga) on both men and women. Unhealthy use of alcohol and other drugs is widespread amongst refugee communities. Additionally, exploitation and mental, physical and/or sexual abuse, or trafficking is amongst the list of risk factors for refuges in relation to substance abuse[260]. However, the issue is often neglected, and much less programmatic attention is given to the prevention and treatment of alcohol and other substance use disorders.[261]

2. Support prevention, mitigation and response regarding sexual and ge nder-based violence through increased budgeting as well as dedicated staff, particularly considering that programmes to address SGBV are life-saving interventions. Efforts are required to enhance awareness about SRHR and SGBV among existing staff in security forces, traditional courts and camp leadership as well as among the women and girls themselves so that they can claim their rights.

3. Work to shift regressive sociocultural and gender norms that keep women and girls subjugated and thereby ease the burden of unpaid care work on women and girls. Male champions should be used to help shift these norms and ensure equitable burden-sharing in the household and the wider community. Multi-year funding for interventions that tackle the root causes of SGBV (i.e. gender inequality and power imbalance) should be available to ensure programming can be carried out in all camps.

260. https://www.addictioncenter.com/addiction/refugees-immigrants/

261. UNHCR "Addressing Alcohol and Substance Use Disorders among Refugees: A Desk Review of Intervention Approaches", https://www.unhcr.org/5c064a8d4.pdf (Accessed on September 14. 2020)

4. Ensure women's greater participation, representation and leadership in peace processes. For example, strengthen peace committees made up of members of host communities as well as displaced populations and ensure gender parity within the composition of these committees.

5. Pursue gender parity in education and other social sectors. Gender parity within the composition of the RCC should also be safeguarded. Beyond numbers, women leaders must have decision-making powers and the ability to challenge the decisions of others.

6. Provide sexual and reproductive health information, counselling and services for both adults and adolescents. Comprehensive sexuality education should be incorporated into the educational curriculum.

7. Greater investments must be made in economic and livelihoods interventions, which are key to reducing susceptibility to violations.

8. Make funding available for alternative energy to firewood to reduce the risk faced by women/girls and the time spent during collection of firewood. This remains a top advocacy point for Gambella in particular.

Nigeria
Background

The most recent statistics put the total number of internally displaced persons in Nigeria at just over two million, making Nigeria host to the third highest number of IDPs on the continent, most of whom are from the northern part of the country, specifically Borno, Adamawa and Yobe.[262] Sixty-one percent of the IDPs have settled among host communities in private buildings and public places while 39 per cent have moved into collective settlements and camps.[263] There are about 241,039 Nigerian refugees in Niger, Cameroon and Chad.[264] While several reasons lie behind this unfortunate situation, the Boko Haram insurgency remains the single greatest cause of forced displacement in Nigeria and neighbours Cameroon, Niger and Chad with over 2.4 million IDPs and refugees in the Lake Chad region.[265] Other identified causes of displacement include floods, drought and oil pollution, real estate development projects, violence between farmers and pastoralists, ethno-religious conflicts, post-election violence, banditry and boundary/communal disputes, and extended military operations in the fight against insurgents.[266]

262. See UNHCR website on the Nigeria Emergency, September 2019, https://www.unhcr.org/nigeria-emergency.html (accessed on 20 October 2019),

263. Ibid.

264. UNHCR Operational Portal: Refugee Situations (Nigeria), https://data2.unhcr.org/en/situations/nigeriasituation (accessed on 10 December 2019).

265. Anna Knoll and Lidet Tadesse Shiferaw, "Tackling the triggers of violence-induced displacement:

The contribution of the African Peace and Security Architecture and African Governance Architecture", European Centre for Development Policy Management Discussion Paper 228, 2018, www.ecdpm.org/dp228.

266. NRC, Not Ready to Return: IDP Movement Intentions in North-Eastern Nigeria (September 2017) , p.3, https://www.nrc.no/globalassets/pdf/reports/nigeria/not-ready-to-return---report-summary.pdf (accessed 20 October 2019).

In May 2013, the conflict between the Government of Nigeria and the armed opposition, Boko Haram, intensified as the latter had taken control of numerous local government areas (LGAs) leading to the declaration of a state of emergency across the affected states in north-east Nigeria. The conflict peaked in 2014 and 2015; subsequently, however, the armed groups started to lose their strongholds in some provinces in north-east Nigeria. Boko Haram, however, retained pockets of control over some villages and territories from which they continued to launch deadly suicide attacks.[267] The containment of Boko Haram, while not complete, has been made possible through the direct intervention of the Multinational Joint Task Force (MNJTF) under the authorization of the African Union.[268]

While small attacks still occur, they have not led to mass displacement in recent times. Nevertheless, the situation threatens to deteriorate as there remain human security issues that need to be addressed, especially due to protracted displacement in most camps and the fact that few returns have been recorded. According to a report by REACH Initiative, "protracted displacement has compounded vulnerabilities and increased dependence on aid from government and humanitarian actors to meet basic needs across most sectors".[269] IDPs perceive this level of aid dependency as a negative aspect of their displacement.

In 2012, Nigeria adopted a National Policy on IDPs as part of ratifying the Kampala Convention. With the support of UNHCR and the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, a technical committee was formed after the ratification of the Convention to incorporate its standards into the draft policy; however, the committee lost momentum after the validation of the policy in 2012.[270] The National Policy on IDPs was revisited in 2015 but limited follow-up and insufficient resources hampered the effective implementation of the law and policy. The Convention is yet to be domesticated in Nigeria pursuant to Section 12 of the 1999 Constitution (as amended).[271] The National Policy on IDPs in Nigeria meant that the statutory mandates of the National Commission for Refugees (NCR), established in 1989, were extended to become the National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons (NCFRMI). The objective of the policy is the achievement of a durable solution to internal displacement.

267. Global Conflict Tracker, 30th October 2019 https://www.cfr.org/interactive/global-conflict-tracker/conflict/boko-haram-nigeria.

268. MNJTF was a unique arrangement under APSA.

269. NRC, Not Ready to Return: IDP Movement Intentions in North-Eastern Nigeria, (September 2017) , p.3, https://www.nrc.no/globalassets/pdf/reports/nigeria/not-ready-to-return---report-summary.pdf (accessed on 15 October 2019). REACH is a joint initiative of two international non-governmental organizations.

270. Global Protection Cluster, Regulatory Frameworks on Internal Displacement Global, regional and national developments, https://www.internal-displacement.org/sites/default/files/publications/documents/UNHCR-GPC-Reg-Framework-IDP.pdf (accessed 1st November 2019).

271. Federal Republic of Nigeria, National Policy on Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) In Nigeria, https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/5a7ae2324.pdf, (accessed on 15 October 2019).

A durable solution would also mean working with neighbouring countries that share the burden of the displaced population with Nigeria. In March 2017, the Government of Nigeria and UNHCR signed a tripartite agreement with the Government of Cameroon to facilitate the safe and dignified return of Nigerian refugees. However, this agreement was violated following the forceful repatriation of about 9,000 Nigerians in January 2019 from Cameroon where women, children, the elderly and the infirm were most affected.[272] While resolving the problem of displaced populations has led to the intervention of diverse stakeholders in Nigeria – including UNHCR, NGOs and individuals – "managing the plight of IDPs in Nigeria has become a money-making venture for Nigeria", according to a field report by Refugee International.[273]

Situation

To better understand the extent to which the current situation affects women and girls, a field visit was carried out to four IDP camps, in Abuja: Durumi and Kuchingoro, and in Borno State: Bakassi and New Stadium Camp. Discussions were held with UNHCR, UN Women, the State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA), the State Ministry of Women's Affairs in Borno, host community members and displaced populations. Focus group discussions and

one-on-one interviews were conducted with women, girls and camp leaders and officials. Research with these parties provided a good understanding of the present situation regarding violence, livelihoods, health, education, stigmatization, and inclusion in leadership positions.

Women and children constitute 79 per cent of the entire population in IDP camps in Nigeria since many of the men have been either killed or abducted by Boko Haram.[274] A survey of unmet needs by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) showed that food remained the predominant need (71 per cent) in most of the IDP sites. The second predominant need concerns non-food items (15 per cent), followed by shelter (6 per cent), medical services (3 per cent), drinking water (2 per cent), sanitation and hygiene (1 per cent), water (1 per cent), and security (1 per cent).[275] To address the needs of IDPs in Nigeria, IOM reported the need for close to $179.5 million in funding.[276]

Forcibly displaced women and girls face a number of obstacles in Nigeria. A key problem facing women as a result of the conflict in north-east Nigeria, is sexual and gender-based violence. SGBV experienced by women and girls is pervasive, not only at the hands of armed groups but also at the hands of security forces

272. "Cameroon Used to Welcome Refugees. Now It Forcibly Expels Them.", 12 February 2019, https://foreignpolicy.com/2019/02/12/cameroon-used-to-welcome-refugees-now-it-forcibly-expels-them-nigeria-refoulement/ (accessed on 15 October 2019).

273. Francisca Vigaud-Walsh, Nigeria's Displaced Women and Girls: Humanitarian Community At Odds, Boko Haram's Survivors Forsaken, Field Report (Refugee International, April 2016), https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/571db7e84.pdf, (accessed on 15 October 2019).

274. Biola Adimula, "Opinion: The plight of women and children in Nigeria's IDP camps", Operational Portal - Refugee Situations, 8 March 2016. https://data2.unhcr.org/en/news/12180 , (accessed on 16 October 2019).

275. Government of Nigeria and IOM, Nigeria: Displacement Tracking Matrix – DTM – Round 23 – June 30, 2018, https://reliefweb.int/report/nigeria/nigeria-displacement-tracking-matrix-dtm-round-23-june-2018, (accessed on 16 October 2019).

276. Ibid.

and government officials charged with protecting and assisting them.[277] Due to the many limitations that adolescent girls and women face because of their displacement, many are forced into "survival sex" in exchange for food, movement in and out of the camps to pursue livelihoods, and other key necessities.[278] Although numerous reports indicated that SGBV is a major problem faced by female IDPs, it is often downplayed, even by the survivors themselves. This is due to the normalization of violence, fear and stigma associated with SGBV as well as the fact that perpetrators mostly go unpunished.

The woman leader at Durumi Camp in Abuja stated that they often take the GBV cases to the Bulamas (customary leaders often made up of men) to get justice for the victims.[280] Survivors derive little or no justice from the customary legal system, especially where existing traditional norms and practices in these areas already discriminate against women and girls.[281]

In some cases, the Bulamas settle gender-based violence issues traditionally with most of the perpetrators going free, especially in cases where the accused is influential.[281] Sometimes families of the survivor are asked to be patient and perpetrators are only made to cover her health bills. Where the formal justice system is accessed, sentences are typically minimal for perpetrators.

Section 55 of the Penal Code of Northern Nigeria legalizes "corrective wife beating" as long as it does not cause grievous harm.[283] Other existing traditional practices like forced marriage are exacerbated by the current situation in the north-east. In many cases, child marriage and sex for survival are negative coping mechanisms to address issues associated with security and the breakdown of livelihoods.[284] The research also revealed that water scarcity increases the risk of women and girls experiencing SGBV. In response to the latter, UNHCR in collaboration with the Borno Women

277. Dionne Searcy, "They Fled Boko Haram, Only to Be Raped by Nigeria's Security Forces," New York Times, 12 December 2017, https://www.nytimes.com/2017/12/08/world/africa/boko-haram-nigeria-security-forces-rape.html (accessed on 16 October 2019).

278. Alexandra Lamarche and Mark Yarnell, Political Pressure to Return: Putting Northeast Nigeria's Displaced Citizens at Risk, Field Report (Refugees International, March 2018), https://static1.squarespace.com/static/506c8ea1e4b01d9450dd53f5/t/5aaa96c90d9297e80ca15047/1521129169564/RI+Nigeria+Field+Report.pdf, (accessed on 16 October 2019).

279. Protection Sector Working Group, Access To Justice Best Practices In North East Nigeria, https://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/download/65985, (accessed on 16 October 2019).

280. Valentina Okaru-Bisant, "Overcoming Institutional and Legal Barriers that Prevent Abused Females from

Accessing Justice in Fragile Nigerian Regions," American University Journal of Gender, Social Policy & the Law: vol. 27, issue 1 , article 2 (2019), https://digitalcommons.wcl.american.edu/jgspl/vol27/iss1/2 (accessed on 16 October 2019).

281. CARE Rapid Gender and GBV Assessment, https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/sites/www.humanitarianresponse.info/files/documents/files/maiduguri_jere_january_2018.pdf, (accessed on 14 October 2019).

282. Ibid.

283. The 1960 Penal Code Of Northern Nigeria, 53 LFN (Abuja), http://oceansbeyondpiracy.org/sites/default/files/Nigeria_Penal_Code_Act_1960.pdf (accessed on 14 October 2019).

284. CARE Rapid Gender and GBV Assessment, https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/sites/www.humanitarianresponse.info/files/documents/files/maiduguri_jere_january_2018.pdf, (accessed on 14 October 2019).

Development Initiative (BOWDI), carried out a campaign called "Make Water Points SGBV Free, Safe and Accessible for Women and Girls" in Bama LGA of Borno State.[285] The aim was to increase awareness in targeted communities to ensure safety, mitigate risks and enable people to report incidents of SBGV.

At New Stadium Camp, UNHCR provides a safe space for women and girls where they can deliberate on issues that affect them, raise awareness of SGBV and also provide a safe haven for survivors to recover physically and psychologically from their experiences. In one of the camps visited, there were two recovery rooms set up for survivors of SGBV to help them begin their recovery. Although the space can only accommodate a small number of victims at a time, it makes a difference for survivors who are able to access it for their recovery and safety.[286] Still, it is difficult for the women and girls interviewed to open up about sexual violence experienced within the camp. A camp worker confirmed that it was still prevalent and that some of the perpetrators are officials within the camp and individuals from outside the camp. While survivors are encouraged to report to GBV caseworkers within the camp, women often do not for fear of being stigmatized, and because in some cases the perpetrator gets away with it making re-violation a serious risk. Some respondents anecdotally asserted that there is sexual trafficking of girls in the camps – a situation most prevalent in porous camps in Nigeria.

Livelihood is a major problem for displaced women in north-east Nigeria, especially as they take up roles as heads of household. Prior to the regional unrest, women suffered economic inequalities with no real skills to provide for their families given existing gender roles. Coupled with the conflict, women have to seek alternative ways to earn a living for their families – a situation that renders them more vulnerable. After conducting a livelihood options assessment across the region, in Borno and neighbouring states UN Women started targeted livelihood programmes to train women on key skills and how to access market opportunities.[287] For instance, over 400 women were trained in rice parboiling in LGAs where there was high production of rice. Rice processing machines were procured by UN Women in the LGAs and managed by the women in a sector normally dominated by men.[288] It is important to note that these programmes do not exclusively target forcibly displaced women. It is also crucial to note that both girls and women as mothers and household heads were able to participate. While programmes like these are useful in empowering women, they barely scratch the surface in terms of the number of women who require such support.

Women interviewed in some of the camps acknowledged that while they received different skills training (including bead making, soap making, textile tie and dye and hair dressing) from time to time, they never received monetary support. They also noted that once they stopped practising

285. UNHCR, UNHCR North-East Nigeria Fact Sheet, March 2019, https://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/download/69266, (accessed on 16 October 2019).

286. Ibid.

287. Interview with the programme coordinator UN Women Maiduguri, 20th September 2019.

288. Ibid.

even these simple skills, they would forget eventually them and instead focus on petty trading, selling firewood or just stay idle.

In New Stadium Camp in Borno, women highlighted the need to empower men to support their families. This is for several reasons but especially because the women believe that this would reduce their burden as heads of household and also reduce domestic violence. They specified that UNHCR should have considered hiring displaced men during the construction of the shelters/infrastructure within the camp. According to one of the women "the men felt useless and angry watching their shelters being constructed while able-bodied men like them just watched".[289]

Health problems persist among forcibly displaced persons in Nigeria. The most common issues are malaria and respiratory diseases due to their fragile and temporary shelters. Dismal housing conditions in camps like Durumi were observed where harsh weather either destroys or renders shelters uninhabitable for families. Some camp dwellers in Bakassi camps are able to live in well-constructed government buildings, while others who live in temporary shelters, such as schools, are particularly at risk of eviction – an example observed in Galtimari Primary School in Jere LGA.[290]

Women and girls experience more serious health issues, including urinary tract infections, due to the limited availability of toilets and issues associated with inadequate waste management systems within the camps. With particularly high rates of fertility in the camps, reproductive health becomes even more important. Some of the women interviewed indicated that although they have access to health services, they are usually basic. Camps lack skilled health-care workers, particularly doctors, nurses and midwives, with many reluctant to work in inaccessible areas due to insecurity. In terms of reproductive health, the women relegate family planning as a secondary issue to focusing on basic needs. However, some women were reported to have had more children to increase the support they will receive.

The conflict in north-east Nigeria has had profound impacts on children, with girls disproportionately affected. For example, there was the high-profile kidnapping of the Chibok girls in 2014 and the Dapchi girls in 2018. Both incidents made parents reluctant to send their daughters to school. Of the 276 Chibok girls who were abducted by Boko Haram in 2014, 112 are still missing – a fact that fuels fears for girls in north-east Nigeria.[291] With schools, teachers and students repeatedly under attack, parents are discouraged from sending their children to school.[292] This is beginning to change with the government's commitment to build more schools in Borno State. Nonetheless, almost a thousand

289. Focus group interviews with women at the New Stadium camp.

290. Humanitarian Country Team, United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs Nigeria "Humanitarian Needs Overview", 2019, p. 23,https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/01022019_ocha_nigeria_humanitarian_needs_overview.pdf (accessed on 26 September 2019).

291. Fidelis Mbah, "Nigeria's Chibok schoolgirls: Five years on, 112 still missing", Al Jazeera, 14 April 2019, https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2019/04/nigeria-chibok-school-girls-years-112-missing-190413192517739.html.

292. The high-profile kidnapping of the Chibok girls in 2014 and of the Dapchi girls in 2018 has also negatively affected the commitment of parents to send their children – especially daughters – to school.

schools remain non-functional across the north-east leaving existing schools overcrowded with limited learning spaces.

Some camps created temporary learning shelters that could not meet the number of children requiring education – a situation that often leads families to prioritize the education of boys over girls. In these cases, girls become susceptible to early marriage, sexual violence or even recruitment by armed groups, such as suicide bombers.[293] In camps like Durumi, where an NGO built a school for children to continue their education, it lacked accreditation, good quality teachers and funding which led parents to withdraw their children. Interviews with girls in the camp indicated that they lacked learning materials to attend schools and that sometimes schools were very far from camp.

Women complained that they cannot afford school fees due to lack of income. Despite the declaration by the Government of Nigeria that basic education is free and compulsory, as outlined in the Universal Basic Education Act (2004), schools continue to charge fees beyond the ability of parents to cover. In the north-east, girls represent one out of every two out-of-school children in the entire country. Certainly, the conflict exacerbates the pre-existing fragility of the education system.[294]

In Borno State, there was a general consensus among interviewees within the UN camps that they feel safe if they follow advice and restrict their own movement. However, fear of Boko Haram remains within the camps after reported suicide bombings. This insecurity also disrupts the humanitarian needs of interviewees because the safety of humanitarian actors also cannot be assured. As a consequence, women and girls experience general insecurity as well as insecurity related to SGBV.

Women and girls are also stigmatized as potential Boko Haram informants, terrorist and suicide bombers by their host communities. There have been several recorded attacks by women and girls in Nigeria as they remain soft targets for Boko Haram.[295] Consequently, freedom of movement of female-headed households is often more restricted than that of other IDPs. The military officers often assume that if a female head of household leaves the camp, it is to take supplies to her Boko Haram-member husband in the bush.[296] The fear of existing insecurity in the north-east has discouraged many IDPs and refugees from returning home, their ultimate objective, although most have no means to restart their lives. In January 2017, about a million IDPs and refugees returned.[297]

293. Ibid.

294. The paragraph is based on information found in Humanitarian Country Team, United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs Nigeria, "Humanitarian Needs Overview", 2019, p. 40,https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/01022019_ocha_nigeria_humanitarian_needs_overview.pdf (accessed on 26 September 2019).

295. Aimée-Noël Mbiyozo, "Refugees are Boko Haram's latest soft target", Institute for Security Studies Policy Brief, (April 2018), https://reliefweb.int/report/nigeria/refugees-are-boko-haram-s-latest-soft-target (accessed on 26 September 2019).

296. UNHCR, "Nigeria: Ongoing operational screening in Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa States (November 2017)", https://reliefweb.int/report/nigeria/nigeria-going-operational-screening-borno-yobe-and-adamawa-states-november-2017 (accessed on 16 October 2019).

297. United Nations Development Programme, "Strategy on protection, return and recovery for the North-East Nigeria: Promoting integrated development and humanitarian solutions in principled manner", draft paper, (February 2017), https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/strategy_on_solution_return_and_recovery_im_undp_2017_02_09_draft.pdf, (accessed on 16 October 2019).

However, this constituted a serious risk which led to increased displacement due to poor humanitarian conditions and situations where some returnees were forced to leave again.[298]

Given the experiences of women and girls in north-east Nigeria, their participation and leadership is crucial to promoting peace and gender equality in their various communities. On a regional level, there are a number of initiatives to engage women in peace and security in northern Nigeria and to strengthen women's leadership, advance gender equality and improve the protection of women and children in conflict settings. Many of these initiatives have focused on northern states such as Adamawa, Plateau and Gombe.[299] However, when it comes to the meaningful participation of women in politics, peace processes and camp leadership, women are greatly underrepresented.

According to the Commissioner of Women's Affairs in Borno, women are not given the opportunity to take up leadership positions in government and women themselves are discouraged from showing any interest due to cultural and religious norms.[300] It is important, therefore, to ensure that implementation of the UNSCR 1325 National Action Plan is prioritized in states within north-east Nigeria to reduce barriers that dissuade women and girls

from participating in decision-making. Camp interviewees indicated that although they trust the woman leader to represent them, she is often outnumbered by men who undermine the women's issues. It is vital to build the capacity and knowledge of these officials, as well as men generally, in how to meaningfully include displaced women in decision-making within the camps and beyond. This is particularly important when considering that "displaced populations and returnees are not just survivors but have great potential and capacity to be agents of change and to rebuild their lives".[301]

Key General Recommendations

1. It is critical that the Government of Nigeria provides support for displaced women and girls while at the same time clamping down on the corruption that erodes its own investment in IDPs, refugees and returnees. Allocated funds have a better chance of reaching displaced persons through proper monitoring and accountability measures within camps.

2. Prioritize the domestication of the Maputo Protocol and the drafting and implementation of the UNSCR 1325 National Action Plan.

298. Ibid.

299. UN Women, "Promoting Women's Engagement in Peace and Security in Northern Nigeria", https://africa.unwomen.org/en/where-we-are/west-and-central-africa/nigeria/northern-nigeria-women-peace-and-security (accessed on 16 October 2019).

300. Interview with the Commissioner of Women Affairs and Social Development in Borno State, 20 September 2019.

301. United Nations Development Programme, "Strategy on protection, return and recovery for the North-East Nigeria: Promoting integrated development and humanitarian solutions in principled manner", draft paper (February 2017), https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/strategy_on_solution_return_and_recovery_im_undp_2017_02_09_draft.pdf.

3. Fund experienced local and national women-led advocacy and service organizations through robust international assistance to support the government in meeting the needs of displaced women and girls.

4. Promote social cohesion and reintegration of displaced and returnee women and girls in their host communities; this is especially important given the stigmatization of girls and women as suicide bombers in north-east Nigeria.

5. Government and international partners should commit to greater efforts to facilitate the release of the girls kidnapped by Boko Haram in Dapchi and Chibok town in Nigeria.

6. Ensure the protection of female returnees from sexual and other abuses as well as giving them a say in their resettlement. In particular, address their education because doing so is critical to their recovery.

7. The Government of Nigeria, in collaboration with the Government of Cameroon and UNHCR, must ensure the effective implementation of the tripartite agreement and explore the possibility of replicating such an agreement with other neighbouring countries affected by displaced populations from Nigeria. At the same time, ensure the full integration of the concerns of women and girl refugees and returnees.

6. Policy Recommendations

Member States should:

1. Ensure the equal participation and effective representation and leadership of women and girls in decision-making processes as well as in prevention, management, resolution, and post-conflict reconstruction and peacebuilding efforts.

2. Guarantee the meaningful engagement and active participation of refugees, displaced and returnee women in peace processes. Ensure that they play key roles in negotiation and mediation processes as well as in implementing and monitoring peace agreements and in the design and implementation of post-conflict reconciliation, rehabilitation and reconstruction efforts.

3. Ratify, domesticate and implement the provisions of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, remove reservations where they exist and provide support to the AU's All for Maputo Protocol Programme.

4. Ratify, domesticate, implement and report on the Kampala Convention and the OAU Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, and adhere to other relevant policy frameworks on forcibly displaced persons, including the Humanitarian Policy Framework.

5. Ensure assessed contributions are paid towards the Fund for Refugees, Returnees and IDPs and require that at least 30 per cent of those funds directly benefit women and girls who are forcibly displaced.

6. Adhere to reporting obligations, engage civil society, women's rights and child rights organizations in state reporting processes, including in implementation of recommendations as a way of ensuring an inclusive and transparent accountability process.

7. Repeal discriminatory laws and criminalize harmful practices that exclude and discriminate against women and girls.

8. Invest greater resources in addressing corruption, sexual exploitation and abuse. Create a conducive environment for whistle-blowers to expose corrupt practices so as to ensure funds reach intended populations, particularly those most in need;

9. Pay particular attention to vulnerable populations, within the broad umbrella of women and girls. Such populations encompass women and girls who are heads of household, teenaged mothers, widowed, separated or in child, early and/or forced marriages. They include those living with disabilities or HIV and survivors of SGBV and FGM. Pay close attention as well to unaccompanied and separated children.

10. Provide access to quality education and health by increasing budgetary allocation to meet the needs of displaced women and girls and to integrate refugees and returnees into national education and health sector plans.

11. Increase resource allocation towards the prevention, mitigation and management of cases of SGBV in national budgets and ensure displaced populations can access national services.

12. Provide basic infrastructure that facilitates accessibility to communities unable to receive humanitarian assistance due to bad/non-existent roads and security.

13. Promote freedom of movement and out-of-camp policies, as well as integration into national systems, to provide displaced populations with greater options for livelihood opportunities, health, education and other social services.

14. Facilitate access to justice by removing barriers faced by vulnerable women and girls. Ensure the meaningful engagement of women in traditional and formal justice and reconciliation processes as well as in broader decision-making.

15. Ensure timely, quality data disaggregated by age, gender and disability for better analysis and targeted programming. Such data will help ensure that inequalities prevalent in various groups are not masked by averages and totals.

16. Address the root causes of forced displacement and migration – particularly governance deficits, corruption, gender and socioeconomic inequalities and unequal distribution of resources.

AU Organs and RECs should:

1. Consistently employ the Guidelines for the Integration of the Needs of Women and Girls in Internal Displacement and Refugee Situations in the Context of AGA and APSA (see Annex) as a standard benchmark to ensure the rights of refugee and IDP women and girls are taken into account in decision-making as well as in the design and implementation of AGA and APSA programming and, in particular, in mediation, PSC sessions and missions, PCRD processes, election observation, human rights observation, early warning and preventive diplomacy and resourcing.

2. Ensure that the AU Humanitarian Agency recognizes gender considerations and the differentiated impact of humanitarian crisis on women and girls.

3. Support, monitor and review the implementation by States Parties of relevant legal and policy frameworks.

Advocate for all AU Member States to ratify, domesticate and implement the Kampala Convention.

4. Ensure the implementation of the 20th anniversary of the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (GP20) for Advancing Prevention, Protection and Solutions for Internally Displaced People, including women and girls.

5. Provide technical and financial resources towards the implementation of the Gender, Peace and Security Programme, including human resources support to effectively realize the objectives of the programme and ensure that displaced populations are consulted in the development of the second phase of the programme.

6. Meaningfully engage women refugees and IDPs (current and/or former) and returnees in peace processes – including prevention, mitigation, resolution and peacebuilding as well as PCRD. Given their first-hand experiences, robust effort is required to ensure their participation in FemWise-Africa and other platforms.

7. Put in place specific provisions to address the diverse circumstances that refugee girls and women find themselves in including as single heads of household, widows, unaccompanied or separated children, teenage mothers, or in child, early and/or forced marriages. Others may be living with disabilities, or with HIV while some may be survivors of SGBV and/or FGM.

8. Take measures to ensure that the realities of forcibly displaced women and girls are taken into account in coordinating, evaluating and reporting on implementation and compliance with AU norms. Include indicators relating to the situation of women and girl refugees and IDPs in reporting and accountability mechanisms including the AU Gender Scorecard, APRM reports on Agenda 2063 and the SDGs, ACDEG state reporting and reporting on SDGEA.

9. Ensure that women refugee and IDPs, in all of their diversity, are engaged in programming and initiatives around the AU's 2020 theme, Silencing the Guns.

10. As part of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda, include a standing agenda item during annual AU PSC and UN PSC joint consultative meetings, as well as informal consultations to address women and girls who are forcibly displaced. The agenda item should reflect actions and recommendations in the joint communiqué, as well as the annual report, on ways to strengthen cooperation and coordination.

11. Ensure AU Member States prioritize the resettlement, rehabilitation and proper reintegration of returnees into their communities while including women returnees as crucial players in post-conflict reconstruction and development.

Development partners and humanitarian actors should:

1. Provide greater financial and technical support to women's rights organizations – particularly those working at local and national levels – to push the agenda of women's rights, shift patriarchal sociocultural and gender norms and practices, and ameliorate the situation of displaced women and girls, including by creating a conducive environment whereby women can know and claim their rights.

2. Support efforts to ensure greater coherence, coordination and synergy between AGA and APSA and increase investments in conflict prevention as a way of addressing displacement and its effects, particularly on displaced women and girls.

3. Increase investments in SGBV-specific prevention, mitigation and response programmes. This includes training camp leaders and others working with displaced women and girls on how to prevent and support survivors of various forms of SGBV.

4. Respond to the specific needs of displaced women and girls and reduce their vulnerabilities and proximity to violence including by supporting alternative energy solutions, ensuring the proximity of water collection points, and providing segregated toilets within close range and livelihood opportunities in the vicinity.

5. Make provisions for comprehensive menstrual hygiene management for forcibly displaced women and girls –

including providing sanitary materials, underwear, wash areas/basins, drying areas, and means of disposal.

6. Incorporate sexual and reproductive health information, counselling, education and services into education and health programming.

7. Address trauma and incorporate mental health support into all programming with the provision of psychosocial support.

8. Integrate emergency response into long-term support which will address the extreme vulnerabilities that IDPs face and that short-term humanitarian responses alone cannot address.

9. While empowering forcibly displaced women and girls is of utmost importance, it is likewise critical to work with men to reduce and share the burden of household responsibilities, eliminate violence between men and women, and promote gender parity. Men and boys – including cultural, community and religious leaders – must be engaged to drive change in attitudes and norms among peers and to foster a culture that denounces all forms of violence and discrimination against women and girls.

10. Support efforts aimed at effective implementation of peace agreements to set the foundation for peacebuilding and the support of IDPs, returnees and refugees. Women must be included in these processes and given the opportunity to take part in reconciliation and rebuilding their communities.

Annex

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Guidelines for the integration of the needs of women and girls in internal displacement and refugee situations in the context of AGA and APSA

Background

During the March 2019 Peace and Security Council (PSC) Open Session on the theme "The Role of Women in Conflict Prevention and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding: The Contribution of Women Refugees, Internally Displaced Persons and Returnees in Africa", Council members called for the development of guidelines "on mainstreaming the experiences of women and girls, particularly those in the refugee and IDP camps, in AU policies, strategies, processes and initiatives regarding conflict prevention and resolution, mediation and post-conflict reconstruction, with a view to address the issue of finding durable solutions for IDPs and returning refugees". As a direct response to this call, these **Guidelines for the Integration of the Needs of Women and Girls in IDP and Refugee Situations in the Context of AGA and APSA** were developed by the African Union in collaboration with key UN agencies – namely UN Women, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR).

The Guidelines reflect important frameworks including the 1969 OAU Convention on Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugees in Africa, the 2009 AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) and the 2018 Global Compact for Refugees, among others. The Guidelines also draw on norms and standards incorporated into regional and international human rights instruments.

Intended to be a simple and accessible tool, the Guidelines employ a comprehensive set of questions to assess the extent to which the needs of women and girls – particularly those who have been forcibly displaced – are integrated into African Governance Architecture (AGA) and African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA). The objective is to ensure that the needs of displaced women and girls are at the forefront of decision-making – at the political level and from design to the implementation of policies, programmes and initiatives – rather than an afterthought or addressed in an ad hoc manner.

The tool is intended for use by various actors operating within the framework of AGA and APSA, and especially by those engaged in the following seven areas where the mandates of both AGA and APSA overlap: 1. Peace and Security Council sessions, field missions and documents; 2. African Union Election Observer Missions; 3. human rights observer missions; 4. mediation actors, institutions and processes; 5. early warning and preventive diplomacy; 6. post-conflict reconstruction and development; and 7. resourcing and accountability. The effective use of the Guidelines requires buy-in at both political and technical levels, through reporting officers, analysts, programme heads, mission coordinators and other relevant officers such as Member States, AU Organs and AU partners. Further elaboration may be needed to outline the steps to achieve the targets in collaboration with technical and other relevant officers.

1.   For more information on the 833rd meeting of the AU PSC, see http://www.peaceau.org/en/article/the-833rd-meeting-of-the-au-psc-open-session-on-the-theme-the-role-of-women-in-conflict-prevention-and-post-conflict-peacebuilding-the-contribution-of-women-refugees-internally-displaced-persons-and-returnees-in-africa.

Key Considerations

1. Peace and Security Council sessions, field missions and documents

Do PSC sessions have a standing agenda item to consider the gender implications – specifically those concerning refugees and IDP women – of all of the issues under discussion? Are concerns of refugees and IDP women mainstreamed?

- Is gender automatically considered part of any country or thematic issue tabled before the PSC?
- Do the communiqués reflect issues pertaining to the rights, meaningful participation, promotion, protection, relief and recovery of women and girls?

Do field missions systematically include visits to refugee and IDP camps and/or host communities that house refugees and IDPs?

- Is gender included as a matter of practice and outlined in the terms of reference for all missions?
- Do the sessions involve consultation and discussion with forcibly displaced populations and communities, including women and girls?
- Do field missions consider both the unique challenges faced by women and girls and the gender-based constraints faced in addressing the issues?
- Does the work of field missions reflect the diversity of women and girls who are displaced? For example,

does it consider the specific needs of those with disabilities, widows, the elderly, adolescent mothers and unaccompanied or separated children?
- Do field missions systematically engage women's rights organizations and women-led groups? Is this component included as a matter of practice in the terms of reference for all missions?
- Do consultations include agencies with effective tools to assist the work of field missions?

Do PSC communiqués and strategic documents reflect gender-responsive language?

- Do they offer a gender lens through which to explore the issues at hand?
- Do communiqués offer gender-disaggregated data?

Do Chairperson reports to the PSC include gender-disaggregated data, as well as situational analysis of displaced populations, particularly women and girls?

- Is the conflict analysis gendered and does it link gender data to policy, programmes and advocacy?
- Does the conflict analysis incorporate gender analysis?
- Do field missions systematically analyse the human rights violations impacting women and girls?

When appointments are made, such as Special Envoys, does the process employ gender-sensitive criteria thus, making opportunities for women, or are zebra

lists used to ensure gender parity? For example, if the Special Envoy is male, are efforts made to ensure gender balance by then hiring a female Chief of Staff, or senior technical staff? Do selection requirements include experience on issues that relate to the gender aspects of humanitarian and displacement crisis?

Are open sessions held on the situation of refugee and IDP women and girls? Is there a specific provision for a standing item on the situation of displaced populations, especially women and girls?

- Do these sessions regularly include representatives of refugee and displaced populations speaking to the issues? Are representatives of women refugees allocated sufficient time during the open sessions?
- Do the representatives of displaced populations include women? Do their interventions feed into the communiqué that is issued?
- Do these sessions invite relevant UN and AU Special Rapporteurs, members of the African regional human rights system, particularly the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights and the Committee of Experts on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. Do they include envoys or representatives to provide the PSC with a global overview, present trends and advise on strategic policy considerations regarding displacement and/or implications on women and girls?
- Are organizations working on gender and displacement issues regularly and systematically invited?

- Does the AU Peace and Security Department (PSD) possess sufficient capacity to provide analysis that incorporates the concerns of refugee and displaced women? Is there sufficient coordination between PSD and other relevant AU departments in preparing studies, reports and briefing materials to inform PSC sessions?
- Does the PSD facilitate the involvement of key organizations working on the concerns of refugees and displaced women in the preparation of PSC sessions?
- Does the communiqué reflect issues pertaining to the rights, meaningful participation, promotion, protection, relief and recovery of women?
- Are organizations working on gender and displacement issues regularly and systematically invited?
- Are the relevant recommendations issued by human rights mechanisms then followed up?

Do AU-UN consultations and coordination on peace and security include a standing agenda item related to women's rights or on the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) Agenda?

- Does the communiqué reflect issues pertaining to the rights, meaningful participation, promotion, protection, relief and recovery of women? Does it address these issues in the context of displacement?

Have the members of the PSC and/or the Permanent Representative Committee (PRC) benefited from capacity-building on gender and WPS by the AU?

2. African Union Election Observer Missions

Women make up what percentage of the African Union Election Observer Mission (AUEOM) roster?

- How many are young women (under 35)?
- If data are available, how many of these women are refugees, IDPs or returnees?

Are there any gender experts on the core team of analysts deployed? How many analysts are women?

- How many are gender experts?

Is there gender parity in the makeup of the observer teams (both short-term observers and long-term observers)?

Are observers given gender-responsive training before deployment?

How many missions were led by women and out of how many in total?

Do preliminary, as well as final, reports include gendered analysis of electoral laws and processes, prevailing sociocultural and political norms, and media reports?

- Do they examine the situation (opportunities and challenges) for women candidates, voters, and political aspirants (especially regarding the rights of returnees and displaced persons to vote and run for office)?
- Do reports include gender-disaggregated data (candidates, electoral officials, voters)?

- Are incidents of sexual and gender-based violence part of reports, as well as gender-responsive recommendations that speak to the challenges faced by women, including the particular challenges facing displaced women?

In briefings provided to heads of mission, as well as observers, is gender-specific information and analysis shared?

- Is information on the civil and political rights of formerly or currently displaced persons – in particular women and girls – shared?

Do AUEOMs meet with women-led groups and/or women's rights organizations? Do they meet with displaced populations, especially women and girls?

Does the AUEOM Checklist include gender-sensitive and gender-specific questions throughout?

- For instance, does the Checklist ask questions that ensure observers pay attention to the specific circumstances of women and girls and the implications of these on their lives. (Some of these conditions include the gendered makeup of political party leaders, monitors, electoral officials; electoral laws; and the incidence of SGBV and measures (or not) to mitigate against it).

3. Human Rights Observer Missions

Do the terms of reference and mandate of observers include observing and reporting on gender-specific violations? How much attention is paid to women's rights (violations) specifically?

- Is expertise on women's rights and gender included in the terms of reference? Is this done on an ad hoc basis or is it institutionalized?
- Do human rights observers interact directly with the displaced population? Do they make a conscious effort to speak to women and girls who are displaced?
- Do human rights observers seek out and engage with women human rights defenders?

Are gender experts included in observer missions? Are women human rights defenders included in observer missions? Are women's rights activists and practitioners included in observer missions?

- Is such inclusion a matter of policy or practice? Is it done in an ad hoc or deliberate manner?
- How much of the roster is composed of gender experts? Women human rights defenders? Women's rights activists and/or practitioners?

Are human rights observers trained in addressing women's rights violations, especially those related to sexual and gender-based violence?

Do observers report on gender indicators in their periodic reports? Are gender indicators reflected in guidelines or reporting templates?

Do reports of human rights observers make specific observations and recommendations on violations against women and girls – particularly women IDPs and refugees?

- Is such reporting done consistently or sporadically?
- What specific actions have been undertaken, based on recommendations from the reports, that are relative to women's rights violations?

4. Mediation actors, institutions and processes

Women make up what percentage of the Panel of the Wise (Pan-Wise) membership?

- What are their roles within Pan-Wise?
- Do they have decision-making powers?
- Is there a provision for gender parity in nomination and/or selection processes?
- Is the panel supported by a gender or WPS technical specialist?

Are gender issues, particularvly those concerning displaced refugees and displaced persons, considered periodically as part of the agenda of Pan-Wise?

- If so, is this consideration undertaken on an ad hoc or systematic basis?

Does FemWise-Africa membership include refugee, IDP, returnee and migrant persons?

- Is this inclusivity an explicit part of the membership drive?
- What percentage do they make up?
- How many have been deployed to peace processes and what were their roles within those processes?

Does FemWise-Africa induction ¬– and other training, mediation, manuals and handbooks – cover the unique issues experienced by displaced persons, particularly those faced by women and girls?

How many mediations were led by women and out of how many?

Do peace talks include women generally?

- Are there guidelines that make provisions for inclusion and/or gender-equitable representation in peace processes?
- Are there gender-responsive guidelines on the allocation of lead mediators and/or the mediation team that reflect the concerns of refugees and displaced persons?
- What roles do women play? For instance, are they guarantors of the peace agreement? Are they signatories to the peace agreement? Are women witness to the peace agreement or part of negotiating teams? Are they lead negotiators?
- What are the percentages in each category above?

Do peace talks include women who have been forcibly displaced?

- If so, what roles do these women play?
- Are they considered and/or treated as primary actors and offered a seat at the table?

Are women's rights activists, practitioners and organizations engaged in monitoring and implementing peace agreements?

- If so, in what ways are they involved in mechanisms set up to monitor implementation?

Are there mediation pools and/or rosters composed of refugees, IDPs, returnees and migrants?

- How many mediations were conducted by these women?

Do mediation processes adopt a gendered approach in addressing the differential impacts and experiences of women in conflict, especially refugees and IDPs?

- Do peace agreements have specific elements on gender and women's rights?
- Are efforts made to enhance the capacities of women engaged in mediation processes?
- Are specific efforts made to enhance the abilities of women and men, engaged in mediation processes, to operate within a gender-conscious lens?
- Are there formal and informal networks of women involved in mediation processes and, if so, do they use an effective and coordinated approach?

5. Early Warning and Preventive Diplomacy

How many women are part of preventive diplomacy missions and out of how many altogether?

- What are their roles?
- How many of the total missions are led by women?

Does the Continental Early Warning System (CEWS) have gender indicators in the early warning baskets, including those concerning refugees and IDP women ?

- Are gender-specific violations available across various indicators?

Do the situational analysis reports from CEWS include issues affecting women and girls, particularly refugees and IDPs?

Do the CEWS data-gathering, analytical and reporting tools – such as the Continental Structural Vulnerability Risk Assessment Framework – include gender and women's rights issues and indicators?

Do these assessment missions include women and/or gender experts?

Are the terms of reference and other guiding documents gender responsive? Is the mission team briefed on gender and women's rights issues and concerns before and during the mission?

Do these missions engage and consult with refugees and IDPs, particularly women and girls?

Is there regular and systematic consultation with international and other organizations working on issues affecting the rights and concerns of displaced women?

6. Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development Initiatives and Processes

Has the design of post-conflict reconstruction and development (PCRD) initiatives adopted participatory approaches that include refugees, IDPs, returnees and migrants?

- Do these discussions and/or consultations appreciate the diversity of women and girls who are displaced? For instance, do they consider the concerns of those with disabilities or widows, the elderly, adolescent mothers, victims of gender-based violence, and unaccompanied and/or separated children?

Are refugee and IDP concerns – particularly those of women and girls – regarding personal and human security taken into account in designing and implementing PCRD initiatives?

- How are the unique security challenges faced by women and girls addressed during these processes?

Besides being beneficiaries of humanitarian and/or emergency assistance, are refugees and IDPs consulted during allocation and distribution processes?

- How are the special needs of women and girl refugees, especially regarding their sexual and reproductive health, addressed during humanitarian responses and assistance?

Are the socioeconomic needs of women and girls factored into designing and implementing PCRD?

- How are the losses of dignity and the ability to earn a decent livelihood that are suffered by women and girl refugees and IDPs addressed?
- Are women's and girls' time burdens, related to the disproportionate responsibility of unpaid care work, taken into account?

- Is women's access to social services and infrastructure considered?

Are women and girl refugees and IDPs included in political governance and transition processes?

- What roles do women and girl refugees play in political governance and transitions?

Are women's rights violations, especially those related to sexual and gender-based violence among refugees and IDPs, part of transitional justice and accountability mechanisms?

- To what extent are women and girl refugees and IDPs involved in transitional justice processes?
- What affirmative action measures are adopted to ensure that women and girls play a role during PCRD processes? Are refugee women and girls included in PCRD efforts?
- Are transitional justice and accountability mechanisms gender responsive?

Are women engaged in disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) processes?

7. Resourcing and Accountability

What percentage of the AGA/APSA budget goes towards gender-responsive programming? (Such programming can include carrying out specific election observation trainings for women to increase their numbers on the AUEOM roster. It can also include gender-sensitization and/or human rights training to enhance women's participation on the human rights observer roster and in mediation trainings and gender trainings for elections. Gender-responsive programming can also promote the hiring of gender experts and gender analysts.)

Does the PRC Sub-Committee on Budget Matters use gender markers when making decisions about the allocation and disbursement of funds?

Does the PRC Sub-Committee on Refugees, Returnees and IDPs track the use of its funds? What are the considerations for disbursement? Have funds been earmarked for support for women and girls?

Is a percentage of the Special Emergency Assistance Fund for Drought and Famine in Africa (SEAF) allocated specifically for women and girls and, if so, what amount?

Does the African Peace Fund have gender markers, or does it otherwise consider gender across its three thematic windows (Mediation and Preventive Diplomacy, Institutional Capacity and Peace Operations)? Do these considerations affect decision-making for allocation and disbursement of funds? Is gender-disaggregated data available to track the percentage of funds benefiting women and girls generally – and forcibly displaced women and girls in particular?

Have the finance and accounting experts for the implementation of AGA/APSA benefited from capacity-building and/or trainings in gender-responsive budgeting?

**Status of Women's Rights in Refugee and
Internal Displacement Settings in Africa:**
The Context of AGA and APSA