Nepal **Refugees and Asylum Seekers** 129,600 Bhutan 109,100 20,200 China New Asylum Seekers 225 Departures 2.400 1951 Convention: No 1967 Protocol: No **UNHCR Executive Committee: No** Population: 26 million GDP: \$8 billion GDP per capita: \$307



Refoulement/Physical Protection There were reports that Nepal handed Tibetan asylum seekers back to Chinese authorities. In July, the Department of Immigration arrested eight Tibetans traveling without documents and

deported them to India.

There was occasional violence between Bhutanese refugees residing in camps and the surrounding population. In February 2007, a clash between refugees in Sanischare camp and the local community over firewood resulted in the death of one refugee, injury to eight, and the burning of several huts in the camp. The refugee camps were in areas under the tacit control of the Maoist insurgency, and there had been no police presence since 2003. Sexual and gender-based violence and physical assaults were major problems in the camps. At the end of 2006, the Government reinstated police posts in some of the seven camps, but in most there were none and no street lighting. According to the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), "Dissatisfaction and rebellion amongst refugee adolescent boys posed a serious threat to safety and security in the camps." There were 174 reported incidents of sexual and gender-based violence in the camps, a nine percent increase from the year before, 88 of them cases of domestic violence, a six percent increase from the year before but 52 percent higher than 2004.

Nepal was not party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and had no refugee law, but its 1992 Immigration Act allowed the Government to exempt "any class, group, nationality or race from any or all of [its] provisions," and the 1988 Extradition Act prohibited extradition for "political crimes." The Government conducted status determinations solely for Bhutanese through a 1993

"Modus Operandi" outlining procedures for granting asylum but no criteria. UNHCR had observer and advisory status in the screening process. Applicants could appeal negative decisions to a three-member board with two government officials and one UNHCR representative, which made decisions jointly. The 1958 Foreigners Act and administrative directives determined refugees' legal rights.

According to the Government, some 107,500 Bhutanese refugees stayed in seven camps located in the Jhapa and Morang districts in eastern Nepal and some 10,000 outside the camps. Although the Government recognized those who arrived in the early 1990s as *prima facie* refugees, thereafter it required individual refugee status determinations. The Government granted 32 Bhutanese refugee status during the year, about 1,000 awaited initial determinations in early 2007, and about 300 were on appeal from prior rejections. During 2006, UNHCR granted refugee status to nearly 200 individuals.

There were about 20,500 Tibetans refugees residing in Nepal and UNHCR helped about 2,400 Tibetans transit to a third country. Since 1990, Nepal has not permitted new Tibetan arrivals to seek asylum, instead allowing them to travel on to India or other countries. Before January 1990, Nepal recognized about 97 percent of the Tibetans as refugees but did not formally recognize some. The instability from the conflict between the Government and Maoist insurgents hindered support for the Tibetan refugees and slowed their processing for transit.

UNHCR recognized about 360 refugees and asylum seekers from other countries but the Government did not respect refugee status under UNHCR's mandate.

Detention/Access to Courts In October, Nepal fined a Tibetan man for not carrying proper identification documents and, because he could not pay, sentenced him to detention of up to 22 months. Nepal arrested some



newly arrived Tibetans and other nationals for immigration offenses and held some until they paid immigration fees. In 2005, police reportedly detained over 100 Tibetans and turned them over to the Department of Immigration, which prosecuted 26 of them for violating immigration laws. All of them received heavy penalties, but authorities released them after they paid fines. The law allowed the police to hold suspects for 25 days without a court appearance, but security forces occasionally held prisoners longer and refugees had difficulty obtaining bail. UNHCR, its implementing partners, and other organizations had access to detainees of concern to them. A UNHCR implementing partner provided legal aid to refugees and asylum seekers in urban areas whose immigration violation cases went to court.

Neither UNHCR nor the Government provided Bhutanese refugees with individual identity documents. In November, in response to UNHCR's longstanding request,



the Government began conducting a census of the camps and issuing cards to families based entirely on information about the senior member of the household, usually male. Tibetan refugees residing in Nepal prior to 1990 were eligible for government-issued Refugee Cards, valid for one year, but more than 4,600 did not receive them. At the age of 16, the Government no longer listed Tibetan refugee children on their parents' cards nor issued them their own cards. The cards for Bhutanese and Tibetans documented their right to remain in Nepal but provided no other rights including civil registration of birth, death, or marriage.

UNHCR gave refugees and asylum seekers in urban areas individual certificates with photographs that defined their status in Nepal, and law enforcement officials generally respected them as identity documents.

The 1990 Constitution provided that "No person shall be denied the equal protection of the laws" and that "No person shall be deprived of his personal liberty save in accordance with law" and extended most criminal procedure protections to all persons, with some exceptions for citizens of enemy states. It reserved for citizens, however, its specific protections against discrimination in the application of laws or other functions of the state on grounds of religion, race, sex, caste, or tribe. Generally, refugees had access to courts, including for civil matters, but only citizens had standing to challenge the constitutionality of a law before the Supreme Court. One woman with UNHCR legal aid pressed charges against her husband for battery, and the court convicted and sentenced him to three years in prison. The Government made no progress, however, on the 2004 case of Lukla police sexually abusing two Tibetan refugee girls.



Freedom of Movement and Residence Since the 1990s, Nepal restricted Bhutanese refugees to seven camps in the Jhapa and Morang districts in the east. Camp rules required them to obtain prior permission and passes

to leave the camp for more 24 hours and to return within a week. Authorities generally granted requests for passes, but in August, Jhapa authorities, with UNHCR approval, suspended the passes in order to restrict refugee anti-resettlement protests. Officials suspended ration cards if refugees stayed outside the camps without permission. Tibetans who arrived before 1990 and refugees in urban areas enjoyed freedom of movement and could live where they wished if they had refugee cards. Tibetan refugees stayed at the Tibetan Refugee Transit Center in Swayambhu before continuing to India.

The 1990 Constitution reserved its protection of freedom of movement and residence to citizens. The 1958 Foreigners Act authorized the Government to compel foreigners to live in places it prescribed and mandated two years' imprisonment for violations.

For international travel, Bhutanese refugees had to

apply to camp officials, who recommended them with photo attestation to the Refugee Coordination Unit in Jhapa, which recommended them to the National Unit for Coordination of Refugee Affairs in the Ministry of Home Affairs, which recommended them to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which issued the necessary documents.

Nepal stopped issuing travel documents and exit permits in October 2005. In May 2006, the Government resumed issuing travel documents to refugees it recognized, i.e., Bhutanese and pre-1990 Tibetans, and, in June, resumed issuing exit permits for newly arrived Tibetan refugees. Refugees of other nationalities whom UNHCR recognized under its mandate were eligible for neither. More than 2,400 newly arrived Tibetans registered with UNHCR for transit to India, and more than 2,900 departed, the difference coming from a backlog of nearly 1,000 from the previous year. Tibetans had to apply to the Chief District Administrative Office and obtain approval from the Ministry of Home Affairs.

In September, in response to pressure from resettlement states, the Government agreed to allow third countries to resettle 16 Bhutanese refugees but only allowed three of them to leave by year's end. Other countries accepted 52 refugees residing in Kathmandu for resettlement, but the Government had not issued them exit permits by year's end. Some Tibetans left on their own to seek asylum or family reunification in other countries.

Right to Earn a Livelihood

The 1990 Constitution reserved its protection of the right to engage in work, professions, trade, or industry or to form unions to citizens. The 1992 Labor Act greatly restricted employment of foreigners without



exception for refugees. If no Nepali was available for a skilled post after national advertising, managers could apply to the Labor Department for permission to hire foreigners for the posts. In such cases, after investigation, the Labor Department could grant permits for two years at a time but for no more than five years in total. Managers had to make arrangements to replace the foreigners by training Nepalis and, according to the 1993 Labor Rules, lay off foreigners first in case of retrenchment. Penalties could be as high as \$148 (10,000 Rupees) per instance and \$1.48 (100 Rupees) per day. Camp rules specifically forbade Bhutanese refugees from engaging in livelihoods. The small number able to work illegally did so without protection of labor legislation or social security and often had to pay bribes or use false documents. Refugees could not legally operate businesses, own property or bank accounts, or obtain drivers licences.

Camp rules also restricted Bhutanese refugees from engaging in almost any income generating activity aside from small cottage industries, such as making sanitary napkins, chalk, blankets, and jute roofing materials. Authorities tolerated some illegal work where there were shortages such as teaching in remote schools. District authorities shut down activities the central government permitted, especially projects making goods that locals used to sell to aid agencies, such as soap.

The 1994 Immigration Rules required foreigner investors to invest at least \$1 million in order to get a residential visa. The Government generally tolerated Tibetans who entered the country prior to 1990 running small handicraft businesses in the informal sector, such as carpet weaving. In June, however, authorities prevented some 70 Tibetan street merchants from selling their wares near the Boudanath Stupa. Some refugees in urban areas ran businesses with locals in unenforceable partnerships, paid bribes, or used false documents to obtain Nepali citizenship to hold title to property. The 1990 Constitution reserved the rights to acquire, to own, to sell, and to otherwise dispose of property to citizens but provided that "The State shall not, except in the public interest, requisition, acquire or create any encumbrance on, the property of any person."



Public Relief and Education UNHCR described living conditions in the camps as "deplorable" due to overcrowding and disrepair of dwellings and latrines. In June, hundreds came down with fever and respiratory illnesses. In

January 2007, poor insulation in the bamboo huts caused some 30 refugees per day, mostly children, to report to the hospital with pneumonia and asthma in three camps in Jhapa district. In December 2005, UNHCR had switched the refugees' cooking fuel from kerosene to cheaper briquettes made from compressed coal dust, which produced much more smoke. Inadequate fuel rations also compelled refugees to look for firewood outside the camps, which led to conflict with locals such as the clash in February 2007 that killed one.

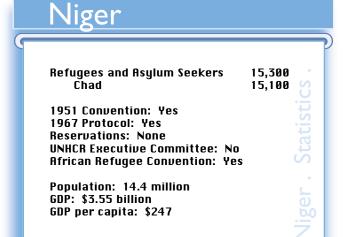
In the camps, the World Food Programme (WFP) gave basic rations, while UNHCR and its implementing partners provided housing materials, water, supplemental food, sanitation, and health services. In December, WFP announced that donors had not funded it for the next two years and that it would cut rations. Donors restored some funding in February 2007. UNHCR's implementing partners, such as Lutheran World Federation, aided host communities. UNHCR supported health services for refugees and asylum seekers in urban areas, though there were limitations on referrals and expensive treatments. Refugees generally had access to national health services on par with locals but some hospitals charged foreigners double. Outside the UNHCR partner hospital, refugees had to pay.

Within the camps, UNHCR provided education to grade eight. Caritas and others provided education to grade 10 and partial support for grades 11 and 12. With international aid, Tibetan refugees attended primary schools. Non-Tibetan refugees and asylum seekers in urban areas had

to pay for their children's private schooling.

Tibetan refugees, with help from Tibetans abroad, had their own educational and medical systems. In November, however, the Government revoked without explanation the registration of the Bhota Welfare Society, an NGO run by Nepalis that aided Tibetan refugees.

Nepal cooperated with UNHCR and other humanitarian agencies helping refugees and asylum seekers and earmarked a contribution to the WFP for camp refugees. The Government did not, however, include refugees in the 2003 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper it prepared for international donors, nor did donors include refugees in their development plans. Refugees outside camps did not receive rations, nonfood items, or education.



Refoulement/Physical Protection There were no reports of *refoulement* in 2006.

In October, Niger announced that it would return the Mahamid Arabs living in the Diffa region of eastern Niger to Chad.



This population numbered about 15,000, although some reports estimated as many as 150,000. The Government soon reduced the number affected by the order to 3,300, who it alleged had false identity documents, and ultimately called off the deportation four days after announcing it. While the Government was rounding up Mahamid Arabs in preparation for the deportation, two girls died, reportedly after fleeing Government forces, and three women suffered miscarriages.

The Mahamid Arabs had arrived in eastern Niger in several waves from Chad, fleeing drought in the early 1970s and armed conflict in the 1980s. Niger never granted them refugee status, and most did not hold Nigerien citizenship.



Some had Nigerien identity papers, but a local government official said these were forgeries and acknowledged no record of a Mahamid Arab applying for citizenship. Tensions between the Mahamid Arabs and the local population over wells and other natural resources, as well as the Mahamid Arabs' hidden stocks of weapons, prompted the deportation order.

The Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) did not have an office in Niger, but monitored the country from its regional office in Benin.

Niger was party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, its 1967 Protocol, and the 1969 Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, all without reservations. Niger's 1997 Refugee Law created the Commission Nationale d'Eligibilité au Statut des Réfugiés (CNE) to hear asylum claims. The CNE's process was lengthy; it met only once during 2006 to hear 10 cases, accepting four and rejecting six. Asylum applicants had three interviews: a preliminary interview, an interview with CNE members, and an interview with the police to assess the applicant's morality. Police from the Direction de la Surveillance du Territoire also investigated all asylum seekers, often delaying cases for months and frightening applicants. The CNE President heard appeals of rejected asylum claims. In March, Niger established the Comité de Recours Gracieux to hear appeals, but it was not active.

The 1999 Constitution guaranteed equality before the law to all, "without distinction of gender or social, racial, ethnic, or religious origin." The 1997 Refugee Law granted refugees all the same rights as nationals regarding physical security, freedom of movement, health services, education, and identity documents.



Detention/Access to Courts During the aborted expulsion of the Mahamid Arabs, Niger detained nearly 30 women and children for 48 hours. There were no other reports of Niger detaining refugees or asylum seekers.

The Government issued certificates to asylum seekers valid for three months upon receiving their claims. These documents were renewable if necessary. Once Niger recognized refugees, it issued renewable identity cards attesting to their legal status in the country. Niger issued 41 asylum seeker certificates and 17 refugee identity cards during 2006.



Freedom of Movement and Residence There were no camps in Niger and refugees were free to move within the country and could choose their places of residence. The 1999 Constitution said Niger "shall recognise and guarantee freedom of

movement" without limiting the right to citizens.

Niger issued international travel documents to refugees 18 years old or older who requested them in writing

and provided documentation of the reason for travel, such as proof of registration at a foreign school or university, invitation to a conference, or proof of a medical appointment abroad. During 2006, Niger issued five such permits.

Right to Earn a Livelihood

Refugees had most of the rights of nationals to work, but Niger did not permit refugees to work in its civil service. The CNE provided refugees with letters of introduction to help them find employment. The 1999



Constitution only recognized the right of citizens to work.

Part of the tension that led to the threatened deportation of the Mahamid Arabs was the strain their livestock put on the local environment. UNHCR reported that they owned at least 100,000 camels, amongst other livestock.

Public Relief and Education

There were no restrictions on aid to refugees, and agencies including Caritas and the Red Cross helped them.



Refugees had access to primary education and health services on par with nationals. During

2006, UNHCR partners assisted 45 primary school students, 38 secondary school students, and 7 students of colleges or technical schools with tuition expenses—including both recognized and *prima facie* refugees.

The Government granted UNHCR and other humanitarian agencies access to aid refugees, but Niger did not include refugees in the 2002 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper it prepared for international donors or in its June 2006 annual progress report.

Pakistan

Refugees and Asylum Seekers 2,161,500 Afghanistan 2,160,000

New Asylum Seekers 2,000 Departures 143,100 People in Refugee-Like Situations 17,000

1951 Convention: No 1967 Protocol: No

UNHCR Executive Committee: Yes

Population: 165.8 million GDP: \$129 billion GDP per capita: \$778 'akistan . Statistic



Refoulement/Physical Protection Citing security concerns, Pakistan deported several hundred Afghans without allowing the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to screen them. It deported other Afghans for

non-security-related offenses throughout the year. In some cases, authorities allowed UNHCR or the 13 legal clinics it established to assist potential deportees.

In April, an Afghan refugee in Quetta, Baluchistan Province, accidentally detonated a bomb he was handling, killing himself and four members of his family, including two children. In August, Islamic militants kidnapped an Afghan refugee from a camp in North Waziristan, one of the Federally Administered Tribal Areas, alleged that he was a U.S. spy, and shot him three times in the head, killing him. In May 2007, Taliban militants beheaded another Afghan refugee in North Waziristan, also accusing him spying for the United States.

Pakistan was not party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees or its 1967 Protocol, and had no legislation to recognize refugees. The 1946 Foreigners Act (amended 2000) remained the only law applying to refugees and asylum seekers even though it recognized no distinction between them and other foreigners.

The Government registered 2.16 million Afghans by the end of January 2007, out of an estimated 2.4 million Afghans in the country. Some 84 percent of Afghans were unwilling to return, with nearly 42 percent citing security as the primary reason and 24 percent citing lack of jobs in Afghanistan.

During 2006, UNHCR assisted roughly 133,000 Afghans in repatriating and nearly 9,700 returned without assistance, well below the 400,000 UNHCR had planned. UNHCR attributed the low numbers to "the deteriorating security situation in Afghanistan, the challenging economic and social conditions inside the country," and the long exile, during which half the refugees were born outside Afghanistan. In 2007, UNHCR increased from \$60 to \$100 the repatriation grant it offered returnees and, as of April, only those who registered were eligible. Of the unregistered who sought repatriation grants, UNHCR found 30 percent to be ineligible either because they had no proof that they had lived in Pakistan during the previous year, or iris scans revealed they had already returned to Afghanistan with UN-HCR's assistance. UNHCR also assisted two refugees from Iraq and four from Somalia in returning to their homelands. Third countries accepted just over 120 refugees, including Afghans, Iranians, and Chinese.

Some 17,000 displaced Kashmiris remained in a refugee-like situation on the Pakistani side of the line of demarcation between Pakistan and India.

Detention/Access to Courts During 2006, the Advice and Legal Aid Center (ALAC) set up by UNHCR

and Lawyers for Human Rights and Legal Aid intervened in the cases of 148 detained Afghan refugees. Of these, authorities released 143, but held five pending court decisions at year's end. Officials selectively enforced the 1946 Foreigners Act, on



several occasions arresting hundreds of Afghans at a time, and UNHCR intervened to secure their release. Security forces often harassed Afghan refugees in their search for Al Qaeda.

Arrests of Afghans under the Foreigners Act generally declined in 2006, especially in Punjab Province. After dozens of arrests there in 2005, UNHCR intervened with the Punjab authorities who agreed to issue a directive to cease arrests of Afghans for immigration violations. In February, as a goodwill gesture to visiting President Karzai of Afghanistan, Pakistan released nearly 600 Afghans authorities had arrested and held for six months in immigration crackdowns in Karachi.

By end of January 2007, Pakistan issued identity cards to the nearly 2.16 million Afghans it registered. These cards legalized their stay in the country, and were valid through December 2009.

The 1973 Constitution granted the same protections against arrest and detention to all persons. The Foreigners Act authorized the arrest and detention of undocumented aliens, making no exception for refugees. Afghans with the new identity cards were exempt from its provisions, however. Foreigners who knowingly entered Pakistan illegally were subject to as many as ten years in prison, a \$165 (10,000 rupees) fine, and deportation at the end of the sentence.

Refugees had access to the court system for criminal and civil matters. The ALACs assisted them in criminal matters as well as in dealing with issues including harassment by police or other community members, family law matters, and rent disputes.

Freedom of Movement and Residence Around 977,000 Afghan refugees lived in 86 camps, but more than half (55 percent) of those who registered did not. Afghan refugees were generally free to move about the country and live where



they chose. Material aid was largely restricted to refugees who lived in camps, although recognized refugees living outside the camps received some aid.

As a security precaution, Pakistan reportedly ordered Afghan refugees to remain in their camps during a March visit from U.S. President George W. Bush, and arrested 150 who violated the ban. The 1973 Constitution limited its protection of freedom of movement to citizens.





Right to Earn a Livelihood

The 1946 Foreigners Act prohibited employers from hiring "a person who has no permission to stay in Pakistan," but authorities generally tolerated <u>refugees working</u> in the informal sector. Only a fifth had

jobs, nearly half of those in unskilled or day labor, and the vast majority earning less than the minimum wage of \$66 (4,000 rupees) per month. Some 200 Pakistani civil society groups meeting in federal and provincial capitals in 2005 recommended that the Government grant Afghans formal work permits to "ensure uniform treatment of Afghan and Pakistani labor and raise wage levels." Pakistan also lacked a professional registration process with criteria for degree equivalence, hindering the ability of Afghan doctors, nurses, technicians, teachers, lawyers, and engineers to practice.

In formal trade, Afghan refugees required Pakistani partners and could not hold immovable property or the necessary legal documents to run a business on their own. In the North-West Frontier Province (NWFP), Afghan refugees dominated the transportation industry; but others complained that their lack of clear legal status and the Government's unpredictable stance prevented them from making secure long-term investments.

Afghan Taliban sympathizers harassed some female refugees employed by nongovernmental organizations.



Public Relief and Education UNHCR and international humanitarian organizations provided basic health services in camps, mainly those in NWFP. Church World Service offered women's clinics, disease preven-

tion and treatment programs, nutrition, and immunization. These programs had brought down the maternal mortality rate of 500 per 100,000 live births to 39 per 100,000 live births.

About 71 percent of Afghans in Pakistan had no formal education. Basic Education for Awareness, Reforms and Empowerment, a UNHCR implementing partner, ran 171 schools in camps in the NWFP. Only about 43 percent of adolescents were literate, including only 25 percent of adolescent girls. Literacy rates were slightly higher among urban refugees.

Pakistan granted UNHCR and humanitarian agencies access to aid refugees and, in 2007, donated \$5 million (303 million rupees) for the repatriation effort, but did not mention refugees or Afghans in the 2003 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper it prepared for international donors.

Russian Federation

Refugees and Asylum Seekers 187,400 Afghanistan 107,400 Georgia 50,000

New Asylum Seekers 1,200
Departures Thousands
People in Refugee-Like Situations 6,000

1951 Convention: Yes 1967 Protocol: Yes Reservations: None

UNHCR Executive Committee: Yes

Population: 142 million GDP: \$979 billion GDP per capita: \$6,880 Russian . S

Refoulement/Physical Protection As many as one third of the 55,800 persons whose expulsion the Government ordered were potential asylum seekers denied opportunity to apply for protection, according to the human rights organization Memorial.



In the fall, in response to the arrest of Russian officers in Georgia on espionage charges, authorities launched a campaign against ethnic Georgians in Russia, including refugees from the ten-year Abkhazia conflict. The Government reported Georgians committed more than 27,400 administrative violations of migration rules and regulations governing their stay in Russia. It also reported that its judges ordered more than 5,600 expulsions of Georgians and actually deported around 4,000. Authorities delivered Georgians in large groups without lawyers to courts, which issued pre-determined administrative expulsion orders in minutes. Often they did not admit the detainees to the courtroom, keeping them in hallways or even in cars outside. The Government acknowledged that authorities submitted inaccurate information to courts resulting in expulsion orders. Prosecutors later filed 22 corrective appeals in Moscow city courts, which overturned 16 of the district court expulsion rulings.

The Government forcibly returned at least three asylum seekers registered with the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in Moscow to Afghanistan and presumably more from other locations. According to the Government, it expelled 62 Afghans in the first quarter of 2006, "including four by force," and extradited 19 Uzbeks. Russian militia members received bonuses for

returning detained persons to Uzbek authorities. In October, authorities deported asylum seeker Rustam Muminov to Uzbekistan without a court hearing his extradition appeal, just days before UNHCR had scheduled a status determination interview, and after the European Court of Human Rights had called for suspension of the extradition. A local court in Lipetsk had earlier ordered authorities to set him free, and a Moscow court later ruled his deportation illegal. In November, authorities deported two Uzbek brothers from Krasnoyarsk in Siberia for allegedly violating immigration laws and handed them over to Uzbek authorities.

In August, the Government sought the extradition of 13 UNHCR-recognized refugees to Uzbekistan, where rights advocates and Western governments suspected authorities of routinely torturing detainees, in response to accusations that they supported the Andijan unrest of 2005. It later suspended the extradition to allow the European Court of Human Rights to review the case. In November, the Supreme Court upheld the extradition. A month later, however, the Oktyabrsky District Court overturned the denial of their asylum claims because the Federal Migration Service (FMS) had not sufficiently shown the absence of torture in Uzbekistan, taken cognizance of UNHCR's grant of mandate refugee status, or considered the nonrefoulement principle of the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees. In January 2007, an appellate court upheld this judgment and the Government withdrew its other appeals. Finally, in March, a court in Ivanovo ordered their release.

Border guards and Aeroflot airlines often denied asylum seekers access to FMS and returned them to their countries of origin, including to countries where they had a well-founded fear of persecution. The Government fined airlines and charged them for food and medical services if it admitted such passengers to the country but not if the airline returned the passengers to the country of origin. The FMS Point of Immigration Control (PIC) had not accepted a case at the airport since 1999.

At least four Georgians died in custody for lack of medical attention pending deportation. In December, Manana Dzhabelia, a 52-year-old refugee from Georgia, died of a heart attack awaiting deportation in a Moscow holding center. By the time of her death, a court had overturned the decision to deport her as unlawful.

Refugees, NGOs, and the press reported that police beat, arrested, and extorted money from persons who appeared to be non-Slavic, including Roma and those from the Caucasus, Central Asia, or Africa. According to the Ministry of Internal Affairs, assailants committed more than 150 crimes "of an extremist nature" against non-Russians. Xenophobic attacks reportedly killed more than 50 persons and injured nearly 470 (up from about 30 and 410 the year before), mostly in Moscow.

In a 10-day period in late July and early August in Moscow, skinheads beat two Iranians outside Frunzenskaya Metro Station, shot a non-Slav looking veteran with an air gun, stabbed to death a 19-year-old man from Uzbekistan, wounded a Turkish national, and stabbed three people from Dagestan several times, hospitalizing two of them with life-threatening injuries. A bomb attack in August directed against central Asian traders in Moscow killed ten, including Uzbeks.

The Russian Federation was party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and to its 1967 Protocol without reservations. The 1993 Constitution provided for "political asylum...in conformity with the commonly recognized norms of international law." The 1997 Law on Refugees contained guarantees against the forced return of asylum applicants, refugees, and persons granted temporary asylum. The 1997 Decree on Political Asylum provided a procedure for granting asylum to political figures targeted for persecution, but it was nearly impossible to get. According to the Government, only 10 to 20 persons applied for it per year, and most persons seeking protection filed for refugee status instead, "since the federal law 'On Refugees' provides more governmental support." According to the Government, no one had ever received political asylum (although Memorial knew of one case since 1995).

In offering refugee status, the 1997 Law on Refugees used the definition of refugee from the 1951 Convention. FMS received and decided claims with the right of appeal. Refugee status lasted for three years and was annually renewable thereafter, if grounds remained. The Government applied a "safe third country" rule, a 24-hour deadline for applications, and narrow interpretation of the refugee definition. A 2002 FMS instruction concluded that, due to stability in countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and because their laws prohibited persecution, persons from CIS were ineligible for refugee status, including applicants from repressive regimes such as those in Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan.

The Government did not allow applicants counsel in, or public monitoring of, its administrative procedure. Applicants, however, did have the right to appeal decisions and actions of national authorities in court, with counsel and public access, and the judiciary was an effective venue for enforcement of their rights.

In 1997-98, the Government removed most of those granted refugee status in earlier years from its registry as they had not reapplied under the 1997 Law on Refugees. It had not notified them of the need to do so. This rendered about 100,000 former Soviet citizens in the Russian Federation illegal migrants with the possibility of expulsion. An amendment in January extended the deadline for former Soviet citizens to obtain citizenship until 2008, simplified some earlier requirements, and allowed those with post-2002 residence permits to apply.

The 1997 Law on Refugees also provided for granting temporary asylum for one year to persons who met the refugee definition or whom the Government could not deport for humanitarian reasons. According to the Govern-



ment, persons in danger of "foreign aggression, occupation... events that seriously disrupt the internal political situation or human rights in that country," "torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading forms of treatment or punishment," and persons from failed states could also benefit. The 2001 Resolution on Temporary Asylum defined the procedure. Application for temporary asylum could not halt expulsion if a court ordered it.

In mid-2005 authorities ceased to renew Afghans' temporary asylum, declaring, "Modern Afghan society is noted for a high level of political tolerance...there are no grounds of fear of being subjected to persecution on the part of the present Afghan authorities for their past activities." Most Afghans in the Russian Federation fled the Northern Alliance that overthrew the Najibula regime in 1992, not the Taliban.

Persons arriving at borders or airports and not yet admitted to the territory applied to one of 114 Points of Immigration Control (PIC), sub-organs of FMS, for admissibility review. The 1997 law allowed five days for this, during which time authorities held asylum seekers in transit zones or other facilities, and required persons rejected even at the admissibility level to leave the country within three days, obviating the right to appeal. In other cases, it provided an appeal decision within a month. The PICs referred rejected cases, without granting them legal entry, to UNHCR for resettlement.

In the interior process, asylum seekers in Moscow had to wait up to three years to have their claims heard, during which time they remained undocumented and vulnerable to police harassment.

In December, FMS ceased issuing certificates to applicants with their interview dates and started seizing certificates it had issued earlier. Asylum seekers had used them to appeal courts' refusals to accept their applications. Authorities also told the militia that the certificates were not binding and that their bearers were not going through status determinations. Authorities typically arrested asylum seekers for lack of residential registration under the 2002 Code of Administrative Offenses, sought their expulsion, and detained them throughout the process. About 150 applicants with lawyers were able to appeal such orders in the courts with a 70 percent success rate, arguing that the 1997 Law on Refugees protected them against *refoulement* whether the Government provided them with certificates in a timely fashion or not.

UNHCR provided legal assistance and counseling through the Refugee Reception Centre (RRC) in Moscow and the Refugee Counseling Centre (RCC) in St. Petersburg to determine eligibility for UNHCR's protection and aid, to identify durable solutions, and to monitor the national procedure. The Government did not grant legal status to UNHCR mandate refugees but tolerated their presence subject to UNHCR's commitment to support them and find durable solutions.

The Russian Federation granted refugee status to 41 persons during the year, three-quarters of them Afghans, or less than four percent of those who applied. Fewer than 400 persons held refugee status at the end of the year, just over half of them from Afghanistan and 31 percent from Georgia. The trend was steadily down from about 8,700 in 2003, 26,100 in 2000, and 239,400 in 1997. During the year, 11 regional FMS offices granted temporary asylum to 275 persons—a fourth of those who applied—244 of them from Afghanistan. Over a thousand persons held temporary asylum at the end of the year, almost all of them from Afghanistan. Hundreds of Uzbeks continued to flee and seek asylum but the Russian Federation granted it to none of them.

Detention/Access to Courts In St. Petersburg, authorities held Georgians pending

deportation with virtually no food for days, some in railway cars. The Government detained at least seven UNHCR-registered asylum seekers in



Moscow as illegal migrants after they exhausted the national procedure. Although Russian law limited the period in which an individual could be held to 180 days without a request from the Inspector General, officials refused to release the 12 Uzbek and one Kyrgyz refugee they had detained since June 2005 when this period expired in December.

Detention, whether for deportation or administrative expulsion, was subject to judicial review. Authorities detained asylum seekers for deportation as illegal aliens if migration authorities did not provide them with documentation. Courts or local prosecutors' offices reviewed detention cases but, without documentation, they generally authorized the detention or its extension. Authorities informed UNHCR of asylum seekers they detained for expulsion for lack of documents, and they had access to legal counsel. UNHCR, however, was able to monitor only one detention center for illegal migrants in Moscow.

The 1993 Constitution provided that "no person may be detained for more than 48 hours without" a court order. The 1997 Law on Refugees authorized FMS to issue certificates to asylum seekers formally in the national procedure, identity documents to recognized refugees, and temporary asylum certificates to persons with that status, providing a legal basis for them and their families to remain. Other national authorities recognized these documents. Pending appeal, however, FMS seized application certificates, making it impossible for appellants to register their residence. In June, FMS handcuffed and detained for deportation a Palestinian who re-applied for temporary asylum, denied in 2005, based on changed circumstances.

Police did not systematically investigate assaults against non-Slavic asylum seekers and others unless victims filed complaints or treated them with indifference and rarely

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prosecuted them as hate crimes. In many cases, asylum seekers did not file complaints for fear of prosecution for immigration violations, retaliation, or lack of confidence in the outcome. Bias crime convictions, however, rose to 28 from 16 in 2005 and eight in 2004. In May, a district court in Bashkortostan sentenced two Ufa residents to more than five years imprisonment for severely beating an Iraqi student in 2005.



Freedom of Movement and Residence The 1993 Constitution offered freedom of movement to everyone legally in the territory, but the Government severely restricted freedom of movement and residence by requir-

ing all persons, regardless of their status, to have registration at the place of sojourn or residence—a remnant of the

Soviet-era propiska system. Authorities discriminated against non-Slavic ethnic groups by denying them registration. A number of local governments, including those of Moscow City, Moscow Region, and Krasnodar Krai had regional acts allowing them to deny migrants residential registration. It could take months for refugees to obtain residential registration. Police constantly checked registration and often singled out traveling asylum seekers and refugees, identifying them by their non-Slavic appearance, and fined them or extorted bribes in lieu of detention or expulsion.

The 1997 Law on Refugees obliged refugees and temporary asylees to inform the respective migration service of any change in their places of residence within seven days. The penalty for failure to do so was an administrative fine although, in at least one case, the migration service stripped the temporary asylum status of an Af-

ghan. Even though the law did not provide for this penalty, a court affirmed the action.

The law required asylum seekers, temporary asylees, and refugees to surrender their national passports and other identity documents to the migration service prior to receiving certificates acknowledging their status. The Government issued them certificates valid for exiting and re-entering the country, but also required exit visas.

Krasnodar Kray authorities granted Meskhetian Turks residence permits if they had Russian passports but denied them to those who did not, effectively rendering them stateless. Authorities permitted them only temporary registration and required them to reregister every 45 days. About 23,000 applied to emigrate and, because nearly 11,000 Meskhetian Turks had left since 2004, police officers issued fewer arbitrary fines against them but continued to stop, check, and fine those not emigrating.

One Iranian refugee and her two children had to



Iranian refugee Zahara Kamalfar collapses in Canada, March 2007, after Russia made her and her two children live in a Moscow airport for nine months—sleeping on floors and bathing in restrooms—while seeking asylum. Credit: AP Photo/Vancouver Province via CP /Jason Payn



spend nine months at Moscow's Sheremytevo-2 international airport, sleeping on the floor and bathing in public restrooms. She received mandate status in December and authorities allowed her to leave for Canada in March 2007.



Right to Earn a Livelihood

While the 1997 Law on Refugees allowed documented refugees and asylum seekers with residential registration to accept wage labor on par with nationals and to run business enterprises, most were unable to do

so legally because such documentation was nearly impossible to obtain. The Code of Administrative Offenses also provided for expulsion for illegal employment. Furthermore, the 2002 Law on Foreigners required all foreigners to have permits to work, but the Government only issued them to their employers. Workers could use the permits only with those employers, for those specific jobs, and for the designated contract period. Firms had to apply with FMS and obtain a certificate that there were no Russians seeking the job, a process that took months. The Government also limited the number of permits through quotas, charged employers a deposit for the cost of the migrants' return, required them to facilitate the workers' exit and pay for deportation, if necessary, and made no exception for refugees or asylum seekers. Migrant workers could not join unions.

Open air markets presented some of the few opportunities for refugees and asylum seekers to earn livelihoods, but these were the targets of xenophobic attacks, including a bombing at Cherkizovsky market in Moscow in August that killed ten, including several Uzbeks. In November, authorities refused to admit Afghans to Traktorozavodky market in Volgograd and destroyed their workplaces. In the fall anti-Georgian campaign, authorities raided and conducted widespread inspections of Georgian-owned businesses or those that employed Georgians. In November, the Government published official quotas for foreign labor, completely banning foreigners from working in retail sales of alcohol and pharmaceuticals, as of January 2007, and in retail sales in kiosks and open air markets and other commerce outside stores—the last remaining legal livelihood for many, if not most de facto refugees—as of April.

Krasnodar Kray authorities denied residence permits to Meskhetian Turks who did not apply to emigrate, prohibited them from leasing land, working, or doing business, and denied sole proprietor registration to Afghans with temporary asylum.

The 1997 Law on Refugees at least implicitly recognized the right of refugees to own residential property, in that it provided for their expulsion from public housing should they acquire any. The Land Code provided that foreigners could own land, but not in border territories the president designated. If asylum seekers had another legal status under the Law on Foreigners, they could acquire housing and land on par with other foreigners.

Public Relief and Education

Under the 1997 Law on Refugees, recognized refugees had rights to medical services, education, vocational training, and social security on par with nationals.



The 1993 Constitution

guaranteed free education to all from pre-school to college on a competitive basis. The 1997 Law on Refugees guaranteed refugee children access to state and municipal schools on par with nationals. A 2002 Decree by Moscow area authorities required only indication of their place of residence for access to primary education, but regional authorities sometimes denied access to asylum seekers lacking residential registration. It also required schools to report to the authorities those who did not submit sojourn or residence registration. In other regions of the Russian Federation, however, registration rules and lack of documentation still effectively barred asylum seeker children from education. Officials from the Department of Internal Affairs ordered Moscow schools to produce lists of Georgians studying there to check compliance with migration regulations.

While the 1993 Constitution provided a universal "right to health care and medical assistance," it also limited its mandate upon the Government to provide free medical aid to citizens. The law guaranteed refugees access to health services, but those lacking residential registration had access to emergency services only.

Rwanda **Refugees and Asylum Seekers** 53.100 Congo-Kinshasa 49,600 Burundi 3,400 New Asylum Seekers 2,500 Departures 1951 Convention: Yes Reservations: Art. 26 1967 Protocol: Yes Reservations: Art. IV **UNHCR Executive Committee: No** African Refugee Convention: Yes Population: 9.1 million GDP: \$2.4 billion GDP per capita: \$263

Refoulement/Physical Protection Despite intervention from the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), immigration officials forcibly returned, and abandoned at the border, four Burundian refugee

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minors. Denmark had accepted these refugees for resettlement. They eventually found their way to the UNHCR office in Burundi, which helped them reach their resettlement destination. Five other Burundian refugees (also accepted

for resettlement) had to go to Uganda in order to proceed with their resettlement. Seven others had to go to Kenya, where UNHCR had been reporting such arrivals for the past three years. One Ugandan refugee left for Tanzania, fearing Rwanda could not protect him from his nearby Ugandan persecutors.

Police deported six nationals of the Democratic Republic of Congo (Congo-Kinshasa), some who were registered refugees or asylum seekers in Belgium and Burundi. The authorities said they were security threats and had problems with their identity documents but listed no specific charges.

An armed group from Congo-Kinshasa reportedly recruited between 20 and 30 children from one refugee camp as combatants or forced laborers. In 2005, the Rwanda Defense Forces reportedly participated in child soldier recruitment by such militias.

There were no reports of physical assault against refugees resulting in injury or death. However, according to a World Vision study in December, 30 out of 60 children interviewed in the Gihembe refugee camp reported sexual abuse (although the rate was even higher in other camps in the Great Lakes region) and 18 percent of the abused reported having nightmares as a result. Abused children identified teachers (23 percent), military personnel (23 percent), community members (23 percent), family members (seven percent), camp leaders (four percent), and police officers (three percent) as the perpetrators.

Rwanda was party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951 Convention), its 1967 Protocol and the 1969 Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa. It maintained a reservation to the 1951 Convention's freedom of movement provision and to the Protocol's dispute resolution provision. The 2003 Constitution recognized a right of asylum. It also explicitly extended all rights it did not reserve for nationals to legal foreign residents and established the supremacy of duly ratified treaties over statutory law.

The 2001 Refugee Law applied a modified version of the refugee definitions of the 1951 Convention (including ethnic or tribal origins and "opinions divergent from national policies" among applicable grounds of persecution) and the more general grounds of the African Refugee Convention but did not explicitly prohibit *refoulement*. The law created a National Council for Refugees (CNR) made up of representatives from several ministries to make policy concerning refugees, to grant and revoke refugee status, and to ensure respect for refugees' rights. Asylum seekers had

to report to the provincial or municipal authority closest to their point of entry and register with the closest immigration office within 15 days. The immigration office was to forward the file to CNR within 15 days and the applicant then had to fill out forms to apply for asylum at CNR, which was to decide their claims within six months. The law required CNR to issue written decisions and allowed rejected applicants to appeal within 15 days and to remain until a final decision by the State Council, which was to rule on their appeals within 60 days. After final rejections, asylum seekers had 60 days, renewable once, to leave the country. Those granted asylum had the right to bring their spouses and minor children to join them.

CNR began, and UNHCR stopped, registering new applicants in 2004 while UNHCR continued determining the status of those submitted earlier and counseled new applicants and, at CNR's invitation, attended its deliberations. In January 2006, CNR assumed responsibility for all determinations. In practice, immigration officials, part of the security apparatus serving the military and intelligence service, claimed a period of 30 days to investigate cases before transmitting them to CNR. However, CNR was not able to meet the six-month deadline for deciding claims and, since 2004, more than 400 applicants accumulated in the backlog.

During 2006, fewer than a dozen Burundians requested asylum in Rwanda; they were each recognized individually. Rwanda granted about 2,500 asylum seekers from Congo-Kinshasa *prima facie* status, although it also recognized a small number individually along with over a dozen Ugandans.

Voluntary repatriation to Congo-Kinshasa remained volatile, as political tensions continued, leading to fewer repatriations than UNHCR had originally estimated. In June, at a World Refugee Day event at Kigeme camp, CNR President Frank Gatete told all refugees in various camps in the country to go home.

Detention/Access to Courts Police arrested four Burundian minors scheduled for resettlement to Denmark and sent them to an illegal youth detention center and held them for three days on unsupported suspicions that they



were Rwandan nationals before deporting them.

In Kigali, police officers frequently arrested and detained refugees and asylum seekers who were not carrying their identification cards or refugee papers. UNHCR intervened in several cases to identify and free them. Authorities arrested seven Burundians after witnesses in the *Gacaca* process accused them of involvement in the 1994 genocide. Authorities detained two members of the Ugandan army for crossing the border illegally and failing to register with immigration. Intelligence agents approached other



Ugandans, took them to their offices, and asked them to report back regularly.

The International Committee of the Red Cross and UNHCR were generally able to monitor detention. Twice, however, police station commanders denied UNHCR access to cases linked to exit visas for resettlement until their superiors intervened. The Government did not inform UNHCR of their imprisonment but the agency learned about it from the minors' caretaker in Kigali.

The Constitution extended to all persons its protections against arbitrary detention and its due process rights. The Refugee Law expressly entitled refugees to recognition before the law.

CNR delivered attestations of status to refugees and asylum seekers in Kigali since 2004, which authorities generally recognized, but refugees in the camps who went through a verification/registration exercise in 2005 did not receive identity documents.

The Refugee Law required the immigration offices at which asylum seekers initially registered to grant them provisional residence permits until they could register with CNR. Upon granting asylum, authorities were to issue refugees, their spouses, and minor children identity cards with the right to stay in Rwanda.

UNHCR reported several cases of arrest by police requesting confirmation of status by national authorities and UNHCR. However, UNHCR training of police officers, immigration officers, and vice mayors led to fewer arrests and greater understanding by police officers in cases of identity cards.



Freedom of Movement/ Residence Around 40,000 Congolese and almost 2,000 Burundian refugees remained in camps and had to apply to camp authorities for passes to leave. Refugees in urban areas with identification papers could move freely throughout the country,

although police occasionally questioned them (Ugandans especially) about their reasons for travel. Camp-based refugees had only ration cards for identity and this inhibited their movement. The World Food Programme gave food to refugees in camps but not to those in urban areas.

In signing the 1951 Convention, Rwanda reserved the right to determine refugees' places of residence and to limit their freedom of movement "for reasons of public policy (*ordre public*)." The Constitution also reserved to citizens its right to freedom of movement, but the Refugee Law extended it to refugees.

Refugees accepted for resettlement had to pass an interview with immigration officials before receiving exit visas. Officials blocked several cases because they suspected that the applicants were Rwandan nationals. In four cases, police arrested refugees following the interview. Five had to travel overland without permits to Uganda and seven to

Kenya where UNHCR had been reporting such arrivals for the past three years.

The refugee law entitled refugees to two-year international travel documents on demand. In practice, however, the Government required refugees to show that the travel was valid and well founded and the reasons for it well documented and required a letter of authorization. The only refugee who applied for a travel document, intending to visit his family in Kenya, eventually decided to wait until his family could come to Rwanda instead.

Right to Earn a Livelihood

The Government reserved most jobs for Rwandans. Refugees needed permits to work legally, for which they also needed a government-issued identity card. Permits were too expensive for most refugees and many



worked in the informal economy in construction, mechanics, farming, and domestic work. A few professionals were able to work in the refugee camps as teachers and nurses.

The Constitution extended to all persons the rights to work, to form unions, to strike, and to own private property. The refugee law explicitly granted these rights to refugees. A 1996 decree on conditions of employment of foreigners also explicitly allowed refugees to work.

Public Relief and Education Refugees had access to national hospitals but not the national health insurance program or public assistance. UNHCR provided primary health services to camp refugees. Urban refugees received



assistance on a case-by-case basis. In February, refugees in Gihembe camp reported a lack of cooking fuel following a government directive against tree cutting.

Refugee children had access to public primary schools on par with nationals. Camp-based primary schools followed the national curriculum. The Constitution extended to all persons the rights to free primary education and to health. The refugee law granted refugees the right to housing and government aid.

The Government did not restrict humanitarian agencies' access to refugees. The 2002 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning prepared for international donors mentioned refugees (other than Rwandan returnees) in passing as a housing burden but did not propose any development plans to include them. In its July 2005 Annual Progress Report, it said that Ministry of Local Government, Community Development and Social Affairs provided "[s]upport programmes for refugees and repatriates" and listed its establishment of the CNR as one of the principal actions undertaken in "Social Protection Policy."

100

300

Saudi Arabia

Refugees and Asylum Seekers 241,000 Former Palestine 240,000

New Asylum Seekers Departures

1951 Convention: No 1967 Protocol: No

UNHCR Executive Committee: No

Population: 24.1 million GDP: \$348.6 billion GDP per capita: \$14,500

passports. They had arrived in the 1970s and under a 1986 agreement between the Muslim World League and the King to allow those fleeing from religious persecution in then-Burma to remain in Saudi Arabia for 14 years under any passport they could obtain and Pakistan agreed to provide them. Saudi Arabia was to naturalize them after that but reneged. There were also reportedly thousands of Myanmarese Muslims remaining in Saudi Arabia after arriving on pilgrimages under Bangladeshi passports.

Some 70,000 stateless *Bidoon* people also resided in

Some 70,000 stateless *Bidoon* people also resided in Saudi Arabia without any formal legal status. Saudi authorities amended the 1954 Nationality Law in 2004 to allow qualified foreigners—presumably including refugees—who were fluent in Arabic, had lived in Saudi Arabia for ten or more years, had a clean criminal record, had a valuable vocation, and who were supporting themselves through legal means to apply for Saudi citizenship. This included the stateless *Bidoon*, but not Palestinians. Saudi Arabia reserved the right to revoke citizenship within ten years if a court convicted the person of a crime or he or she committed an act that disturbed public security. The Minister of Interior also reserved the right to deny citizenship to any foreigner even if they met all qualifications.



Refoulement/Physical Protection There were no reports of *refoulement* from Saudi Arabia or physical danger to refugees there in 2006.

Late in the year, the Government announced it would allo-

cate \$500 million toward the construction of an elaborate, more than 500 mile-long (814 km), barbed-wire security fence along its northern border to keep out Iraqis. Construction was to begin in 2007 and take five years.

Saudi Arabia was not party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees. Its 1993 Basic Law stated, "the State will grant political asylum, if so required by the public interest," but the country had no law for refugee status determination. Nevertheless, in its 1993 Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the Government agreed to "provide protection to refugees present in the Kingdom." Since 1998, UNHCR carried out refugee status determinations for asylum seekers on the Government's behalf and refugees received only temporary authorization to stay.

In 2006, UNHCR processed 184 claims for refugee status. At year's end, the country hosted 250 Iraqi and 400 Eritrean refugees, plus 240,000 Palestinian refugees. Though classified only as foreigners, UNHCR stated that some Palestinian refugees were gradually coming to enjoy "a more favorable treatment that still does not exist in the local legislation."

Reportedly, there were also an undetermined number of Myanmarese Muslims in the country holding Pakistani

Detention/Access to

Courts Saudi authorities continued to confine 214 Eritrean refugees, all former military personnel, in the Jizan Coast Guard facility. The facility also held two more Eritrean fugitives who sought asylum in late



December. By year's end, the United States accepted 172 of them for resettlement. UNHCR had regular access to the detained refugees and reported good conditions.

In consultation with UNHCR, the Saudi Interior Ministry issued identity documents, which authorities respected, to 161 Iraqi refugees. Saudi courts authenticated refugees' marriage documents.

The 1993 Basic Law extended to all individuals its protections against arbitrary deprivation of liberty and ex post facto punishment and explicitly extended to foreign residents access to court in civil matters.

Freedom of Movement In

late 2005, Iraqi refugees gained the right to leave Rafha refugee camp and, by the end of 2006, less than 100 Iraqis remained there. The Government confined the movement of the Eritrean refugees in Jizan. Foreigners required travel permits



for specified distances and periods of time in order to move within the country.

Palestinians who left Saudi Arabia for six months or more could not return without acquiring a new employer or sponsor, a virtual impossibility from abroad.





Right to Earn a Livelihood

The 1970 Residence Regulations required that foreigners have residence permits in order to work, with no exception for refugees. Residence permits, in turn, required sponsors. Refugees then had to obtain work

permits, which cost around \$1,300 (5,000 Riyals). According to the 1970 Residence Regulations, sponsors could cancel sponsorship for "legitimate reasons" and have the worker detained and deported. Foreigners could not change jobs without finding a new sponsor. Media reports announced an easing of employment restrictions for businessmen. The Government denied employment to the stateless *Bidoon* people due to their lack of citizenship or residence permits.

The 1993 Basic Law provided that "the State shall provide job opportunities to all able-bodied people," implicitly affirming the right of refugees to work.

Refugees enjoyed the same rights as other foreigners to engage in business, but even this required sponsorship. The 1993 Basic Law did not limit its protections of property rights to citizens.



Public Relief and Education

Refugees were ineligible for social security, although the Government did give Iraqi urban refugees some social services and subsistence aid. All refugees had access to education in Saudi Arabia. While the 1993 Basic

Law promised job opportunities for "all able-bodied people," it reserved its guarantee of health services and social security to citizens. The 1993 MOU with UNHCR obliged Saudi Arabia to grant UNHCR access to refugees, and the Government cooperated with the agency and other humanitarian organizations and allowed them to aid refugees and asylum seekers.

Senegal **Refugees and Asylum Seekers** 23,200 Mauritania 19,700 300 New Asulum Seekers **Departures** 100 1951 Convention: Yes 1967 Protocol: Yes Reservations: None UNHCR Executive Committee: No African Refugee Convention: Yes Population: 11.9 million GDP: \$9.24 billion GDP per capita: \$777

Refoulement / Physical Protection There were no reported cases of physical assault or *refoulement* in 2006.

Asylum seekers had to apply to the National Refugee Eligibility Committee, fill out forms, and



submit application letters, photos, and identity documents. The Committee gave them receipts establishing their right to remain until the Committee ruled, and appointments for interviews with officers of the Committee and the immigration department of the Ministry of Interior within two weeks. After the interviews, the Committee met to decide cases and, if it approved, issued applicants certificates attesting to their recognition as refugees while they waited for decrees signed by the president of the country formally granting it. Rejected applicants had 15 days to appeal to the Committee if they had new facts to present, failing there, to the president of the country but not to any independent body. They could use lawyers.

Senegal was party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951 Convention) and its 1967 Protocol without reservation, and to the 1969 Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa. The 2001 Constitution established that international agreements were of higher legal authority than local laws. A 1968 law on the status of refugees recognized refugees under the mandate of the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the 1951 Convention. The law also established a refugee commission composed of the representatives of various ministries, with UNHCR as an observer, that decided to grant or revoke refugee status, and prohibited their forcible return. It also provided that refugees should enjoy all the rights of the 1951 Convention. A 1978 decree established a Refugee Commission to recommend grants or withdrawals of refugee status under the definitions of either Convention. Asylum seekers were to address their applications to the president of Senegal in care of the president of the Commission.

By the end of 2006, Senegal hosted about 23,000 refugees, mainly from Mauritania, and 2,500 asylum seekers. The majority of asylum seekers arrived from Guinea Bisseau; an estimated 700 Guineans crossed into Senegal in early 2006 due to separatist fighting in the region. Other refugees and asylum seekers arrived from Rwanda, Liberia, Sierra Leone, and Côte d'Ivoire. During the year, about 300 people filed for refugee status with UNHCR which recognized fewer than ten as refugees, although the process sometimes took a year or two.

Senegal continued to offer informal protection of nearly 20,000 Mauritanian refugees. Mauritanians repatriated informally across the border and sometimes returned to Senegal after a short period.

Detention/Access to Courts Authorities detained, usually for less than 24 hours, refugees or asylum seekers

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they found without identity cards and notified UNHCR, which could intervene for their release and monitor detention conditions. UNHCR and other NGOs also provided lawyers to detained refugees and asylum seekers.

Most Mauritanian refugees did not have identity cards, retaining only application receipts, some dating back to 1989. Refugees International reported that, in one settlement of 5,000 refugees, only 10 had refugee cards. To renew their documents, they had to travel to Dakar and pay fees, and some complained of police harassment when they tried to travel in the country. Many refugees obtained illegal identity cards to find employment and to move freely. The Committee issued receipts or certificates to 270 refugees and asylum seekers during the year, but, since 2000, had suspended issuing refugees identity documents in response to objections from the Mauritanian Government and showed no inclination to start again, despite a 1987 decree mandating their delivery and a 2005 memorandum from the refugee community requesting them.

UNHCR and UNICEF encouraged birth registry in refugee settlements, but many Mauritanian parents were reluctant to register the births of their children, fearing eventual denial of their Mauritanian citizenship.

The 1978 decree obliged the interior minister to issue to all registered refugees without charge certificates of their status and identity cards valid for ten years, renewable, and establishing the bearers' rights to remain in the country. At the beginning of each year, refugees had to present their cards to the authorities in their area of residence.

The Constitution extended to all the principle of equality before the law and its prohibition of arbitrary detention. Refugees generally enjoyed access to courts.



Freedom of Movement and Residence Refugee identity cards and asylum application receipts entitled their bearers to freedom of movement. Police took several refugees into custody for traveling without identity cards,

and others without cards complained of harassment when they traveled. Many obtained illegal cards, allowing them to move more freely.

Thousands of Mauritanians lived in two main settlements, N'Dioum and Dodel, near the border, but did not have to. No camps for other groups of refugees existed. Most lived in the river valley in villages and small settlements in a 360-mile strip on the border.

Twenty refugees received international travel documents. In order to obtain them, refugees had to apply to the interior minister, through UNHCR, confirm their refugee status, state their reasons for travel, and show a return

plane ticket. Mauritanian refugees occasionally repatriated informally.

The Constitution reserved to citizens its rights to move about freely, to choose one's place of residence, and to leave the country, but the 1978 decree provided that the interior minister would issue international travel documents to refugees. A 1989 decree offered international travel documents to Mauritanian refugees registered with the Ministry of Interior if they applied to the prefect of their department of residence.

Right to Earn a Livelihood

Refugees with only receipts but not cards could not work or open bank accounts, although many obtained illegal cards, allowing them to find employment. In at least one case, the Government denied a registered



refugee permission to practice a profession.

Refugees could engage in markets and farm work pursuant to local arrangements and were able to own property.

The Constitution guaranteed to all the right to work, including the right to form labor unions and strike. The Refugee Law granted refugees the same right to work as nationals but, with regard to practicing professions, treated them as foreigners from countries with which Senegal had the most favorable treaty. A 1971 law conditioned permission of foreigners to practice professions upon authorization of their establishments and certificates by the authorities that the applicants satisfied all legal requirements. The Constitution reserved to citizens its protection to engage in business, and to own property.

Public Relief and Education

Registered refugees in the capital, Dakar, received some aid from the *Bureau d'Orientation Social* but asylum seekers and those without status did not. UNHCR stopped providing general assistance to Mauritanians in



1998, although it continued to provide some community aid. Refugees without identity cards did not have access to public health services but registered refugees and asylum seekers had the right to the same health services as nationals.

Refugee children with birth registration could attend primary schools along with nationals, but the situation in the settlements varied. In one, all children over the age of six attended primary school, while in another, less than 50 out of 1,700 children attended.

The Constitution reserved to citizens its rights to health but extended to all children the right to go to school, and the Refugee Law granted refugees the same rights as nationals with regard to public assistance and education.

The Government generally allowed UNHCR and other humanitarian organizations access to aid refugees



and asylum seekers. The 2002 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PSRP) Senegal prepared for the International Monetary Fund and other donors noted refugee malnutrition, poverty, and vulnerability. It promised programs to reduce the social exclusion of refugees and specific arrangements "to allow them to take advantage of wealth-generating opportunities," including, with donor assistance, "a special fund to support displaced persons and refugees" and listed it as a priority action. Its 2004 and 2005 progress report on implementation of the PSRP, however, mentioned none of these, and the Government did not include refugees in any development programs.

Serbia 77,900 Refugees and Asylum Seekers 50,000 Croatia Bosnia & Herzegovina 27,400 New Asylum Seekers 100 Departures 3,800 1951 Convention: Yes 1967 Protocol: Yes Reservations: None UNHCR Executive Committee: Yes Population: 9.5 million GDP: \$31.6 billion GDP per capita: \$3,330



Refoulement/Physical Protection There were no reports of *refoulement* during 2006, but the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) did not have access to border posts and could not verify that no asylum seekers were

among the 15,300 people that Serbia turned away at these posts. They included about 3,800 Romanians, 3,300 Bosnians, 2,900 Bulgarians, 1,000 Turks, 500 Croats, and 500 Ukrainians. It also turned back 77 people it caught trying to enter the country at places other than border posts.

Serbia was party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol, by succession from the former Serbia and Montenegro, with no reservations. A new Constitution passed by referendum in November included a right to asylum and protection from *refoulement* and provided that foreigners should enjoy all of its rights except those expressly reserved to citizens. Serbia had no general refugee law, however, and UNHCR handled

all refugee status determinations. Refugees from the former Yugoslav republics were the exception, as they received *prima facie* status under the 1992 Serbian Refugee Law. The Serbian province of Kosovo was under the de facto control of the UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK). UNMIK included a procedure for determining asylum in its declaration on entry to and exit from Kosovo and granted refugee status to two asylum seekers during 2006.

Most refugees in the country were either ethnic Serbian Croats or Bosnians but many of those officials counted had already naturalized as Serbians. UNHCR helped more than 400 Croatians repatriate and more than 3,300 returned on their own. UNHCR submitted the cases of 11 refugees (six from the former Yugoslavia) to Canada for resettlement. Sixteen refugees (eight from the former Yugoslavia) submitted in 2005 left for resettlement in third countries in 2006. Asylum seekers filed no requests for voluntary return in 2006, but two Moldovans and two Ethiopians left Serbia before UNHCR processed their claims, likely to move on to Western Europe.

Detention/Access to

Courts Serbia routinely detained refugees and asylum seekers for 30 days for entry without proper documents along with illegal migrants. After 30 days, authorities transferred those who sought asylum to the



Padinska Skela Reception Center for Aliens in the Belgrade County Prison, where they detained them administratively until they could establish their identity for repatriation or UNHCR resolved their asylum claim. From Padinska Skela, applicants could contact UNHCR to seek asylum, if the Ministry of Interior cleared it. In most cases, UNHCR was able get them released to other accommodations in Belgrade until it determined their status but when they could not prove their identity or nationality, applicants remained in detention until status determination was complete. Women and children family members of applicants and unaccompanied minors seeking asylum were generally exempt from this detention and, after police screening, authorities transferred them to UNHCR housing centers.

Serbia referred seven detained asylum seekers to UNHCR during 2006. In July, authorities reported to UNHCR a Somali asylum seeker, whom they had denied entry and detained at the Belgrade airport for 70 days, when he developed severe health problems requiring urgent treatment. In March 2007, UNHCR learned of a Senegalese asylum seeker the authorities had been holding at Padinska Skela for four months.

Serbia allowed no independent monitoring of detention facilities, but, in May, the Council of Europe's Committee for the Prevention of Torture reported on a 2004 visit to Padinska Skela—finding no evidence of ill-treatment of detainees, but that the facility was overcrowded and generally in poor condition. Serbia allowed UNHCR access

to detained asylum seekers at Padinska Skela and Belgrade International Airport if the Ministry of Interior referred their cases to UNHCR or if they received the Ministry's permission to contact UNHCR directly. Authorities displayed UNHCR posters informing detainees of their right to seek asylum in Padinska Skela.

UNHCR issued identity cards to refugees it recognized and certificates to asylum seekers. While the UNHCR documents did not formally legalize refugees' and asylum seekers' stay in Serbia, authorities generally respected them. The Government issued new refugee cards to refugees from the former Yugoslavia if were not already citizens or had permanent status. Some 10,000 appealed negative decisions, but the process was not transparent.

While refugees from Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina had access to courts to vindicate other rights, asylum seekers and mandate refugees did not because Serbia did not grant them a formal legal status. In Kosovo, UNMIK provided legal assistance to refugees.

The Constitution extended to all its rights against arbitrary deprivation of liberty, to human treatment in detention, and to judicial protection of their rights but reserved to citizens the right to address international bodies for their protection. The 1980 Law on the Movement and Stay of Foreigners mandated the 30-day sentence for illegal entry, with no exception for refugees and asylum seekers.



Freedom of Movement and Residence The number of refugees and internally displaced Serbs from Kosovo residing in internationally and state-funded collective centers continued its six-year decline, dropping to fewer than 7,600, about 2,500 of them refugees from Bosnia

and Herzegovina and Croatia. Serbia provided material assistance only to those refugees living in the official centers.

Refugees recognized by UNHCR and asylum seekers not in detention were free to choose their places of residence, though the restrictions on their right to work meant most lived in housing sponsored by UNHCR. All refugees were free to move about the country as they chose, regardless of their residence.

Serbia did not issue any international travel documents.

The Constitution extended to all its right to freedom of movement but expressly noted that the law would limit the entry and stay of foreigners.

Right to Earn a Livelihood Serbia allowed refugees from Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina to work and practice professions with rights generally on par with nationals but did not extend these rights to other refugees. Even some refugees from the former Yugoslavia sometimes were not able to obtain the documents they needed to work, especially if they had lost their personal identification numbers or if the

registries in their hometowns had been destroyed.

Refugees from the former Yugoslavia could purchase property and open bank accounts, but other refugees were not able to do so.



The Constitution extended

to all its rights to work, to strike, and to join unions and its protection of working conditions. It also provided expressly for the right of foreigners to engage in markets on par with nationals and to own property. The 1992 Refugee Law, which only applied to refugees from the former Yugoslavia, provided specifically for the protection of "personal, property and other rights and freedoms of the refugees, and provide for their protection under international law, in the manner set for its own citizens." Similarly, Serbian labor laws protected Croatian and Bosnian refugees, but not other refugees, on par with nationals.

Public Relief and Educa-

former Yugoslavian refugees, but not other refugees, public relief and medical services on par with Serbian nationals. UNHCR provided medical services and other assistance to the refugees it recognized.



While refugees from the former Yugoslavia were eligible for unemployment insurance in Serbia, local bureaucracies sometimes made it difficult for them to obtain it.

Serbia gave all refugees and asylum seekers free primary education and gave refugees from the former Yugoslavia access to secondary and tertiary education on par with nationals. UNHCR helped asylum seekers and refugees under its mandate with school supplies and transportation aid.

The Constitution extended to all its rights of health services, compensation for temporary unemployment and disability, retirement, free primary and secondary education, and general public relief. Serbia did not obstruct UNHCR and other humanitarian organizations from aiding refugees but, aside from UNHCR, none were doing so.

Serbia had a 2002 National Strategy for Resolving the Problems of Refugees, Expellees and Displaced Persons, and its 2004 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) prepared by the then-Union of Serbia and Montenegro for the International Monetary Fund and other donors included some 309 references to refugees. It noted that poverty rates among refugees and IDPs were twice as high as among the general population and addressed their needs in health, education, housing, water and sanitation, and general aid. It also called for more focused monitoring of their conditions with nongovernmental organization and civil society involvement and analyzed the special needs of refugee women and children. Most notable, however, was its emphasis on rights essential to their integration into Serbian society, especially



those related to work, movement, and property:

The problem of poverty among these groups must also be considered from the perspective of basic human rights in view of their difficulties in exercising the right to freedom of movement, obtaining necessary documents, having freedom of disposal of their property, access to the formal labour market, adequate health care services, income support, quality education, and so on. Consequently, their problems can only be resolved through comprehensive measures, providing a legal status that would eliminate obstacles in their ability to exercise their guaranteed human rights and providing compensation and stimulating recovery of all the above mentioned resources.

The PRSP set forth four "strategic options": 1) basic human rights, especially the resolution of refugees' legal status; 2) closing down the collective centers, which it found "intensifies social isolation...and significantly contributes to the development and maintenance of a culture of poverty and inertness"; 3) education programs; and 4) targeted transfers making programs equally accessible to refugees and nationals. In April 2006, Serbia submitted its first progress report on the PRSP's implementation in 2005, noting modest improvements in aid delivery and the conversion of six former collective centers for refugees into homes for the elderly.

These programs applied only to refugees the Government recognized from the former Yugoslavia and not to refugees of other nationalities UNHCR recognized under its mandate. Nevertheless, it serves as a model for what a PRSP that treated refugees as rights-bearing fellow human beings might look like.

Sierra Leone

Refugees and Asylum Seekers 27,600 27,300 Liberia

New Asylum Seekers 200 **Departures** 33,300

1951 Convention: Yes

Reservations: Arts. 17 and 29 1967 Protocol: Yes

UNHCR Executive Committee: No African Refugee Convention: Yes

Population: 5.7 million GDP: \$1.42 billion GDP Per Capita: \$249

Refoulement/Physical **Protection** There were no reports of refoulement in 2006.

There were reports of sexual abuse against refugees during the year, with incidents of abuse by other refugees as well as Sierra



Leonean nationals. In February, a refugee raped a three-yearold refugee in Tobanda camp. In July, a police officer raped a 10-year-old refugee in Zimmi near the border.

In April, hundreds of Liberian refugees gathered at the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in Freetown seeking protection from harassment and intimidation in the wake of the arrest of former Liberian dictator Charles Taylor in March. Rumors circulated throughout the capital that Liberians loyal to Taylor attacked Sierra Leoneans in Monrovia, Liberia. Liberian refugees feared reprisal attacks by Sierra Leoneans in Freetown, but there were no reports that any materialized.

In June, when former Liberian combatants attacked UNHCR's office in Freetown (see below), they accused 22 refugees of treason and threatened them with violence. UN-HCR relocated them to Bo, and third countries subsequently resettled them on an emergency basis.

Sierra Leone was party to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951 Convention), its 1967 Protocol, with reservations on the right to work and exemptions from extra taxes, and ratified the 1969 Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa in 1987. Sierra Leone did not have a specific refugee law, but a 1980 amendment to the 1965 Non-Citizens Act (Registration, Immigration and Expulsion) exempted refugees under the 1951 Convention and any refugee convention Sierra Leone might later ratify from its provisions. Sierra Leone did not have a refugee status determination process but relied on UNHCR to review and decide claims.

The Relief and Resettlement Directorate of the National Commission for Social Action (NaCSA), was responsible for refugee issues. During the year, the Parliament considered a draft refugee law that would improve the protection of refugees, but only began to hold pre-legislative meetings in March 2007.

More than 33,000 Liberian refugees voluntarily repatriated during the year, and about 170 resettled to third countries.

Detention/Access to **Courts** The Government did not detain refugees or asylum seekers for exercising their rights, but police arrested several refugees for other crimes.



In June, the Government

arrested 44 Liberians, 23 women and 21 men, for vandalizing UNHCR's office in Freetown after a group of about 100 former combatants and refugees forced their way in, demanding resettlement to the United States and complaining about medical services in the camps and lack of support for repatriation. After UNHCR told them they would not be eligible for resettlement, they destroyed vehicles and office equipment in the compound. Authorities held the detainees awaiting court appearances at Pademba Road prison. The detainees included a nursing mother with her one-year-old child and a woman suffering from breast cancer. The Government identified 16 of the detainees as ex-combatants and not refugees.

Refugees based in camps in the southeast of the country used ration cards as identity documents, and UN-HCR issued attestation letters to urban and camp-based refugees upon request. Law enforcement authorities recognized both ration cards and letters of attestation.

The July case of a police officer who raped a 10-year-old refugee in Zimmi was still in court at year's end. Refugees had access to courts but were less willing than before to pursue judicial remedies against other refugees. The family of the three-year-old Liberian refugee raped in Tobanda camp settled out of court with the refugee assailant after the police's Family Support Unit learned of the crime.

The Constitution guaranteed equal protection under the law only to citizens of Sierra Leone and expressly exempted foreigners from its prohibition of laws and actions under law that were discriminatory on the basis of race, tribe, sex, place of origin, political opinions, color, or creed but extended to all persons its protection from arbitrary arrest or detention.



Freedom of Movement and Residence The Government did not restrict refugees' freedom of movement. Refugees were able to choose their place of residence within Sierra Leone. The majority of refugees lived in camps located in the southeastern region

of Sierra Leone, while some 5,000 lived in Freetown, Bo, and Kenema.

In April, after the arrest of Liberia's former dictator Charles Taylor and rumors of attacks on Sierra Leoneans in Liberia, Liberian refugees in Freetown expressed fear of moving about for fear of reprisal attacks by Sierra Leoneans.

Sierra Leone's border with Liberia was officially open, but police, customs officials, and soldiers reportedly demanded bribes for passage. To receive international travel documents, UNHCR required refugees to meet several criteria such as proof of acceptance at an educational institution outside of the country. As none met these requirements, none received them.

The Constitution explicitly provided for restrictions on the freedom of movement and residence of noncitizens.

Right to Earn a Livelihood

Sierra Leone required all foreigners, without exception for refugees, to obtain permits to work. They could apply for work permits on their own or through their employers on the same terms as other migrants



and had to pay fees and present passport photos to the Ministry of Labor to obtain them. The permits cost about \$22.

Sierra Leone maintained a reservation to the 1951 Convention's right of refugees to work, stating that "it considers the article to be a recommendation only" and to its exemptions from extra taxes, stating that "it reserves the right to impose special taxes on aliens as provided for in the Constitution." The Constitution of Sierra Leone reserved to citizens the rights to "secure adequate means of livelihood" but extended to "all persons in employment" protection of health, safety, and welfare.

Refugees could own moveable property, but could not own land or other non-moveable property. The Constitution provided that "no property of any description" could be taken arbitrarily, without limiting this to the property of citizens.

Public Relief and Education

UNHCR and its implementing partners provided food, education, medical services, water, and sanitation to camp-based refugees, but the World Food Programme announced in July that it would be ending food aid in December.



There were no restrictions on agencies assisting refugees, and the Government granted duty-free concessions to such agencies.

The Constitution of Sierra Leone granted all citizens the opportunity to "be educated to the best of [their] ability, aptitude and inclination." In practice, this assurance extended to refugees through the provision of education in refugee camps and UNHCR's provision of limited scholarships for tertiary education.

The Government allowed UNHCR and other humanitarian organizations access to aid refugees. The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper Sierra Leone prepared in 2005 for international donors did not mention refugees except those returning to Sierra Leone. Its September 2006 Annual Progress Report did not mention refugees at all.