

Gender and **Forced Displacement** in Cities



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Gender and Forced Displacement in Cities

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Executive Summary



Conflict-induced forced displacement is at the highest level ever recorded, presenting a massive development challenge for the cities that host displaced people. In 2022 – the latest year for which data is available – there were 108.4 million forcibly displaced people in the world, 62.5 million who are internally displaced and 43.3 million children in need of education and special protection (UNHCR, 2023b).¹ This number has almost certainly increased in the face of new global conflicts such as Sudan. Three out of four refugees are hosted in developing countries, placing a strain on already limited infrastructure and resources. This surge in conflict-induced forced displacement is compounded by global climate change, as cities around the world also cope with rising temperatures and increased droughts and flooding. Forced displacement and climate change compound development challenges already present in urban areas around the world, heightening the need for targeted development approaches. Addressing the specific needs of displaced women and girls in urban areas is an imperative to ensure that no one is left behind.

A growing number of forcibly displaced people live in urban areas, and they are disproportionately female. In 2021, women and children accounted for 80 percent of new internally displaced people (IDMC, 2022: 71). In 2022, the advent of the war in Ukraine forced millions of women and children out of the country; 86 percent of Ukrainian refugees are women and children and 78 percent have been separated from immediate family members (World Bank, 2023c: 208). In urban areas, displaced people are dispersed throughout the host city, often living in informal settlements, peri-urban areas, or floodplains. This dispersion presents a challenge in reaching these communities to provide basic services. Given the increasingly prolonged period of displacement, addressing the needs of displaced women and girls involves both 1) providing safety and security; and 2) utilizing a development approach in the communities where they reside.

The People-in-Place Approach identifies important gender gaps in cities and towns impacted by forced displacement. The approach combines the “*people-based*” approach, which focuses on the status and needs of displaced women and girls, with the “*place-based*” approach, which emphasizes the needs of communities, municipalities, and institutions that host them. Challenges across five areas have been identified as crucial for cities and towns impacted by forced displacement; intervening in these is key to the People-in-Place Approach. The five areas include:

(i) spatial (challenges related to urban morphology); (ii) physical (challenges related to land, housing, infrastructure, and services); (iii) social (challenges related to social cohesion and personal security); (iv) economic (challenges related to jobs, livelihoods, and economic growth); and (v) institutional (challenges related to institutional arrangements, financing and capacity). Interventions under each area require prioritization based on local contexts (World Bank Group, 2021b).

An influx of displaced people into an urban area changes the morphology of the city and increases needs in terms of urban infrastructure, service provision, and transportation networks. A sudden increase in the population of a city can lead to the densification of buildings, an increase of informal settlements, and an expansion of the peri-urban area. Forced displacement increases the population of cities that may already be experiencing rapid urbanization, posing both security and development challenges for urban areas.

Gender-based violence (GBV) and intimate-partner violence (IPV) are pervasive in conflict and post-conflict settings. While 35 percent of women worldwide have experienced GBV, that rate doubles to 70 percent in certain crisis settings (Eapen & Kannan, 2022: 14). GBV “...inflicts immediate, long-lasting, and intergenerational harm to physical, mental and psychological well-being, reproductive health outcomes and educational attainment, and limits an individual’s full and effective participation in every sphere of life” (World Bank Group, 2023: 13). The threat of harassment and violence can lead to negative coping strategies such as child marriage, the exchange of sex for housing and services, and social isolation to reduce vulnerability.

Safe housing and public spaces are vital in protecting displaced women and girls from GBV. Displaced women and girls can face harassment and violence when accessing public spaces, particularly if they belong to a stigmatized group. They also face challenges in finding safe and affordable housing in urban areas. These challenges can be magnified by intersectionalities such as pregnancy, age, disability, and indigeneity. Conditions such as overcrowding or sharing spaces with unrelated people place women and girls at heightened risk of GBV. In many settings, female-headed households are more likely to face eviction or challenges in accessing formal housing arrangements. Housing for displaced women and girls is often located far from basic services such as schools and clinics, and food insecurity poses a persistent problem.

¹ Throughout this report the latest available data from UNHCR is used.

Humanitarian and development organizations should look for new partners to leverage funding in order to benefit both displaced and host community women and girls.

Displacement increases a women’s likelihood to pursue employment outside the home. This is often the result of shifting household compositions, as men may remain in home communities to protect property, fight, or work. Displaced women are likely to work in the informal sector in feminized occupations such as care work, cleaning, and hairdressing. Because they are often limited to informal jobs in low-skilled professions, they can compete with host community women for jobs, which can lead to issues of social cohesion.

Displaced women and girls frequently lack identity cards in their own name, proof of residency, citizenship, and/or legal status. Lack of documentation can be the result of theft, cultural practices that only recognize male heads of households, or loss of documents during displacement. Lack of documentation renders women vulnerable to harassment and abuse and limits employment opportunities and housing options.

Addressing the needs of women and girls in the context of urban forced displacement requires new methods of engagement and response. In urban areas, the immediate response to displacement crises should involve a strong humanitarian focus. For example, addressing the needs of displaced women and girls in cities requires an immediate emergency response aimed at providing shelter, protection, and basic services. In some cases, this humanitarian assistance will be needed for years. However, the longer-term impacts of such interventions on the city and its institutions should be considered from the beginning.

Humanitarian and development organizations should look for new partners to leverage funding in order to benefit both displaced and host community women and girls. Humanitarian organizations need to partner with national and local institutions, community-based organizations, and the private sector to develop comprehensive and location-based service provision for both displaced and host community women and girls. Development organizations need to be engaged in short-term humanitarian protection efforts that can contribute to the longer-term development of municipalities.

States and regional governments should coordinate services with municipal governments to ensure that women and girls have adequate protection, service access, documentation of their status, and political representation, where appropriate. An understanding of “who does what,” integrating local government responsibility and needs with those of the national government and international community, is key in designing effective interventions. At the national level, this means developing a clear set of roles and responsibilities for a coordinated response across ministries and different levels of government. States should also endeavor to eliminate gendered laws that discriminate against women on issues of citizenship, property ownership, and inheritance.











Local and municipal governments need to be legally, politically, and financially empowered to design locally tailored interventions for displaced women and girls. This involves identifying where they are located within a municipality and cooperating with regional and national governments. Urban areas should engage in planning for multiple future scenarios, including the long-term presence of refugees and displaced people. Municipal authorities should develop communication strategies to reach displaced women and girls with information, and invest in education and health services proximate to displaced populations.















Displaced women and girls are at the center of urban development challenges in many cities around the world. Gaps have been identified in information access, safe public spaces and transport networks, safe housing, education, access to work, healthcare, GBV response, and documentation of identity for displaced women and girls. Efforts to address these gaps can promote social inclusion, provide a foundation for urban peace and security, and ensure that the next generation of girls growing up in the context of urban displacement does not get left behind.

Table 1 below shows a list of possible phased interventions addressing the needs of displaced women and girls across the different dimensions.



Table 1: Possible Interventions Over Time

DIMENSION	GENDER GAPS	SHORT-TERM/EMERGENCY	MEDIUM TERM	LONG TERM
SPATIAL	<p>Women, girls, and other dependent children lack safe access to public spaces and transportation.</p> <p>Informal settlements with inadequate water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) facilities place a higher burden of care on women.</p>	<p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Instituting risk-identification and risk-mapping, neighborhood watch programs or security patrols</p> <p>Ensuring adequate multipurpose water and sanitation facilities with appropriate lighting for night-time safety</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Promoting sensitization campaigns targeting the right of women to safely use public transport</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Creating safe spaces for women</p> <p>Providing multipurpose water and sanitation facilities with appropriate lighting for night-time safety</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Hiring more female bus drivers and public transport workers</p> <p>Mandating gender sensitive training and capacity building for duty bearers in transport and public service sectors</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Building new transportation networks</p> <p>Creating new public services such as water and sewer lines</p> <p>Providing street/access lighting in informal communities</p> <p>Investing in parks and green spaces where women can be with children</p>
PHYSICAL	<p>Women lack access to information on service availability.</p> <p>Overcrowded and insecure housing renders women and girls vulnerable to GBV.</p> <p>Displaced women disproportionately face eviction.</p> <p>Displaced adolescent girls face difficulty accessing education and are at high risk of child marriage.</p> <p>Displaced women often have inadequate sexual, reproductive and mental healthcare.</p> <p>Food insecurity has a greater impact on pregnant and lactating women.</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Providing assistance in obtaining safe housing</p> <p>Providing cash transfers to help with housing, health services and food</p> <p>Ensuring women are named on leases</p> <p>Providing women and girls with information on the location of health clinics and services</p> <p>Providing women and girls who have been victims of GBV with access to trained and specialized service providers</p> <p>Including women in efforts to participatory assessments and project prioritization</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Providing legal aid, mediation, and education programming around housing rights</p> <p>Providing stipends for girls to attend schools</p> <p>Facilitating GBV prevention and response training for displaced and host communities</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Densification of housing</p> <p>Establishing and supporting mechanisms for gender-responsive property restitution, where appropriate</p> <p>Providing mobile clinics including reproductive health services</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Investing in physical and mental health services to address the needs of displaced women</p> <p>Providing vocational training programs</p> <p>Providing GBV prevention and response training for displaced and host communities</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Adding to overall housing stock</p> <p>Ensuring safe educational facilities for girls with appropriate toilet facilities</p> <p>Building new schools near where displaced people live</p> <p>Instituting tax incentives to landlords to rent to single women/female-headed households</p>

DIMENSION	GENDER GAPS	SHORT-TERM/EMERGENCY	MEDIUM TERM	LONG TERM
SOCIAL	<p>Women face time and movement challenges due to their care-giving responsibilities.</p> <p>Safety concerns, and specifically the threat of GBV, limit women's access to services.</p> <p>Displaced women are at increased risk of IPV.</p> <p>Displaced adolescent girls are at increased risk of child marriage and GBV.</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Providing cash transfers</p> <p>Systematizing and coordinating identification and referral processes that provide priority access for the most vulnerable groups to protection and services.</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Establishing women's committees to consult on services. Provide childcare to enable women to attend.</p> <p>Creating a mobile app and/or web portal that has georeferenced information on access to services and resources.</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Creating safe spaces for adolescent girls and women</p> <p>Remove legal and administrative barriers (such as proof of residency) preventing displaced women and girls from accessing services</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Establishing a 24-hour hotline and services for GBV</p> <p>Coordinating efforts of schools, clinics, civil society groups and law enforcement around the protection of women in urban areas</p> <p>Displacement management training for local governments and NGOs</p> <p>Protection programming for adolescent girls that targets male family members</p>
ECONOMIC	<p>Forced displacement increases multilocality of households and household composition.</p> <p>Displaced women are largely informally employed in low-skill professions and compete with host community women for low-skilled work at lower wages.</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Providing cash transfers</p> <p>Assisting in identifying employment opportunities</p> <p>Providing emergency cash for work programs</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Ensuring ability of women to have financial services in their own names</p> <p>Ensuring affordable childcare services to allow women to work</p> <p>Facilitating group placement of displaced women into employment opportunities</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Registering female informal workers with labor departments or relevant government agencies for social security and better wages, where applicable</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Providing technical (business development and vocational training opportunities for women</p> <p>Ensuring access to legal aid</p> <p>Targeting Woman-Owned Businesses in procurements for projects</p> <p>Encouraging hiring of female staff on projects in a variety of roles</p>
INSTITUTIONAL	<p>Lack of (separate) documentation for women prevents them from accessing services and formalization.</p> <p>Citizenship laws often do not allow women to transfer citizenship to their children.</p> <p>Property and inheritance laws often discriminate against women.</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Registering women as individuals not as family units</p> <p>Ensuring all women and girls have appropriate documentation such as identity papers, ID cards for refugees, IDPs, or stateless women</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Developing ways to communicate with IDPs to inform them of services and get their input on programs; social media applications such as Telegram or WhatsApp may be appropriate</p> <p>Coordinating response planning across levels of governance</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Encouraging NGOs to hire local and displaced women</p> <p>Creating of specialized task forces and efforts to address GBV</p> <p>Ensuring women's names are on leases</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Aligning IDP policy with local development plans</p> <p>Co-funding intergovernmental grants to states and municipalities with large numbers of displaced people</p> <p>Engaging in medium and long-term planning for multiple futures for IDPs in the municipality</p>	<p> PEOPLE BASED</p> <p>Ensuring women are named on property documentation</p> <p> PLACE BASED</p> <p>Supporting the reform of national laws and local policies provide gender equality</p> <p>Creating of IDP law, if none exists, articulating the responsibilities of local governments</p>

1. Introduction



Forced displacement is at the highest level ever recorded.

In 2022 – the latest year for which data is available – there were 108.4 million forcibly displaced people in the world, 62.5 million who are internally displaced and 43.3 million children in need of education and special protection (UNHCR, 2023b).² This surge in displacement occurs in the context of climate change and urbanization as cities around the world are coping with rising temperatures, growing populations, and an increase in both drought and flooding.

Forced displacement is an increasingly urban experience (World Bank Group, 2021b).

A growing number of forcibly displaced people live in urban areas. In 2021, only about 24 percent of refugees and less than one percent of internally displaced persons (IDPs) lived in managed camps or collective centers (World Bank Group, 2021b: 5). The number of refugees and displaced people who live in cities will continue to rise because of current conflicts. This new reality necessitates a massive shift in response requiring governments, donors, policymakers, and practitioners to develop new interventions and programming to meet the protection needs of displaced people in urban contexts. Because most refugee women and girls are in urban areas rather than camp settings, the burden of assisting them falls on states and municipalities (World Bank Group, 2021b). Displaced women and girls are often in cities with limited health and educational services. UNHCR, which would typically fund services in refugee camps, has a prohibition on funding parallel services for displaced people outside of camps (UNHCR, 2009). In practice this means that humanitarian actors will need to operate differently and broker new linkages with public and private partners across all sectors. Some states do not recognize displaced people living in urban areas as IDPs in need of specific protection, in spite of the fact that two out of three IDPs are in urban areas (UNHCR, 2022c:29).

Forced displacement is protracted. People remain in places of refuge for longer periods, often in situations of physical insecurity, limited political representation, and constrained economic opportunities (Joireman, 2022). The average time of displacement has been around 10 years, but for those in situations of protracted displacement (more than 5 years), the average duration of exile is over 20 years (Devictor & Do, 2017). Forced displacement can be understood as a state of being rather than a single experience, as many people fleeing conflict are displaced multiple times - by violence, crime, climate events, and eviction - as they try to find stable living conditions. The prolonged period of displacement in urban areas necessitates a development

response focused on building up the urban service infrastructure, housing stock, and institutional environment.

Forced displacement is predominantly female. Women, children, and older people make up a greater proportion of the urban displaced (Inter-Agency Standing Committee 2015). In 2021, women and children accounted for 80 percent of the newly displaced (IDMC, 2022: 71). In 2022, the advent of the war in Ukraine forced millions of women and children out of the country, while men were banned from leaving (The Economist, 2022). Currently, 86 percent of Ukrainian refugees are women and children and 78 percent have been separated from immediate family members (World Bank, 2023c: 208). Families also become separated in other contexts, as men sometimes stay home to protect property or become combatants in a conflict (Krystalli et al., 2018). In Baidoa, Somalia, there are approximately 600,000 displaced people, a disproportionate 57 percent of whom are women (UNHCR, 2022b). The disproportionate number of displaced women and girls in urban areas requires a greater focus on their needs and the protection gaps that exist.

The focus of this report is on conflict-induced forced displacement rather than displacement due to climate change or development. Sometimes these categories become blurred: in some urban settings, conflict-induced displacement is followed by subsequent displacements resulting from climate events or natural disasters. Urban centers around the world are coping with both sorts of displacement, a fact which highlights the usefulness of the People-in-Place Approach.

This report is targeted at development practitioners and partners working in countries with significant forcibly displaced populations. It is designed to assist them with deepening the gender component of urban programming by identifying gender gaps and noting interventions that have been effective in other settings. It is paired with a Guidance Note to assist teams in doing their own gender analysis of urban areas.

The World Bank Group Strategy for Fragility, Conflict and Violence 2020-2025 highlights the role of the World Bank in mitigating the spillover effects of conflict and violence, and strengthening resilience for the most vulnerable populations (World Bank Group, 2020). Addressing gender disparities is critical to the consolidation of peace and security. The 2024-2030 World Bank Group Gender Strategy commits to closing gender gaps in fragile and conflict-affected situations; this includes addressing women's

² Throughout this report the latest available data from UNHCR is used.

leadership, control over assets, access to employment, and social protection (World Bank Group, 2023). The 2021-2025 Climate Change Action Plan emphasizes the importance of disaster risk management in urban areas (World Bank Group, 2021a).

The overlapping crises of forced displacement and climate change demand an urgent response with particular attention to the needs of vulnerable women and girls (World Bank, 2022).

Climate-related migration to urban areas interacts and overlaps with conflict-induced forced migration. Climate change is a threat multiplier for people in situations of conflict-induced forced displacement. For example, over the past four decades, Pakistan has hosted over a million Afghan refugees who settled in cities and areas close to the Afghan border. Recent floods have forced many of those refugees to move from border areas (Afridi, 2022). Unchecked climate change is projected to push up to 130 million people into poverty over the next 10 years—unravelling hard-won development gains—and could cause over 200 million people to migrate within their own countries by 2050 (Nishio, 2021). Violence against women and girls increases during and after extreme weather events (Gennari et al., 2015; van Daalen et al., 2022) and during and after violent conflict (Holloway et al., 2019; Mootz et al., 2019).

There is limited data on forcibly displaced women and girls in urban settings and they do not all share the same needs.

Age, ethnicity, disability, and marital and parental status are important intersectionalities that lack comparative study and substantive data. It is known that these intersectionalities render women and girls more vulnerable to GBV and/or limit opportunities and survival strategies (R4V, 2021b; Ramnarain, 2016). Some of these intersectionalities, such as disability, are well-known to increase vulnerability and exclusion. Others, such as pregnancy and lactation, are understudied yet appear as risk factors in studies of eviction (R4V, 2020) and disaster-related GBV (World Bank, 2023b).

1.1 Methodology

Data informing this report was gathered through multiple methods. An extensive review of the literature on gender and urban forced displacement was conducted. This was augmented by a portfolio review of 22 World Bank Group projects between FY04 and FY23 that targeted forcibly displaced people and/or host communities as beneficiaries. Key informant interviews were conducted with 21 World Bank Group and partner organization staff members

(including the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). Two consultation workshops were held with World Bank staff working on gender, forced displacement, fragility, conflict and violence, and urban specializations. Five urban deep dives, or case studies, in cities around the world provided additional qualitative and spatial data. The cities - Baidoa, Somalia; Bangui, Central African Republic; Bogotá, Colombia; Cali, Colombia; and Karachi, Pakistan - all have significant populations of displaced people along with active World Bank projects. Local consultants were hired to conduct key informant interviews, lead focus group discussions with displaced women and host community members, collect spatial and other data where possible, and prepare findings.

1.2 Definitions

The term 'women' in this report encompasses all of those who identify as a woman or a girl. It does not mean 'women only' because it is inclusive of transgender women. This report uses Cislighi and Heise's definition of gender norms, as "...social norms defining acceptable and appropriate actions for women and men in a given group or society"(Cislighi & Heise, 2020: 415).

This report focuses on conflict-induced forced displacement. Forced displacement in general refers to people moving involuntarily because of violence, natural disasters, climate change, famine, and development projects. While the focus here is on conflict-induced forced displacement, there is some blurring of boundaries between different areas of forced displacement, particularly when it comes to forced displacement from climate change. Climate change can exacerbate the humanitarian impacts of displacement (Joireman & Haddad, 2023) and is a threat multiplier to the security of displaced women and girls in urban areas. Within cities, displaced people tend to cluster in areas most vulnerable to flooding and are often subject to secondary displacement from climate-related events.

This report addresses the situation of displaced women in urban settings regardless of their status as refugees or IDPs or their status as legally or illegally documented. The term 'refugee' refers to someone who has crossed an international border seeking protection based on the 1951 Refugee Convention. An IDP is someone who has been displaced within the borders of their own country and who has citizenship. The term 'displaced people' refers to both of these groups. Box 1 below details some of the pertinent differences between the two groups.

Box 1: IDPs vs. Refugees

While both IDPs and refugees are displaced people, there are key differences between the two groups in terms of:

- 1) legal status;
- 2) burden of responsibility for their protection; and
- 3) political rights.

Refugees are citizens of a different state who have explicit legal protection under the 1951 Refugee Convention and its 1967 Protocol. People with refugee status cannot be sent back to their country of origin until conditions improve. Implementing and overseeing the protection of refugees is the shared responsibility of host states and the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR). Refugees do not have the right to vote and do not have political representation within their host country.

IDPs are citizens of the state in which they are displaced. IDPs have no organization explicitly tasked with their protection. IDPs should have full political rights in terms of voting, documentation, and residence.

Refugees and IDPs have different legal status, different rights and different institutions responsible for their protection, yet sometimes these differences have no practical relevance.



2. Framework for Analysis: The People-in-Place Approach

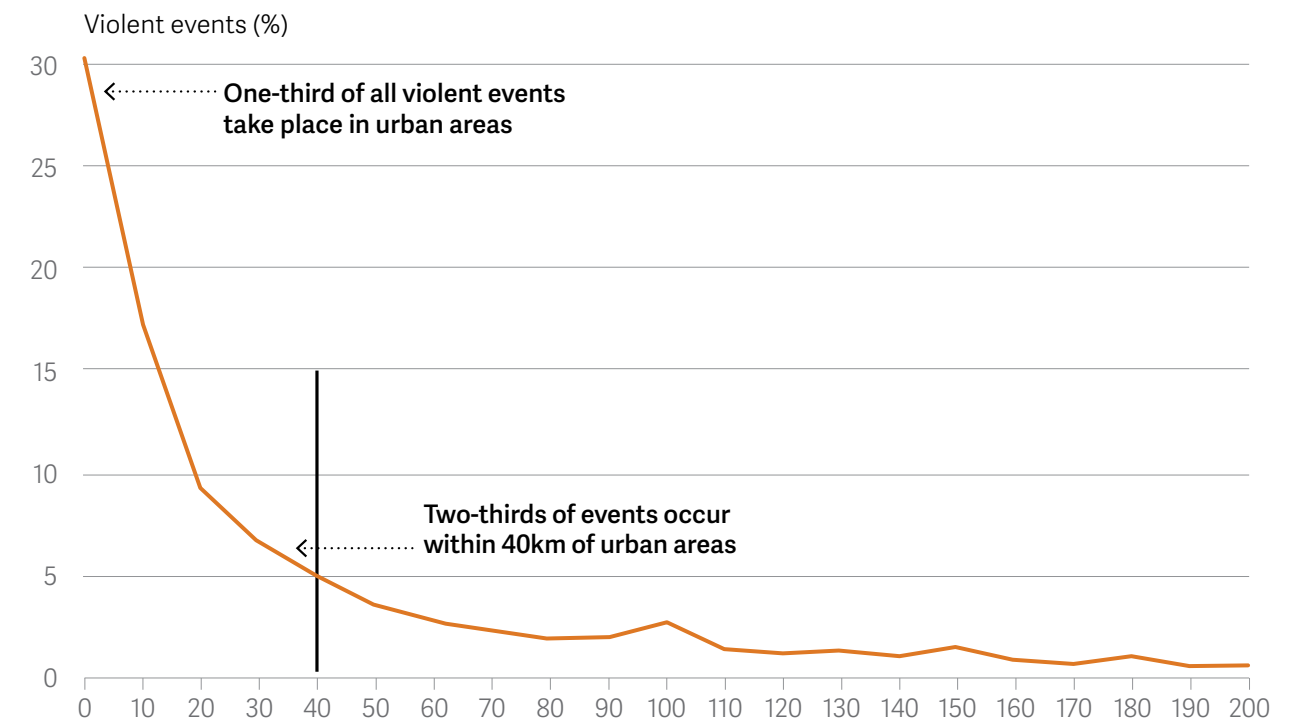


Cities are focal points of violent conflict as well as places of refuge. The recent war in Ukraine makes it clear that cities can be key battlefields in violent conflict. The Ukrainian cities of Mariupol and Kharkiv were the focal points of conflict in 2022 and 2023. Mogadishu, Somalia is another city that has been a place of frequent violence throughout the Somali civil war. A recent Organization of Economic Security and Development (OECD) study of violence in North and West Africa (see Figure 2) noted that though violence generally tends to be concentrated in rural areas, over half of all violent events in the past 22 years occurred within 10 km of a city, and violence is more frequent in cities of less than 100,000 residents (OECD/SWAC, 2023). Cities can face multiple, overlapping crises. The city of Bangui in the Central African Republic is a pertinent example: this city was a focal point of violence from 2012 to 2013, causing a massive movement of displaced people outside the city who then needed support and protection. As violence moderated and camps closed, displaced people moved to peri-urban areas around Bangui. In 2019 and 2022, the city experienced catastrophic flooding from climate change.

The People-in-Place Approach is used to address the analytical challenge of forced displacement in urban areas. Challenges across five areas have been identified as crucial for cities and towns impacted by forced displacement and intervening in these jointly is key to the People-in-Place Approach. The 5 areas include: (i) spatial (challenges related to urban morphology); (ii) physical (challenges related to land, housing, infrastructure and services); (iii) social (challenges related to social cohesion and personal security); (iv) economic (challenges related to jobs, livelihoods and economic growth); and (v) institutional (challenges related to institutional arrangements, financing and capacity). Interventions under each area require prioritization based on local contexts (World Bank Group, 2021b). The five areas are interrelated, so interventions should be integrated in order to generate greater overall benefit and reinforce outcomes.

The People-in-Place Approach allows for a joint focus on the needs of displaced women and girls in urban settings and the needs of the urban area: its physical and infrastructural capacities, property and labor markets, and host community needs. Using the People-

Figure 1 Violent Events by Distance from Urban Areas in North and West Africa, 2000-2022



(OECD/SWAC, 2023: 19)

in-Place Approach highlights the importance of municipal government service provision capacity, social inclusion, and partnership with humanitarian organizations and governance structures at every level. Local governments are involved in providing services related to the following issues to forcibly displaced women and girls: documentation, health services, education, development planning, land use and administration, and certain political rights, such as local elections and voter registration.


Hosts, internally displaced people, and refugees in urban areas live in close proximity. The services they use are typically those of existing or interconnected institutions and facilities. Using a people-based approach alone would disregard the impact of forcibly displaced people on the host community, city infrastructure and morphology, all issues which can impact social inclusion. Using a place-based approach alone would not address the significant needs of those forcibly displaced women and girls, who often already face asset losses and shifting household configurations due to conflict.

Programming should address the needs of both the host and displaced communities. Any assistance targeted exclusively at displaced people has the potential to exacerbate tensions between the displaced people and their host community (Landau, 2014), directly impacting social cohesion. The needs of these two groups often coincide, as both face challenges accessing jobs, safe housing, transportation, education, and medical services. This makes the People-in-Place Approach especially relevant in addressing urban forced displacement, as it equips the municipality to provide services that benefit both communities.

Any interventions designed to meet the needs of displaced women and girls should include them in their design and implementation. Increasing women’s leadership in projects is a necessary aspect of program design and leads to better outcomes. However, in many places women’s voice and agency are extremely limited by cultural gender norms. The experience of displacement can lead to a doubling down on traditional gender roles, particularly in settings where masculine identities are threatened by changing circumstances (International Rescue Committee, 2014; Sanyal, 2021; te Lintelo et al., 2018; Women’s Refugee Commission, 2016; World Bank Group, 2023).

The next section outlines how gender intersects with the People-in-Place approach, identifies gender gaps, and highlights areas where more information is necessary.

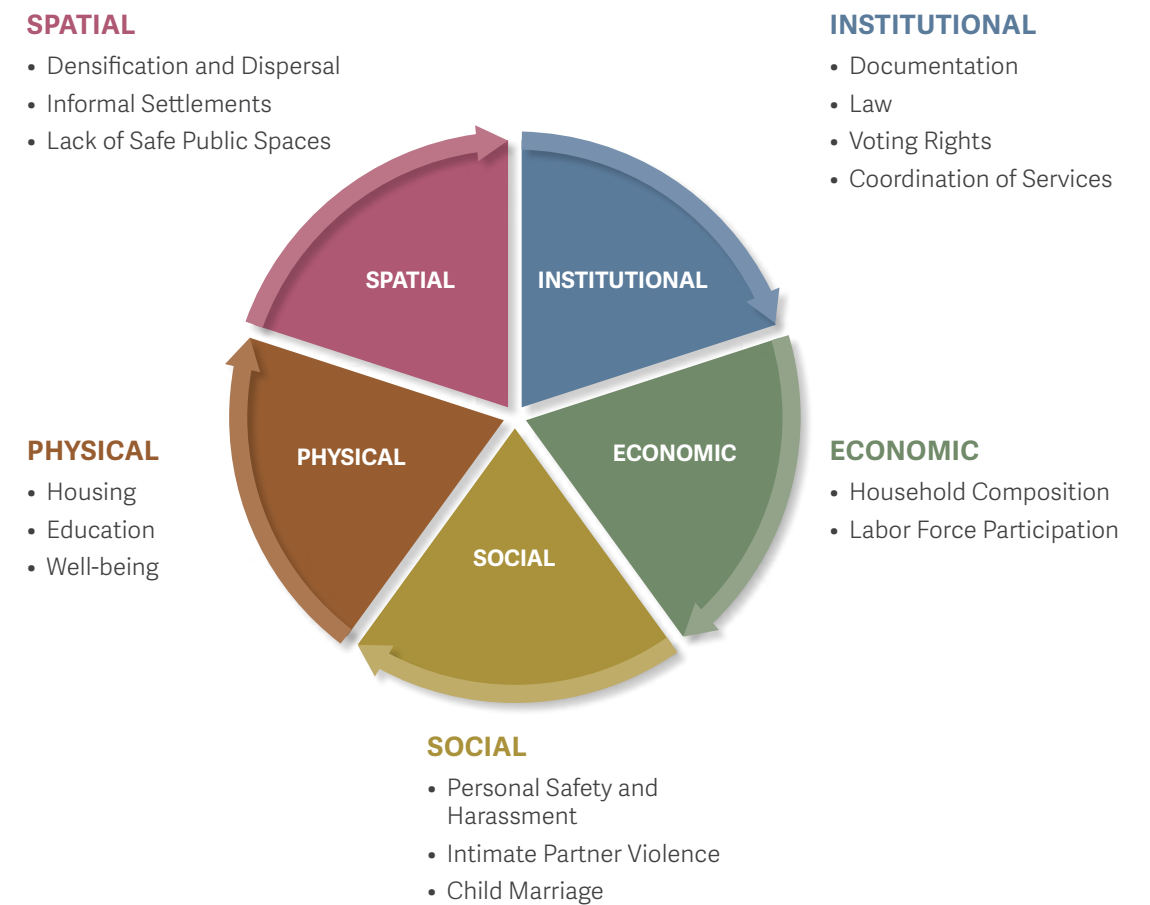
Figure 2 People-in-Place Approach



	People-Based Approach	Place-Based Approach	People-in-Place Approach
Focus	Focus on the needs of the people – usually the forcibly displaced.	Focus on places impacted by forced displacement, including on managing institutions. Leverages their existing systems and capacities.	Focus on both the people – i.e. forcibly displaced and hosts – and the places where they are located, and institutions managing place .
Interventions	Targeted interventions depending on the needs and vulnerability of different groups of people , including individuals and households, e.g. social safety net, livelihoods support, emergency service provision.	Targeted interventions on improving infrastructure, services, land management in places affected by the inflow, e.g. urban upgrading, network extensions/expansions. Targeted interventions on institutions that manage places , e.g. capacity building, planning, procurement, financial management (FM).	Targeted interventions for vulnerable people regardless of status in the place where they are located, e.g. safety nets, livelihoods support, coupled with provision of services in places to the vulnerable, and extension of services across city. Target interventions to institutions managing places , e.g. capacity, planning, procurement.
Suitable Context	Support for displaced in camps. “Place” or “Space” blind. Relies on status identification & monitoring. Benefits/interventions move with people.	Support for cities, towns, districts that host the displaced. Interventions are “status blind” in that they benefit all people who live in an affected area regardless of whether they are FD or hosts. Benefits/interventions fixed in place.	Support for the displaced, host communities, and institutions in cities/towns. Accepts “status” but extends benefits to “vulnerable hosts” and also to place .

World Bank Group, 2021b

Figure 3 Gender Gaps Across the Five Dimensions



3. Spatial Challenges:

Informal settlements and unsafe public spaces put women and girls at risk



Gender gaps – spatial

- Women, girls, and other dependent children lack safe access to public spaces and transportation.
- Life in informal settlements with inadequate WASH facilities places a higher burden of care on women.

3.1 Densification and dispersal

Displaced people in urban settings are frequently dispersed across a variety of informal settlements, often taking the least expensive housing they can find and increasing the densification of these settlements. This dispersion presents a challenge when reaching these communities to provide based services. While the invisibility of displaced people within an urban area can promote anonymity, the dispersal of displaced women and girls within a city makes it difficult to assess and address their needs. Displaced women and girls typically have limited assets and income, driving them to seek the least expensive housing available; this is often in areas with poor services and high crime rates.

A lack of adequate and inexpensive housing can force displaced women and girls to live in informal settlements within cities, often in floodplains, swamps, slums, or in peri-urban areas (Angoua et al., 2018; Crisp et al., 2012; IDMC, 2018; Lyytinen & Kullenberg, 2013; te Lintelo et al., 2018). Living in previously unsettled peri-urban areas means limited access to WASH resources (UNICEF, 2019), which significantly impacts the health of women and girls (Corburn & Hildebrand, 2015). Shelters without appropriate sanitation or those located in swamp areas or flood plains have heightened risk of illness, particularly in children, thus increasing women's caregiving responsibilities (UNICEF, 2019). Drought and conflict drove an influx of IDPs into Baidoa, Somalia, which resulted in informal settlements with limited access to WASH resources; this led to disease outbreak (Watlin, 2020). Informal settlements are also at greater risk of climate-related events such as flooding because of a lack of planned drainage, access roads, and public sewer facilities.

“The green areas of the neighborhoods are not safe, we cannot enjoy these areas because of the confrontations between gangs and because they are drug consumption areas.”

Cali Focus Group Discussion Participant

Figures 4 and 5 below show the distribution of displaced people in two cities: Cali, Colombia and Baidoa, Somalia.

The figures show displaced people concentrated in neighborhoods within the city and in peri-urban areas on the outskirts of city boundaries, where city services are limited. In both cases, the dispersal of displaced populations across the cities is evident. Addressing the needs of displaced women and girls requires knowing where they are located within the city.

Figure 4: Distribution of Displaced People in Cali, Colombia

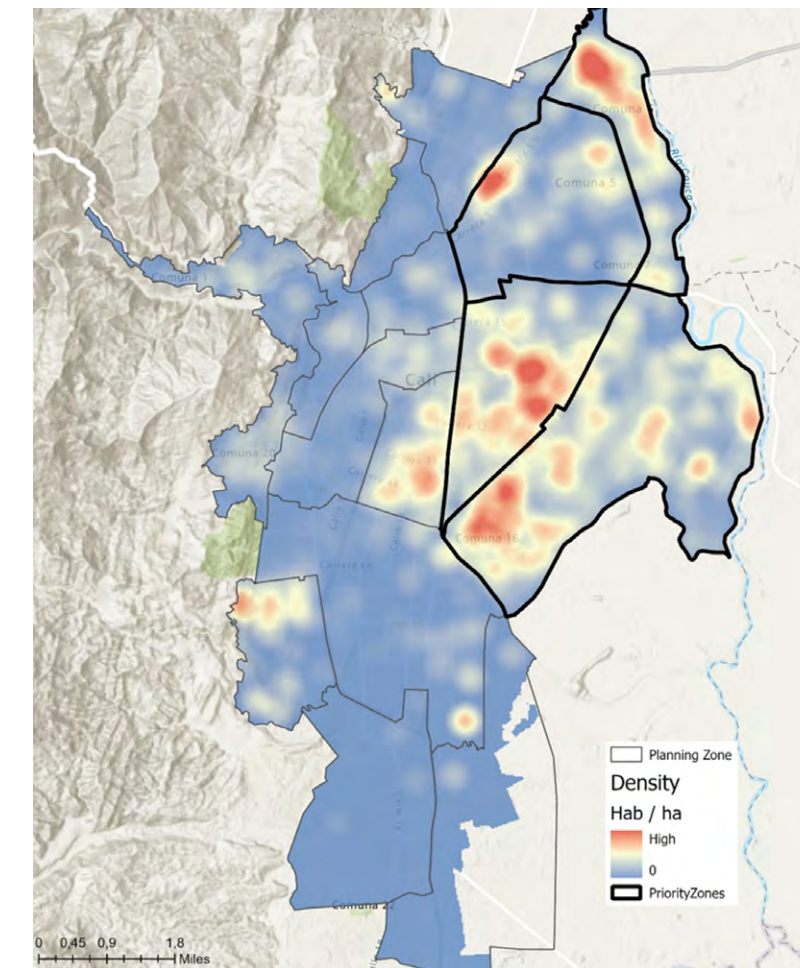
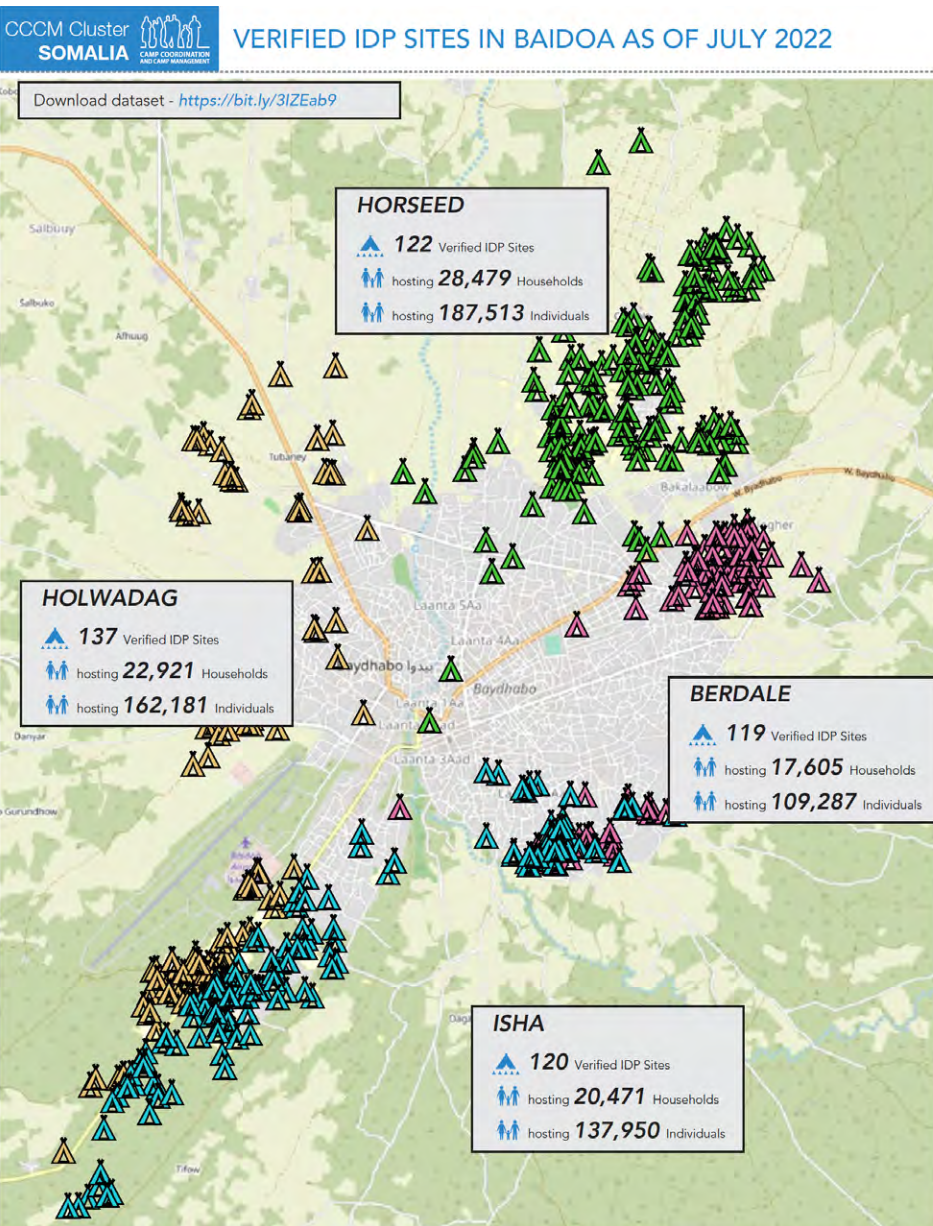


Figure 5: Distribution of Displaced People in Baidoa, Somalia



Map of verified IDP sites in Baidoa - July 2022

In Bangui, Central African Republic, displaced people are concentrated in the peri-urban areas. Violence in 2012 and 2013 led to internal displacement of people into camps. As those camps closed, people moved into the peri-urban area of the city, where city officials estimate that 80 percent of displaced people now live. These peri-urban areas have inexpensive housing but few water points or schools, no waste removal or clinics, and poor access to electricity. In Bangui, these areas were subsequently affected by catastrophic flooding, displacing people again. In Baidoa, Somalia, Bangui, Central African Republic, and Karachi, Pakistan, conflict and climate change are compounded, exacerbating development challenges and heightening the security needs of displaced people. Both flooding and extended droughts have a greater impact on women (Mueller, 2019).

In Baidoa, Somalia, IDP camps are scattered throughout the city and clustered in unplanned peri-urban areas with limited access to water and sanitation resources. Displaced women and girls in Somalia are vulnerable when engaging in necessary domestic chores such as collecting firewood for cooking or water from distant boreholes (IOM, 2022b). Moreover, women in focus group discussions in Baidoa indicated that informal settlements led to the spread of diseases, some of which they were unfamiliar with since they were coming from rural areas with low population density.

3.2 Lack of safe public spaces for displaced women and girls

Displaced women and girls frequently lack safe access to public parks, transport networks, and leisure areas. The cost of travel and the lack of safe public areas may also be a barrier to the mobility of women and girls within their communities, limiting leisure spaces and opportunities for socializing, relaxation and exercise (Linn, 2020). A study of public transportation in India noted that women use public transport more than men and the percentage of women using public transport increases among lower income groups (World Bank Group, 2022: 18).

Public transportation, markets and other public spaces can be threatening environments for displaced women due to risk of harassment or violence. Women and girls living in peri-urban areas face challenges finding safe transportation to and from work and accessing services that are more centrally located (te Lintelo et al., 2018). There is evidence that women will sometimes isolate themselves at home rather than venture out into public spaces where they feel unsafe (Guay, 2015; Krause-Vilmar & Chaffin, 2011; te Lintelo et al., 2018; World Bank Group, 2022). In Karachi, women in focus group discussions reported never going outside

for recreational activities because of a lack of security. Female Afghan refugees in Karachi practicing purdah rarely leave home and never without a male family member. In these communities, girls are forced to stay home when they reach 12 or 13 years old. In focus group discussions in Baidoa, women requested street lighting in and around the IDP settlements for safety.

3.3 Addressing the Challenges

Women and girls need safe spaces outside their homes where they can connect with one another and access services. Creating safe spaces with childcare for displaced women and girls offers them a chance to connect with one another, share information, and conduct important business, such as picking up cash transfers. This can assist them in re-establishing their social networks and offer respite from social isolation (Anderson, 2019; Simon, 2018; Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2006). Safe spaces can help adolescent girls build social capital which is critical for reducing their vulnerability to GBV (Pearce, 2014: 11). A focus group of displaced women in Karachi specifically requested a center just for women with a safe, home-like environment where they could work; this would allow them the opportunity to be somewhere other than their homes.

Community-based risk identification is a strategy to identify challenges and culturally appropriate solutions for displaced women and girls (Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2006). In Ecuador, UN Women created "Safe Cities" and "Safe Transport" initiatives to map safe neighborhoods and transportation routes in Quito (Women's Refugee Commission, 2016). While this project was not specifically targeted at displaced women, similar efforts could easily incorporate their input and begin to address their needs for safe transportation. Safety audits

of public spaces and public transportation should include and benefit host community women and girls as well as those who are displaced.

Safely accessible WASH facilities are important for both the health and safety of displaced women and girls. A project at a refugee camp in Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh, initiated in 2018 by the International Rescue Committee (IRC) and Columbia University's Mailman School of Public Health (CU MSPH), pioneered multipurpose sanitation facilities. These facilities combined toilets, menstrual waste disposal, showers, and laundry facilities all in one space near a protection facility. This arrangement provided women with privacy, convenience, and the opportunity for social interaction while doing their laundry (Schmitt et al., 2021).

Creating safe public spaces for women and girls as well as safe transportation networks and sanitation facilities are all place-based interventions. These are reinforced by people-based interventions, such as instituting sensitization campaigns on women's right to safely use public transportation, or hiring more female public transit workers. A combination of both kinds of interventions will augment women's safety and well-being and make the city more accessible to them.

Displaced women and girls arriving in a new urban area have an immediate and ongoing need for information about available public services. An inability to access this information, which can be exacerbated by literacy gaps and language differences, translates into inaccessible services even where they are available (International Rescue Committee, 2012; Sphere, 2018). As an example, in a 2018 survey, 68 percent of surveyed Syrian women refugees in Türkiye did not know about free legal counseling, 59 percent were unaware of psychosocial support, and 57 percent were unaware of childcare services (UN Women, 2018: 8).

Promising Practice: Care Spaces in Bogotá, Colombia

In Bogotá, the Mayor's Office has implemented 15 care spaces targeting women who provide care to family members. Women are given options to rest or take part in trainings while the employees take care of their dependents, typically children, people with disabilities, or the elderly. Local government entities are present to share information about the services available in employment, entrepreneurship, education, and culture, among others (Castro & Henao, 2023).



Photo: The City of Bogotá Website

4. Physical: Knowledge of and access to basic services is a pressing need



Gender gaps – physical

- Women lack access to information on service availability.
- Overcrowded and insecure housing renders women and girls vulnerable to GBV.
- Displaced women disproportionately face eviction.
- Displaced adolescent girls face difficulty accessing education and are at high risk of child marriage.
- There is a lack of adequate sexual and reproductive healthcare.
- There is a lack of adequate trauma-sensitive mental health care.
- Food insecurity has a greater impact on pregnant and lactating women.

4.1 Housing

Expensive, overcrowded, and insecure housing is a safety threat for displaced women and girls. It is not unusual for them to find shelter in places not meant for housing, such as abandoned public buildings or warehouses, or to share rooms and dwellings with a large number of family members. Shared or inadequate kitchens and toilet facilities can cause difficulties for women and adolescent girls, limiting their privacy and dignity. It can also make them vulnerable to crime including GBV.

Finding adequate housing can be a tremendous challenge to displaced women in urban areas. They face discrimination based on their status and gender as well as excessively high barriers to entering the housing market. In Ecuador, a survey of displaced Colombian women noted that 80 percent of them faced difficulties in accessing housing, citing their nationality as the reason for this difficulty (Illescas & Mancheno, 2014). Similarly, the Norwegian Refugee Council found that female Colombian refugees in Ecuador were frequently asked to pay higher rent than Ecuadorians, were required to pay up to three months of rent in advance in order to secure an apartment, and were rented to without the protection of formal leases (Illescas & Mancheno, 2014: 15).

Overcrowded and poor-quality housing are risk factors for GBV, making the condition of housing a significant security concern. Focus group discussions in Bogotá, Colombia identified that displaced women sought out informal settlements with a lack of services where they could afford the rent. In some of these communities, women reported having ‘per diem’ housing, in which they would rent a room for their families in shared housing

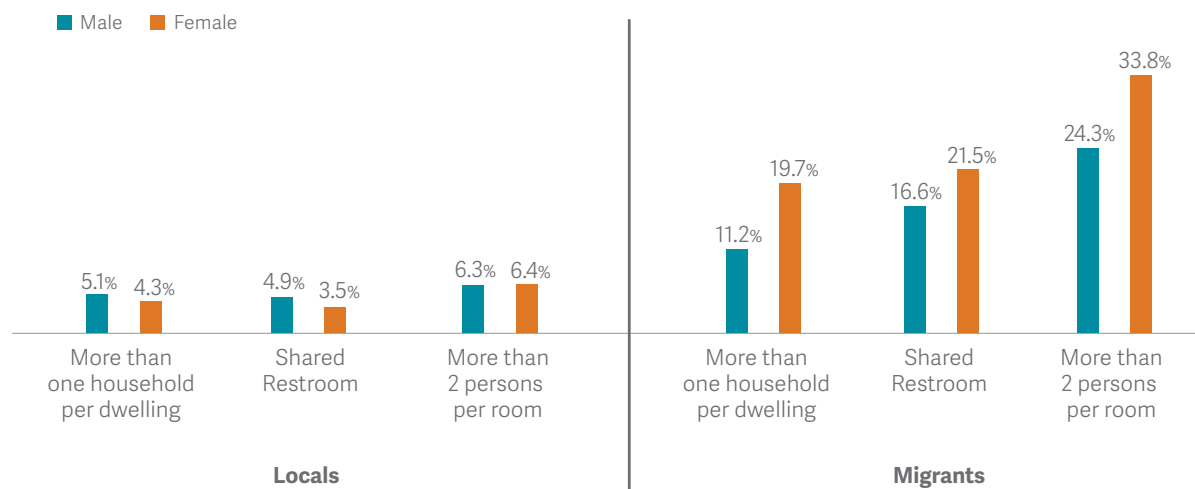
that would be paid for on a daily rather than monthly basis. According to the Colombian organization Sisma Mujer, 62 percent of sexual violence against migrant and refugee women took place *in their homes* by an unknown aggressor (Manjarrez & Palacio Puerta, 2021: 15). Inexpensive housing is often available in areas with high rates of crime, putting women and girls at risk.

Displaced women who secure housing in an urban area are more likely to face eviction. This is the case across multiple countries and regions (Davis et al., 2019; IDMC, 2015; Syn, 2016). The vulnerability of women can be extreme: during the COVID pandemic a survey of displaced Venezuelans in Colombia, 80 percent of whom were women, found that nearly 70 percent of them had received notifications of eviction (R4V, 2021a). Higher eviction rates for women may be a result of a lower ability to pay rent, or other social factors. In multiple settings, displaced female household heads have reported sexual exploitation and harassment by landlords (te Lintelo et al., 2018; Yasmine & Moughalian, 2016). Somali women report violence and exploitation from employers, landlords and the police, with unmarried, recently widowed or female heads of household- the most vulnerable to inappropriate sexual advances (Somalia PSEA Network, 2021). In Karachi, Afghans are not allowed to own property and those without documentation can only rent on an informal basis. Afghan refugees there reported never staying in the same housing for more than a few months at a time, either because the landlord would increase the rent or because they were evicted. In two of the urban case studies, Baidoa and Bangui, women in focus group discussions reported a desire for land rather than housing, as they could use land for both housing and gardening or farming.

“The payment of rent is a daily task and sometimes becomes the priority, given the risk of not having a place to spend the night.”

Bogotá Focus Group Participant

Figure 6: Comparison of dwelling by gender of household head and migration status, Cali Colombia 2022



GEIH, 2022

4.2 Education

Educating displaced girls is imperative to prevent them from being left behind in their well-being and livelihood options. Adolescent girls forcibly displaced to urban areas face limited access to education and employment; this is often due to an absence of schools near their homes, fears for their safety, responsibilities at home, and gender role expectations (Bartels et al., 2021; IDMC, 2022). International organizations that provide education in refugee camps do not offer those same services in urban areas. Instead, displaced girls must enroll in schools offered by the local government. This can be a significant challenge for municipalities and cross-national data shows that female education prospects suffer from displacement (Hanmer et al., 2021). The lack of educational opportunities for children was brought up as an issue in all the Focus Group Discussions. In both Bogotá and Cali Colombia, the number of displaced children created additional needs for both schools and health facilities in the communities hosting displaced people (Mayorga Henao, 2023). In Bangui, schools in communities hosting displaced people, like many schools throughout the city, were overcrowded with 90-150 students in one classroom. Secondary schools were

located far from the areas where most displaced people lived, and women in focus groups said that this was one reason for the high dropout rates among girls. In Baidoa, women in focus group discussions reported no available schools for their children. In Karachi, focus groups raised the issue that undocumented students cannot study past grade 8 because they need documentation to sit the exam for secondary school, but most families reported that they could not afford to send all their children to school at all. Sending girls to school was an issue for all of the displaced communities in Karachi - only a few would send their girls to school, and even then, only until they reached the age of 12 or 13. Child marriage, which is discussed in more detail in section 5.3, is also a survival mechanism in situations of forced displacement, and contributed to high dropout rates among girls.

Access to educational opportunities for displaced children is a major development and humanitarian concern. It is imperative to provide children with the necessary education that will lead to livelihood opportunities and prevent them from being left behind. This is a pressing issue for all children, though even more so for adolescent girls.

4.3 Physical and Mental Well-being

Displaced women have significant healthcare needs, particularly around sexual and reproductive health, but face significant challenges in identifying and accessing services. A lack of awareness of how to access health services impacts both the health of displaced women and their children (IDMC 2022). Displaced women are three times more likely than other women to die in childbirth due to the lack of available reproductive health services (Hirani & Richter, 2019). Studies of Syrian women displaced in urban areas across the Middle East show limited access to contraception, insufficient prenatal care, a greater risk of pregnancy complications and premature labor, and limited access to emergency obstetric care (Benage et al., 2015; Reese Masterson et al., 2014; Samari, 2017; Yasmine & Moughalian, 2016). Most Afghan refugees in Karachi use traditional birth attendants and face challenges accessing more complex care, such as a caesarian delivery, because of their lack of identity documents. In Bangui, pregnant and breastfeeding women or women victims of GBV can access free care through a few health centers, but most require payment.

Displaced people without access to medical care can be vectors of communicable diseases (Sphere, 2018). Yet, a lack of documentation such as valid identification or the appropriate government health card can prevent treatment for displaced women and children, even in emergency situations (R4V, 2021b).

Status and intersectionalities can make services more difficult to access. Women and girls with disabilities are particularly vulnerable to GBV and less likely to access support services (UN Women, 2023). Venezuelan women in a Bogotá focus group reported they did not seek out local services because of a fear of discrimination from public officials. Women expressed that officials in charge of providing health services or ensuring their access to justice refused to provide these services (Colombian Observatory

for Women, 2022). Box 2 describes challenges faced by one intersectional identity: displaced transgender women.

There are few psychosocial resources available to help displaced women and girls recover from the experience of trauma and GBV. Displaced women are more likely than men to experience poor mental health because of conflict (Buvinic et al., 2013; Roberts & Browne, 2011; Roberts et al., 2008; Rosenow-Williams & Behmer, 2015). This could manifest as PTSD or depressive symptoms. Once they arrive at a place of refuge, women may experience more severe culture shock (Slonim-Nevo & Regev, 2016). Household stress from poverty and displacement can lead to emotional abuse of women in the household, which contributes to poor mental health (Al-Shdayfat, 2017). Women and girls in situations of urban displacement are often targets of discrimination and harassment, which contributes to emotional distress and social isolation (Ellis et al., 2010; te Lintelo et al., 2018).

Loss of culture plays a role in the well-being of Indigenous women. Forced displacement of Indigenous and Afro-descendant women to Bogotá, Colombia threatens their customs and worldview, as well as their cultural practices, language and practice of ancestral medicine (Arias Barrero, 2011). The relationship Indigenous women have with their environment and territory is disrupted by forced displacement.

Hunger and malnutrition were reported in multiple focus groups. Women in Bangui and Baidoa reported difficulties providing food for their children. Women in Cali, Colombia reported changed eating habits for themselves and their children, such as skipping meals. Some reported engaging in prostitution to provide food for their children. In Karachi, women in focus groups reported skipping meals, experiencing hunger, and changing their diets. Lack of documentation was cited as an impediment to accessing government support services that could have assisted with food access.

Box 2: Displaced Trans Women

Transgender women, or trans women, are at a greater risk of experiencing violence, discrimination and stigmatization from their families and community members when they are displaced. Trans women tend to flee to urban areas rather than refugee camps because cities offer greater anonymity and safety, as well as the possibility of finding peers and an accepting community (Rosenberg, 2017). In urban areas, trans women face difficulty finding safe shelter and employment and have limited access to peer communities and trans-friendly services. They face a higher risk of eviction, sexual violence, financial exploitation, and detention resulting from the intersectionality of nationality and gender identity (Vargas, 2021). As with other types of GBV, sexual violence against trans women leads to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, and depression (Chynoweth, 2019).



4.5 Addressing the Challenges

Lack of information on available services is one of the key barriers to access for displaced women. In locations where displaced women have access to smart phones, web applications and mobile platforms are a key way to deliver vital and time-sensitive information about services. Incorporating communication targeted at women into project proposals is another method.

The advancement of women cannot be seen as coming at the expense of men. Interventions to promote and protect women’s housing and property rights must be done carefully. In Somalia, efforts to promote women’s housing rights were linked to IPV (Syn, 2016). Efforts to promote and protect women’s housing and property must be undertaken with great care and sensitivity, allowing displaced women to give input into whether and how this should be addressed.

An influx of displaced women and girls into a municipality requires an investment in educational facilities. Expanding women and girl’s educational opportunities in technical and vocational careers not typically occupied by women or offering business development opportunities are possible educational solutions (Klugman et al., 2022).

Addressing the housing, service, and information needs of women and girls necessitates both place-based and people-based interventions. Place-based interventions are those that build up the housing stock, clinics and educational facilities that will be used by both displaced women and girls and by the host community. However, these processes take time and significant investment. In the short-term, people-based approaches such as cash transfers, housing assistance and awareness campaigns on the availability of services can assist displaced women and girls in accessing available resources.

4.6 Data Gaps

Displaced women are at a higher risk for eviction in multiple settings; however, the impact of eviction on their lives and the lives of their children is still not known. Are there more unattended births and maternal deaths for those who have been evicted? Do these indicators change with multiple evictions? Do children have fewer educational years because of eviction? Is there more GBV among those who have been evicted? While we can imagine that there are multiple negative impacts from the insecurity of shelter, these impacts are not quantified or disaggregated across family members.

Promising Practice: Municipal Services Improvement Project in Türkiye

The design of a World Bank Group major infrastructure project addressing water supply, sanitation and solid waste management demonstrates how sensitivity to the needs of displaced women can be built into projects. The Municipal Services Improvement Project is focused on building local infrastructure in refugee-affected areas and promoting resilience in the context of climate change. Specific efforts were planned to encourage refugee women to engage with the host community in identifying neighborhood-level priorities. A gender-sensitive WASH education and awareness campaign was also planned, as were efforts to support and promote the formation of women-led community groups to manage neighborhood hygiene and sanitation infrastructure. While the project is only in the initial implementation stage, the planning highlights a sensitivity to the specific needs of communities hosting large numbers of displaced people, as well as attention to the WASH needs of women and girls.

5. Social: Safety is a pervasive problem for women and girls



Known gender gaps – social

- Women face time and movement challenges due to their care-giving responsibilities.
- Safety concerns, and specifically the threat of GBV, limit women's access to services.
- Displaced women are at increased risk of IPV.
- Displaced adolescent girls are at increased risk of child marriage and GBV.

Gender norms can have adverse impacts on displaced women and girls. They have greater responsibilities in terms of family care and fewer opportunities for employment beyond low-skilled and gendered job opportunities (Hanmer et al., 2021). Displaced women in urban areas often settle near other refugees and displaced people, embedding themselves in the social networks and cultural norms of their home communities (Rosenow-Williams & Behmer, 2015). Women's physical security cannot be considered independent of gender relations since harmful cultural practices - such as child marriage, female infanticide, and honor killing - may increase as people attempt to preserve cultural traditions in times of upheaval and displacement.

individual's full and effective participation in every sphere of life" (World Bank Group, 2023: 13). A global review of 50 countries found significant increases in GBV following major wars (World Bank Group, 2011). While 35 percent of women worldwide have experienced GBV; this the rate doubles to 70 percent in some crisis settings (Eapen & Kannan, 2022: 14). Urban displaced GBV survivors may be unaware of how or where to report instances of GBV. If survivors do not report the incident, they cannot receive adequate support and treatment. But in addition to shame, fear of reprisal, and social stigma around reporting GBV, survivors are also impeded by harassment from authorities (te Lintelo et al., 2018; Yasmine & Moughalian, 2016). Harassment by employers, landlords, authorities and/or government service providers is a prevalent problem with significant consequences. Unmarried, recently widowed, or female heads of households- are the most vulnerable to inappropriate sexual advances offering assistance in exchange for sex (International Rescue Committee, 2014; te Lintelo et al., 2018). Lack of physical safety, child marriage and inadequate documentation are the largest contributors to poverty (Klugman et al., 2022).

5.1 Personal Safety and Harassment

GBV is pervasive in conflict and post-conflict settings as both a driver and a result of forced displacement (Holloway et al., 2019; Mootz et al., 2019). GBV "...inflicts immediate, long-lasting, and intergenerational harm to physical, mental and psychological well-being, reproductive health outcomes and educational attainment, and limits an

"Forced displacement amplifies the risk of GBV, as do gender-based barriers and constraints to economic opportunities, sexual and reproductive rights and health, and education, especially for adolescent girls. FCV contexts often entrench and amplify harmful gender norms and practices due to poorly functioning institutions, weak rule of law, and market failures, accompanied by a fraying of the social fabric."

(World Bank Group, 2023: 3)

Promising Practice: Health and Gender Support Project for Cox's Bazar District, Bangladesh

In 2017 there was a sudden influx of refugees into Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh because of violence and human rights violations in Myanmar. Many of the refugees had been victims of GBV. An intervention by the Social Sustainability and Inclusion and Health, Nutrition and Population Global Practices of the World Bank using investment project financing led to a victim-centered response. The project strengthened the Bangladesh Ministry of Health's ability to address GBV using a territorial approach that would supplement services to both refugees and the host community. The Ministry of Health worked directly with and through existing health clinics, providing safe spaces for women and a referral system for higher level services where needed (World Bank, 2023a: 51).

5.2 Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)

Shifting gender roles and threatened masculinity as a result of forced displacement can result in intimate partner violence (IPV) and an assertion of restrictive cultural norms for women and girls. Forced displacement exacerbates the risk of IPV (Arango et al., 2021; International Rescue Committee, 2012, 2014; Klugman et al., 2022; Syn, 2016). The causes of IPV are complex and include male frustration resulting from changing gender roles, economic insecurity, and shifting household circumstances (International Rescue Committee, 2014; Sanyal, 2021; te Lintelo et al., 2018; Women's Refugee Commission, 2016). Forced displacement can radically change men's traditional roles as family provider and protector, because women

can often find rapid employment in the informal sector as cleaners and caregivers (Buscher, 2017; Calderón et al., 2011; Wyman, 2018). Men, particularly if they are moving from agricultural or pastoral livelihoods, face greater employment challenges in cities. Displaced women's contributions to household finances through employment does not change their vulnerability to IPV, despite working longer hours and contributing larger proportions of household earnings than women who have not been displaced (Buvinic et al., 2013; Calderón et al., 2011)CEDE</publisher><urls><related-urls><url>https://repositorio.uniandes.edu.co/bitstream/handle/1992/8257/dcede2011-28.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y</url></related-urls></urls></record></Cite></EndNote>.

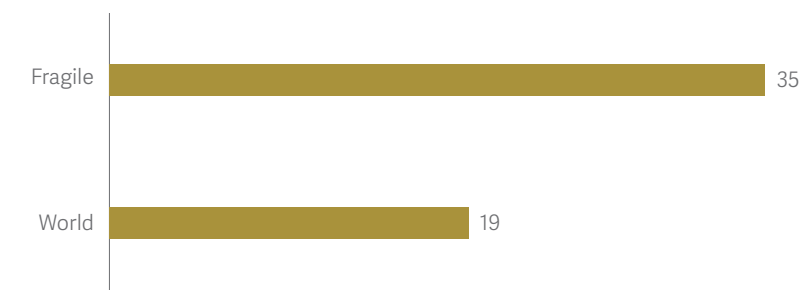
Promising Practice: Responding to GBV in Lebanon

Lebanon hosts an estimated 1.5 million Syrian refugees and around 14,000 refugees of other nationalities, making it the country hosting the largest number of refugees per capita (UNHCR, 2023a). Lebanon is also home to two local organizations which are working to reduce GBV and its consequences for both the Lebanese population and those displaced within its borders: ABAAD and Kafa.

ABAAD, or the Resource Center for Gender Equality, is focused on achieving gender equality throughout the MENA Region (ABAAD, 2023). ABAAD provides a hotline for information and reporting about GBV, a shelter and safe spaces for women and girls, case management, and a men's center that is focused on providing support for families, encouraging non-violent behavior, and promoting gender equity. Men can access one-on-one psychological support, group therapy, and anger management workshops. ABAAD has also run media campaigns encouraging men to be allies against GBV as well as youth programming on masculinity, which is intended to prevent GBV.

Kafa is another Lebanese organization whose name means 'enough' in Arabic. The organization was started in 2005 with the goal of eliminating all forms of GBV and exploitation in Lebanon (Kafa, 2023). Kafa provides direct support to women who are victims of GBV, equipping them with social, legal, and psychological services including a 24/7 emergency support hotline and a downloadable phone app. Kafa, like ABAAD, engages in behavior change communication for the country as a whole and pursues legislative change. During the COVID-19 pandemic, Kafa worked through WhatsApp and voice mail messages to provide information on early marriage, trafficking, and women's rights. Kafa also targets men with educational campaigns to reduce domestic violence.

Figure 7: Percentage of women ages 20-24 married before they turned 18



Notes: According to the Revised Classification of Fragility and Conflict Situations for World Bank Group Engagement, fragile countries are defined as those with one or more of the following: (a) the weakest institutional and policy environment (as measured using a set of 16 criteria grouped into four clusters: economic management, structural policies, policies for social inclusion and equity, and public sector management and institutions), (b) the presence of a UN peacekeeping operation, since this reflects a decision by the international community that a significant investment is needed to maintain peace and stability, or (c) flight across borders of 2,000 or more per 100,000 population, who are internationally regarded as refugees in need of international protection, as this signals a major political or security crisis.

(United Nations Children's Fund, 2021: 15)

5.3 Child Marriage

Unable to guarantee the security of underage girls, families may choose marriage as a way to prevent their exposure to sexual violence and preserve family honor (Bartels et al., 2021). The marriage of girls under 18 is a coping strategy and a significant problem resulting from forced displacement (Bartels et al., 2021; International Rescue Committee, 2012, 2014; Save the Children, 2014; United Nations Population Fund, 2017). Child marriage can be a response to economic issues, security concerns, and/or irregular immigration status (Bartels et al., 2021; Najjarnejad & Bromfield, 2022). In Karachi, focus group discussions indicated that displaced families favored child marriage because they fear the girls in their family will be the subject of gossip, or will choose 'love marriages' and bring shame to the family.

The long-term impacts of child marriage on a woman's life are consequential. Girls who marry at a young age are vulnerable to intimate partner violence, as well as social and emotional isolation (Buchanan, 2019; Chakraborty, 2019; Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2015). Bearing a child at a young age increases maternal mortality and leads to higher risks of complications during pregnancy and after delivery (Buchanan, 2019). Furthermore, girls who marry young are less likely to stay in school or acquire a job, affecting their economic independence. In situations of economic and political fragility, child marriage rates are nearly double the world average. Box 3 identifies other specific protection challenges for adolescent girls.

Box 3: Adolescent Girls

Adolescent girls in situations of urban forced displacement face a range of challenges and threats that impact their physical health, emotional well-being, and long-term economic prospects. Displaced girls face particular protection challenges and obstacles with regards to physical safety, access to water and sanitation, health care, including sexual and reproductive health, education, and employment (Chant et al., 2017; IDMC, 2022; UNHCR & World Bank, 2020). Displaced girls may also engage in transactional sex or dangerous sex work for income generation (Women's Refugee Commission, 2016).

Logie et al. found that 85.9 percent of urban refugees in intimate partnerships experienced IPV at least once in the last 12 months, and that 53.8 percent of adolescent girls/young women experienced violence (Logie et al., 2019). The increased use of technology and social media among urban displaced adolescent girls has increased stalking, sexual harassment, and other forms of exploitation (Logie et al., 2019).

In the Levant region, there is a general lack of education about sexual and reproductive health (SRH) (Korri et al., 2021). Syrian refugee girls have little knowledge of SRH and many are too embarrassed to purchase menstrual products and/or lack the funds to do so (Korri et al., 2021). Comprehensive SRH education can reduce the risk of unintended pregnancies, sexually transmitted infections (STIs), and maternal mortality.

5.4 Addressing the Challenges

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) recommends three types of interventions to address the needs of displaced adolescent girls: providing safe spaces, instituting mobile medical teams and engaging adolescent girls in planning and responding to the needs of other girls (UNFPA, 2016). Other sources have identified the importance of programming for married adolescents

(Baird et al., 2022), interventions that target male siblings, and whole family interventions promoting healthier family communication patterns and agency for adolescent girls (Seff, Koris, et al., 2022; Seff, Steven, et al., 2022). Education is important in reducing child marriage: every additional year of secondary education reduces a girl's likelihood of marriage before 18 by six percent (IDMC, 2022:118). Skilled work in the formal sector is correlated with a reduction in child marriage (UNICEF, 2021) as are cash transfers (Simon, 2018). Cash transfers to households also appear to lower IPV by lowering overall tensions in the household (Pavanello, 2018; Simon, 2018).

Protecting the safety of displaced women and girls requires both place-based and people-based interventions. Creating safe spaces within the community for women

and girls to access services and ensuring they have access to adequate GBV response from both medical staff and police are place-based interventions. However, an effective response must incorporate people-based actions focused on training providers, disseminating information on services and preventing GBV.

5.5 Data Gaps

Safety concerns are a fundamental issue for displaced women and girls, yet not enough is known about what contributes to their vulnerability to GBV. For example, are refugee women more at risk of GBV than internally displaced women? When are women most vulnerable to GBV: when they first arrive in a place of refuge, or later as their resources and assets are depleted? Are women in the first wave of displacement more vulnerable to GBV than those in subsequent waves? Or are those in later waves more vulnerable as networks become established to exploit them? Urban areas in developing countries frequently experience climate related disasters which are known to increase violence against women and girls (Gennari et al., 2015; van Daalen et al., 2022). What are the multiplier effects of natural disasters on GBV resulting from displacement?

Promising Practice: Voice, agency, and cultural negotiation

A current International Organization on Migration (IOM) project in South Sudan, the Enhancing Community Resilience and Local Governments Project (ECRP), engages men in discussions of how GBV can deter community development and encourages men to allow women to engage in the project. The goal is to increase women's access to services after GBV and their overall participation in the project and in local governance institutions. ECRP engaged selected communities in participatory planning processes at multiple levels to convey their needs, analyze challenges they are facing, propose creative solutions to those challenges, and vocalize their preferences for community development (IOM, 2021). The project strategy was based on South Sudanese Law, a respect for local customs, and teaching men the importance of women's participation. Data collected by the ECRP Gender Empowerment team found that women were not fully aware of their rights, inhibiting them from participating fully in local decision-making (IOM, 2022a). The project initially targeted 35 percent female representation on community committees, but this target was exceeded after the education efforts with male community members.³ While this is encouraging, in South Sudan's unstable political environment. Training efforts targeted at a local community are only effective until community members experience further displacement – a common experience.

³ Project team interview with Sandra Joireman, December 2, 2022, using Microsoft Teams.



6. Economic: Household composition and responsibilities change, pushing women into informal work



Gender gaps – economic

- Forced displacement increases multilocality of households and changes household composition.
- Displaced women are largely informally employed in low-skill professions and compete with host community women for low-skilled work.

6.1 Household Composition

Forced displacement can radically change household composition. This is a direct result of violence - for example, if a male head of household is killed. Changing household composition can also be a coping strategy in conflict-induced displacement when a woman and her children leave first and the male household head remains behind to protect property, harvest crops, or engage in other income-generating behavior. Multilocality can be a coping strategy for forced migration (Krystalli et al., 2018), or a result of government decisions; evidence of this can be found in the 2022 exodus of women and children from Ukraine, when the male citizens of fighting age were forbidden to leave the country (The Economist, 2022). Women participating in the focus groups in Cali, Colombia identified that displacement significantly changed household composition as some lost contact with their family networks, or others experienced the death of their partners and husbands who were responsible for providing economically for the family.⁴

Displaced female-headed households (FHHs) are poorer than their male-headed counterparts in some contexts, but this is not the case everywhere. What is common across contexts is the fact that displaced households have higher inter-household gender inequality (Hanmer et al., 2021; Hanmer et al., 2020; World Bank Group, 2019). Countries with the widest multi-dimensional poverty gaps between host and displaced populations also have the greatest disparities in poverty between host and displaced women (Klugman et al., 2022). A Colombian survey in 2022 identified that 71.3 percent of Venezuelan households with multidimensional poverty were headed by women. FHHs also made up 75.6 percent of Venezuelan households with long-term unemployment and 80.2 percent of those with critical overcrowding (SIVIGE, 2022). Specific household types, such as sibling or unaccompanied minor households, are especially vulnerable if the household head is female (Hanmer et al., 2020).

6.2 Labor Force Participation

Despite significant obstacles, more women become active in labor markets as a result of displacement and conflict (Aysa-Lastra, 2011; Kirbyshire et al., 2017; Patchett & Al-Amr, 2019; Shemyakina, 2015; Yu et al., 2012). In a study of six post-conflict countries, Justina et al. found increases in FHHs and greater female labor force participation, but often in low-paid, informal, low-skilled jobs (Justina et al., 2012). IDP camps in Baidoa, Somalia have created a supply of child labor, often employing young girls as maids with a monthly salary of less than US\$20 (OCHA, 2022). Women's labor force participation is limited by cultural norms. For example, the urban deep dive in Karachi Pakistan revealed that cultural groups that practiced female exclusion from public spaces continued to do so after forced displacement.

One of the largest impediments to labor force participation for urban displaced women is their caregiving responsibilities, or more specifically, the scarcity of access to childcare (Gettliffe & Khan, 2020; Hanmer et al., 2019; Krause-Vilmar & Chaffin, 2011; te Lintelo et al., 2018). Even though forced displacement may push women into the workforce, the expectations around their care responsibilities at home and the types of employment that are appropriate for them as women remain static (Gettliffe & Khan, 2020). Women experiencing rural to urban displacement are frequently more employable than men. This is partly because traditionally male agricultural roles are less transferable in urban settings, and also because women take low-paid unskilled roles outside the house as cleaners and caregivers, areas in which they need little additional training (Buscher, 2017; Calderón et al., 2011; Wyman, 2018).

Even though this work is low-paid, the availability of unskilled employment in the care sector can render women the primary wage-earners in the family, which shifts gender roles.

⁴ Key Informant Interview, Cali #7, April 14, 2023

“Care work in migration contexts increases because there are no support networks and there is no short-term housing solution. In Bogotá care system, migrant women get to know each other and strengthen their support networks.”⁵

Displaced women are concentrated in informal, low-wage positions (Klugman et al., 2022; Sanyal, 2021; Yu et al., 2012). When many displaced women flood the labor market at the same time, female wages in the host community tend to go down unless those women are replacing historically male jobs. The ability of host communities to absorb an influx of displaced people into their labor market varies across contexts and depends on the size and skill level of the inflow. Generally speaking, higher-income countries are able to absorb an influx of displaced people with little impact on their labor markets, but for some lower- and middle-income countries, displaced people substitute for host workers at lower skill levels (Sarzin, 2021). In an analysis

of 19 forced displacement crises over the past century, aggregated evidence demonstrates that in 70 to 80 percent of cases, there is either a positive or insignificant effect on wages or employment in the host community. Gender disaggregated studies show negative impacts on host community wages and employment among informal, young, female, low-skilled workers. (Ceritoglu et al., 2017; Pham et al., 2022; Sarzin, 2021; Verme & Schuettler, 2021). Social cohesion issues between host community members and displaced people can be contentious among the groups who see displaced people as competing for scarce jobs (Betts et al., 2022).

Figure 8: Refugee employment and hourly earnings: six country case studies

Host Country	Employment rates				Hourly earnings				Pay gap ***	
	Female		Male		Female		Male		Refugee men & refugee women	Host women & refugee women
	Host	Refugee	Host	Refugee	Host	Refugee	Host	Refugee		
Turkey	29	77	65.6	51.2	12.38**	0.78*	12.57**	0.84*	0.07	0.94
Uganda	65.7	36.9	74	46.6	1.21**	0.24	1.89**	0.31	0.23	0.80
Lebanon	21.2	6	67.4	47	2.71**	1.53	2.96**	1.84	0.17	0.44
Germany	53.5	6	63.8	27	17.09	10.67*	21.60	12.92*	0.17	0.38
Jordan	10.9	6	55.4	36	4.35**	1.10	4.97**	1.77	0.38	0.75
USA	53.9	40.2	65.4	73.5	13.56	10.80	15.20	12.20	0.11	0.20

Sources: Sources specified for each column and country in Annex table 2.

Notes: * Indicates gender-disaggregated wages unavailable. To calculate these values, we use the overall average wages of refugees and assume the gender gap for host country workers applies to refugees. $[x + a(y)]/2 = b$, where x and y are the gender disaggregated wages, a is the gender gap, and b is the average wage.

** Only monthly wage rates available; hourly estimated assuming 40-hour week and 4-week month (details in Annex tables 2 and 3).

*** The pay gap is calculated as $[(x - y)/x]$, where x is either refugee-men earnings or host-women earnings, and y is refugee-women earnings. In the case of Turkey, for example, for every dollar earned by a refugee man, the gender pay gap is 7 cents for refugee women.

Kabir and Klugman 2019:10

Lack of documentation often pushes displaced people to the informal sector, which can be exploitative or dangerous because of the vulnerability of forced migrants without official documents (R4V, 2021b). Displaced women most frequently work in the informal sector (Aysa-Lastra, 2011; Meertens, 2001; Yu et al., 2012). They tend to take highly feminized jobs in low-paid and informal sectors as hairdressers, cleaners, and caregivers even when they are educated or have qualifications in other fields (Balcioglu, 2018; Klugman et al., 2022; Sanyal, 2021).

Urban displaced women’s participation in the labor market can be beneficial. Women can gain confidence, pride and empowerment from their work (Sanyal, 2021) and their employment can help them reconstruct social networks lost through displacement (Jacobsen, 2002). In some circumstances, their children achieve better educational outcomes (Meertens, 2001). Increased labor force participation can also help shift gender norms for women (Rubiano-Matulevich, 2021). Yet displaced women face exploitation from labor brokers, employers and the police (Crush et al., 2017) and can engage in dangerous livelihoods, such as sex work, to support their households (Jacobsen, 2002). In a focus group discussion with ten Venezuelan women working in Colombia, xenophobia in the workplace was named as a problem, sometimes leading women to hide their identity. Greater economic participation in the household can increase IPV when partners are uncomfortable with changed gender roles (Buvinic et al., 2013; Calderón et al., 2011; International Rescue Committee, 2014; Syn, 2016).

6.3 Addressing the Challenges

Displaced women request and are often in need of vocational training when past skills and training do not adequately prepare them for employment in their new environment (Haddad, 2014). One suggestion proposed by several humanitarian organizations is to hire displaced women to deliver services such as childcare and education

to other displaced women (Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2015). For example, a trial program in Durban, South Africa provided displaced women with secure homes to establish childcare businesses (Krause-Vilmar & Chaffin, 2011). Another strategy that enables safe female labor participation involves employing groups of displaced women within the same workplace. They can be trained together as a group, watch out for each other’s safety, and facilitate communication in the case of language barriers. An assessment of opportunities for internally displaced women in Southwest Somalia identified that while most displaced women were working in more traditionally-gendered occupations, some women had received training in work considered to be more male-dominated, such as masonry (UN Women, 2021).

Most of the economic initiatives that might assist displaced women - including emergency cash transfers and employment training - are people-based. However, they need to be coupled with place-based protections such as the registration of female informal workers with the labor department or appropriate government agency; this gives them access to social security and/or better wages, where applicable. Place-based education interventions, such as building more schools and multi-use educational centers, can be beneficial for displaced women and girls as well as the host community.

6.4 Data Gaps

Displaced women across many countries and settings report that their household care responsibilities are the greatest barrier to their employment, yet little is known about how this impacts their economic engagement. When displaced women with household care responsibilities work outside the home, it is not clear how long these women face employment impediments, what strategies are most effective in mitigating their caregiving responsibilities, and what the consequences are for their safety and the safety of their children.

⁵ Key Informant Interview, Bogotá #1, March 31, 2023.

7. Institutional: Documentation and coordination of services is needed across levels of government



Gender gaps – institutional

- There is sometimes a lack of (separate) documentation for women.
- Citizenship laws often do not allow women to transfer citizenship to their children.
- Property and inheritance laws can discriminate against women

Forcibly displaced women in urban areas are the responsibility of municipal governments, often supported by or in cooperation with regional and national governmental structures. Refugee women might expect to get additional support from UNHCR, but the restriction on parallel services limits the actions UNHCR can take for their protection.

7.1 Identification/Documentation

Women must be allowed to hold documentation in their own names rather than being listed under a male head of household; this ensures that they have separate and individual access to services and protection from deportation (International Rescue Committee, 2014; Women’s Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2006). An immediate and significant challenge faced by displaced women is procuring the identification, permits, and documents that allow them to legally reside in a city or country of refuge (Hanmer et al., 2021; Rosenow-Williams & Behmer, 2015). It is also important for them to have accessible paths to replace these documents if they are lost or stolen. Another identification problem involves children born at home without recorded births. In contexts

such as Bogotá, Khartoum, and Luanda, the children of IDP or refugee parents have ambiguous status and grow up without any documents (Crisp et al., 2012: S29). See Box 4 for a discussion of how displacement contributes to statelessness.

Under Pakistani law, foreign nationals without documentation or residence permits can be immediately deported. If a man has documentation and his wife and children over five do not, they are at risk of deportation even if the children were born in Pakistan. To access public health services and schools, displaced people need to have a Pakistani Computerized National Identity Card (CNIC), but few refugees have these. International organizations have worked with the Pakistani government to develop other forms of registration, such as a Proof of Registration (PoR) Card -an identity document for Afghan refugees that the Pakistani government and UNHCR started issuing in 2006. The PoR card allows Afghan refugees to open bank accounts, acquire SIM cards, and access formal housing. The Afghan Citizens Card (ACC) was also issued to a limited number of unregistered Afghan refugees in 2017 and prevents their deportation. In 2021, the Government of Pakistan and UNHCR ran a program to provide biometric smart PoR cards and to update and

Box 4: Statelessness

Statelessness can be both a cause and consequence of forced displacement. Discriminatory laws, human rights issues, forced removals, and other push factors can impel stateless people to leave their home communities. For example, the Rohingya of Myanmar lost citizenship due to the imposition of discriminatory laws, contributing to the large-scale, forced migration of hundreds of thousands of people (Awan, 2020: 95). Stateless women and children experience immediate and long-term challenges due to the ambiguity of their legal status (Kingston & Stam, 2017). A legal issue affecting both women and children is the unequal conferring of citizenship by gender: women of some nationalities are unable to pass their citizenship to their children (Veikou, 2017: 560). Scholars have identified that discriminatory nationality laws can create a cycle of statelessness whereby the number of stateless people increases as more children are born without legal recognition and full access to state services (Awan, 2020: 94). Nationality laws, birth registration policies and restricted access to official documentation can limit the ability of stateless people to obtain citizenship (NRC, 2016; UNHCR, 2022a). In addition to undocumented births and citizenship challenges, displaced women and girls face other challenges related to documentation. Trafficked women often have their legal documents taken away, limiting their ability to access social services (Veikou, 2017: 561). The economic and material scarcities that stateless people experience also intensify the risks of child marriage, as some families and girls seek alternatives to exploitation and insecurity (Menz, 2016).



verify data on registered Afghan refugees (Government of Pakistan and UNHCR, 2022). That said, there are still many undocumented Afghans, and the ACC is not an acceptable form of identification for opening a bank account or receiving government services. A lack of identity cards restricts access to housing, banking systems, and SIM cards; it also makes refugees more vulnerable to exploitation by landlords who charge them higher rents (EUAA, 2022). Internally displaced women in Karachi reported difficulty replacing lost CNIC cards and birth certificates, which prevented their children from going to school. One challenge in replacing these documents is the cultural practices of purdah, where women are culturally restricted from going to local administrative offices unless accompanied by a male chaperone.

7.2 Gendered Laws

Many countries have discriminatory property laws that limit women's property rights, sometimes preventing women from being recognized as co-owners of marital property or placing restrictions on female inheritance.

These harmful legal norms can discriminate against displaced women, many of whom are heads of their household, without husbands or fathers present to co-sign a lease or apply to purchase property (Hanmer et al., 2021). Gendered citizenship laws can be problematic for displaced women. For example, a Syrian woman who gives birth outside the country does not pass on her citizenship to her child unless the father takes legal action.

7.3 Voting Rights

In democratic states, equipping displaced people with voter registration and polling locations allows them to hold their local governments responsible for service provision.

Women displaced within their own country should have the right to vote in their new place of residence. Allowing displaced people to organize politically and challenge discriminatory obstacles can assist them in building vital social networks (Landau, 2014). In Pakistan, IDPs had the right to vote, but only in the locations designated on their CNIC card; if that card is not updated to their current place of residence, they will not be able to vote. Those without a card are unable to vote anywhere.

7.4 Coordination of services

While municipal governments are clearly responsible for their inhabitants, there must also be funding and coordination across different levels of government.

Relationships between different levels of government can condition access to services. For example, in Karachi the national government controls access to national identity documents that are required to access most public services. Provincial governments supply public health, education and security services, and municipal governments negotiate with the provincial government for services. In order for displaced people to access services, all of these levels of government must cooperate. This can be difficult in certain contexts, as national and local governments may be run by different political parties or have divergent interests that impede the provision of services to displaced people. It is critical to identify which levels of government have responsibility for documentation, planning, and service provision for both refugees and IDPs.

Efforts should be made to identify avenues for private sector cooperation. Employment opportunities, job training, service provision, or other actions that engage private sector actors should be pursued where available.

Key institutional initiatives to address the needs of displaced women are place-based and include the following: the integration of government services, effective planning for addressing the needs of the displaced, legal changes to promote gender equality and the development of effective communication avenues between the municipality and the displaced population.

However, one vital people-based intervention is ensuring that women have adequate documentation of their citizenship, refugee status, and identity. Without this critical element, they are left vulnerable to exploitation and harassment by police, landlords, employers and even family members.

7.5 Addressing the Challenges

Actions targeted at meeting the needs of displaced women must be integrated into multi-level development activities and service provision.

In Jordan, a qualitative survey of 101 women accessing legal aid services noted the importance of legal aid in assisting women in enforcing judicial decisions around alimony, child support, and dowers; these are decisions that significantly impacted their household assets and reduced their vulnerability (Prettitore, 2018). Most countries have gender assessments and gender scorecards that should be consulted in any intervention. There may also be regional gender plans, gender officers and other regional or municipal officials that could meaningfully engage in initiatives supporting forcibly displaced women (Hanmer et al., 2019). A recent survey of 241 municipalities in Ukraine highlighted the importance of planning for multiple future scenarios and communicating with IDPs about their needs; this allows municipal governments to make strategic decisions around the use of resources (Huss & Keudel, 2022).

7.6 Data Gaps

While there may be an assumption that local responsibility for service provision supported by other layers of governance is the best institutional arrangement to support displaced women, there is an absence of data to back this up. Moreover, while it may be assumed that internally displaced women are better off than refugee women in democratic states because they can hold their government accountable through voice and vote, there are no existing studies to provide data on this subject.

8. Data Gaps: Key areas where more information on women and girls is needed



There is a need for gender-disaggregated data across the board. Without data it is very difficult to identify specific needs of women and girls. For example, studies without gender disaggregation reveal no signs of social cohesion issues in communities with an influx of forcibly displaced people alongside obvious investment in local services such as roads and schools (Zhou et al., 2022). Yet in similar studies of social cohesion where data is disaggregated by gender, there is clear evidence of negative sentiment from host community women towards displaced women (Pham et al., 2022). This finding is consistent with what is known about the labor force participation of displaced women – that they compete with low-skilled host community women for jobs. Yet without gender disaggregated data, this social cohesion issue would not be apparent.

There is a need for data and analysis that disaggregates based on gender and citizenship status. In many areas, including employment, access to services, GBV vulnerability and documentation, it could be reasonably assumed that refugees who have citizenship in another country will have greater vulnerability and poorer outcomes than internally displaced women. Yet, there is no data to provide the basis for specific interventions. Assessing the differentiated needs of internally displaced women and refugees would be helpful and, in some cases, is a necessary step to guarantee the protection of refugees.

Women are negatively impacted by evictions and women who are forcibly displaced may be evicted multiple times. Presumably this has a negative impact on them, but there is no data on the specific impact of multiple displacements. It can be assumed that frequent moves could negatively impact educational and other well-being indicators for children as well as for their mothers due to the need to change schools, find new healthcare providers, and develop

new networks of social support. Data from Venezuelan women in Colombia reveals that pregnancy and lactation makes them particularly vulnerable to eviction because they are obviously unable to work (R4V, 2020). This key intersectionality should make them a priority for protection, yet there is little data from other contexts or examples of specific programming that would add to the evidence base for policy responses. Other intersectionalities that can magnify the challenges of displaced people, such as nonbinary gender identities, age, indigeneity, and disability, are also important and understudied.

There is little to no data on the childcare needs of displaced women or effective, evidenced-based responses.

Displacement can shift household composition as men often remain at their place of origin while women move with children to places of refuge. Changing household composition means that many women are in the position, sometimes for the first time, of needing to work outside the home. Childcare becomes a significant need of a large percentage of displaced women. A lack of childcare in urban displacement means that some women may be forced into dangerous livelihoods such as sex work, which enables them to work at night, or into leaving children at home unattended in sub-standard housing. Anecdotal reports and surveys of displaced women report the need for childcare to enable them to pursue work opportunities (Gettliffe & Khan, 2020; Hanmer et al., 2021; Klugman et al., 2022; Krause-Vilmar & Chaffin, 2011; Schuettler & Caron, 2020), yet there is little in the way of comprehensive assessments of the childcare needs of displaced women or evidenced-based responses. This is a significant gap in our understanding.

Table 2 summarizes some of the known data gaps surrounding the needs of displaced women and girls.

Table 2: Gender Data Gaps

	DATA GAPS
SPATIAL Informal settlements and unsafe public spaces	Where are displaced women and girls concentrated within a city?
PHYSICAL Inadequate housing, education, and well-being	What is the impact of eviction on displaced women and children– more unattended births, maternal deaths, fewer educational years, more GBV, etc.?
SOCIAL Personal safety, IPV, child marriage	When are women most vulnerable to GBV? When they first arrive? During the first wave in a movement of people out of a conflict or disaster-affected area, or later when networks have been established to exploit them? Are refugee women more at risk than internally displaced women? How do climate-related events magnify the GBV risk for displaced women?
ECONOMIC Household composition and labor force participation	What are the specific impacts of women’s care responsibilities on their economic engagement?
INSTITUTIONAL Documentation, law, voting rights, and coordination	What sorts of institutional arrangements are better for the protection of and service provision to displaced women and girls? Are internally displaced women able to access their political rights, such as voting? Does this make a significant change in their access to services?

Box 5: Some Useful Datasets

- Gender Data Portal – <https://genderdata.worldbank.org/>
- Gender Statistics - <https://databank.worldbank.org/source/gender-statistics>
- IOM Displacement Tracking Matrix - <https://dtm.iom.int/>
- UNHCR Global Data - <https://www.unhcr.org/what-we-do/reports-and-publications/unhcr-data>
- Prindex – Women’s Tenure Security - <https://www.prindex.net/data/>
- OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index - <https://www.oecd.org/stories/gender/social-norms-and-gender-discrimination/sigi/>
- International Recovery Platform – <https://recovery.preventionweb.net/build-back-better/themes-recovery/gender>
- Humanitarian Open Street Map - <https://www.hotosm.org/>
- Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) - <https://www.internal-displacement.org/>
- Global Disaster Displacement Database (GRID)-<https://www.internal-displacement.org/global-report/grid2023/>
- ACAPS API Global Humanitarian Datasets - <https://www.acaps.org/en/>

8.1 Addressing the Challenges

There are accessible sources of data that can provide a starting place for analyzing gender gaps. Several datasets are available that can identify municipalities and neighborhoods with large numbers of displaced people: 1) UNHCR’s global data on populations of concern; 2) UNHCR’s refugee registration database; 3) IOM’s Displacement Tracking Matrix; and 4) UNHCR’s location data. These sources and others are listed in Box 5 below.

Local data on the services available and the needs of displaced women and girls can be gathered by looking for available local statistics on:

- School attendance disaggregated by sex at every level and dropout and retention ratios between boys and girls in secondary schools;
- Healthcare visits, antenatal visits and C-section rates for displaced women and girls;
- Assaults against displaced women reported to the police; and
- Female staff numbers for IGOs and NGOs.



9. Conclusion



The sharp increase in forced displacement has created a development imperative in urban settings around the world. Cities in developing countries that already face challenges in providing services in the context of rapid urbanization are now increasingly likely to host large numbers of displaced people; a large percentage are vulnerable women and children with unmet protection needs. Flooding and drought resulting from climate change exacerbate both the numbers of displaced people and the urban development challenges of cities.

Forced displacement is protracted and many households suffer from multiple forced displacements. Households that are forcibly displaced by conflict can be displaced by climate events, forced eviction, or crime. The experience of secondary displacement is so common that displacement is best understood as a state rather than an event.

The most pressing need for women and girls is physical safety. Physical safety is crucial when considering women's need for safe homes, places to be outside of their homes, and safe transport systems free of harassment or assault. Social cohesion plays an extremely important role in displaced women and girls' security: where there is a large influx of displaced populations, women face violence, harassment, and marginalization from the host community. Therefore, a development focus that benefits both the displaced and host communities is vital in areas of urban displacement, particularly when responding to differentiated gender needs. GBV and the threat of GBV limits an individual's "full and effective participation in every sphere of life" (World Bank Group 2023:13).

Education for displaced girls is a major unmet need. In some city case studies, education was not available for displaced children. In other cities, schools were far from where displaced people were settled, or faced overcrowding. Forced displacement has a particularly negative impact on adolescent girls who are more likely to be victims of sexual violence, lose years of education, and marry under the age of 18. Educational opportunities are vital for children's long-term livelihood opportunities and a key component of the World Bank Group's commitment to leaving no one behind.

Elevated maternal mortality rates, pregnancy complications, and unattended births, compounded by an absence of psychosocial care and frequent evictions, are persistent problems for displaced women in urban settings. Limited access to medical and psychological services, including those for sexual and reproductive health, impact the well-being of displaced women and their ability to care for family members. Frequent evictions create challenges in locating shelter and accessing updated information on medical and educational services in the new area.

More women join the workforce because of forced displacement, but they frequently take low-skilled feminized jobs such as cleaners and caregivers.

Displacement has a significant impact on both the structure and economic activity of households. Men, particularly those moving from rural areas where they have been involved in agricultural professions, can feel threatened by the challenges they face in finding work and the changed household dynamics, often perceiving their wives working as a threat to their masculinity. These changing household dynamics contribute to IPV.

For host cities, an influx of displaced people presents both significant challenges and the potential for long-term benefits. Violent conflict can increase rates of urbanization as people leave rural areas for greater safety and opportunities in cities. With rapid increases in the population, city services such as water, sewage, trash collection and medical care can be insufficient for the number of people. Demand for housing can drive up rents, increase forced evictions and lead displaced people to seek housing in informal communities on peri-urban areas and unsafe urban land areas, such as flood plains. This has consequences on the well-being of both the displaced and host communities. Large numbers of people living in poverty with poor access to medical services and a lack of sanitation services or clean water are vectors for communicable diseases. One of the lessons from COVID-19 is the rapidity through which disease can spread through communities, particularly if people are living in densely populated areas with insufficient housing.

The 2023 World Development Report (World Bank, 2023c) recommends that countries hosting large numbers of displaced people focus on medium-term solutions and look for opportunities to share costs and responsibilities with other regional actors and organizations. Forced displacement is frequently protracted and states must respond to legal protection mandates. At the municipal level this would mean more jointly-funded development efforts. Municipalities should seek to broaden the group of actors with which they engage in providing services to forcibly displaced women and girls, leveraging private partnerships and investments where appropriate.

The humanitarian development nexus has long been seen as sequential, with an initial humanitarian response followed by a development effort when the situation becomes protracted. However in reality, it is a parallel process where both humanitarian and development interventions continue to complement one another throughout the entire duration of forced displacement; this is because the way one is planned and implemented impacts the other. Humanitarian investment in services

such as GBV response has the possibility of positively impacting the host community and the long-term development of the municipality.

Cities can benefit from an increased labor force created by displacement. In the short-term there will be winners and losers from the surge in the urban work force, however there are longer term gains for host communities as local markets adjust and benefit from positive externalities such as innovation, knowledge and technology transfers (Sarzin, 2021). Cities can also use funding provided by international organizations to bolster their social and medical services to increase the quality of life for both displaced people and the host community.

Wherever possible, displaced women and girls should be consulted on program design and incorporated into decision-making to increase their voice and agency, develop leadership capacity, and better align program design with the lived experience of displacement. This may mean working with men and boys in a community to assist them in understanding the community value of women's participation.

A list of specific interventions to address gender gaps in a variety of contexts is captured in Table 1 on pages 4–5.

9.1 Recommendations

See table 3 for a detailed breakdown by actor.

- The immediate response to urban displacement crises should provide shelter, protection, and basic services to displaced women and girls.
- It is critical to simultaneously consider how to shift emergency shelter and services into more permanent solutions.
- Integrate the longer-term development of the urban area with the short-term provision of services for displaced women and girls. For example, if medical services are being provided for the displaced by mobile clinics, perhaps more permanent clinics can respond to the needs of both displaced and host community women for the longer-term.

- Leverage humanitarian and development funding to benefit both the displaced and host community women and girls.
- Humanitarian organizations need to partner with national and local institutions, community-based organizations, and the private sector to develop comprehensive and location-based services available to both displaced and host community women and girls.
- Humanitarian and development organizations should consult with displaced women and girls on their needs and on design of interventions to support displaced women and girls.
- All organizations involved (humanitarian and development, local, national, and global) should seek to address the data gaps that impede effective response.
- National governments should coordinate services with municipal governments to ensure that women and girls have adequate protection, service access, documentation of their status, and political representation, where appropriate.
- National governments should develop a clear set of roles and responsibilities for a coordinated response across ministries and different levels of government.
- National governments should also seek to eliminate gendered laws that discriminate against women in terms of citizenship, property ownership, and inheritance.
- Local and municipal governments need to be legally, politically, and financially empowered to design locally-tailored interventions for displaced women and girls.
- Municipal authorities should develop communication strategies to reach displaced women.
- Municipal authorities should invest in education and health services proximate to displaced populations.
- Municipal governments should plan for different scenarios in which the displaced population remains in the city for the medium- and long-term, or there are significant changes in number and composition (for example, more IDPs or refugees).

Table 3: Recommendations

ACTOR	RECOMMENDATION
ALL – DEVELOPMENT AND HUMANITARIAN ORGANIZATIONS; NATIONAL GOVERNMENT; LOCAL GOVERNMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The immediate response to urban displacement crises should provide shelter, protection, and basic services to displaced women and girls.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is critical to simultaneously consider how to shift emergency shelter and services into more permanent solutions.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrate the longer-term development of the urban area with the short-term provision of services for displaced women and girls. For example, if medical services are being provided for the displaced by mobile clinics, perhaps more permanent clinics can respond to the needs of both displaced and host community women for the longer-term.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leverage humanitarian and development funding to benefit both the displaced and host community women and girls.
 HUMANITARIAN ORGANIZATIONS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Humanitarian organizations need to partner with national and local institutions, community-based organizations, and the private sector to develop comprehensive and location-based services available to both displaced and host community women and girls.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All organizations involved (humanitarian and development, local, national, and global) should seek to address the data gaps that impede effective response.
NATIONAL GOVERNMENT 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National governments should coordinate services with municipal and regional governments to ensure that women and girls have adequate protection, service access, documentation of their status, and political representation, where appropriate. • National governments should develop a clear set of roles and responsibilities for a coordinated response across ministries and different levels of government. • National governments should also seek to eliminate gendered laws that discriminate against women in terms of citizenship, property ownership, and inheritance.
LOCAL GOVERNMENT 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local and municipal governments need to be legally, politically, and financially empowered to design locally-tailored interventions for displaced women and girls. • Municipal authorities should develop communication strategies to reach displaced women. • Municipal authorities should invest in education and health services proximate to displaced populations. • Municipal governments should plan for different scenarios in which the displaced population remains in the city for the medium- and long-term, or there are significant changes in number and composition (for example, more IDPs or refugees).

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Photography

Front Cover

Mohamed Azakir / World Bank

Syrian Refugees Face an Uncertain Future: A refugee filling an application at the UNHCR registration center in Tripoli, Lebanon.

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Marko Subotin / Shutterstock

Female civilian holding her child among the ruins.

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Dominic Chavez / World Bank

Residents living in Sujat Nagar slum: Daily life of residents living in Sujat Nagar slum in Dhaka, Bangladesh on October 11, 2016.

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Tanvir Murad Topu / World Bank

A Rohingya woman is walking to the camp. Block D5, Kutupalong extension Camp, Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh, 2 July 2018.

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Tanvir Murad Topu / World Bank

Rohingya women with kids are walking to the camp with relief food. Near Block D5, Kutupalong extension Camp, Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh 2 July 2018.

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Dominic Chavez / World Bank

Syrian refugees have found temporary safety in Kafar Kahel informal settlement in the Koura District: Syrian refugees have found temporary safety in Kafar Kahel informal settlement in the Koura District, in Lebanon, on June 2, 2014.

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Rama George-Alleyne / World Bank

Women at health center: Gonoshasthaya Community Health Center (outside Dhaka). Gonoshasthaya Kendra (GK) provides health care and health insurance to undeserved populations in Bangladesh.

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South Africans walking on the street of informal settlements, huts made of metal in the Township or Cape Flats of Stellenbosch, Cape Town, South Africa.

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The City of Bogotá Website

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NAIROBI, KENYA- OCTOBER 13: Unidentified children walk in mud for to go school on October 13, 2011 in Nairobi, Kenya.

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Taiz Yemen - 28 June 2020 : Camouflage on a Yemeni woman collects water in the Yemeni city of Taiz.

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Mamunur Rashid / Shutterstock

A Rohingya refugee family member sits in their house at the Thengkhali makeshift Camp in Cox's Bazar, Bangladesh, on September 06, 2017.

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Passengers at a station of the Bogotá Transmilenio bus system, waiting for the next bus on Calle 80 Avenue, meanwhile, some wear face masks to avoid the spread of the Covid-19 coronavirus, March 16 2020.

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Dominic Chavez / World Bank

Syrian refugees in the Zaatari refugee camp in Jordan, located 10 km east of Mafraq, Jordan on March 27, 2016.

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Scott Wallace / World Bank

Local woman who received a small loan to buy a pool table. She now rents the table to the residents of her town. Yemen.

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Dominic Chavez / World Bank

A refugee woman talks with her husband in their makeshift home in the Katermaya refugee camp, outside Beirut, Lebanon on June 1, 2014.

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Procyk Radek / Shutterstock

Person escaping from Syria to Turkey because of long civil war. Syrian-turkish border in Kilis. 26/2/2014 - Kilis - Turkey

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Baidoa, Somalia May 15 2019: Tent lives in a refugee camp

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Dominic Chavez / World Bank

Syrian refugees learn to finger paint by their Lebanese teacher, Khadga Eter (center) during class in Zouq Bhanin Village, Lebanon on March 22, 2016.

