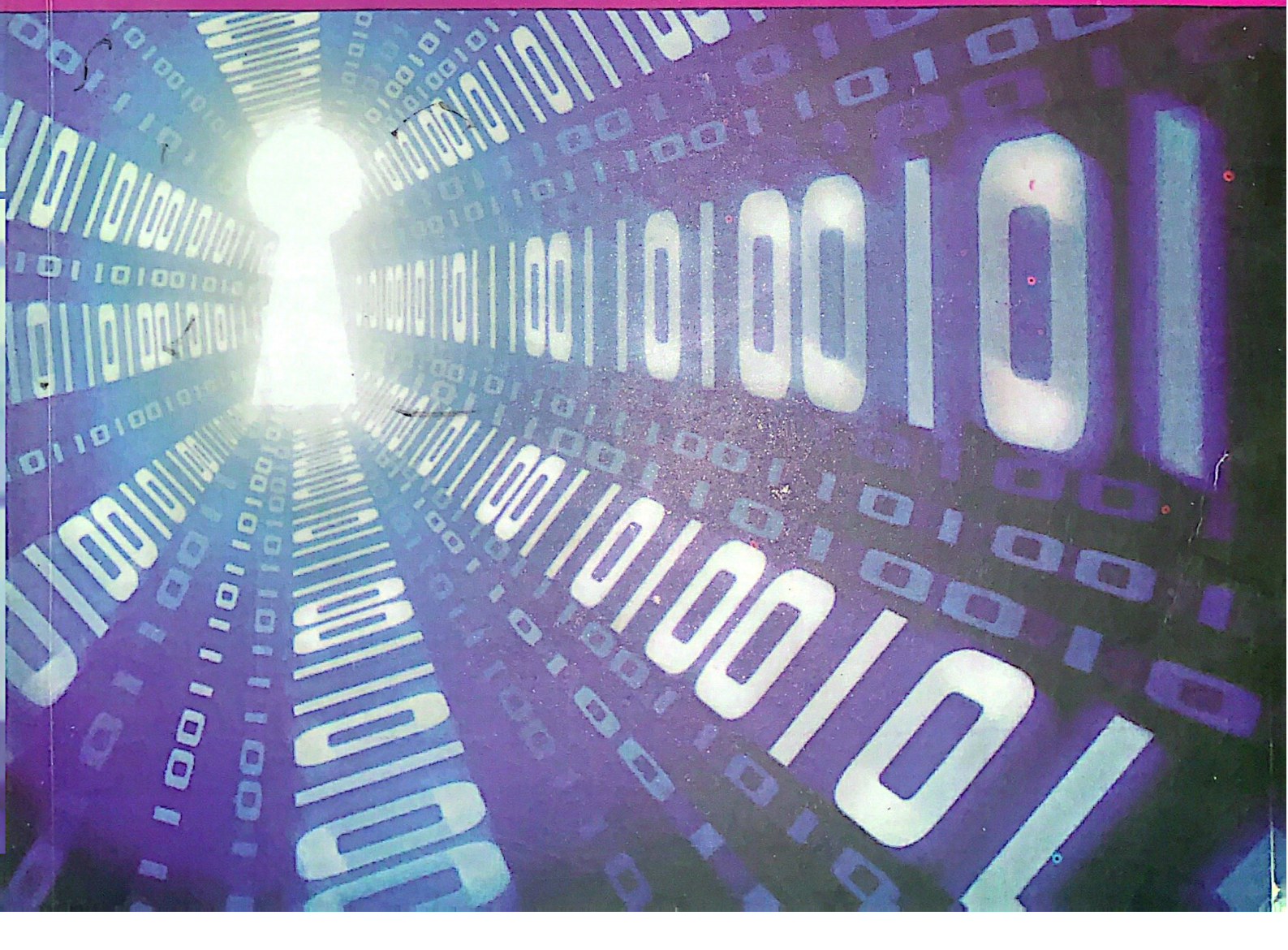
Journal of Peace, Security & Development

ISSN: 2360-9435

Volume 1, No. 4, 2015



Biola Adinuka

Journal of Peace, Security and Development

Volume 1, No. 4, 2015

Centre for Peace & Strategic Studies
University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria

Published by:
Centre for Peace and Strategic Studies,
University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria

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ISSN: 2360-9435

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CONTENTS

Diversity, Security and Development in Nigeria: A Re-examination of the Language Factor
Elisabeth De Campos and *Samson Olusola Olatunji* 1

Regionalisation and the New Security Challenges in West Africa: A Focus on Initiatives to Combat Human Trafficking (2000-2007)
Prof. Amadu Sesay and *Dr. Kehinde Olayode* 19

Bioterrorism, Public Health and National Security
Oludairo O. O., Aiyedun, .J. O. Olorunshola I. D. 43

Correlates of Venue Security and Sporting Events at the Kwara State Stadium Complex Ilorin, Nigeria
Dr. Ibraheem, T.O , Olaoye, A.K., Ojo, V.O. and *Ibraheem, M.O.* 55

Securing Weapons and Prioritising Health as a Catalyst for Human Security in Nigeria
Dr Mahfouz A. Adedimeji 66

Exlploring the Treaty of Hudaybiyyah for Effective Peace Negotiation Processes: A Lesson for Nigeria
Dr. Adebayo, Rafiu Ibrahim and *Dr. Lateju, Fola* 84

Re-opening the NEPAD Debate from a Peace Perspective
Dr. Jean-Marie Kasonga Mbombo 101

Traditional Institutions as Factors of Political Ascendancy in Kogi State, Nigeria: Implications for Peaceful Co-existence
Onile Femi Godwin 120

Media Coverage, Voting Behaviour and the 2015 Presidential Election in Nigeria: A Case Study of the Electorate at the University of Ilorin
Fatima I. Abubakre and *Olusola O. Oyewo* 141

Multi-dimensional Gender-based Violence against Female Refugees in Africa: Agenda For Action
Dr. Ruth Abiola Adimula 173

Corruption and National Development in Nigeria: African Traditional Values as a Panacea
Meleki, Adeniyi Oluwole Osaji, Olasupo Jacob Ajetomobi, Ph. D and *Olumuyiwa Aduralere* 192

Female Gender in Post-conflict Governance and Peace-Building in Mano-River Region of West Africa (2000-2010)
Dr. Adedoyin Adedayo 207

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The *Journal of Peace, Security and Development* (JPSD) is published by the Centre for Peace and Strategic Studies (CPSS), University of Ilorin, Ilorin Nigeria. It is dedicated to advancing knowledge, deepening understanding and disseminating research findings in all aspects of peace studies, conflict studies, security studies, strategic studies and development studies.

The journal places no restriction on the scope or dimensions that studies can cover but strongly expects prospective authors to show that their papers have academic and policy implications for peace, security and development in the world, in its microcosm or macrocosm. In essence, the articles of the Journal put issues, directly or indirectly connected with peace, security and development in perspectives in both theoretical and empirical models.

Though efforts will be made by the Editorial Board to ensure that no inaccurate or misleading data, opinion or statement appears in this journal, the data and opinions presented in the articles are the sole responsibility of the contributors concerned. Authors are thus strongly encouraged to duly verify the authenticity of their claims and adequately acknowledge the sources of their information.

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Contributors should note that only original works are published after a multi-staged blind peer review process. Also, contributors have the responsibility to ensure that all copyrights are secured before submissions and any act of plagiarism discovered leads to the immediate stoppage of the publication process of the article concerned.

Submission of Manuscripts

Manuscripts should be submitted in English. They should be typewritten and double-spaced, with wide margins, using one side of the page only. Authors may submit papers for consideration in two possible ways. They may send the paper to any of the editors. Alternatively, authors should submit two hard copies of their papers, directly to the Editor-in-Chief, *Journal of Peace, Security and Development*, Centre for Peace and Strategic Studies, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria. Email: cpssjournal@gmail.com and cpss@unilorin.edu.ng.

Authors may also submit their manuscripts via e-mail, in MS Word. A cover sheet should be provided with the following details: an abstract of not more than 250 words, with a sequence of not more than six key words suitable for indexing and abstracting services; a brief biographical note about each author and each author's areas of specialisation.

Articles are expected to be between 6,000 and 8,000 words. All submissions are treated anonymously and material identifying the author(s) should only appear on the cover page.

Referencing

Manuscripts should conform as much as possible to the referencing guidelines of the recent edition of the American Psychological Association (APA) publication manual of instructions for authors. This involves published works being cited in the text according to the author/date system and listed alphabetically in the reference section at the end of the manuscript. Examples of appropriate format for chapters, articles and books appear below:

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Okosi-Simbine, A.(2003) "African Conflicts as an Albatross to Development: A Governance Perspective, *Nigerian Journal of International Affairs*, Volume 29,Number 1 and 2.

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Centre for Peace and Strategic Studies

The Centre for Peace and Strategic Studies is the second to provide mainstream training in Peace Studies at Master's and Doctoral levels in Nigeria and the West African sub-region. The pioneer Director of the Centre is the face of Peace Studies in Africa, Professor Olawale Albert, succeeded by Professor F. A. O. Olasehinde-Williams, Dr. Joseph O. Fayeye and Dr. Mahfouz A. Adedimeji, who assumed office in 2013 as the current Director.

The Centre is indebted to Professor Is-haq O. Oloyede (OFR) during whose tenure as Vice-Chancellor the programme took off. His commitment to an intellectually led approach to the pursuit of Peace in a troubled country and world led to the smooth take-off of the programme and its first public convention of a stakeholders forum to pledge to a non-adversarial pursuit of peace and reconciliation from warring communities in Kwara State in 2012, among other laudable Peace initiatives.

Also, worthy of note is the unflinching support of Professor Abdul-Ganiyu Ambali (OON), the current Vice-Chancellor, whose tenure gave birth to this journal, previously known as the *African Journal of Peace and Security*, and other activities of the Centre.

The specific objectives of the Centre are to:

(1) make the University of Ilorin a global Centre of Excellence for Peace and Security Studies;
(2) make the University of Ilorin a Centre of Excellence in peace research and documentation;
(3) train manpower in the field of Peace, Conflict, Security and Strategic Studies;
(4) provide students with theoretical and practical skills in peace-making, peacebuilding, preventive diplomacy, strategic planning and management; and
(5) contribute to security strategy and environmental sector management.

Academic Programmes

The Centre offers MA, MPhil and PhD degree courses in Peace and Development Studies as well as MA degree courses in Peace and Security Studies.

MA Peace and Development Studies

This programme is interdisciplinary. It consists of Compulsory and Required courses for each of the specialisations, as well as Elective courses. Each student's course of study is customised to his or her interest.

Students are offered the opportunity of specialising in any of the following three academic areas:

(1) Governance and Peace (GP)
(2) Security Studies (SS)
(3) Peace and Environment (PE).

CFEAT and Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) Retreat

Towards ensuring that graduands of the Centre are well groomed, the Centre adapted the Community- Based Experience and Services (COBES) of Health Sciences of the University into one of the compulsory courses taught at the Centre - PDS 604 or Practical Skills in Conflict Management. This entails the identification of crisis-prone, post-conflict and negatively peaceful communities where students go to stay for empirical conflict analysis, collation of early warning signs and post-conflict impact assessment or peace building mechanisms depending on the phase of the conflict. This flows from Johan Galtung's description of Peace Studies as comparable to Medical Science which makes use of diagnosis, prognosis and therapy in restoring wellness to ill societies and relationships.

Also, one of the courses taught at the Centre is the Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) and in horning the skills of our students, a week-long retreat is held outside the Centre where practitioners are brought in to train students and to share experience with them in order to merge theory and practice.

Town-gown Engagements

One of the core activities of the Centre is its constant engagement with critical sectors and stakeholders in the polity across all levels on issues of Governance, Development, Peace and Security sectors. Such engagements have informed the staging of Distinguished Personality Lectures of which two have been presented by His Excellency, Governor Rotimi Amaechi of Rivers State and the Chief Servant of Niger State, His Excellency Governor Muazu Aliyu Babangida.

The Centre also organises Special Public Lectures and commemorates important international activities related to Peace and Development such as the International Peace Day on September 21st each year.

JPSD
Volume 1, No. 4, 2015
pp. 173-192

MULTI-DIMENSIONAL GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AGAINST FEMALE REFUGEES IN AFRICA: AGENDA FOR ACTION

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Abstract

Conflict is a global phenomenon. The proliferation of small arms in the region when the Cold War ended has helped fuel many conflicts. One grave impact of armed conflict is the creation of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). Refugees are people who are forced to cross international boundaries as a result of displacement from their homes, their economic, political and social structures, most times into camps, with poor living conditions and diverse Gender-based Violence(GBV). The paper discusses a study conducted in Bududuram Refugee camp, Ghana and Oru Refugee camp, Nigeria and drew inferences from other African countries from review of literature. The objectives of the study were to: examine the provisions of international instruments on protection of the rights of refugees; identify specific gender-based violence (GBV) being faced by camp residents, especially female refugees and to proffer possible solutions. The study adopted a descriptive survey design, with quantitative and qualitative tools to elicit data and relied on structured interview and key informants interview guide. Snowballing sampling was used to identify actual displaced persons. A total of 678 respondents in both camps responded to research instruments. The paper presented the findings of the study and concluded that the implementation and enjoyment of protection rights of refugees are poor in the camps, also that camp residents face different types of Gender-based violence (GBV) but women (68%) are more vulnerable than men (32%). It made recommendations that UN should put in place monitoring authorities to ensure compliance with international agreements and that female refugees should be empowered morally and with tools of trade to cater for personal and family needs, in order to stem the GBV against them.

Keywords: Female, Gender-Based Violence, Multi-dimensional, Refugees.

Introduction

In many African countries, an onerous legacy of the Cold War is centralized government control, particularly over economic matters (Perlez, 1992). A big question of the post-cold-war era is how Africans, dependent since their independence on outside aid, will deal with their political and economic futures as they are left to fend for themselves. It was discovered that African countries have to wrestle with economies wrecked by civil war and mismanagement (Perlez,1992).

Throughout the Cold War, major powers such as the U.S.A, the Soviet Union and others supported various regimes and dictatorships. Some possibly promising leaders in the early days of the independence movements throughout the Third World were overthrown. There was

a disregard from the major powers as to how this would affect the people of these countries (Shah, 2010). The fact was that, the superpowers saw post-colonial Africa as fertile territory for their ideologies and for the reaping of rich resources at low cost (Perlez, 1992). It is hard to argue with African economists, business executives and aspiring politicians that the Cold War was a debilitating and destructive experience for Africa. The three decades not only produced wars and dictatorships. Across the continent, the shells of buildings, potholed and overgrown roads, rusting buses and trains, even rotting books housed in leaking libraries attest to the failure of aid from both West and East (Perlez, 1992). Not only that, the proliferation of small arms in the region when the Cold War ended has helped fuel many conflicts (Shah, 2010). Africa has become an attractive and profitable dumping ground for nations and arm manufacturers eager to get rid of weapon stocks made superfluous by the end of the Cold War or by technological developments. According to a report from the World Policy Institute, while Europe for example, was able to "exploit Africa's resources" to help rebuild after World War II, $1.5 billion worth of weapons to Africa has come from the U.S. alone (Shah, 2010).

As a result of this, Africa has experienced numerous civil wars and conflict recently. Many such conflicts are still going on including the seven or so countries directly involved in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), to the Sierra Leone crisis and the war in Ethiopia/Eritrea and the various other civil wars, Shah A. (2010). Angola has seen an estimated 500,000 people killed since 1989 and an estimated 3 million refugees (Shah, 2010). He said, it is also being torn apart due to resources such as diamonds and offshore oil, with various factions fighting for these prizes, supported by multinational corporations and other governments. Shah (2010) noted that not less than 28 Sub-Saharan African states have been at war since 1980, identifying the root causes of problems as political corruption, lack of respect for rule of law and human rights violations. He said, some often overlooked root causes also include the legacy of European colonialism; artificial borders created by imperial Europe; natural struggle to rebuild; unequal international trade; comparative disadvantage; neo-colonialism made exploitation of Africans cheaper for industrial world; Cold War by proxy; supporting and arming dictatorships in Africa; and corporate interests, exploitation, corruption and other issues. Also Oyeniyi (2011) summarised the causes of conflicts in Africa to include over-population, economic or religious disparities, oppression, and demands for democracy, communal or ethnic violence related to economic, social, religious, cultural or ethnic issues, persecution or violations of human rights, mass movements of refugees, poverty or instability caused by the mismanagement or ineptitude of the government, including evident and perceived levels of corruption by the government beyond any acceptable limits of traditional toleration, poor economic performance and debt problem, corruption of the elites, high unemployment — especially of educated youth, armed conflicts and proliferation of cheap weapons.

In West Africa, Kieh & Klay (2009) opined that the contingent causes

of the second Liberia war (1999-2003) consisted of the failure of the post – first civil war transitional processes such as disarmament, demobilization, rehabilitation, re-integration and security sector reform. The root causes of Sierra Leone's 10-year civil war revolve around bad governance, while the central cause of the war was endemic greed, corruption and nepotism that deprived the nation of its dignity and reduced most people to a state of poverty (Lawrence, 2012). The scholar noted that successive political elites plundered the nation's assets, including its mineral riches, at the expense of the national good, thus, the context provided ripe breeding grounds for opportunists who unleashed a wave of violence and mayhem that was to sweep through the country (Lawrence, 2012). These and more led to the outbreak of civil war in 1991 in Sierra Leone and displacement of huge population of people to neighbouring countries viz: Nigeria, Ghana and Guinea.

Moreover, Global Issues, (2011) reported that, as a result of the political/electoral battles in between President Laurent Gbagbo and opposition candidate, Alassane Ouattara in Cote d'Ivoire in 2010, about a million people were reported to have fled their homes with about 100,000 crossed over into neighbouring Liberia. In Nigeria, conflicts arising from the activities of Boko Haram in the North East has resulted in high threats to lives and properties, death of many and displacement of several people. National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) Displacement Tracking Matrix XI DTM (August, 2016), put the figure of people that are internally displaced in Nigeria to be 2,093,030 being 370,389 households. The majority of the IDPs were identified in Borno (1,446,829), followed by Adamawa (163,559) and Yobe (135,442); 89.74% of IDPs were displaced by the insurgency alone, while 8.85% were displaced by communal clashes and 1.41% by natural disaster.

The various conflicts within the African region especially from the end of Cold War has led to the death of many and displacement of millions of people. Hawkins (2008) discussed conflict death tolls in Africa between 1990 and 2007 and said that in addition to the conflict deaths, there have been over 9 million refugees and internally displaced people. While refugee numbers in recent years have declined, the number of internally displaced has risen.

Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons

Usually, the response of civilians in conflicts situation is to flee for dear lives, thereby relocating to a safe place within or outside the borders of the warring country, (Adimula, 2015). Where people re-settle within the borders of their country, they become Internally Displaced Persons. If the relocation is outside the borders of the warring country, they are called Refugees and thereby governed by international refugee law. International refugee law is a set of rules and procedures that aims to protect persons seeking asylum from persecution and those recognized as refugees under the relevant instruments (RULAC, 2013). Its legal framework provides a distinct set of guarantees for these specific groups of persons, although, inevitably, this legal

protection overlaps to a certain extent with international human rights law as well as the legal regime applicable to armed conflicts under international humanitarian law (RULAC, 2013). The main sources of refugee law are treaty law, notably the 1951 Convention relating to the status of refugees (1951 Refugee Convention) and its 1967 Protocol, and customary international law. Customary international law applies to all states irrespective of whether they are a party to relevant treaties or not (RULAC, 2013).

Under Article 1(A) 2 of the 1951 Refugee Convention, the term "refugee" shall apply to any person who:

> ... owing to 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; or who not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.

Thus, according to this provision, refugees are defined by three basic characteristics:

- They are outside their country of origin or outside the country of their former habitual residence;
- They are unable or unwilling to avail themselves of the protection of that country owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted; and
- The persecution feared is based on at least one of five grounds: race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion (RULAC, 2011).

According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the problem of human displacement in Africa is expanding and becoming increasingly complex (UNCHR, 2000). Approximately 4.6 million refugees reside in African border camps (UNCHR, 2013), while Africa hosts more than 26 per cent of the world's refugee population (UNHCR, 2016). Over 18 million people in this region are of concern to UNHCR. That number has soared in recent years, partly due to ongoing crises in the Central African Republic (CAR), Nigeria and South Sudan. It has also grown as a result of new conflicts erupting in Burundi and Yemen (UNHCR, 2016).

In West Africa, the UNCHR (2012) reported that 280,540 refugees were found in the subregion and approximately 168,000 refugees, mainly Ghanaians, Ivoirians, Liberians, Mauritanians, and Senegalese, are dispersed in both urban and rural areas in several West African countries. Also, Internally Displaced Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2012) reported that, over 400,000 people have been displaced by floods sweeping across West Africa caused by torrential rains in August, 2012.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV)

Vann, (2002) defined the term gender as referring to the different characteristics of men and women that are socially determined. It defines culturally acceptable attitudes and behaviour of men and women, including their responsibilities, advantages, disadvantages, opportunities and constraints (Vann, 2002); while Gender-Based Violence (GBV) refers to crimes targeting specific groups of people primarily on account of their being females or males. More often than not, such crimes are inflicted upon females by their male counterparts. Indeed, researches show that females are three to six times more likely to experience sexual abuse than males (Pickup, 2011). Focusing on gender often means focusing on inequality, power differences and the generally disadvantaged positions women have as compared to men (Vann, 2002).

The United Nations referred to "gender-based" violence as the violence that is rooted in gender inequality and is often tolerated and condoned by laws, institutions and community norms; it is not only a manifestation of gender-inequality, but often serves to enforce it, (Heise, Ellsberg & Gottemoeller, 1999). The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language defines violence as "physical force exerted for the purpose of violating, damaging, or abusing."

GBV is everywhere, in every society, cutting across all races, religions and socio-economic positions that people may have. But some people in certain situations are more likely to be vulnerable to GBV than others. People living in refugee and IDP camps have lost protective mechanisms such as social and economic support systems and family and community structures, and are therefore more vulnerable (Vann, 2002). It is widely recognised that women's needs tend to be overlooked within humanitarian assistance and assessment programmes. Addressing gender issues in the context of humanitarian assistance therefore involves looking at the different needs and interests, power imbalances and inequalities that exist between women and men (Vann, 2002). The focus of this Paper therefore is the gender dimension of violence, i.e. Gender-Based Violence (GBV) against female refugees in Africa.

To start with, gender discourse is about male and female. Both male and female face GBV during conflict and displacement. Men can be victims as well as perpetrators of violence (Kirsten, 2007). The scholar noted that, across cultures, most acts of violence, including firearm-related violence, are overwhelmingly perpetrated by men and boys and most victims of firearm-related violence are also men and boys. In another vein, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Gender Policy (2005), identified common forms of violence experienced by women to include domestic violence, female genital mutilation (FGM), sexual violence (including rape) and torture associated with armed conflict and the measures being used to address the issue to include research, awareness, sensitization campaigns and legal arrangements.

United Nations Guidelines and International Instruments on the Protection of Female Refugees

As part of response mechanism in the refugee camps, some preventive and protective measures were put in place by the United Nations to protect the refugees especially women. Vann (2002) discussed UNCHR 2003 Guidelines on Gender-Based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings and identified some minimum preventive measures for the protection of female refugees in camps. These include guarantee for safe and secure access to services, in particular to separate latrines and washing facilities for women and these facilities should ensure privacy; and that wood collection and distribution sites and playgrounds should also be assessed from a safety perspective. Vann (2002) noted that it is vital to prevent unsafe situations by ensuring women's access to the most essential necessities such as food, water, firewood and cooking fuel. Lack of, or limited access to, these items often leads to dangerous situations, for example, fetching water and firewood in remote and bushy areas. Also, that good lighting of facilities should be provided to prevent violence and/or abuse. It is crucial that common facilities and access roads are well lit; safe access to, and exit from distribution points are essential as security includes having the paths and entry/exit points well lit at night.

In addition, Vann (2002) contends that perpetrators of GBV are sometimes the very people upon whom the survivors depend to assist and protect them. Such people include the police, government officials, and humanitarian workers and peacekeepers. He therefore suggested that, all staff members and persons working on behalf of the camp residents should be trained on and sign codes of conduct. To this end, camp management team is expected to ensure safety and security of camp residents by mobilizing the camp population to identify those groups most at risk of GBV and agree on community support and monitoring mechanisms, including 'community watch' teams which include women; advocate for community policing, monitoring and for security structures to take into consideration high-risk areas, and specific risks faced by women and men of different age groups and backgrounds; advocate for camp residents, including women, to be included in measures to improve camp security and promote gender parity with 50% involvement of women among all security staff (Vann, 2002).

Vann, (2002) also stated that as punitive measures, camp management is expected to put in place procedure that will allow for effective response mechanisms and GBV reporting system by survivors reporting to refugees community leaders, who in turn take the matter to the camp management. Police station and Mobile court to prosecute perpetrators in the camp and to punish offenders found guilty should be established in camps, to serve as punishment to perpetrators and deterrent to possible perpetrators in the camps.

Notwithstanding the above stated minimum standard on preventive, protective, punitive measures and on gender sensitivity in refugee camp management, refugees, especially women, continue to experience GBV in camps because the UNCHR guidelines are not

implemented and there are no legal procedures to punish offenders.

Not only that, the United Nations and African Union have put in place some international instruments on the protection of Refugees and IDPs. Yet, insecurity in the camps still strives because none of the instruments has penalty attached for non-compliance, in other words, signatory countries which are parties to these agreement can choose to obey or disobey the provisions of the Agreements, suggesting that, the international agreements are toothless, they have no teeth to bite violators and so are unable to curb insecurity in the refugee camps. Some of these international instruments include: the 1951 Refugee Convention; the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict, 1974; Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW); the 1991 UNCHR Guidelines on the Protection of Refugee Women; the 1995 UNCHR Guidelines on the Protection of Refugees against Sexual Violence; the UN Security Council Resolution 1325, 2000, and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol).

Research Objectives

The general objective of the Paper was to examine the different types of GBV being faced by female refugees in Africa; while the specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Examine the provisions of international instruments on protection of the rights of refugees;
2. Identify specific gender-based violence (GBV) being faced by females in Oru, Buduburam and other refugee camps in Africa
3. Investigate the gender sensitivity of Oru and Budumburam refugee camps
4. Suggest solutions to stem GBV against females in refugee camps

Methodology

This study adopted a descriptive survey design, with quantitative and qualitative tools to elicit data. Two research instruments were used for data collection, being a semi-structured interview guide and key informant interview guide. The research instruments were personally administered by the author, assisted by two research assistants in Oru (Nigeria) and Buduburam (Ghana) refugee camps, between January and April, 2012. The research instruments were distributed to the camp residents in their homes, while others were also given at other places within the camp, i.e. marketplace, shops, etc. A total of 678 respondents in the two camps responded to research instruments. These camps were selected by virtue of being both Anglophone countries so as to avoid language barrier. Non-probability multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select respondents for the study, while snowballing sampling technique was used to identify actual displaced persons (mostly from the camp administrators and refugees themselves).

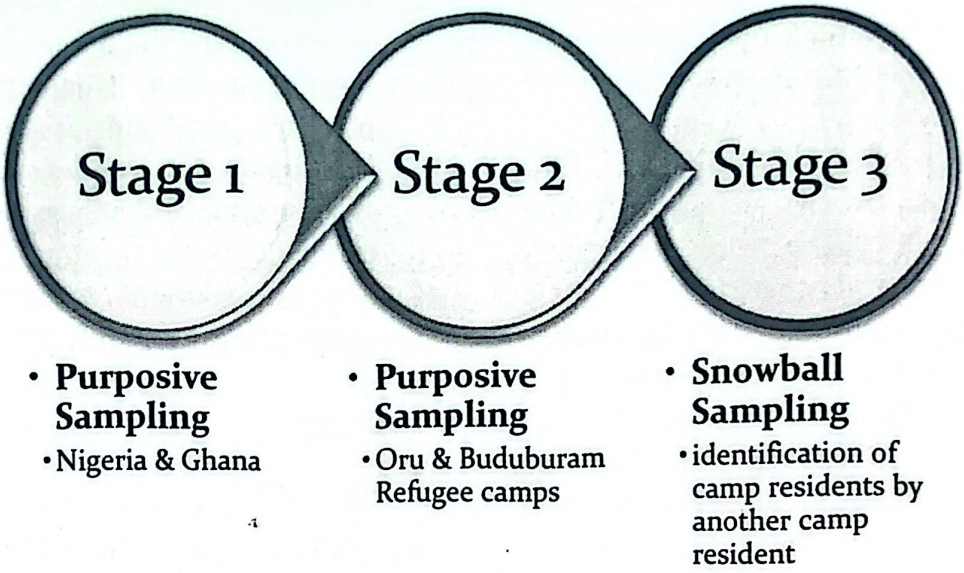


Figure 1: Multi-stage Sampling procedure
Source: Author's field work, 2012

Analysis and Result

Oru Refugee Camp Nigeria

In Oru, 165 camp residents responded to research instruments. 58.80% were females while 41.20% were males. Out of the 75 refugees who had experienced GBV, 51 of them were female while only 24 were male. 21.6% of the female had experienced rape, 27.5% sexual abuse and 41.2% physical assault/abuse; while 75% of male had experienced physical assault/abuse. Insecurity and rape were also reported in Oru, that in January, 2012, a fifty year old man from the host community raped a 10 year old primary school pupil in the camp as a result of insecurity in and around the camp. Also, a refugee woman narrated her ordeals in the hands of the militants during the Sierra Leonean war. She said, when her father was instructed to have sex with her but because the father refused, he was killed and about 6 militants had their turns of carnal knowledge of her in a gang rape, since then till date (February, 2012) the refugee woman menstruates 15 days in a month.

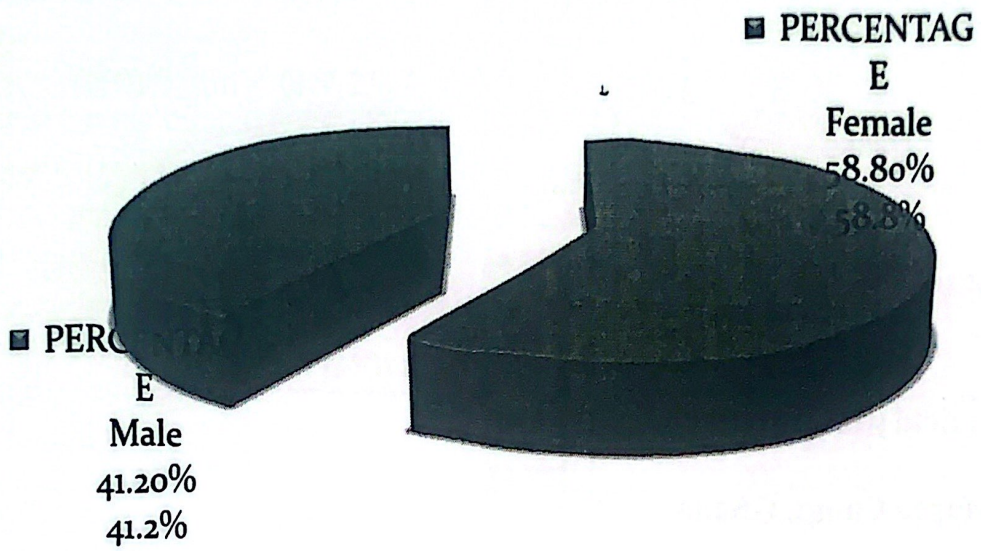


Figure 2: Distribution of Respondents by Gender (Oru Camp)

Table 1: Respondents' Experience of GBV (Oru Camp)

Form of Abuse	Oru (n=75)	Male (n=24)	Female (n=51)
Rape	17 (22.7%)	6 (25%)	11 (21.6%)
Attempted rape	5 (6.7%)	2 (8.3%)	3 (5.9%)
Sexual abuse	14 (18.7%)	0 (0%)	14 (27.5%)
Incest	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Forced prostitution	5 (6.7%)	0 (0%)	5 (9.8%)
Sexual harassment	9 (12%)	3 (12.5%)	6 (11.8%)
Female genital mutilation	2 (2.7%)	0 (0%)	2 (3.9%)
Early marriage	10 (13.3%)	3 (12.5%)	7 (13.7%)

Physical assault/abuse	39 (52%)	18 (75%)	21 (41.2%)
Financial abuse	24 (32%)	12 (50%)	12 (23.5%)
Confinement	3 (4%)	3 (12.5%)	0 (0%)
Discrimination, Denial of opportunities	23 (30.7%)	12 (50%)	11 (21.6%)
Denial of education	15 (20%)	9 (37.5%)	6 (11.8%)
Others	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Source: Author's field work, 2012

Bududuram Refugee Camp, Ghana

In Bududuram camp, research instrument was administered to 513 respondents, 41.13% were female while 58.87% were male. Out of the 477 of the refugees who had experienced GBV 291 of them were female. 148 of the female accounting for 50.9% had experienced rape, 25.4% attempted rape and 31.3% sexual harassment; while 19.4% of male had experienced physical assault/abuse. It was also found that forced prostitution is common among the female camp residents, who as a result of poverty and lack of food to feed themselves and families offer their bodies to earn a living.

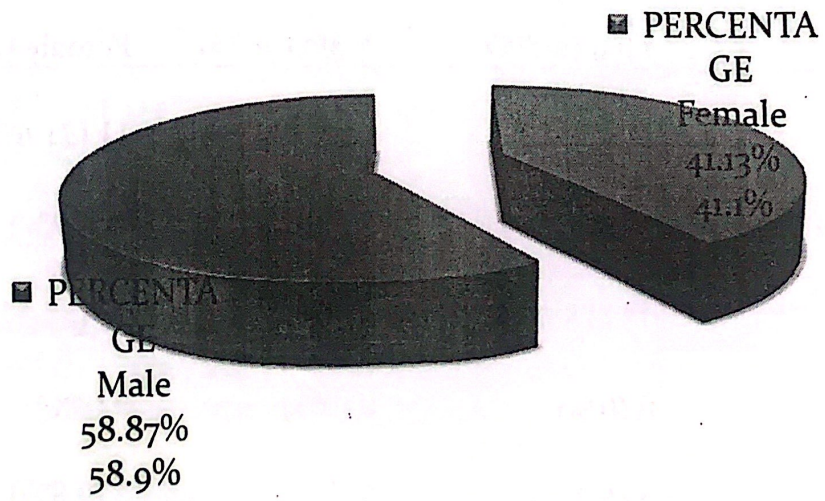


Figure 3: Distribution of Respondents by Gender (Bududuram Camp)

Table 2: Respondents' Experience of GBV (Bududuram Camp)

	Total (n=477)	Male (n=186)	Female (n=291)
Rape	154 (32.3%)	6 (3.2%)	148 (50.9%)
Attempted rape	18 (3.8%)	0 (0%)	74 (25.4%)
Sexual abuse	18 (3.8%)	0 (0%)	6 (2.1%)
Incest	6 (1.3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Forced prostitution	12 (2.5%)	12 (6.5%)	0 (0%)
Sexual harassment	24 (5%)	12 (6.5%)	91 (31.3%)
Female genital mutilation	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Early marriage	12 (2.5%)	6 (3.2%)	6 (2.1%)
Physical assault/abuse	48 (10.1%)	36 (19.4%)	12 (4.1%)
Financial abuse	24 (5%)	18 (9.7%)	6 (2.1%)
Confinement	24 (5%)	18 (9.7%)	6 (2.1%)
Discrimination, Denial of opportunities	36 (7.5%)	30 (16.1%)	6 (2.1%)
Denial of education	30 (6.3%)	18 (9.7%)	12 (4.1%)
Others	36 (7.5%)	18 (9.7%)	18 (6.2%)

Source: Author's field work, 2012

Findings

The findings of this research were that, despite the fact that African countries were parties and signatories to international laws, conventions and regulations protecting the rights of the refugees, there is no adequate protection for refugees residing in camps. Rather, what we have in refugee camps are people, especially women and girls, who are vulnerable to rape, sexual abuse, forced prostitution, poverty, domestic violence, incest, poor health and nutrition, discrimination, harmful traditional practices, among others – exposing them to second degree of insecurity.

Oru Camp

In Oru camp, Nigeria, out of the 75 refugees who had experienced GBV, 51 of them were female (68%), while only 24 were male (32%). In Bududuram camp, Ghana, out of the 477 refugees who had experienced GBV, 291 (61%) of them were female while 186 (39%) were male. Cumulatively, in both camps, 62% of female had experienced GBV as opposed to 38% male. The finding therefor shows that females are more susceptible to GBV in refugee camps.

Also, the study found out that in both Oru and Bududuram refugee camps, gender sensitivity was weak. In Oru, food rationing was collected by anybody instead of women,

though separate latrines were provided for men and women, they are poorly lit and located in the bush. This could pose a threat to the women's health and security challenges. Women participation in decision making in the camp was ratio 4:10, while only 1 out of every 4 security personnel was a woman. In Buduburam, women do not have safe and secure access to facilities; no separate latrines for men and women; no separate accommodation for unaccompanied children- boys and girls; only 15 out of 55 (about 25%)of the security personnel in the "watch team" were female.

Multidimensional GBV Against Female Refugees in Africa

According to Vann (2002), while men and women can be victims of GBV, women and girls are disproportionately affected. Carpenter (2006) opined that the three specific forms of gender-based violence faced by men in conflict situations are sex-selective massacre, forced conscription, and sexual violence. Others are GBV against "lost boys", the orphaned or separated child soldiers (Pittaway & Bartolomei, 2005). The types of GBV faced by women according to Vann (2002) include: sexual violence, intimate partner or spousal abuse (domestic violence), emotional and psychological abuse, sex trafficking, forced prostitution, sexual exploitation, sexual harassment, harmful traditional practices (e.g. female genital mutilation (FGM), forced marriage, infanticide (of girl children) and discriminatory practices based on gender. In addition to these, Vann (2002) reported that certain categories of women and girls are particularly at risk of GBV, such as single heads of households and/or without family support, unaccompanied girls, girls in foster families, girls in detention, girls associated with armed forces or groups, mentally and physically disabled girls, child mothers and children born out of rape. He noted that, most cases of gender-based violence involve a female survivor and a male perpetrators. The majority of acts of gender-based violence against boys and men are also committed by male perpetrators. Thus, some of this GBV faced by female refugees in Africa are discussed below:

Rape and Sexual Violence

Solveig, (1993) defined rape as any "unwanted, non-consensual, manipulated or coerced forms of sexual activity". Facts on Rape (2002) explained that rape has been used as a weapon in war, in racial violence and in everyday life. Rape diminishes a person's dignity and their human rights to safety, choice and consent. It has been found that, insecurity and lack of safety in refugee camps account for most incidence of rape and sexual violence. According to Pittaway (2004), in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya, the lack of safety in the camp, particularly for women and girls, is an issue for major concern. The incidence of rape and sexual violence is extremely high and domestic violence is commonplace. He noted that women are frequently raped and sexually mutilated by gangs of men. Women who are raped by rival groups, especially those who give birth to babies, are stigmatized and harassed.

Also, in a 1994 survey of 205 Liberian women and children between 15 and 70 years of Age (Hynes & Cardozo,

2000) found that 49% had experienced at least one incidence of physical or sexual abuse at the hands of Liberian soldiers during the 1989-1997 civil war. Similarly, during the mass genocide and unrest in Rwanda in 1994-1995, Rwanda government and United Nations Special Representative estimate of the number of rapes ranging between 15,700 and 250,000-500,000 respectively; while according to a survey by the International Rescue Committee (1996), twenty-seven percent (27%) of the 3803 refugees in Kanembwa camp in Burundi experienced sexual violence since becoming a refugee.

Poverty and Poor Nutrition

Displacement is the primary cause of poverty in the camp. Women have lost their homes and work and are subjected to second degree of poverty by the deplorable situations in Refugee camps in Africa, where there is lack of food, congested shelter, lack of clothing, inadequate household items, low education of women among other things. El-Bushra and Fish, (2004) reported that, IDPs and refugees have usually been torn from their established environment and their economic resources. As a result they have lost their livelihoods and the means of generating an independent income, explaining that, conditions in camps are often overcrowded, leading to public health problems and a lack of privacy. Palinkas (2003) highlighted the prominence of depression among refugees by reporting the effect of depression on attention, cognitive processing, short-term memory, vigilance and poor nutrition. Also, taking into account the inability of women to access their gardens to compliment their food requirement, most families depend on only the humanitarian organizations such as World Food Programme (WFP) to provide food. For example in Kitgum District in Uganda, in September 2003, World Food Programme (WFP) provided food for 1,683 lactating, caregivers and expecting females who were suffering from severe and moderate malnutrition. This has a grave impact on women's ability to care for their children let alone themselves.

According to Pavlish (2007), among the Congolese refugees in Rwanda, poverty seemed to negatively influence marriage relationship. She said some women 'do sex' with other men to buy clothes so they can keep their husband. Poverty forced others into prostitution in order to procure money for their children's needs.

Forced prostitution

Forced prostitution, also known as involuntary prostitution, is prostitution or sexual slavery that takes place as a result of coercion by a third party. The terms ''forced prostitution'' or ''enforced prostitution'' refer to conditions of control over a person who is coerced by another to engage in sexual activity'. It applies to those women and girls who ''voluntarily'' choose to be trafficked and to prostitute themselves out of economic necessity with men in host community or with officials in the camp. In Bududuram refugee camp Ghana, some women are engaged in forced prostitution to make ends meet.

Poor Health

Pavlish's study (2007) on women experiences in Rwandan camp indicated that social and cultural structures such as gender roles and relationship, strongly influenced women's health and well-being. Some of their experiences include poverty because they have little education or skills training, lack of freedom in expressing themselves, especially in relationship with their husbands, frequent episodes of sexually transmitted infections and partner-related sexual violence, frequent pregnancies, the burden of unbalanced work (the women were expected to provide all food, water and clothing for the family and maintain the health of all family members).

Incest

Incest means sexual relations between relatives who are forbidden by law to marry; for example, between father and daughter or mother and son. This is common in war situations where militants force fathers to have sex with their daughters and vice versa. In Oru refugee camp Nigeria, a refugee woman suffer hemorrhage till date (February, 2012) as result of implications of incest.

Domestic Violence

Vann (2002) defined domestic violence as a pattern of behavior characterized by the misuse of power and control by one person over another who are or have been in an intimate relationship. Forms of domestic violence include physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, economic abuse, and verbal abuse. Population-based surveys have found that between 10-70% of women are being physically assaulted by an intimate make partner at some point in their lives (Heise, et al 1999). Mabuwa, (2000) in a Human Rights Watch reported that Burundian refugee women confront daily violence in Tanzanian refugee camps. Having fled the internal conflict in their home country, they expected to find safety and protection in the refugee camps. They rather escaped one type of violence in Burundi to face other forms of abuse in the refugee camps in Tanzania with ample evidence that women's lives were in danger in their homes and in the general camp community.

Discrimination

Discrimination is the unjust or prejudicial treatment of different categories of people, especially on the grounds of race, age, or sex; while Gender Discrimination is discrimination based on gender, especially discrimination against women. Mateo (2013) described it as any unequal treatment based on gender. It include any situation where a person shows a prejudice towards another that would not occur had they been the opposite sex. According to El-Bushra and Fish (2004), resettlement policies actively discriminate against women on grounds of both race and gender. As a result many women lack their own identification papers, as documentation is often issued to male household and this hinders free movement for refugee women.

Pittaway & Bartolomei (2005) noted that Refugee women, like many migrant workers, are frequently treated as second-class citizen in their countries of destination. They are discriminated

against in terms of wages, job security, working conditions, job-related training, and the right to unionize. They are also subjected to physical and sexual abuse. When illegally employed, they have no access to labour laws. They are not given equal access to the law, nor are they treated equally under the law. Their employment opportunities are limited largely to domestic work or the sex industry, where their right to work, freedom of movement, reproductive rights, right to acquire, change, or retain their nationality, right to health and other basic human rights are violated. The result is that refugee women and their families are more vulnerable to religious, racial, and gender discrimination and exploitation.

Harmful traditional practices

El-Bushra and Fish (2004), reported that an additional area of concern relating to gender-based violence is female genital mutilation (FGM), which 130 million women and girls are estimated to have undergone worldwide, and which may be revived among displaced communities as they try to reassert their cultural identity. They cited the example of Sierra Leonean secret societies, into which women are initiated through FGM, which reappeared among refugees in Liberia, resulting in some women who had spoken out against the practice being afraid to return home.

Agenda for Action

Flowing from the highlighted GBV being experienced by refugees in Africa (especially women), it is important to put in place an agenda by the government and relevant authorities, to pursue an action that will alleviate the sufferings of camp residents, following examples from different programmes that have helped in the management of refugees in other camps in Africa. To start with, in order to reduce the effects of suffering in camp, it has been reported that UN and some international NGOs give welfare support to refugees, especially women, to improve their standard of living. For example Turner & Simon (2000) reported that in Tanzania, UNHCR invited women to form their own committees or participate in mixed committees in order to facilitate communication between camp authorities and grassroots women. The women then organized to ensure vulnerable neighbours (e.g the elderly, pregnant women and separated children) were linked to programmes run by international agencies.

Kagwanja (2000) examined Kenya camps (1992-93) and noted that in response to mounting pressure, especially from human rights organization, the government and UNHCR introduced measures to end violence and restore security in camps. He said that in support of sexually assaulted women, UNHCR established the Women Victims of Violence Programme, created the posts of Senior Coordinator and Regional Coordinator on Women Affairs plus a Rape Counselor, and contracted the Kenyan chapter of International Federation Women Lawyers (FIDA) to provide legal services to women survivors of rape. In the same vein, UNHCR under much pressure from the refugees themselves and after the intervention of

human rights groups, including Human Rights Watch and receipt of special funds from a U.S.-based philanthropic organization in October 1998 to support programs to combat violence against refugee women, initiated programmes in the Tanzanian camps which among other things, raise community awareness about sexual and other gender-based violence and provide counseling for victims of sexual and domestic violence (Mabuwa, 2000).

Also, the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children (the Women's Commission) works to improve the lives and defend the rights of refugee and internally displaced women, children and adolescents. Its activities include advocating for their inclusion and participation in humanitarian assistance and protection programmes; providing technical expertise and policy advice to donors and organizations that work with refugees and the displaced.

El-Bushra and Fish (2004) reported that, UNICEF, provides important support to children in war-affected contexts, including protection, support to schools and out- of-school activities. On its part, the World Food Programme (WFP) specifically targets women to ensure equal access to food, in the belief that women are the first and fastest solution to alleviating hunger and poverty. WFP's experience is that food placed under women's management reaches children more efficiently and frequently.

Conclusions

In view of the discussion above, this paper conclude that there are many causes of conflicts in Africa which lead to displacement of huge population to camps. Although both men and women are susceptible to GBV, women are more vulnerable to GBV in refugee camps than men; and that the qualities of preventive, protective and punitive measure put in place in camps are ineffective, as UNHCR guidelines are not fully implemented, while international instruments are not complied with. Furthermore, the management of refugee camps are not gender sensitive; and lack of necessary welfare provision and economic empowerment in refugee camps have made women vulnerable to GBV.

Recommendations

This study recommends that there is a need to have an agenda for action by the UN and other relevant agencies to curtail the multi-dimensional GBV against camp residents, especially female refugees. To achieve this, camp Managers must give women refugees opportunity to participate in the management and implementation of assistance programmes in the camp up to 50% involvement recommended by UNHCR. This will put women in vantage position to cater for themselves. Similarly, host governments must be proactive in assessing the protection needs of refugee women from the very start of refugee emergencies, they should not wait until the problems reach crisis level like it happened in Tanzania, when refugee women gave pressure to UNHCR and government before solution was sought.

Also, there must be advocacy and sensitization of refugees especially in the camps, about the existence of the international agreements and procedure of obtaining redress by survivors. The

dissemination of information to refugees and IDPs should include information about the rights and opportunities available for work, access to services and social or legal support. There should be consideration on how to advocate with government and other assistance providers to address women refugees needs as in Tanzania.

Moreover, African countries that are signatories to international agreements should domesticate, implement and respect the provisions of the agreements in their respective territories, especially as they relate to protection of refugees. In addition, the United Nations should give teeth to the conventions to bite violators, by attaching penalties against non-compliance, and ensure punishment of violators; this will serve as deterrence. The signatory states to 1951 Refugees Convention are also obliged to ensure that its national laws and courts are accessible to refugees and to comply with international legal obligations to guarantee women to receive equal protection under the law by, among other things, ensuring that police and court officials investigate, prosecute, and punish perpetrators of domestic and sexual violence against refugee women (Mabuwa, 2000).

Further, the UN should set up a monitoring authority to ensure implementation of these agreements in affected domains, this will serve as enforcement mechanism to make international compliance. Also, as part of response mechanism to GBV survivors, police station and court where incidences of GBV can be reported to should be established, so that perpetrators of GBV can be given adequate punishment for their actions. In addition, UNHCR should ensure that its own guidelines and policies on protecting refugee women from violence are fully implemented and to adopt and implement a policy advising staff on how to intervene in cases of domestic violence; while national governments are to ensure that police adequately investigate and prosecute crimes of sexual and domestic violence against refugee women and to discipline police and judicial officials who fail to do so.

Above all, international Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs), should support refugees by coordinating refugee women for economic and social empowerment and other benefiting projects. This will reduce the vulnerability of refugee women and make them equipped to pursue their protection rights. Similarly, provision of welfare items to the refugees and other welfare services on the camp by NGOs will also help.

Finally, Legal Practitioners and Human Rights Activists should come to the aid of Refugees by advocating implementation of these international agreements and assisting Refugees on pro bono basis to pursue their rights, similar to what FIDA did in Kenya refugee camps.

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