Country Technical Notes on Indigenous Peoples’ Issues

THE REPUBLIC OF BURUNDI

Submitted by:

IWGIA

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ACHPR  African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights
AIDB  Association pour l’intégration et le développement durable au Burundi
ASC  Agents de santé communautaire (Community Health Workers)
ASF  Avocats sans Frontières (Lawyers without Borders)
AU  African Union
CAM  Carte d’Assistance Médicale (Health Insurance Card)
CAS  Country Assistance Strategy (World Bank)
CBFP  Congo Basin Forest Partnership
CENI  Commission Electorale Nationale Indépendante (National Electoral Commission)
CEPI  Commission Electorale Provinciale Indépendante (Provincial Electoral Commission)
CNIDH  Commission Nationale Indépendante des Droits de l’Homme (National Independent Human Rights Commission)
CNDD-FDD  Conseil national pour la Défense de la Démocratie—Forces pour la Défense de la Démocratie (political party)
CNTB  Commission Nationale des Terres et Autres Biens (National Commission for Land and other Property)
COMIFAC  Commission des Forêts d’Afrique Centrale/Commission of Central African Forests
COSA  Comité de Santé (Health committee)
COSOP  Country Strategic Opportunities Paper (IFAD)
CRC  Committee on the Rights of the Child
CVR  Commission Vérité Réconciliation (Truth and Reconciliation Commission)
DRC  Democratic Republic of Congo
FAO  Food and Agricultural Organization
FCPF  Forest Carbon Partnership Facility
GDI  Gender Development Index
GDP  Gross Domestic Product
GHI  Global Hunger Index
GEF  Global Environmental Fund
GNI  Gross National Income
HDI  Human Development Index
HIV/AIDS  Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
HRC  Human Rights Council
IDP  Internally Displaced Person
IFAD  International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFC  International Finance Corporation
IHDI  Inequality adjusted human development index
ILO  International Labor Organization
IMF  International Monetary Fund
INGO  International NGO
IPP  Indigenous Peoples Plan
ISTEEBU  Burundi Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies
IWGIA  International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs
MDG  Millennium Development Goals
NGO  Non-Governmental Organization
ODA  Official Development Assistance
OHCHR  Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
OP  Operational Policy
OPEC  Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
REDD  Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
UNCT  United Nations Country Team
UNDAF  UN Development Assistance Framework
UNDP  UN Development Program
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>UNDRIP</td>
<td>UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIPROBA</td>
<td>Unissons-nous pour la promotion des Batwa</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNPO</td>
<td>Unrepresented Nations and Peoples Organization</td>
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<td>UPR</td>
<td>Universal Periodic Review</td>
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<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
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<td>WBG</td>
<td>World Bank Group</td>
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<td>World Health Organization</td>
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<td>WWF</td>
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Country Technical Note on Indigenous Peoples’ Issues
Republic of Burundi

Summary

The Twa “Pygmy” of the Republic of Burundi are a small minority of around 80,000 people that self-identify as indigenous and are considered as such by the African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights and the UN system. Burundi’s 2005 Constitution recognizes them as one of the three ethnic groups in the country and provides that they are represented (by co-option) in the parliament and the senate. This, however, does not mean that the state recognizes them as an indigenous people or that it acknowledges the concept of indigeneity and the specific rights attached to it.

Traditionally forest dwellers and hunters-gatherers, the Twa have, through disproportionate deforestation and nature conservation initiatives, gradually lost their traditional habitat and their forest-based livelihoods, including their status as having specific forest-related knowledge and know-how. As a result of this dispossession, they live today on the margins of mainstream society, scattered all over the country in conditions of poverty and great hardship.

As a result of more than a decade of civil war, Burundi is today one of the world’s poorest countries, and the majority of Burundians confront high levels of poverty as well as lack of basic infrastructure and limited access to basic social services. The Twa experience the same conjunctural problems, but at the same time they also deal with historical and structural issues. These include extreme discrimination, which, although not officially allowed, prevails both at the public and personal level; landlessness, which has forced some of them to live under the infamous ubugererwa system, or very limited access to land on which they can sustain themselves as farmers; and difficulties in accessing marshlands from which they can extract clay for pottery making—a traditional occupation which today is also threatened by competition from industrial products.

Many Twa therefore rely on working as day laborers, squatting on other people’s land or begging. Without decent housing, poor access to water and sanitation, hunger and malnutrition, lack of knowledge about diseases such as HIV/AIDS, the Twa's health situation is alarming. The Twa's low school participation and school retention rates are due to poverty and hunger, discrimination and the parents’ lack of motivation and traditional attitudes especially in the case of girls. Gender relations are no longer as equal as before and women are today more dependent on their husbands and more exposed to domestic violence and family neglect. They have little access to education, are often forced into early marriages and polygamy is widespread. They also face discrimination from main society and sexual abuses such as rape are frequent. Twa children suffer from malnutrition and hunger that hamper their physical and mental development in general and their school attendance in particular.

The Twa face many constraints when dealing with justice and most abuses committed against them remain in impunity. The fact that they too were killed and traumatized during the 1993-2000 crisis is often forgotten. Considered as second rate citizens, the Twa have had little opportunity for participating in public life. This has somewhat changed with the new 2005 Constitution which allows them to organize and ensures their co-optation in the two houses of parliament as well as in other state institutions and in municipal councils. However, when it

1The term Twa is used throughout this note except in citations where the Bantu prefixes indicating singular and plural forms (Mutwa and Batwa) may occur. Twa is a Bantu term used throughout sub-Saharan Africa for different groups of people of very low status, referring in almost every case to hunter-gatherers and former hunter-gatherers as, e.g., ‘Pygmy’ people, who are recognized as the prior inhabitants of the area.
comes to the rights of the Twa, the Constitution constitutes the only legal reference, and Twa representatives have criticized its ethnic quota system for not taking the Twa into consideration in several important articles. They also advocate for a specific law protecting and promoting their rights, or for at least the adoption and implementation of affirmative action policies.

Burundi has signed and ratified a wide range of international and regional human rights instruments, but abstained from voting for UNDRIP. It has not ratified ILO Convention No.169. Civil society is still weak, but the Twa have been able to establish a number of NGOs that work at the national and local level for the human and fundamental rights of their community.

IFAD’s COSOP 2009-2014 does not specifically mention the Twa, nor do the project documents of its two large on-going rural projects. Burundi is one of the largest recipients of international humanitarian assistance and relies heavily on ODA. The World Bank has 13 on-going programs/projects, five of which have triggered OP. 4.10.

Even though the Twa face diverse and formidable challenges, they enjoy certain rights which entail opportunities, such as having their own representative organizations; being directly represented in the two legislative assemblies and in several other national and local bodies. The government recognizes their destitution and it is possible for external development aid to directly target them and their specific needs. These opportunities should enable the Twa, in partnership with the donor community, to face challenges such as, *inter alia*, eliminating/alleviating the prevailing discrimination; getting access to land and production means so they can sustain themselves; meeting basic needs; and getting free and equal access to health care facilities and school education.

Donor support will greatly benefit from seeking the advice and the collaboration of national and local Twa organizations. Experience has also shown that in order for the Twa to benefit from project activities on par with other groups, any intervention should be based on participatory consultations in which all stakeholders participate and give space and time for decisions to be taken on a consensual basis. Specific initiatives could include:

- Supporting Twa organizations in informing and training their members so they know and understand their rights and regain enough self-esteem and confidence to claim and enjoy these rights.
- Supporting the establishment of constructive dialogues between Twa and neighbor communities, using traditional conflict resolution mechanisms and psychosocial methods to eradicate or alleviate discrimination.
- Supporting Twa communities’ participation in decision-making bodies at village level.
- Supporting and facilitating the Twa’s access to land and secure tenure rights so efforts to improve their livelihood are sustainable.
- Supporting the Twa’s access to production means and provide training to improve output and, if applicable, quality.
- Supporting initiatives to improve the human and fundamental rights situation of Twa women and children.
The indigenous peoples of Burundi

1.1 The national context

The Republic of Burundi is a small landlocked country in the Great Lakes region of East Central Africa, bordering with Rwanda to the north, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) to the west, Tanzania to the east and the south (Map, Annex 1.). With a total area of 27,830 sq. km, the country is mountainous and hilly, dropping to a high plateau in the east; it enjoys a tropical highland climate with moderate temperatures and two wet seasons (February to May and September to November). Dry seasons vary in length, and prolonged periods of drought occur.

The country’s estimated population is 9.42 million. The two major ethnic groups are the Hutu (84 percent) and the Tutsi (14 percent). The Twa, a “Pygmy” people, are a small indigenous minority and number about 1 percent. It is estimated that some 60 percent of the population are Roman Catholics, 15 percent are Protestant, a small minority are Muslims and 20 percent follow traditional beliefs. Kirundi is the official, national language; French is the main official foreign language and the second language of instruction.

Burundi is administratively divided into 17 provinces including the capital, Bujumbura, 129 communes, and 2,638 collines (hills). It is a predominantly rural country, with around 90 percent of the population depending on subsistence agriculture. But Burundi is also one of the most densely populated countries in Africa (354 inhabitants/sq. km) and has one of the highest annual population growth rate in Sub-Saharan Africa (average 3.2 percent since 2010). This has made the competition for scarce land resources an important driver of continued economic and political fragility. Burundi furthermore confronts major environmental issues like deforestation, soil erosion and climate change, which further jeopardize its dependence on rain fed agriculture to support rural livelihoods and cash crop exports (tea, coffee). Natural resources include nickel, uranium, gold, cobalt, etc., but are largely unexploited and the potential for hydropower. Coffee and tea are major exports, accounting for 70-85% of foreign exchange earnings.

Burundi achieved independence from Belgian administered trusteeship in 1962 (see Annex 2, Historical Background). After a brief period under constitutional monarchy, a republic was proclaimed in 1966 under the leadership of a Tutsi army officer from the Bururi province. The following years were characterized by political instability and increasingly violent ethnic clashes between Tutsi and Hutu. A first attempt at democracy in 1993 ended in a low-intensity civil war that ended in peace agreements in 2006.

2 Highest peak is Mt Heha (2,670 m), in the eastern part of the country and the average altitude is 1,700 m.
3 Projection for 2013. ISTEEBU (Burundi Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies) at http://www.isteebu.bi/
4 The term Twa is used throughout this note except in citations where the Bantu prefixes indicating singular and plural forms (Mutwa and Batwa) may occur. Twa is a Bantu term used throughout sub-Saharan Africa for different groups of people of very low status, referring in almost every case to hunter-gatherers and former hunter-gatherers as, e.g., ‘Pygmy’ people, who are recognized as the prior inhabitants of the area.
5 Reliable statistics on the size of various religious groups are not available and estimates vary greatly.
6 The provinces are named after their capital and are: Bubanza, Bujumbura Mairie, Bujumbura Rural, Bururi, Cankuzo, Cibitoke, Gitega, Karuzi, Kayanza, Kirundo, Makamba, Muramvya, Muyinga, Mwaro, Ngozi, Rutana, Ruyigi. The “collines” are small villages with scattered homesteads.
8 Burundi lost 47% of its forest cover between 1990 and 2005. Today, forests cover 152 000 ha or 6 % of Burundi’s total land area and are categorized in modified natural (44%) and productive plantation (56%). See http://www.fao.org/forestry/country/32185/en/bdi/ [accessed 03.11.2014].
9 Almost 30 percent of Burundi’s population lives in areas which are likely to be affected by recurrent droughts and floods. World Bank, op. cit.
10 The uncontrolled exploitation of mineral resources, in particular gold and cobalt, is another important environmental issue.
11 The worst incident occurred in 1970-71 when more than 100,000 Hutu were killed, and 300,000 fled to Tanzania.
war (often referred to as the “crisis”) between the Tutsi-dominated army and the Hutu rebel forces. More than 300,000 lives were lost and hundreds of thousands peoples were left as internal and external refugees before the Arusha Peace and Reconciliation Agreement of August 2000 was signed. The adopted peace plan included a power-sharing agreement that has been relatively successful. In 2005, a new Constitution establishing the terms by which the two ethnic groups would share power and recognizing fundamental human rights for all Burundians was adopted by referendum and a new leader was democratically elected. Since then, some 800,000 refugees have returned and national and presidential elections have been held in 2010, re-electing Pierre Nkurunziza, president since 2005, to his second term. The next national and presidential elections are slated for 2015 and it is right now being discussed whether Nkurunziza’s second term should be his last term or not. According to the party in power (CNDD FDD), he may run again since he was not elected to his first term by a popular vote but by the Senate and the Parliament. In early 2014, however, an attempt to amend the Constitution and allow the president to run for another term in 2015 failed.

The toll of civil war has been high also economically and recovery has been slow with a GDP growth average of 3–4 percent per annum. Burundi is today one of the poorest countries in the world, with almost 70 percent of the population living below the poverty line and with limited access to basic services, including health care and infrastructure. The challenges faced by the government include the need to diversify its economy and strengthen good public governance including fighting high levels of corruption, poor performance of public administration, a critical human rights situation, and increased armed violence.

Burundi ranks 180 (out of 187) on the 2013 HDI and 182 on the inequality-adjusted HDI. It ranks 109 on the GDI and with more than 60 percent of its population being undernourished, its 2014 GHI is “extremely alarming” (Tables 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3, Annex 3).

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12 It is estimated that more than 500,000 refugees came to live in camps in western Tanzania and further 300,000 refugees were dispersed and precariously settled within Tanzania. At the same time, some 280,000 internally displaced persons (IDPs) were living in 226 registered sites within Burundi. In 2014, Burundi still had close to 80,000 IDPs. It was also hosting over 50,000 refugees, most from the DRC. UNHCR, at http://www.unhcr.org/pages/49e45c056.html [accessed 03.11.2014].

13 This Agreement was signed by 19 representatives from Burundi (including the government, the National Assembly, political parties and warring factions) in the presence of Nelson Mandela (facilitator of the agreement), several African heads of states, Kofi Annan, UN Secretary General and the Secretary-General of the Organization of African States. http://www.issafrica.org/AF/profiles/Burundi/arusha.pdf [accessed 20.10.2014]

14 In 2003 and 2004, peace keeping missions had to be deployed and several violent incidents occurred in the following years. A cease fire agreement with the last rebel group was signed in 2008.

15 While domestic and international observers judged the elections to have been free and fair, the opposition parties denounced “massive electoral fraud” and called for an electoral boycott. Many of their members were subsequently arrested and opposition leaders left the country or went underground.

16 This is due to several factors including poor diversification, lack of adequate infrastructure, unskilled or a low capacity labor force.

17 Despite signs of progress it is considered unlikely that Burundi will reach the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015, World Bank, Overview May 2014. http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/burundi/overview#1 [accessed 05.11.2014].

18 World Bank, CAS, op. cit.


1.2 Terminology

The respect for ethnic diversity is enshrined in article 1 of the Constitution, which recognizes the Twa as one of the three ethnic groups in the country. It also stipulates that three members of Parliament and three members of the Senate should come from the Twa ethnic group and be co-opted in accordance with the Electoral Code.21 However, this does not mean that the Twa are recognized as an indigenous people of Burundi or that Burundi acknowledges the concept of indigeneity and the specific rights attached to it. Burundi abstained from voting for UNDRIP in 2007 and has not ratified ILO Convention No. 169. The Twa, however, self-identify as indigenous and are considered as such by the African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights (ACHPR), as well as by UN mechanisms for the promotion and protection of human rights, on the basis that the Twa meet four of the recommended principles to be taken into account in any possible definition of indigenous peoples.22

1.3 Demography and location

The national Statistical Institute does not provide ethnically disaggregated data but according to a nationwide survey conducted in 2006 and 2008 by UNIPROBA—a national Twa NGO—the Twa population numbered at the time 78,071 individuals.23 As shown in Table 1.1, below, Twa were living in all 17 provinces. However, the highest concentrations were found in eight provinces,24 most of them bordering with Rwanda to the north and DRC to the west (Map, Annex 1). The Twa are predominantly a rural population and 58.4 percent were under 18 years old. The survey also showed that a relatively high percentage of the Twa households were headed by widows (17.3 percent), a clear indication that the Twa too suffered many losses during the civil war.25

22 These principles are (a) priority in time—it is generally recognized that the Twa were settled in the region prior to the arrival of the Hutu (from the 5th to the 11th century) and the Tutsi (14th century) and they are often called "Basangwabutaka", i.e., "those that were already occupying the land"; (b) the voluntary perpetuation of cultural distinctiveness; (c) self-identification, as well as recognition by other groups, or by State authorities, as a distinct collectivity; and (d) an experience of subjugation, marginalization, dispossession, exclusion or discrimination, whether or not these conditions persist. See, e.g., ACHPR, Report of the African Commission’s Working Group of Experts on Indigenous Populations/ Communities (Banjul & Copenhagen: ACHPR & IWGIA, 2005).
24 Bubanza, Cibitoke, Gitega, Karuzi, Kayanza, Kirundo, Maramvya and Ngozi.
25 See IWACU, 18-09-2013 at http://www.iwacu-burundi.org/que-connaissent-les-batwa-de-la-cvr/ [accessed 01.11.2014]
Table 1.1. Twa population by provinces 2006-2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCE</th>
<th>TWA POPULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bubanza</td>
<td>6,676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bujumbura Mairie</td>
<td>849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bujumbura Rural</td>
<td>5,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bururi</td>
<td>3,956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cankuzo</td>
<td>786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cibitoke</td>
<td>7,979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gitega</td>
<td>6,079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karuzi</td>
<td>6,732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kayanza</td>
<td>6,473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirundo</td>
<td>7,947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makamba</td>
<td>2,071</td>
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<tr>
<td>Muramvya</td>
<td>6,203</td>
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<tr>
<td>Muyinga</td>
<td>4,700</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mwaro</td>
<td>3,126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ngozi</td>
<td>8,088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rutana</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruyigi</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>78,071</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2. Socio-economic profile

Almost 2/3 of Burundi’s population lives below the poverty line and suffer from the lack of basic infrastructure and limited access to basic social services particularly when living in rural areas. Poverty is more pronounced in rural areas where it affects nearly 69% of households compared with 34% in urban areas.26 Up to 60 percent of the population suffers from food insecurity, and levels of hunger are considered to be “extremely alarming”.27

There is no national statistical base for assessing the Twa’s socio-economic status, but the available information shows that they experience not only the same challenges as the Burundians in general. These challenges are often conjunctural and due to the post-conflict situation, while the challenges faced by the Twa are often due to historical and structural factors.

2.1 Dispossession and discrimination

One of the specific issues faced by the Twa is the pervasive discrimination they experience. While to some extent a traditional phenomenon, this discrimination has since independence been more closely related to the Twa’s poverty, which is the result of the loss of their traditional territories—the forests—and of their forest-based livelihoods as hunter-gatherers.

The pre-colonial status of the Twa in Burundi has been likened to that of a “caste”, with specific economic, technical and ritual characteristics, including a special intonation when speaking the national language, Kirundi. Living in small mobile family groups, they considered the forest areas as their home. Here, they could move freely, staying in one area for a few months to hunt and gather food before moving on to a new area when resources were getting scarce. Marshlands were also important for them since they provided the clay used in their

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27 Global Hunger Index 2014, op. cit.
pottery. This lifestyle set them apart from the surrounding society of farmers and herders and defined their mutual relationship. On the one hand, they were appreciated for their forest-related knowledge and activities: the animals they hunted, the medicinal herbs and honey they collected and the pottery they made were exchanged with the agricultural products of their neighbors; they were also involved in certain activities for the Mwami (the king) such as wielding weapons (arrows), taking part in the royal hunts and warfare, and entertaining the court with their music and dancing. On the other hand, they were shunned and stigmatized. Hutu and Tutsi would not visit their homes, eat or drink with them or intermarry with them.

As long as they had access to forest areas, the Twa way of life was rarely affected. This began to change during the Belgian colonial period, when new regulations regarding access to forests and hunting were introduced and marshlands were increasingly taken over for agricultural purposes. After independence, hunting was banned across the whole of Burundi, and deforestation grew disproportionately, so it became increasingly difficult for the Twa to carry on with their traditional activities. In the 1980s, new conservation measures and a Forest Code further restricted their access to and use of forest produces. At the same time, Twa pottery was gradually being outcompeted by modern kitchen utensils.

Dispossessed of their traditional habitat, unable to sustain themselves any longer with forest-related resources, the impoverished Twa lost any status they might have had and were left fully exposed to the discrimination and prejudice of their fellow Burundians. This made it almost impossible for them to access land and take up agriculture and husbandry, to find employment or to benefit from the public services and social developments other Burundians enjoyed; at the personal level, the Twa lived in enforced segregation from the rest of the population who treated them as pariahs; deprived of any rights, they suffered high levels of abuse and physical violence. As a result, they came to feel “irrelevant, unvalued and excluded—a forgotten people”.

Today, discrimination on the base of ethnicity is no longer officially allowed and it is a positive development that Twa are represented both in the parliament and the senate as well as in the East African Legislative Assembly and there is a Twa in the General State Inspectorate and in the National Land Commission (Commission Nationale des Terres et Autres Biens, CNTB). On the whole, however, Twa continue to be marginalized and discriminated at all levels. They suffer from extreme poverty and their access to land, health services, education, justice and decision-making bodies remains limited. At the personal level, their stigmatization also persists. Internally displaced Twa, for instance, have been reported to live in particularly difficult conditions, in huts set apart from other IDPs; many Twa still live and work under the

29 In 1926, law texts applying to Belgian Congo came into use in Burundi, introducing, e.g., the development of agriculture on marshland). Legislation related to the establishment of forest reserves was also adopted; hunting became a strictly regulated activity and Twa were no longer allowed to live in protected areas. The first forest reserve was created in 1933 on the Congo-Nile watershed (today the Kibira National Park). Two other forest reserves were established in Bururi in 1951.
30 Mwami’s Order No. 050/65 of 22 March 1966.
31 Decree No. 1/6 of 3 March 1980 establishing national parks and nature reserves in Burundi stipulated, inter alia, the restriction on settlement less than 1000 m from protected areas. Today, the country has 14 protected areas representing 5.6% of the national territory.
32 Law No. 1/2 of 25 March 1985 establishing the forestry code. Articles 45 and 56 explicitly ban usage rights.
traditional *Ubugererwa* institution which has been likened to a form of servitude. Twa, in general and Twa school children in particular, are often the victims of contemptuous language or behavior. While Twa now may share a water post with their Hutu and Tutsi neighbors, intermarrying is still totally unaccepted.

### 2.2 The land issue

With 90 percent of the population depending on agriculture and an average annual population growth of 3.0, land has become a very scarce resource in Burundi. This situation has in recent years been further exacerbated by the return of several hundred thousand refugees and IDPs claiming their former land back. The result is that the average size of land holdings is now less than 5,000 sq. m—far from enough to feed a family and conflicts and crimes related to land issues constitute the major part of the court cases.

As a small discriminated minority without any traditional links to agriculture and husbandry, the Twa have experienced great difficulties in accessing land. The UNPROBA survey showed that while a large proportion of the surveyed households (85 percent of 20,155 households) owned some land, almost 80 percent of their land plots measured less than 1,000 sq. m—i.e. a fifth of the national average size—and could only be used for housing needs and not for cultivation or husbandry (Table 3.3, Annex 3). These plots had been acquired in various ways—through inheritance, as a gift from the erstwhile royal rulers or as part of local distribution schemes for landless households. In the latter case, the plots received by the Twa in a given municipality were all of the same size which, depending on the municipality, ranged from 200 sq. m to 2000 sq. m. Most of the Twa landowners did not have title deeds or papers attesting their ownership. Even the public land transfers were often based on verbal agreements with the provincial governors or even with the municipal authorities who did not have the authority to allocate land.

Not all the provinces, however, have had land schemes and the UNPROBA survey showed that 15 percent of the Twa households were landless (Table 3.6, Annex 3). Half of these households lived under the *ubugererwa* system. Becoming a *mugererwa* had originally been seen as a solution which provided the Twa with some protection, some land and the possibility of continuing to practice hunting and pottery. *Ubugererwa* was abolished in 1977 but unlike other Burundians who freed themselves from the practice, many Twa have continued living as *bagererwa* (plural form of *mugererwa*)—possibly because they were not aware that the law

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35 The *Ubugererwa* system implies a contract between a landowner (*sbebuja*) who allots a land parcel to a farm worker (*mugererwa*) for his use and benefit for an indefinite and revocable duration. The worker and his descendants are under the obligation to work and serve the *sbebuja* in various (not defined) ways or pay him in kind thereby showing their allegiance. In return, they will be under the *sbebuja*’s protection. See OAG, op. cit., p. 22.

36 See *IWACU*, 18-09-2013, op. cit.

37 Many of the returnees have come back to find their land occupied, their property boundaries changed, or deeds to their property given to someone else. Land has also been taken over by the state to be used for cash crop exploitation (palm oil, sugar, rice), making land claims more difficult. See, e.g., IRIN "More to it than just land - lessons from Burundi", (21 November 2012), http://www.refworld.org/docid/50af570b2.html [accessed 2 November 2014].


39 It is estimated that land conflicts within families or between neighbors represent 72% of all court cases and 60% of all crimes are linked to land. USAID, "Burundi-Property Rights and Resource Governance" (2010), p. 9. http://www.usaidlandtenure.net/search/node/Burundi [accessed 25.10.2014].

40 Those in power have often monopolized and manipulated the distribution of lands. Crisis Group, op. cit., p.6.


44 The Decree No. 1/19 of 30 June 1977 terminated all *Ubugererwa* contracts passed before 30 June 1977; it provided that the *bagererwa* were given the land they occupied and tilled.
had been abolished or because the local judges did not know that the provisions of the abrogation decree also applied to the Twa.\textsuperscript{45} The other landless Twa households lived on land borrowed from a neighbor, a precarious situation too, since they had no rights and could be thrown out without notice. There have also been cases where returning Twa refugees have not been able to recuperate their former land holdings, as well as cases where Twa have been expropriated and their land used to establish “peace villages”\textsuperscript{46} for returning refugees.\textsuperscript{47}

In 2009-2011, UNIPROBA carried out with support from IWGIA a nation-wide land distribution project, identifying together with the provincial administrations vacant state-land that could be allocated to the Twa. In total 477 hectares were distributed to 12,168 households, i.e., in average 0.2 ha per lot.\textsuperscript{48} A major problem was that in most cases no formal land titles were issued.

The new Land Code adopted in 2011\textsuperscript{49} has not greatly improved the Twa’s land situation. Article 218 does stipulate that the state “can transfer land for free but only to the benefit of persons without any land”. Reports, however, suggest that many Twa still remain without land. One reason could be that the new Code is not yet widely known and implemented.\textsuperscript{50} Another that the Twa are not comfortable with the procedures for applying and getting a land plot since these imply help from the local administration.\textsuperscript{51} As long as this unfortunate situation persists, many Twa have no other options than wander in search of land and jobs, beg or even sometimes steal from other people’s fields, all of which reinforces the stereotypes used against them (for being nomadic, unreliable and lazy).\textsuperscript{52} As for the Twa refugees having lost their land, the National Commission for Land and other Property (Commission Nationale des Terres et Autres Biens, CNTB)\textsuperscript{53} has indicated that it was willing to help the Twa to recover their land rights but needed to have an inventory of the lands that had unjustly been appropriated.

Another land-related issue for the Twa is their traditional access to marshlands to extract clay for their pottery. Today, many marshlands have been drained and taken over by farmers for agricultural purposes, thus jeopardizing the Twa’s user rights.\textsuperscript{54} The status of marshlands has never been very clear—whether they belonged to the state or to those who exploited it. The new Land Code dedicates an entire section to marshlands, where it is stipulated, inter alia, that those belonging to the public and the private domains of the state may be subject to authorized use or to granted use.\textsuperscript{55} The situation remains therefore unclear\textsuperscript{56} as to whether

\textsuperscript{45}See OAG, op. cit. (2009), p. 31.
\textsuperscript{46}“Peace Villages” were built between 2003 and 2008 to provide homes for landless returnees and to foster reconciliation between the Hutu, Tutsi and Twa communities. They have been heavily criticized and residents complain about their isolation and the lack of access to land and basic services. Drawing on lessons learned, a second generation of villages, now called “integrated rural villages” have been built later as part of a “villagization” strategy and no longer targeting IDPs only. See Zeender “Securing the Right to Stay”, op. cit. (2011), p. 29.
\textsuperscript{48}In three provinces, the administration refused to collaborate; in several others there was hardly any vacant state-land and in only two provinces were the allocated lots large enough to be cultivated.
\textsuperscript{51}Many Hutus and Tutsi are also landless. A 12-years old inventory estimated that the area of available and habitable lands owned by the state amounted to 141,445 ha only. See IWACU 26.02.2014, at http://www.iwacu-burundi.org/la-mauvaise-gouvernance-retrecit-le-burundi-la-gestion-fonciere-dans-tous-ses-etats/ [viewed 31.10.2014].
\textsuperscript{52}See IWACU, 12-08-2013, op. cit.
\textsuperscript{53}The CNTB was set up in 2006 to handle land disputes between returnees and those who had stayed in Burundi and had occupied the land left vacant.
\textsuperscript{54}See Crisis Group, op. cit. (2014), p. 11. The marshlands are also a source of clay for housing construction and brick-making as well as peat as a fuel alternative to firewood.
\textsuperscript{55}Loi 1/13 du 9 août 2011, Titre VI: Du Régime des terres de marais (Art. 438-451).
such authorizations and grants will include the specific marshlands used by the Twa. The Land Code also states that clay, in accordance with the Mining and Oil Code, belongs to the state. Doubts, however, have been voiced as to whether the exploitation of clay may be considered to be a criterion of land development on par with agriculture.57

2.3 Economic poverty and social inequality

Most observers consider the Twa to be the poorest of the poor.58 Quoting Burundi Vision 2025, “the Batwa constitute a category living on the margins of society. Deprived of land, they cannot carry on agricultural activities and have but little support to help them engage in the handicraft activities that are their traditional livelihood. They live in haphazard, hand-to-mouth conditions, without decent housing. Children are not provided education while adults are illiterate”59.

Several Twa organizations have been able to fund small scale agro-pastoral projects but most Twa households are unable to sustain themselves with agriculture or husbandry due to the size of their land plots. As for pottery, clay has to be paid for (or stolen during the night) and selling pots has become difficult because of the competition from industrial products. The Twa’s main source of income is therefore to work as day laborers, being either paid in money or in kind. However, discrimination, the lack of specialized know-how, and the need to give bribes in order to get a job, have been identified as constraining factors.60 For the same reason it is difficult for the Twa living near the National Parks to find work even if their forest-related knowledge could be put to use.61 Educated Twa also experience difficulty finding work, e.g., in the civil service.

2.4 Health, and education

2.4.1 Health

Several reforms, including the introduction of free care for children less than 5 years of age and pregnant women (2006), the implementation of health districts (2007) and the creation of health committees (comités de santé, COSA) have resulted in some progress.62 However, Burundi is far from achieving the MDGs for health and it is officially recognized that “the health situation is worrisome”, 63 and characterized by the predominance of many communicable and non-communicable diseases64 as well as by many risk factors related to living conditions (specifically hygiene, food and the environment). This situation is made worse by the low level of social protection of the population vis-à-vis the risk of disease.65

57 OAG, op. cit.
60 ASF, op. cit., p. 17ff.
62 The proportion of children and pregnant mothers accessing medical services has increased from about 28 % in 2006 to 69 % in 2009. The maternal mortality rate dropped from 615 per 100,000 live births in 2005 to 499 in 2010. The purpose of the COSA is to promote the participation of the communities in the management of health centres.
64 Primary causes of morbidity and mortality in 2009 were malaria, acute respiratory infections, diarrheic diseases, malnutrition, HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis. Leprosies and a number of tropical diseases are endemic.
65 Approximately 17% of the sick do not have access to care; 81.5% of patients have to go into debt or sell assets in order to pay their health expenses. See Republic of Burundi, "National Health Development", p. 14.
The Twa are among the most affected, and all reports indicate that their health situation is alarming. Most Twa live in slum areas known as "sites de Batwa", in substandard and overcrowded houses that get flooded when it rains, and without access to clean water and sanitation. Without land to cultivate or on which to practice animal husbandry, they experience hunger and malnutrition. Few Twa, furthermore, make use of the health centres where they have to pay for services and medicine since most of them cannot afford the health insurance card (Carte d’Assistance Médicale, CAM). Even most Twa women and children under five are unable to apply for the free health care as many of them have no identity documents. As for the indigence card (carte d’indigence) that exempts them from paying health care fees (as well as educational and other fees), and which destitute people have to apply for at the municipality, few people know about it and the municipalities are often reluctant to deliver such cards. Traditional medicine practiced with medicinal plants and organs of animals remains therefore widely used.

Although Burundi has experienced a sharp decline in HIV prevalence the pandemic has also hit Twa communities, although data is non-existent. Despite some education about the disease, many Twa hold the view that it is something that affects the Hutu and Tutsi, and is foreign to them. Those Twa who die of AIDS are often said to have died by poisoning, which may reflect a lack of knowledge about HIV/AIDS, or the stigma surrounding the disease.

A recent positive development is that Twa are beginning to be co-opted into COSAs and as Community Health Workers (Agents de santé communautaire, ASC), and sensitizing campaigns for the Twa community have been organized on hygiene, vaccination, the use of latrines, etc.

2.4.2 Education

Primary school in Burundi has been mandatory and free since 2005. This has resulted in a considerable increase in enrollment rates and improved gender parity. Yet in 2010, 15 percent of boys and 16 percent of girls of primary school age (7 to 14 years old) were out of school and the primary completion rate was only 62%. Among the out of school children, 24 percent belonged to the poorest quintile. Girls were in majority and most of the children lived in rural areas.

Reports indicate that Twa children’s school participation is low. According to recent estimates, some 30,000 Twa attend primary school and 1,500 secondary school. At university level, there are at present between 25 and 35 students. Fewer girls attend school and only 15 girls have completed secondary school. Primary school retention rates are low: out of 10 Twa children who start in first grade it is seldom that two of them make it to the sixth grade (Table 3.7, Annex 3).

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67 CAM was introduced in 2012 and is sold in the offices of 129 communes for an annual amount of 3 000 F (less than US$2.00) This fee covers 80 percent of the costs for health care in health centres and district hospitals, and for drugs available on the market.
68 The criteria for getting these cards are not officially defined, leaving the process lacking in transparency and open to arbitrary decisions. ASF, op. cit.
73 Senator Vital Bambanze, personal communication, October 2014.
Several factors are behind these deficiencies. Poverty is one: although primary education is free, children still have to pay formal and informal school fees and tuition in secondary school is not free. Many Twa also drop out because of the stigmatization and discrimination they meet from teachers as well as pupils; hunger and the need to work or beg are another constraint. Other factors are the Twa parents’ lack of motivation for sending their children to school. This is especially the case for girls, where the tradition of early marriages, the dangers (e.g., rape) they often face at school or on their way to school, and even the lack of clothes are other constraints.

2.5 The situation of indigenous women and children

Traditional Twa communities are known to have been quite egalitarian when it came to women’s rights and gender relations. Today, gender relations have changed: no longer allowed hunting and without land to cultivate, Twa men have gradually lost their role as the family providers and in the process, have lost their self-esteem and social value. Twa women, who thanks to their traditional potter skills contributed to the household economy, now experience increasing difficulties in accessing clay and competing with industrial products. This has made them more dependent on their husbands and more exposed to domestic violence and family neglect.

In a country with a strong patriarchal culture that marginalizes women, Twa women face many challenges. With little or no access to school education, illiteracy is widespread, making it difficult for them to find employment. They are often forced into early marriage and polygamy is widespread among Twa families. This is contrary to the legislation in force but possible since a large majority of the Twa families do not have their marriages regularized, a fact that further enhances women’s vulnerability and precarious situation. Twa women face particular risk of rape and infection due to beliefs among some Hutu and Tutsi that sex with a Twa woman provides a cure for backache; a new variant of this belief holds that sex with a Twa woman offers a cure for HIV/AIDS. Many Twa women have no ID cards and are thus prevented from accessing not only free maternal health care but also care and support if HIV/AIDS infected.

Twa women do not know their rights and because many consider themselves as second rank citizens, they do not participate in community activities or decision-making bodies. Thanks to a recent UNIPROBA project funded by UN Women, capacity training has been given to some 1,000 young Twa women so they can claim their right to participate in local councils (at colline and municipal level). Many of these women took part in the elections at the colline level for the new National Women’s Forum.

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77 MRG, op. cit.


79 The UNIPROBA two-year project was launched in 2013 and promotes gender parity within the Twa community in order to enhance the participation of women at the local level and ensure their social protection. See Xinhua 21.02.2013 http://burundiintwari.com/?p=722, [accessed 02.11.2014].

80 The National Women’s forum is a framework for the promotion and protection of women’s rights. A young female Twa university student participated in organizing these elections—a milestone in the recognition of the Twa as equal players. Senator Vital Bambanze, personal communication, October 2014.
Indigenous children are another vulnerable group that suffers “from discrimination in relation to the enjoyment of their rights, including the rights to health care, food, survival and development”.

Many children are not entered in the civil registry because of the high level of non-regularized marriages and therefore cannot benefit from free education and health care. Malnutrition and hunger is widespread and hampers their physical and mental development in general and their school attendance in particular. Many are known to become street children. A National Forum for Children has also been established and young Twa girls have been coopted to become members of the Forum at the municipal level.

2.6 Cultural survival

The Twa seem to have lost their language several generations ago and today they all speak Kirundi. But they speak it with a particular intonation and use words that other Burundians understand but never use. As long as the Twa lived as hunters-gatherers and their material and spiritual life revolved entirely around the forest and its resources, their culture remained intact, and they were renowned for their forest-related knowledge and skills. While all this remains part of their identity, many contemporary Twa have never lived as forest-based hunters-gatherers and have lost most of their ancestors’ knowledge, skills and cultural practices, including their religious beliefs since most of them consider themselves to be Christians. Traditional handicrafts like pottery are also endangered. However, like Twa elsewhere in Central Africa, the Twa of Burundi have maintained a very rich and distinctive cultural tradition, centered on songs, dances and music.

2.7 Access to justice

The Twa are often victims of human rights abuses—assault and battery, arbitrary arrests, rape, etc. Many of these remain in impunity due to various constraints when dealing with justice: the Twa do not know their rights, do not have a sufficient understanding of the law or of the civil procedure, and they are unable to pay for legal counseling and defense lawyers. Especially land tenure cases opposing Twa to their Hutu or Tutsi neighbors are known to get stalled. Corruption is another problem.

The fact that the Twa too suffered during the civil war, that they too were killed or traumatized is often forgotten. They have also not been fully included in the process surrounding the establishment of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (Commission Vérité Réconciliation, CVR), which has tended to focus on the Tutsi and the Hutu.

2.8 Public participation

Twa communities were traditionally rather egalitarian, without strong leaders, and decisions were based on consensus. Numerically small and poorly integrated in the society that considers them to be second rate citizens, the Twa have also had little opportunity for participating in public life. However, this has somewhat changed. The 2005 Constitution thus includes several provisions regarding their public participation at the national and local level. It provides freedom of association, and there exist several Twa associations that act as advocate for the rights of their community. The Constitution also provides that Twa are represented in the two houses of Parliament with three co-opted members in each, and local ethnic diversity

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82 Senator Vital Bambanze, personal communication, October 2014.
84 See IWACU, 18-09-2013 at http://www.iwacu-burundi.org/que-connaissent-les-batwa-de-la-cvr/ [accessed 01.11.2014]. The long-awaited Commission, which has recently been established, is expected to determine the atrocities that were committed, and identify perpetrators and victims.
85 According to the Electoral Code (2009), these members are to be drawn from representative Twa organizations, taking into consideration for MPs the gender dimension and an appropriate geographic representation (Art.108); for
must also be reflected in the elected municipal councils. This means that the CENI can order the co-optation of "persons pertaining to an underrepresented ethnic group"; CENI may also co-opt a Twa who has been on the electoral list of a political party but has not been elected. 86 In the 2010 elections, more than 21,000 Twa benefitted from the free allocation of identity cards and could thus participate as voters and candidates in the municipal elections. Twa also figured on party lists and a total of 43 were elected.87

However, the procedures leading up to the nomination of Twa candidates to these various bodies have been strongly criticized for allowing non-Twa persons to be co-opted. In 2010 a major organization like UNIPROBA was not represented in the conference convened to nominate the Twa candidates and a non-Twa person was included on the list of nominees and eventually chosen by CENI to become a senator.88 Although the Twa spared no efforts, including bringing the case before the Constitutional Court, they did not succeed in getting the non-Twa suspended and replaced by a Twa. Recently, the only two seats in the Provincial Electoral Commissions (CEPI) that are reserved for Twa have been taken over by non-Twa persons.89

As already mentioned, the Twa are also represented (with one member in each) in other state institutions such as the General State Inspectorate, the National Commission on Land and Other Property (CNTB), and the East African Legislative Assembly. Certain progress has also been made at the level of Twa participation in health committees (COSA). However, major constraints for their full participation in public life—whether taking part in electoral processes at the local and national levels, or working within public administration and governments—remain. These include their widespread illiteracy, their poor access to relevant information, the lack of leaders at the local level, and ultimately, the lack of qualified professionals.90

3. The Constitution and laws of the Republic of Burundi

Burundi has no specific legislation addressing the situation of the Twa, and the main legal reference for their rights is the current Constitution, which was approved by popular referendum in 2005. The Constitution recognizes the ethnic diversity of Burundi and includes in several of its articles the principle of ethnic quotas and co-optations to reflect this diversity and ensure the participation of the three ethnic groups. At the same time it prohibits any form of exclusion based on ethnicity or regionalism.

Twa organizations, however, have criticized the place given to them within the Constitution and claim a more equal representation. They point out, among others, that articles dealing with the ethnic composition of the government (art. 129) and public administration (art. 143) assign percentages to the Hutu (60 percent), to the Tutsi (40 percent) and to women (30 percent) but do not take the Twa into account.91 Twa women are also grossly underrepresented within the 30 percent women quota. It has therefore been suggested that a

footnotes:
88 The procedure in this case included a conference where four Twa organizations nominated their candidates under the supervision of representatives from the government and civil society. A list of 13 nominees was then presented to CENI that eventually chose the six candidates to be co-opted. AIDB, Conférence nationale en 2010 sur l’harmonisation de la cooptation des Batwa du Burundi. See http://aidb-burundi.puzl.com/ [accessed 14.11.2014].
89 Senator Vital Bambanze, personal communication 24.11.2014.
10% representation within government and administration would be appropriate, and that Twa women be included in the gender quota. It has also been argued that a revised constitution should allow the Twa to run for elections or be elected on the basis of their ideas rather than being co-opted. This would imply that they had the right to form political parties or to run as independent.

Other legislation and policies such as the already mentioned Land Code (2011) and the Forest Policy (2012) do not have specific provisions for the rights of the Twa, even if the Forest Policy has a much more participatory approach than the Forest Code from 1985, which is now under review. Twa representatives are therefore advocating for Burundi to follow the example of the Republic of Congo and adopt a law protecting and promoting indigenous peoples. Having a national institution dealing exclusively with Twa issues and funded by the state is another aspiration. This body should inter alia make concrete propositions to the state regarding the integration of the Twa minority, as for instance adopting and implementing affirmative action policies in its favor.

4. International and regional human rights treaties and instruments

The Republic of Burundi has signed and ratified a wide range of international and regional human rights instruments including a number of international environmental conventions (see full list in Annex 4). According to art. 19 of the Constitution, the rights and duties enshrined in some of these international declarations and conventions are an integral part of the Constitution.

Burundi abstained from voting when UNDRIP was adopted and signed in 2007. Burundi has not ratified ILO Convention No.169 on Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries.

4.1 International human rights treaties

Burundi is party to seven of the nine core international human rights treaties:

- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD).
- The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)
- The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR).
- The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and its Optional Protocols CRC-OP-AC and OP-SC.

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92 Burundi Forum, August 2014, op. cit.
97 Burundi is not party to the Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICRMW); it has signed the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) and its Optional Protocol OP-CRPD.
98 Burundi does not recognize individual Complaints (art. 14).
99 Burundi does not recognize inter-state complaints (art 41) and is not party to ICCPR-OP-1 and ICCPR-OP-2.
100 Burundi is not party to ICESCR-OP-1.
101 Burundi has only signed CEDAW-OP-1.
102 Burundi recognizes binding declaration under art. 3: 18 years.
103 Burundi has not signed CRC-OP-IC.
• The Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT).\textsuperscript{104}
• The Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CED).

Burundi has ratified several universal human rights instruments related to armed conflicts, a number of UN conventions and several UNESCO conventions of importance to indigenous peoples. Burundi is in the process of becoming a UN-REDD partner country.

Burundi is a member of the International Labor Organization (ILO) and has ratified 30 of its conventions, including C29 and C105 (on forced labor), C100 and C111 (on discrimination within employment and occupation), and C138 and C182 (on child labor).

Burundi has adhered to the UN Millennium Declaration.

4.2 Regional human rights instruments
Burundi is member of the African Union and has ratified the following regional human rights instruments:
• The Constitutive Act of the African Union
• The African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights (ACHPR)
• The African Charter on Rights and Welfare of the Child
• The Protocol to the ACHPR on the Establishment of an African Court on Human and Peoples’ Rights

Burundi has signed but not ratified
• The Protocol to the ACHPR on the Rights of Women in Africa
• African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention).

4.3 Other relevant regional instruments
Burundi has ratified several other African conventions and is member of a number of regional institutions, including the East African Legislative Assembly (EALA); the East African Community (EAC); the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA); the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS). It has requested to become a member of the East African Development Bank (EADB).

Burundi is member of the Central African Forest Commission (COMIFAC) and a signatory of the Convergence Plan for improved management and conservation of forests in Central Africa (February 2006), as well as to a number of forest-related regional organizations (Annex 4).

5. National and grass-roots organizations

5.1 The National Commission on Human Rights
A National Independent Human Rights Commission (Commission Nationale Indépendante des Droits de l’Homme, CNIDH) based on the Paris Principles was established in 2011 under Act No. 1/04 of 5 January 2011. This Act was amended in 2013 by Law No. 19 in order to ensure the Commission’s independence in practice.

\textsuperscript{104} Burundi does not recognize inter-state complaints (art. 21); it recognizes individual complaints (art. 22) and inquiry procedure (art. 28). It has not signed CAT-OP.
5.2 National and local non-governmental organizations

**Ligue Burundaise des Droits de l’Homme (ITEKA)** is the first human rights organization in Burundi (1991). It has more than 3,000 members and is present in all the provinces. Its activities include legal assistance, human rights education, monitoring of the repatriation process and monitoring of government policies. It publishes an annual report. http://www.ligue-iteka.bi

**Observatoire de l’Action Gouvernementale (OAG)** founded in 1999 is a collectivity of 18 associations, 6 journalists and 6 parliamentarians (individual members) that monitor the work of the government by issuing declarations, and publishing thematic papers and surveys. http://www.oag.bi/

**Association pour la Protection des Droits Humains et de la Personne Détenue (APRODH)** was founded in 2001. It has 17 offices throughout the country and its activities are centered around human rights in general, monitoring of prisons, denouncing cases of torture, sexual violence, etc. and providing legal assistance. It publishes monthly reports and an annual report. http://www.aprodh.org/

**Le Collectif des Associations et ONGs Féminines du Burundi (CAFOB)** was created in 1994 and groups today 72 associations acting in different sectors of development. CAFOB’s main objectives are to strengthen the operational capacities of member associations and to support the role of Burundian women in peace-building, national reconciliation and development. http://www.cafobburundi.org

The main Twa and Twa-supportive organizations include:

**Union Chrétienne pour l’Éducation et le Développement des Déshérités (UCEDD)** was established in 1995. It works out of Gitega but has projects in several other provinces. Its mission is to improve the lives of the indigenous Twa through food security, human rights training, formal and informal education. http://uceddburundifr.wordpress.com

**Unissons-nous pour la Promotion des Batwa (UNIPROBA)** was founded in 1999 and is present in all 17 provinces. It works for the protection and promotion of the rights of the Twa people of Burundi. Its activities are within awareness raising, legal help, and information. It conducts training on fundamental rights, implements small agro-pastoralist projects and does advocacy work at government level. http://uniproba.ifaway.net/2014/02/24/activites-de-luniproba/

**Association Espoir pour les jeunes Batwa (ASSEJEBA)** is a young NGO working with capacity building, awareness raising and support families with the process of getting ID cards, marriage licenses and birth certificates and registering to vote. Contact person: Evariste NDIKUMANA Email: ndievariste@yahoo.fr

**Association pour l’Intégration et le Développement Durable au Burundi (AIDB)** has since 2007 mainly been active at the international level (observer status with UN ECOSOC). http://aidb-burundi.puzl.com/

**Action Batwa** (AC) was created in 1999 by the Missionnaires d’Afrique. It works in six provinces with housing, health, education, human rights, etc., and is currently helping some 2531 Twa households in 108 different villages as well as 40 poor non-Twa households. www.africamission-mafr.org/batwa.htm

6. IFAD projects and operations in the Republic of Burundi

IFAD has worked in the Republic of Burundi since 1979. The latest Country Strategic Opportunities Programme (COSOP) covers the period 2009-2014.105 The strategic objectives are to facilitate poor rural people's access to new economic opportunities; strengthen their organizations, enable them to access services and resources and participate in rural

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development policies; and to facilitate participation by women and vulnerable groups in the economic initiatives supported by the programme.

The current country programme includes two operations—the Agricultural Intensification and Value Enhancing Support Project, and the Value Chain Development Programme—approved in 2009 and 2010. Their primary target groups are hillside farmers with less than 1 hectare land, who represent about 90 per cent of farmers (Annex 5).

A participative vulnerability analysis is to be conducted at the start of the programmes, with support from the World Food Programme (WFP). The analysis will be gender-specific and will make it possible to identify the most vulnerable groups, their problems, their aspirations and potential responses. The Twa, however, are not mentioned explicitly as a target group in the COSOP or in the two project documents, with the exception of Project Annex 1 (original in French) of the Value Chain Development Programme’s project document that mentions the Twa as a potential target group among other “most vulnerable groups”. One of the aims of the Agricultural Intensification and Value-enhancing Support Project – LOT is, however, to develop new marshlands and rehabilitate existing ones. This directly affects the local Twa and an Interim Review Report (2013) notes that the Twa continue to take clay—at night since it is forbidden—allegedly because the clay from allowed sites is of poor quality. The report therefore recommends that the project finds other extraction sites with good quality clay for the Twa.106

7. International organizations

Burundi was the 41st largest recipient of international humanitarian assistance in 2012. Net ODA received in 2012 was US$ 523 million, slightly less than in previous years.107 Burundi relies on international donor aid for 50% of its national budget and is classified as a fragile state.

7.1 UN agencies

The UN resident agencies include UNDP (UN Development Programme), UNICEF (UN Children’s Fund), FAO (UN Food and Agriculture Organization), IFAD (International Fund for Agricultural Development), OHCHR (Office of the High Commission for Human Rights), UNAIDS (Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS), IOM (International Organization for Migration), UNESCO, UNHCR (UN High Commissioner for Refugees), UNFPA (UN Population Fund) WHO (World Health Organization), WFP (World Food Programme), UNFPA (UN Population Fund), and UN WOMEN.

In 2013, Resident agencies spent nearly US$ 89 million to achieve the planned results in 2013. Those activities were carried out in three priority areas defined in the 2012-2016 UNDAF, namely the Rule of Law, the consolidation of good governance and the promotion of gender equality; the transformation of the Burundian economy for sustained growth and job creation; and the improvement of access and quality of basic social services and the strengthening of the foundation of social protection. UNDAF is implemented either through joint programs by the UN agencies or specific Agency projects or programs.

7.2 Bilateral international development agencies

Burundi’s main bilateral partners include the EU institutions, Belgium, USA, Germany, Japan, and the Netherlands. China also provides development aid to the country.

7.3 International financial institutions

7.3.1 The World Bank

The new Country Assistance Strategy (CAS) for the period FY13-16 provides the framework for the World Bank Group’s support to Burundi over the next four years. The CAS is aligned with priorities of the Government of Burundi’s development strategy, outlined in its second Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP II). The CAS focuses on two strategic objectives: improving competitiveness by establishing an enabling environment for inclusive growth and poverty reduction; and increasing resilience by consolidating social stability. Strengthening governance is the foundation of the proposed CAS, as it is expected to contribute to both strategic objectives.

As per 18.11.2014, the World Bank was funding 13 active projects (see Annex 6). Five of these projects had triggered the OP.4.10 safeguards for indigenous peoples.108

7.3.2 Other international and regional development banks and funds

These include the African Development Fund (AfDF), IMF, MIGA (Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency), Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (BADEA); Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development; OPEC fund; and Abu Dhabi fund

7.3.3 Environmental Funding Mechanisms

Burundi receives GEF funding through the World Bank, UNDP and UNEP.

7.4 International NGOs

INGOs working in Burundi include: Accord, Action Aid, Avocats Sans Frontières (ASF), Care International, Catholic Services (CRS); Caritas, International Rescue Committee (IRC), Interpeace, Lutheran World Federation (LWF), Norwegian People’s Aid, Oxfam, PACT, Save the Children, SNV, Trocaire, and World Vision.

Environmental organizations include IUCN (The World Conservation Union), US AID/CARPE (The Central Africa Regional Program for the Environment), WWF (World Wildlife Fund), WRI (World Resource Institute) and WCS (Wildlife Conservation Society).

8. Opportunities and challenges

Based on indicators such as poverty and lack of access to means of production; poor access to basic services (health, education and drinking water) and information; unmet basic needs (nutrition, housing, clothing); exclusion and discrimination, the Twa belong to the seven groups being officially classified as particularly vulnerable. However, while the other groups’ destitution is largely the result of a historical conjuncture, namely the post-conflict situation, the Twa’s precarious situation is the result of historical and structural factors.

Yet, compared with the Twa living in Rwanda, the Twa in Burundi do enjoy certain rights which entail opportunities: they are allowed to express their own ethnic identity as Twa; they have established their own representative organizations that work specifically for improving the human and fundamental rights of the Twa community; they are represented by members of their own community in the country’s legislative assemblies as well as in local municipal councils and in several other national and local bodies. Finally, the government recognizes their destitution\textsuperscript{110} and external development aid may openly target them and their specific needs.

Put together, these opportunities should help the Twa together with the donor community to face the challenges that exist, even if these are diverse and may seem formidable. These challenges include eliminating or alleviating the prevailing discrimination that surrounds the Twa; getting access to land and production means so they can sustain themselves by cultivating, practicing husbandry and making pottery; meeting basic needs, such as decent housing, clothing, drinking water and sanitation; getting free and equal access to health care facilities and school education.

Donor support can greatly benefit from seeking the advice and the collaboration of national and local Twa organizations. In order for the Twa to benefit from project activities on par with other groups, any intervention should furthermore be based on participatory consultations in which all stakeholders participate. Most importantly such consultations should give space and time for decisions to be taken on a consensual basis.\textsuperscript{111}

Specific initiatives could include:

- Supporting Twa organizations in informing and training their members so they know and understand their rights and regain enough self-esteem and confidence to claim and enjoy these rights.
- Supporting the establishment of constructive dialogues between Twa and neighbor communities, using traditional conflict resolution mechanisms and psychosocial methods to eradicate or alleviate discrimination.
- Supporting Twa communities’ participation in decision-making bodies at village level.
- Supporting and facilitating the Twa’s access to land and secure tenure rights so efforts to improve their livelihood are sustainable.
- Supporting the Twa’s access to production means and provide training to improve output and, if applicable, quality
- Supporting initiatives to improve the human and fundamental rights situation of Twa women and children.

\textsuperscript{110} Republic of Burundi, Vision 2025 (2014), p. 79 states that “support for the Batwa will be prioritized in all the strategies for fighting against poverty in order to ensure a decent life for them, as well as for other Burundians. http://bi.chm-cbd.net/biodiversity/presentation-du-burundi/politiques-de-developpement/vision-2025-du-burundi.pdf

\textsuperscript{111} IPP 394 (P107343, 2009), p. 7.
9. Bibliography and Web sites

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Crisis Group

CRC

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“Strengthening and Evaluating the Preventing Malnutrition in Children under 2 Approach (PM2A) in Burundi: Baseline Report.”  

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Burundi - Country assistance strategy for the period FY13-16  

**World Bank IPP**

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IPP 617 (P127258 Projet d’Aménagement Durable des Zones Caféicoles au Burundi), Plan d’Action Additionnel pour le Développement des Batwa Résidant autour de la Réserve Forestière de Bururi.

2012  
IPPS580, Plan de Développement des Groupes Vulnérables, dont les Batwa (P101160 Health Sector Development Support)

2009  

**Zeender, Greta**

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USEFUL WEB SITES

African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights (ACHPR)
http://www.achpr.org

African Development Bank (AfDB)
http://www.afdb.org/

Burundi Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (ISTEEBU)
http://www.isteebu.bi/

Burundi homepage at UN Human Rights (OHCHR)
http://www.ohchr.org/EN/countries/AfricaRegion/Pages/BIIndex.aspx

Burundi homepage at World Bank

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http://operations.ifad.org/web/ifad/operations/country/home/tags/burundi

Burundi homepage at Rural Poverty Portal
http://www.ruralpovertyportal.org/country/home/tags/burundi

FAO Country Stat (Burundi)
http://www.countrystat.org/home.aspx?c=BDI&tr=8

International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs (IWGIA)
http://www.iwgia.org

World Bank
http://www.worldbank.org

World Bank Projects
10. Annexes

Annex 1  Political Map

Annex 2  Historical background

In 1897, Burundi and Rwanda became a German colony, although both territories were able to keep their kingship dynasties—in Rwanda, the kings were Tutsi, in Burundi they were Ganwas, not an ethnic group but rather a noble class characterized as a “true mixture of Tutsi and Hutu influences”.112 After World War I, Rwanda-Burundi was given to Belgium as a mandate of the League of Nations (1922-1945) and later a UN trust territory (1945-1961).

The entire colonial period (1897-1945) was characterized by a strategy of divide and rule, based on nineteenth century racist ideology. The ruling Ganwas nobility and the Tutsi were seen as a superior race and were educated as a collaborating class at the expense of the Hutu who were considered to be simple peasants. Ethnic identity was highly manipulated and institutionalized. In 1933, identification cards indicating, among other things, the ethnic affiliation of their bearers, were introduced.113

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Annex 3  Socioeconomic indicators

Table 3.1 Republic of Burundi Human Development Indicators (2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HDI rank 2013 (out of 187)</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDI value (Low human development)</td>
<td>0.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inequality adjusted HDI rank</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDI</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHI Rank (out of 76)</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population near multidimensional poverty (%)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population in severe poverty</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3.2 Demographic indicators Burundi based on 2013 (est.) and 2008 census figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population, total both sexes (est. 2013)</td>
<td>9.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density (people/km2)</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population growth (annual %)</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban population (%)</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural population (%)</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force in agriculture (% of total labor force)</td>
<td>87.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females (% of labor force in agriculture)</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ISTEEBU, Annuaire Statistique 2012.

Table 3.3 Key Economic Indicators 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP (US$ millions)</td>
<td>2257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP annual growth %</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNI per capita (US$)</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECTOR CONTRIBUTION TO GDP (%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural sector</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPORTS (US$ million)</td>
<td>242.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPORTS (US$ million)</td>
<td>1,0003.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.4 Land Use Patterns 2010-2011.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Use</th>
<th>Millions of ha</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Country area</td>
<td>2,783</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land area</td>
<td>2,595</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural land</td>
<td>2,350</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forests</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3.5 Twa households and size of landholdings (2006-2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area in sq. m</th>
<th>Number of households</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Without land</td>
<td>2,959</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 4 to 20</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 21 to 40</td>
<td>779</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 42 to 60</td>
<td>1,021</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 61 to 100</td>
<td>1,616</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 102 to 500</td>
<td>5,373</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 500 to 1,000</td>
<td>3,706</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 1,050 to 10,000</td>
<td>2,936</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 10,600 to 24,000</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holdings 25,000 to 35,000</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>29,155</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted from Table 9 in UNIPROBA, Rapport sur la situation foncière des Batwa du Burundi (2006-2008), p. 27.*

Table 3.6 Status of Twa households without landholdings (2006-2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of households without landholdings</td>
<td>2,959</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living under the ubuggererwa system</td>
<td>1,453</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living on borrowed land</td>
<td>1,596</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted from Table 6 in UNIPROBA, Rapport sur la situation foncière des Batwa du Burundi (2006-2008), p. 21*

Table 3.7 School enrolment of Twa children (2006-2008 and 2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>2006-2008</th>
<th>2014 (est.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out of school</td>
<td>73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>25-30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Annex 4  List of international and regional human rights and other legal instruments

International human rights treaties
Burundi is party to seven of the nine core international human rights treaties: 114:
- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD). 115
- The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR). 116
- The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). 117
- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). 118
- The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and its Optional Protocols CRC-OP-AC 119 and OP-SC. 120
- The Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT). 121
- The Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CED).

Universal human rights instruments related to armed conflicts
- The Four Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the additional 1977 protocols I and II

Other international Conventions
UNITED NATIONS
- The Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (CTOC) and the Palermo Protocols (the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children; the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air; and the Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing and Trafficking in Firearms, Their Parts and Components and Ammunition)

UNESCO conventions
- The Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage
- The Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage
- The Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions

ILO conventions
- C87 (Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize)
- C98 (Right to organize and to collective bargaining)
- C29 & C105 (Elimination of Forced and Compulsory labor)
- C100 and C111 (Elimination of Discrimination in respect of Employment and Occupation)
- C138 and C182 (Abolition of Child Labor)

114 Burundi is not party to the Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICRMW); it has signed the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) and its Optional Protocol OP-CRPD.
115 Burundi does not recognize individual Complaints (art. 14).
116 Burundi does not recognize inter-state complaints (art 41) and is not party to ICCPR-OP-1 and ICCPR-OP-2.
117 Burundi is not party to ICESCR-OP-1.
118 Burundi has only signed CEDAW-OP-1.
119 Burundi recognizes binding declaration under art. 3: 18 years.
120 Burundi has not signed CRC-OP-IC.
121 Burundi does not recognize inter-state complaints (art. 21); it recognizes individual complaints (art. 22) and inquiry procedure (art. 20). It has not signed CAT-OP.
International conventions related to environment, bio-diversity and climate change
- CBD—Convention on Biological Diversity (1992), the Cartagena Protocol on Biodiversity and the Nagoya Protocol on Access and Benefit-sharing
- Agenda 21
- UNFCCC—UN Framework Convention on Climate Change and its Kyoto Protocol on the Reduction of Overall Emissions
- The Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer, the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer and its four amendments
- The Ramsar Convention on Wetlands
- CITES—Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species
- CMS—Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals
- UNCCD—UN Convention to Combat Desertification...particularly in Africa
- The Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT)
- The Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their disposal
- The Rotterdam Convention. On the Prior Informed Consent Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and Pesticides in internal Trade
- The Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants

International conventions regarding intellectual property rights
- WIPO Convention & 7 WIPO administered treaties
- WTO—World Trade Organization
- TRIPS—Agreement on Trade-related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights

The UN Millennium Declaration

Regional human rights instruments
- The Constitutive Act of the African Union
- The African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights
- The African Charter on Rights and Welfare of the Child
- The African Union Convention Governing Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa
- The Protocol to the ACHPR on the Establishment of an African Court on Human and Peoples’ Rights
- The Protocol to the ACHPR on the Rights of Women in Africa (signed)
- African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance (signed)
- The African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention) (signed)

Other regional conventions and agreements
- The African Economic Community Treaty (Abuja Treaty)
- Cultural Charter for Africa
- African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
- Bamako Convention on the Ban of the Import into Africa and the Control of Transboundary Movements and Management of Hazardous Wastes within Africa (signed)
- Pelindaba Treaty on the African Nuclear Weapons-Free Zone
- The Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region

Membership of regional political, economic and environmental bodies
- The East African Legislative Assembly (EALA)
- The East African Community (EAC)

For details, see http://www.wipo.int/wipolex/en/profile.jsp?code=BI
- The Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa (CEMAC)
- The Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS)
- The Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (ECGLC)
- The Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA)
- New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD)
- Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)
- The Nile Basin Initiative
- The International Conference on the Great Lakes Region
- Congo Basin Forest Partnership (CBFP)
- Commission of Central African Forests (COMIFAC)
- Conférence sur les écosystèmes forestiers denses et humides d’Afrique centrale (CEFDHAC)
- Observatoire des Forêts d’Afrique Centrale (OFAC)
- Réseau des Aires Protégées d’Afrique Centrale (RAPAC)
- Réseau des Institutions de Formation Forestière et Environnementale en Afrique Centrale (RIFFEAC).
Annex 5  IFAD projects in Republic of Burundi

Agricultural Intensification and Value-enhancing Support Project - LOT

Approval date: 30/04/2009
Project type: Agricultural Development
Duration: 2009 - 2017
Directly benefiting: 30,000 households
Total cost: US$53.2 million
Approved DSF grant: US$13.6 million
Cofinancing:
- European Union (US$6.0 million)
- To be determined (US$2.5 million)
- World Food Programme (US$4.7 million)

Overall Goal: To develop organized and sustainable family farming to allow small-scale rural producers to increase their incomes. The project’s specific objectives are to:

- support public and private institutions, civil society and organizations of poor rural people, and make them stakeholders in partnerships for agricultural development, piloting interventions that can be replicated at national level
- work with poor small-scale farmers to help them build their human, physical and technical capacity to protect productive assets, increase productivity, improve nutrition and raise incomes
- improve market access to permit producers’ organizations to make the most of value added to their produce

Target Groups: the project will directly reach 30,000 family farms and indirectly 60,000 farming families, for a total of 90,000 households in the targeted provinces. Under local private-sector partnerships, 15 service suppliers and 60 merchants will also benefit from the project.

The primary target group is hillside farmers with less than 1 hectare (ha) of land, or about 90 per cent of direct beneficiaries. Inside this group, the project will target farmers with from 0.5 to 1 ha for cattle repopulation, or 22 per cent of beneficiaries. The second target group is farmers in marshlands to be rehabilitated or developed, many of whom are part of the first group.

Activities will focus on reinforcing and protecting productive capital, supporting the enhancement of the value of agricultural production and the development of infrastructure, and facilitating project implementation and coordination. The aims of activities under the project are to:

- develop new marshlands, rehabilitate existing marshlands and protect watersheds to combat erosion and integrate crop and livestock farming, fertilizer use and agricultural intensification
- increase the productivity and yields of rice and other food crops to increase farmers’ incomes
- foster sustainable access to quality inputs and seeds
- increase the value of farm production to benefit small-scale producers
- encourage greater participation by vulnerable groups in project management

Location: six provinces north and east of the capital, Bujumbura.

Value Chain Development Programme - LOT

Approval date: 22/04/2010
Project type: Agricultural Development
Duration: 2010 - 2019
Directly benefiting: 77,500 households
Total cost: US$124.5 million  
Approved DSF grant: US$39.6 million  
Cofinancing:  
- European Union (US$21.6 million)  
- International Labour Organization (US$0.1 million)  
- OPEC Fund for International Development (US$11.9 million)  
- World Food Programme (US$9.1 million)  

Overall Goal: To help reduce the country’s grain and dairy deficit through greater professionalization and organization among smallholder agricultural producers within viable agricultural value chains The project’s objective are to:  
- reduce poverty and improve food security in rural areas through the development of agricultural value chains  
- empower smallholder farmers to play a central role so that they can achieve maximum value added in their production and increase their income.

The project will assist public and private institutions, civil society and organizations of rural poor people in forming quality partnerships to promote two main value chains such as rice and milk and six other secondary value chains; build the human, physical and technical capacity of poor smallholder farmers to enable them to protect their productive assets, increase their production of rice and milk and raise their incomes in a sustainable manner; and allow producers' organizations to make the most of the value added to their produce through better market access.  

Target Groups: The programme will directly reach 77,500 rural family farm households, or approximately 387,000 people. Around 262,000 people as well as hundreds of grass-roots associations, economic interest groups and services providers will benefit indirectly from the programme. Primary target group will be composed of hillside farmers with less than 1 hectare (ha) of land, who represent about 90 per cent of farmers.  

Approach and methodology: In the communes included in the programme, a participative vulnerability analysis will be conducted at the start of the programme, with support from the World Food Programme (WFP). The analysis will be gender-specific and will make it possible to identify the most vulnerable groups, their problems, their aspirations and potential responses. Annex 1 (original in French) mentions that specific vulnerable categories of households will be specifically targeted, including the ethnic Twa minority.  

Location: Seven provinces: Bubanza, Cibitoke, Gitega, Karusi, Kayanza, Muramvya and Ngozi.  

Annex 6 List of Active World Bank Projects in Burundi (per 01.09.2014)  

Total Project Cost: US$ 270.40 million  
Comitment Amount US$ 100.00 million  
Major Sectors (%) Hydropower (80%), Transmission and Distribution of Electricity (20%)  
Themes (%): Infrastructure services for private sector development (100%)  
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered.  

Total Project Cost: US$ 26.0 million  
Major Sectors (%): Central government administration (43%); General industry and trade sector (15%); General agriculture, fishing and forestry sector (14%); Other Mining and Extractive Industries (14%); Other social services (14%)  

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Themes (%) Public expenditure, financial management and procurement (29%); Regulation and competition policy (29%); Rural services and infrastructure (14%); Administrative and civil service reform (14%); Poverty strategy, analysis and monitoring (14%)
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered.

3. **P127258 Sustainable Coffee Landscape Project 2013-2017**
Total Project Cost: US$ 4.20 million
Major Sector(s) (%): Agricultural extension and research (10%); Crops (10%); Forestry (30%); General public administration sector (20%); General water, sanitation and flood protection sector (30%)
Themes (%): Land administration and management (40%); Biodiversity (40%); Environmental policies and institutions (20%)
OP/BP 4.10 triggered (IPP617, 2013).

4. **P131919 Second Additional Financing Burundi Health Sector Development Support Project 2012-N/A**
Total Project Cost: US$ 25 million
Major Sector(s) (%): Health (79%); Public administration- Health (21%)
Themes (%): Health system performance (29%); Child health (21%); Population and reproductive health (21%); Malaria (21%); Public expenditure, financial management and procurement (8%)
OP/BP: 4.10 triggered (IPP580).

5. **P126742 Health Sector Development Support – Additional Financing 2012-N/A**
Total Project Cost: US$ 14.8 million
Major sectors (%): Health (79%); Public administration-Health (21%)
Themes (%): Health system performance (29%); Child health (21%); Population and reproductive health (21%); Malaria (21%); Public expenditure, financial management and procurement (8%)
OP/BP 4.10 triggered (IPP567).

6. **P127262 Public Works and Urban Management Project – Additional Financing 2012 – N/A**
Total Project Cost: US$ 15.0 million
Major sectors (%): Health (20%); General education sector (20%); Roads and highways (20%); General water, sanitation and flood protection sector (20%); Other social services (20%)
Themes (%): Urban services and housing for the poor (80%); Municipal finance (15%); Municipal governance and institution building (5%)
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered.

Total Project Cost: US$ 1.82 million
Major sectors (%): Energy efficiency in power sector (100%)
Themes (%): Climate change (67%); Infrastructure services for private sector development (33%)
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered.

8. **P123119 Burundi Road Sector Development Additional Financing – SIM 2011**
Total Project Cost: US$ 19.0 million
Major Sectors (%): Roads and highways (80%); General transportation sector (20%)
Themes (%): Other trade and integration (80%); Rural non-farm income generation (20%)
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered.
9. P125209 Financial and Private Sector Development – Additional Funding  
2011 – N/A  
Total Project Cost: US$ 8.0 million  
Major Sectors (%): Public administration-Finance (47%); Micro- and SME finance (28%); Banking (13%); Payment systems, securities clearance and settlement (12%)  
Themes (%): Other financial and private sector development (31%); State enterprise/bank restructuring and privatization (28%); Small and medium enterprise support (25%); Legal institutions for a market economy (8%); Standards and financial reporting (8%)  
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered.

10. P107343 Agro-Pastoral Productivity and Markets Development Project  
2010 - 2016  
Total Project Cost: US$ 43.0 million  
Major Sectors (%): General agriculture, fishing and forestry sector (60%); Agro-industry (25%); Micro- and SME finance (15%)  
Themes (%): Other rural development (100%)  
OP/BP 4.10 triggered (IPP394, 2009).

Total Project Cost: US$ 19.0 million  
Major Sector (%): Micro- and SME finance (100%)  
Themes (%): Other financial and private sector development (67%); Infrastructure services for private sector development (33%)  
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered.

12. P101160 Health Sector Development Support 2009 - 2018  
Total Project Cost: US$ 25.0 million  
Major Sectors (%): Health (80%); Other social services (20%)  
Themes (%): Child health (P); Other communicable diseases (P); Population and reproductive health (P); Nutrition and food security (S); Health system performance (S)  
OP/BP 4.10 triggered. (IPP348 [2009], 567 [2012] and 580 [revised, 2012])

Total Project Cost: US$ 45.0 million  
Major Sectors (%): Health (20%); General education sector (20%); Roads and highways (20%); General water, sanitation and flood protection sector (20%); Other social services (20%)  
Themes (%): Urban services and housing for the poor (80%); Municipal finance (15%); Municipal governance and institution building (5%)  
OP/BP 4.10 not triggered