UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
SOCIOLOGY DEPARTMENT

GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN DISASTER RECOVERY FOR INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN RONGAI DISTRICT, KENYA.

BY

OGUYE JOSEPHINE KEMUNTO

A RESEARCH PROJECT PAPER SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTERS OF ARTS DEGREE, IN SOCIOLOGY, FACULTY OF ARTS, UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.

2011
DECLARATION

This project paper is as a result of my original work and it has not been submitted either wholly or in part to any other university for the award of the degree.

OGUYE JOSEPHINE KEMUNTO

Date: 5/5/2011

This project report has been submitted for examination and my approval as the Supervisor.

DR. EDWARD ONITIA

Date: 6/5/2011

LECTURER
Department of Sociology & Social Work
University of Nairobi
I dedicate this work to the Lord God Almighty for Life, good health and mental ability and to my parents Eunice and late Joseph Konosi who instilled in me a sense of hard work, commitment and determination, my husband Abel, my children Jedidiah and Eunice for love, understanding and moral support.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work would not have been possible without the knowledge imparted in me by my lecturers Prof. Maury Yambo and Dr. Robinson Ocharo in disaster management course. The academic guidance provided by my supervisor Dr. Edward Ontita was significant.

Appreciation goes to the Ministry of State for Special Programmes and District Officer Rongai for granting me permission to access the respondents who are still internally displaced and under the circumstances traumatized. I sincerely thank the internally displaced persons in Minto and Giwa Camps in Rongai District who agreed to spare time and provide information and the Head Teachers of Kenyatta Secondary School and Gacheha Primary School for availing the boys and girls for focus group discussions that constituted the findings of this study.

I cannot forget the support and encouragement of my family Abel, Jedidiah and Eunice in providing ample time for my studies.

Finally the efforts and support of my research assistants Kissinger and Eunice in preparations at the ground for data collection made this study a success.

May the good Lord bless you all.
ABSTRACT

Gender mainstreaming is a phenomenon that entails integrating gender issues, concerns and needs into the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes, projects and activities at all levels. The aim is to achieve gender parity and equitability.

This study was conducted in Rongai District, Kenya. The study objective was to establish the extent of gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery for internally displaced persons in Rongai district. The study used descriptive study design. Sampling was purposeful and it targeted women, men, boys and girls who were internally displaced as a result of 2007 post-election violence in Kenya. They were selected from Minto and Giwa resettlements. The study used focus group discussions consisting of women, men, boys and girls, Key informant interviews and Observation as research instruments. Data was collected using a discussion guide, tape recorded or notes hand written and analyzed using content analysis.

The study found out that gender issues were not systematically identifies and appropriately applied to internally displaced persons in the Relief camps and in the resettlement process. Personal items such as undergarments, enough and appropriate clothes for adults and children, sanitary towels, shaving machines, condoms, and special diet for children, pregnant and lactating mothers were not provided by relief agencies. Relief shelters in form of tents were inadequate and inappropriate for parents and children. Sanitary facilities were few, congested and communal, far from the shelters and had no lights leading to children contracting diseases, sexual harassment of women and girls by fellow male IDPs and security personnel. Respondents cited gender discrimination and inequality in form of rape, sex for favours, favoritism of some IDPs by Relief Aid officials during distribution of food and non-food items. Names of some genuine cases were missing from the list in land allocation for resettlement.

There was low participation of women, boys and girls in leadership and decision making in the relief camps and the resettlement process. Male dominance was cited in membership of the camp committees. Roles of women and girls were cited as domestic chores, caring for sick members and a negligible number was involved in distribution of relief items. Women were assigned the
role of household heads by relief agencies. Men did partially domestic chores such as cooking and serving IDPs in relief camps, split firewood, offloaded and ferried relief items to satellite stores and provided security at night. Boys assisted in fetching water, splitting firewood and serving meals. There was a shift in gender roles.

The study recommended a need for the government to make a gender responsive national budget for financing victims of internal displacements. Socio-cultural dimension should be taken to consideration by relief aid agencies and the government in assigning gender roles to disaster victims. Recovery programmes should be designed by policy makers to include community capacity building and sensitization. IDPs should be involved and participate in decision making on matters that affect their welfare in relief shelters and in resettlements. Infrastructure such as police post, schools, health centres, community hall, an information centre, setting up of counseling and debriefing centres in various parts of the country were recommended as an approach which will strengthen social networks and psycho-social support on the road to recovery.

The study concluded that there was no gender mainstreaming for internally displaced persons in Rongai district.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DC</td>
<td>District Commissioner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>District Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECOSCO</td>
<td>Economic and Social Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGDs</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAD</td>
<td>Gender and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KII</td>
<td>Key Informant Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nation High Commission for Refugees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIFEM</td>
<td>UN Development Fund for Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WID</td>
<td>Women In Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ................................................................................................................................................... ii  
DEDICATION ...................................................................................................................................................... iii  
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ................................................................................................................................. iv  
ABSTRACT ........................................................................................................................................................... v  
TABLE OF CONTENTS ................................................................................................................................... viii  
LIST OF FIGURES .............................................................................................................................................. xii  
LIST OF APPENDICES .................................................................................................................................... xiii  
CHAPTER ONE ................................................................................................................................................. 14  
INTRODUCTION AND STUDY BACKGROUND ....................................................................................... 14  
1.1 Introduction .................................................................................................................................................... 14  
1.2 Background of the study .............................................................................................................................. 14  
1.3 Statement of the problem ............................................................................................................................. 18  
1.4 Study objectives ........................................................................................................................................... 19  
1.4.2 Broad objectives......................................................................................................................................... 19  
1.4.3 Specific objectives...................................................................................................................................... 19  
1.5 Research questions .................................................................................................................................... 20  
1.6 Justification of the study .............................................................................................................................. 20  
1.7 Significance of the study ............................................................................................................................. 21  
1.8 Scope and limitations of the study .............................................................................................................. 21  
1.9 Operational definitions ............................................................................................................................. 22  
CHAPTER TWO .............................................................................................................................................. 23

viii
DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION..................................................................................................40

4.1. Introduction..................................................................................................................................................40

4.1.3 Gender issues in the relief camps and in the resettlement .....................................................................40

4.1.4 Identification of gender issues by relief agencies...................................................................................40

4.2. Various forms of gender discrimination and inequality used on women, men, boys and girls internally displaced ...............................................................................................................................................................44

4.2.1 Participants perception of Gender Discriminations and Inequalities. ....................................................44

4.2.2 Participants’ views of perpetrators of gender discrimination and inequalities ............................................45

4.2.3 Participants perspectives of forms of gender discrimination and inequalities ........................................46

4.2.4 Participants suggestion for alleviating Gender Discrimination and Inequalities ...................................53

4.3 Representation and Portrayal of Gender Roles by Relief Agencies............................................................54

4.3.1 Relief agencies involved in humanitarian aid ............................................................................................54

4.3.2 Method used in distributing Humanitarian Aid by relief agencies..........................................................55

4.3.3 Accessibility of Services ............................................................................................................................55

4.3.4 Roles attributed to women, men, boys, and girls .....................................................................................55

4.4 Participation of women, men, boys and girls in Leadership and Decision making process while at the resettlement ..........................................................................................................................................................56

4.4.1 Respondents proposal of areas of participation in leadership and decision making ................................57

4.4.2 Participants areas of participation in rehabilitation and reconstruction. ..................................................58

4.4.3 Challenges in participation in leadership and decision making. ...............................................................59

4.4.4 Participants suggestion on how to participate in leadership and decision making ...................................60

4.5 Participants suggestions on the Road to Recovery .....................................................................................60

CHAPTER FIVE.................................................................................................................................................62

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMEDATIONS..................................................................62
LIST OF FIGURES

Table 2.1 Conceptual Framework of the Study
LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of Introduction 69
Appendix II: Interview Guide for Focus Group Discussions 70
Appendix III: Interview schedule for Key Informants 72
Appendix IV: Observation Checklist. 73
LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of Introduction 69
Appendix II: Interview Guide for Focus Group Discussions 70
Appendix III: Interview schedule for Key Informants 72
Appendix IV: Observation Checklist. 73
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION AND STUDY BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction
This chapter focuses on the study background, statement of problem, study objectives, research questions, and significance of the study, scope, limitation of the study, theoretical, conceptual frameworks and operational definitions. The proposed site was Rongai District, Nakuru County, Kenya.

1.2 Background of the study
Gender issues have been operative in societies since time immemorial as most societies clearly defined gender roles in such a way that women were assigned reproductive roles while men played productive roles. Men’s roles were regarded as superior to those of women. Unevenness was demonstrated in social mobility, decision making, property rights and access to public places. (Chaman, 2008).

Gender mainstreaming as a phenomenon entails integrating gender issues, concerns and needs into the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes, projects and activities at all levels. It is a way of ensuring that policy and decision making takes into account men’s, women’s, boys’ and girls’ different interests and needs. It is promoting equitable opportunities, rights and obligations for all. The aim is to achieve gender parity and equality.

Historically, the term “gender mainstreaming” came into widespread use with the adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995, which advocated for the promotion of equal opportunities, rights and obligations for both women and men in all aspects of life. Gender mainstreaming put emphasis on equality between men and women in organization practices, policies and programmes, (Schalkwyk 1998). The power relations between men and women in terms of age, marital status, ethnicity, religion, caste or refugee status is important in influencing human dimensions of development, on the way the development challenges are understood and the way in which progress and achievements are assessed. Gender equity then becomes fundamental to development when considered from the human perspective which includes human rights and
social justice. It is also critical to achieving goals such as poverty reduction and sustainable economies (UNDP 1995).

In Africa, few women have been involved proactively in roles such as conflict resolution, decision-making and leadership which are often a domain of men. Only one woman has been elected as President in African history that is, Ellen Johnson Sirleaf, President of Liberia. In Kenya, the government’s policy on Affirmative Action of 30% women recruitments into public sector demonstrates the unevenness between men and women. Inequality is observed in women representation in leadership positions as well as conflict resolution. For instance during the peace and reconciliation talks in the disputed 2007 presidential results in Kenya which sparked violence in the country, only three women namely former Mozambique and First Lady Machel Mandela, politicians Martha Karua and Dr. Sally Kosgey were involved at that level.

Development is an important aspect of social change and can be realized if disasters that threaten life and livelihoods are prevented or their effects reduced. When disasters occur, they affect human beings differently depending on age, gender, economic status and previous exposure to calamities among others. The issue of gender becomes significant in the way it shapes the disaster experience and the ability to recover. It explains why certain groups of people are at greater risk or why some others recover at a slower pace. Since gender is an important factor in the process of assigning roles and responsibilities within groups and in determining the access to and control over resources among groups, gender mainstreaming becomes a valid and important policy domain during disasters and throughout the rehabilitation, recovery and reconstruction process. Gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery strengthens the resilience of communities, shortens recovery time and leads to holistic recovery and reconstruction. Disaster recovery process therefore can be achieved by taking into account the needs, concerns and capacities of gender groups in planning and implementing disaster reduction and risk management activities (WBI, 2009).

According to Yonder (2005), post disaster response and recovery programs represent huge investments by development and humanitarian relief agencies. World Bank for example has invested about $35 billion dollars in loan commitments for projects that include at least one disaster component. One hundred and forty seven post-catastrophic reconstruction projects
social justice. It is also critical to achieving goals such as poverty reduction and sustainable economies (UNDP 1995).

In Africa, few women have been involved proactively in roles such as conflict resolution, decision-making and leadership which are often a domain of men. Only one woman has been elected as President in African history that is, Ellen Johnson Sirleaf, President of Liberia. In Kenya, the government’s policy on Affirmative Action of 30% women recruitments into public sector demonstrates the unevenness between men and women. Inequality is observed in women representation in leadership positions as well as conflict resolution. For instance during the peace and reconciliation talks in the disputed 2007 presidential results in Kenya which sparked violence in the country, only three women namely former Mozambique and First Lady Machel Mandela, politicians Martha Karua and Dr. Sally Kosgey were involved at that level.

Development is an important aspect of social change and can be realized if disasters that threaten life and livelihoods are prevented or their effects reduced. When disasters occur, they affect human beings differently depending on age, gender, economic status and previous exposure to calamities among others. The issue of gender becomes significant in the way it shapes the disaster experience and the ability to recover. It explains why certain groups of people are at greater risk or why some others recover at a slower pace. Since gender is an important factor in the process of assigning roles and responsibilities within groups and in determining the access to and control over resources among groups, gender mainstreaming becomes a valid and important policy domain during disasters and throughout the rehabilitation, recovery and reconstruction process. Gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery strengthens the resilience of communities, shortens recovery time and leads to holistic recovery and reconstruction. Disaster recovery process therefore can be achieved by taking into account the needs, concerns and capacities of gender groups in planning and implementing disaster reduction and risk management activities (WBI, 2009).

According to Yonder (2005), post disaster response and recovery programs represent huge investments by development and humanitarian relief agencies. World Bank for example has invested about $35 billion dollars in loan commitments for projects that include at least one disaster component. One hundred and forty seven post-catastrophic reconstruction projects

United Nations Development Programme indicates that more than 20 countries have been either involved in conflicts or border countries in conflict in Africa, for the past few decades. Countries like Rwanda, Congo, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Uganda, Nigeria and Kenya have experienced ethnic or religious clashes leading to loss of lives, property and displacement of people. Many of these conflicts last decades, with an average length of 15 years. The displaced population is estimated to be about 25 to 30 percent of the affected population. Poor security conditions in these countries lead to the destruction of social fabric and physical infrastructure at a time when many people need social assistance (UNDP, 2008).

Kenya has not been an exception in internal displacements of people as a result of politically-instigated violence, resource-based conflicts or natural disasters triggered by climate change. The country ranks number seven in Africa. Politically-instigated violence is manifested in ethnic clashes which can be traced back to 1991 with the introduction of pluralism in politics. Eruptions of tribal clashes especially in the Rift Valley Province have recurred in the last one decade leading to eviction of people from certain ethnic groups, loss of lives and livelihoods (Mulli, 2008).

Violence as a result of disputed results of the 2007 presidential elections in Kenya gave rise to a sudden and large-scale humanitarian emergency, the effects of which were felt far beyond Kenya’s borders to neighboring countries like Uganda and Sudan. The disruption of livelihoods and essential services affected large numbers throughout the country and the interruption of transport hampered the delivery of humanitarian aid to affected areas and economic activity in the region. Many families who had settled in Rift Valley, Western and Nyanza provinces were rendered homeless. Those who survived sought refuge in IDP camps which were erected in places such as Agricultural Society of Kenya (ASK) show grounds in Eldoret and Nakuru, schools, church compounds, police stations, chief’s camps and other places of relative safety to address the emergency.
Internal displacements pose a number of challenges. Apart from loosing property and fleeing their homes, the affected people live in poor conditions, face difficulties in finding a job or a source of income to access basic needs such as adequate food, clothing, medicine and even school fees for their children. Access to social amenities such as good sanitation, water, toilets and public health facilities get compromised. IDPs are compelled to start a new life without prospects of safety, return, resettlement or compensation.

According to the Ministry of State for Special Programs, IDP Status Brief (2010), it is estimated that 663,921 people were displaced and 78,254 houses destroyed countrywide as a result of 2007 post election violence in Kenya. Out of these, 350 IDPs sought refuge in 118 camps, 313,921 were integrated within the communities across the country and 640 families fled to the neighboring Uganda.

The political change in Kenya resulted in formation of coalition government which led to the process of reconciliation, reconstruction and peace building among other initiatives contained in the mediation talks spearheaded by former UN Secretary General Dr. Kofi Annan. Kenya Government (2010) indicates that the government initiated the implementation of “Rudi Nyumbani” (Operation go back home programme) whereby each household was given ten thousand shillings and for those whose houses were burnt given a further twenty five thousand shillings for resettlement. A National Humanitarian Fund was set up for mitigation of effects and resettlement of victims of 2007 post - election violence by the president of the Republic of Kenya under legal notice number eleven of 30th January 2008. The objectives of the program included:

a) Resettlement of persons displaced as a result of post election violence.

b) Replacement of basic household effects destroyed as a result of post election violence.

c) Enabling victims of 2007 post election violence to re- start their basic livelihoods.

A number of IDPs unable to return to their homes have since formed 19 self help groups estimated to consist of 6, 802 families. These have relocated from IDP camps to other resettlement areas such as Mai Mahiu in Naivasha District, Mawingu in Ol Kalou District,
Kikopey in Gilgil District, Mbaruk and pipeline in Nakuru District, Turi and Kibunja in Molo District, Giwa, Minto, Moroto, Fanmarko and Alko in Rongai District.

Although the Government estimates that fewer than 10,000 people remain in IDP camps and more than 238,047 people have returned to pre-displacement areas and transit sites, a reasonable number of post violence victims can still be spotted living in tents. Despite the many positive developments, the Government of Kenya estimates that at least 54,000 remain in transit sites and others have yet to return (UNDP, 2008).

1.3 Statement of the problem

In many African societies, the social order has been patriarchal. Throughout history women are largely excluded from many activities such as making war, governments, property ownership, art and science” (Gadol 1987). Women’s participation in leadership and decision making is low compared to that of men. The distinguishing feature of women from men has been perceived to be sex, making women to generally function as the property of men in the reproductive and socializing aspect of their societies. Children (boys and girls) become most vulnerable when disasters strike and often lack voices in activities and programmes designed for victims of a disaster.

Despite efforts to make the concerns, needs and experiences of men, women, girls and boys an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in political, economic and social spheres so that they benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated, the progress of achieving real change in the situation of women in terms of marginal programmes compared to men has been slow for over two decades (ECOSOC, 1997).

Since gender mainstreaming is about equal opportunities in power, policies and programmes, changes in mainstream policies and resource allocations when disasters occur has not reflected the interests and views of women as well as men, depicted in the Beijing recommendations of 1995.

The Draft National Policy for Disaster Management in Kenya (2009) shows that policy, legal and institutional frameworks on disasters are weak. Disaster policy is not yet in place, disaster response activities are poorly coordinated exposing the victims to greater risks and slow
recovery. Systematic approach through planned disaster management is rare and effective coordination for management of non-food relief items is lacking. Monitoring of relief sub-sectors like provision of water, health, nutrition and education is difficult because the number of activities, actors and approaches are too many for efficiency. This has a negative impact in mainstreaming gender in disasters. During conflicts, little gender analysis is done on the implications of violence on both women and men so that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration.

Looking at the gender policies that exist in Kenya, the National Gender and Development policy (2000) cover critical areas such as the economy, health, education and training, poverty and sustainable livelihoods, Law, political participation and decision-making. It does not look into gender mainstreaming from a disaster management perspective, despite the excessive impact which women, men and children undergo in disasters. Although women constitute slightly more than half of the Kenyan population they are perceived to be dependent on men and the roles accorded to men carry a higher status compared to those of women. This means that men have more rights and privileges than women even though women and are more vulnerable in disasters.

This study therefore aimed to explore the extent of gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery of internally displaced persons in Rongai District.

1.4 Study objectives
1.4.1 Broad Objective
To establish the extent of gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery of internally displaced persons in Rongai District.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives
i) To establish how gender issues have been systematically identified and applied to men, women, girls and boys who were internally displaced in Rongai District.

ii) To establish the various forms of gender discrimination and inequality used on women, men, boys and girls internally displaced in Rongai district.
recovery. Systematic approach through planned disaster management is rare and effective coordination for management of non-food relief items is lacking. Monitoring of relief sub-sectors like provision of water, health, nutrition and education is difficult because the number of activities, actors and approaches are too many for efficiency. This has a negative impact in mainstreaming gender in disasters. During conflicts, little gender analysis is done on the implications of violence on both women and men so that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration.

Looking at the gender policies that exist in Kenya, the National Gender and Development policy (2000) cover critical areas such as the economy, health, education and training, poverty and sustainable livelihoods, Law, political participation and decision-making. It does not look into gender mainstreaming from a disaster management perspective, despite the excessive impact which women, men and children undergo in disasters. Although women constitute slightly more than half of the Kenyan population they are perceived to be dependent on men and the roles accorded to men carry a higher status compared to those of women. This means that men have more rights and privileges than women even though women and are more vulnerable in disasters.

This study therefore aimed to explore the extent of gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery of internally displaced persons in Rongai District.

1.4 Study objectives
1.4.1 Broad Objective

To establish the extent of gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery of internally displaced persons in Rongai District.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

i) To establish how gender issues have been systematically identified and applied to men, women, girls and boys who were internally displaced in Rongai District.

ii) To establish the various forms of gender discrimination and inequality used on women, men, boys and girls internally displaced in Rongai district.
iii) To find out the representation and portrayal of women's, men's, girls; and boys' roles by relief agencies among internally displaced persons in Rongai District.

iv) To determine the participation of men, women, girls and boys in leadership / decision-making processes in the relief camps and resettlement areas.

1.5 Research questions
1. To what extent were gender issues systematically identified and applied to men, women, girls and boys who were internally displaced in Rongai District?

2. What various forms of gender discriminations and inequalities were used on women, men, boys and girls who were internally displaced in Rongai District?

3. How were the roles of women, men, girls and boys who were internally displaced in Rongai district represented and portrayed by relief agencies?

4. How did men, women, girls and boys participate in leadership / decision-making processes in the relief camps and the resettlement areas?

1.6 Justification of the study
Gender mainstreaming is an important process which entails equitable involvement of both women and men in all aspects of life. It is a central organizing principle in many of the disaster-prone societies. The experiences of individual women and men in a disaster environment are heterogeneous. Therefore the social, economic and political factors join biological differences to shape the respective experiences and human needs of women and men as a group. Since men and women are normally interdependent, programmes and policies designed to impact on either of these groups are likely to affect gender relations. Neglecting to take both women and men into account can have adverse repercussions for the intended outcome of gender-targeted programmes and policies for disaster recovery and reconstruction.

The Beijing Platform for Action of 1995 which recognized the impact of natural disasters on women suggested that a gender perspective should be incorporated into disaster prevention, mitigation and recovery strategies so that international and regional organizations assist governments in developing gender sensitive disaster management. This will promote equity in
disaster recovery. Mainstreaming gender into disaster planning, relief and reconstruction is also necessary for an optimal outcome and should be increasingly recognized so that governments can enhance resilient communities.

1.7 Significance of the study
The establishment of causal factors in women as most vulnerable to disasters is likely to offer solid basis for relevant understanding and potential redress for disaster relief and reconstruction. Women and children form a larger number of survivors of conflicts as most men are either killed or flee during violence. It is important that they are fully involved in rehabilitation and reconstruction as the survivors. It is also hoped that the study's findings would be useful to policy makers who have the responsibility of controlling and preventing human-caused disasters as well as endorsing gender mainstreaming in recovery and reconstruction. The data and information generated by this study will hopefully help in devising strategies and programs that would help in combating conflicts. It is hoped that the findings of this study will influence legislative policies and regulations on gender mainstreaming from a disaster management view. The findings of this study will highlight gender mainstreaming in disasters and help response workers to be able to understand how the most vulnerable groups are most affected and hence devise strategies in the design of community social programmes geared towards disaster recovery and creating resilient communities.

1.8 Scope and limitations of the study
This study was limited to gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery process of internally displaced persons in Rongai District, as a result of the 2007 post election violence in Kenya. The scope covered Minto and Giwa resettlements in Rongai District. The study targeted women and men, boys and girls who were victims of 2007 post-election violence. The respondents were therefore women, men, girls and boys who went through IDP relief camps but have since relocated to resettlement areas.
1.9 Operational definitions

Disasters: A disaster is an occurrence such as floods, earthquake, explosion, war, transportation accident, mass shooting, fire, famine, or epidemic that causes human suffering or creates human need that the victim cannot alleviate without assistance.

Gender: Refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female and the relationships between women and men, girls and boys.

Gender-Based Violence: is the physical, sexual and psychological violence against both men and women that occurs within the family and the community and is perpetrated or condoned by the state.

Gender equality: Refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of men and women and boys and girls, the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men.

Gender mainstreaming: It is a process in which women’s, men’s, boys’ and girls’ specific concerns and experiences are made an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres so that they benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.

Internally displaced persons: Internally displaced persons are persons or groups of persons who have been forced to flee their homes or places of habitual residence, in order to avoid the effects of armed conflicts or violence, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border.

Reconstruction: is a process of rebuilding or building back better victims of a disaster so that situations return to normalcy, with a view to strengthening resilience in disasters.

Transitional camps: These are temporary camps in which internally displaced people stay after IDP relief camps, while waiting to be resettled.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter looks at the related literature to the study. It consist of the concept and history of gender mainstreaming, gender mainstreaming and disaster planning, gender policy and institutional and legal framework, gender roles in society, women’s roles, women’s vulnerability, disaster impact and shift in gender relations, gender and conflict, the gender perspective and key areas for mainstreaming gender in disasters.

2.2 The Concept and History of Gender Mainstreaming
The term “mainstreaming” was first used in the 1970s in the educational literature to describe an educational method that includes many different kinds of learners in the same classroom, instead of separating students according to their learning abilities. It describes classrooms where students with disabilities and students who do not have disabilities are taught together (UNHCR, 2008). “Gender mainstreaming” emerged from the development sphere in the United Nations Decade for Women launched in Mexico in 1975, which prompted concerns about the inadequate effect of aid development policies on women. Women were identified as a special interest group within the development sphere needing particular accommodation. Women in Development (WID) strategies encouraged the integration of women into the existing structures of development, and did not question the biases built into these structures.

The “gender and development” (“GAD”) approach superseded WID. GAD was seen as an advance on WID because it drew attention to the impact of relations between women and men on development policies. Its aim was to change the practice of development to prevent inequality between women and men (Rounaq Jahan, 1995). In this context, gender mainstreaming was presented as a mechanism to broaden the concept of development to respond to women’s lives.
2.3 Gender Policy, Institutional and Legal Frameworks in Kenya.

The national machinery for coordinating gender mainstreaming is the Department of Gender within the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development. The National Policy on Gender and Development (2000) provides the framework for the state to address gender imbalances and inequality. The government of Kenya established a National Commission for Gender and Development in 2004 to spearhead gender issues. Many legal provisions are in the process of being promulgated and positive effects are still to be seen. Legal literacy is low resulting in many women being unaware of civil laws, customary laws, which often discriminate against them.

Although Kenya has a vibrant NGO sector, many of the NGOs which deal with gender concerns address practical gender interests only. Those which address strategic interests often lack capacity and funding. At the grassroots level a multitude of women’s groups engage in self-help, saving and educational projects. The macro-economic framework adopted by the Government is a pro-growth strategy that aims to address poverty and ensure sustainable development. Kenya has a relatively diversified economy and therefore its policies focus on the promotion of access to markets through infrastructure provision, credit and employment generation, increased public resources towards poverty reduction, enhanced security of the poor and vulnerable groups as well as human capital development. The national budget is not engendered and thirteen ministries lack budgetary allocations targeting gender activities (African Development Bank, 2007)

2.4 Gender mainstreaming and disaster planning

Gender is a central organizing principle in many of the disaster-prone societies. Whereas experiences of individual women and men in a disaster environment are heterogeneous, social, economic and political factors join biological differences to shape these experiences and needs of men and women as a group since they are interdependent. Policies designed to impact on either of these groups are also likely to affect gender relations. Neglecting to take into account gender issues can itself have adverse repercussions for the intended outcome of targeted policies.

During reconstruction process, building, maintenance of shelters and relief camps has numerous aspects that bear on the well-being of gender groups. Safety is one of the most recognized and
recurrent issues. Following disasters, the threat of physical and sexual violence increases, especially against women, and this effect is magnified in relief camps. After the 2006 flood disaster in Bolivia, for instance, one of the key concerns identified in the San Julian emergency shelters was that only two of the camps had adequate lighting, while there were no direct security arrangements. This created a particularly insecure environment for women and children, especially at night (CARE 2006).

2.5 Gender roles in society

The differences between women and men within the same household and between cultures are socially and culturally constructed and change over time. These differences are reflected in roles, responsibilities, access to resources, constraints, opportunities, needs, perceptions and views held by both women and men. Gender therefore is not a synonym for women but considers women and men, boys and girls and their interdependent relationships (Moser, 1993).

Gender roles are likely to be affected in times of crises such as war, conflict and natural disasters. Situations may dictate that women or children take up roles of family heads where men flee or are killed in armed conflicts. Men might also lose their status as family heads and engage in domestic chores such as cooking, baby seating, and washing among others in instants where mothers are killed and the situation has not allowed remarriage. Although attention for gender in development policy has existed for some time now, the need for gender mainstreaming in humanitarian aid and conflict approaches has started only in the mid 1990s. Mainstreaming means using gender not just as an added theme in humanitarian work, but paying attention to gender aspects and gender equality throughout all projects, programmes and policy.

Gender is not just about women, as is often implicitly presumed. It deals with roles of both women and men. However, the word gender is often used as being synonymous to women. Fordham (2004) indicates that women have varied but gendered experiences which give them a distinctive starting point for critiquing familiar assumptions from the position of the oppressed. Male-dominated management and universalized experiences of disasters have stimulated most gender research to focus on women specifically rather than on women and men because of their relative invisibility and their later established greater potential vulnerability.
Byrne et al (1995) speak of gender conflict as a result of a focus on women alone as victims. Furthermore, focusing simply on women’s activities can obscure important dimensions of their livelihood strategies that include cooperation and interdependence between men and women.

2.6 Women’s roles
Women’s central roles are often ignored in disaster management practices. Women’s domestic work and responsibilities remain most of the time invisible. The inherent hierarchy in the public-private dichotomy makes the feminized domestic sphere subservient to the masculine public (Fordham 1998). Greet (1994) argues that, despite the gender concerns spelled out in policy documents of relief organizations, women’s needs and roles in production and development are still being marginalized in development and disaster practice.

Women perform multi-dimensional roles. To a large extent, women are responsible for food provision and the overall survival strategy of the family. Traditionally, women performed many activities that are associated with emergency preparedness. Noel (1998) sums up the following examples regarding Caribbean women: “They have long been involved in selecting housing sites, placement of wells, hauling, storage, and distribution of water, and promotion of sound household hygiene and sanitation practices. Women’s involvement in food production and nutrition is also significant, and is not limited to mere cooking and serving, but includes direct manual labor in planting and harvesting crops, handling large farm animals, transportation and marketing.”

2.7 Women’s vulnerability
The combination of fulfilling a central role in everyday life on the one hand and lacking decision-making power and access to resources on the other, make women to a great extent vulnerable to natural disasters. According to the International Labour Organization report (2002) women’s subordination is a root cause of their disaster vulnerability. Economic insecurity, ideological constraints, male dominance, sexual and domestic violence, extensive care-giving responsibilities, and heterosexist practices and kinship relations are mentioned as factors that contribute to women’s vulnerability.
According to Fordham (2004), women's greater vulnerability is based on the fact that in general, women and girls are disadvantaged compared to men and boys. They more frequently occupy a position of dependence on other persons and their triple role in society is often invisible. They must deal with reduced educational and employment opportunities, limited access and control over resources, employment sources and credit facilities, less political representation and fewer civic freedoms. “In post-disaster construction, however, it is the formal sector that attracts attention and resources” Fordham (2004). Female-headed households are more vulnerable on account of their poverty and lack of access to other social and economic resources. They must choose between the two roles that they perform, that of a woman being caring for the children and that of a man, providing protection for the family.

Natural disasters, like food crises and famines, deepen and intensify already existing unequal power relations between classes and genders, pointing to inequality as a factor in disaster vulnerability. As far as relief interventions are concerned it is crucial to understand how both the emergency itself and relief responses will have a differential impact on individuals within the household, and how the power and resource distribution is affected (Byrne, et al 1995).

2.8 Disaster impact and shift in gender relations

Studies indicate that perceived gender roles point out to gender differentiated impacts of disasters. In India, excess deaths among females following an earthquake in Maharashtra, were attributed to women being in homes damaged by the earthquake and men being in open areas. Men were sleeping in fields during harvest time and were away from the home in preparation for a festival, boys were at school away from the village, and many men were away from affected areas at places of employment, in other districts or states.

In the 1991 cyclone in Bangladesh many women perished with their children at home as they had to wait for their husbands to return and make an evacuation decision. In a Western Ethiopia refugee camp young Sudanese men fleeing conscription continued to starve despite receiving prompt shipment of food aid. The food they were given needed to be cooked before it could be eaten and as men, they had never learned to cook. In the aftermath of Hurricane Andrew in the United States of America, men who had traditionally been the family providers and protectors struggled with their feelings of inadequacy and failure.
Men’s roles as protectors may place a greater responsibility on them for risk taking during and after a disaster, both within their households and as volunteers and rescue workers. What becomes acceptable behavior may change in times of crisis. For example, sale of alcohol or drugs or prostitution may turn into acceptable activities for women, where they have no other options. This shift from cultural norms is costly and women risk losing the support of their social network permanently. Byrne et al (1995) notes that crisis often leads to changes in gender situations, notably shifts in or a loosening of the division of labour, changes in household structure and marriage relationships. On the other hand, there may also be positive gains for women in some survival strategies, through learning new skills and entering new areas of participation.

The process of rehabilitation may cause potential conflicts “as both men and women adjust to shifts in their respective patterns of control over resources and responsibilities” (Byrne et al 1995). The increase of women’s work burden in times of crisis may also lead to a reduction in their participation in the public sphere. However, women’s care responsibilities make them less mobile and they are therefore less able to migrate outside the impacted area than men. Women also suffer more than men because of their weak bargaining position in the household. This contradicts with the view that household resources are distributed equally, as relief agencies often assume.

2.9 Gender and Conflict
In times of conflict, women are stereotyped as victims and or peace builders, whereas men are the aggressive, warring parties. These images are very generalized, with exceptions on both sides. “Women may actively promote the notion that they are the guardians of cultural or ethnic identity as this role can give them status, power and a public voice. Women may use this position to incite violence, becoming the agents, rather than the victims of violence” (Byrne et al 1995).

Women that do not actively participate in the fighting often need to fill the labour gaps that their husbands, brother or fathers leave behind when they join rebels or armed forces. In times of war and uncertainty this new division of labour may include all agricultural labour and further maintaining their livelihoods and household economy, next to their more traditional roles of caring for their families.
One of the violent ways in which people are targeted during war and conflict, is through gender-based and sexual violence as was the case of Rwanda genocide. During conflict and disasters, whole communities are forced to flee their homes and move to safe havens, like refugee camps in neighboring countries.

Displacement has different gender impacts in each phase: from the cause of flight to considerations of protection and assistance while displaced, to specific problems arising in the resettlement and reintegration phase. Fundamental rights are also put at risk” (IASC 2001). Women are often denied a refugee status, because of the tendency to only register male-headed households in the refugee camps (Byrne 1995). This does not only pertain to their refugee status, but goes beyond that to areas of entitlement, distribution of cash and goods among others.

The new reality in refugee camps can challenge existing social and cultural structures. For instance, “big men” are no longer respected as they used to, because they don’t have the property and special status that they had prior to arriving in the refugee camps. Village leadership in the camp goes to the younger because the current leadership required different skills than before. Women who gain positions at the various organizations, thus becoming the breadwinner of the household, may suddenly having the biggest say in that household. The men may feel they have lost respect, because of not being able to provide for their families, and having to ask for money from their wives.

A gender sensitive approach to the infrastructure of refugee camps is important. A lack of gender sensitivity in refugee camps may also expose women to risk and violence. For example, the camps may not have well-protected women’s quarters or may have inappropriate sanitary facilities. Also the distance between the facilities and their tents, and insufficient light in the camp may lead to unsafe situations in which women are put at risk. Gender concerns for internally displaced women primarily relate to two core issues: protection Safeguarding women and girls from rape, abduction, forced sexual slavery, genital mutilation, torture and murder; and upholding their rights to equal access and full participation in assistance programs. Gender violence is a common feature of displacement. Chronic physical and mental traumas persist because responsible parties fail to concern themselves with or to publicize the lasting effects of
physical abuse. Agencies rarely examine protection issues in depth, much less initiate or support investigative research on gender violence in IDP population (Forbes 1992)

2.10 Key Areas for Mainstreaming Gender in Disaster Management
Gender shapes the disaster experience and the ability to recover. It explains why certain groups of people are at greater risk or why some others recover at a slower pace. Since gender plays an important role in assigning roles and responsibilities within groups and in determining the access to and control of resources among groups, gender sensitivity and gender aspect become a valid and important policy domain during disasters and throughout the rehabilitation, recovery and reconstruction process (WBI 2009)

Gender mainstreaming is a key strategy to reduce inequalities among gender groups. Mainstreaming gender into disaster management strengthens the resilience of entire communities, cuts recovery time, and leads to more efficient recovery and reconstruction. It can be achieved by taking into account the needs, concerns and capacities of gender groups; women, men, boys and girls in planning and implementing disaster reduction and risk management activities. These needs and concerns may be biological, psychological, economic or social.

Building back better may encompasses a number of dimensions with gender-specific implications, beyond the erection of strengthened physical infrastructure. It involves paying attention to a range of issues from compensating victims for the losses of their tools and assets which is often overlooked, by providing childcare for orphaned children, to supporting the formation of self -help groups and strengthening human development. Mainstreaming gender into reconstruction provides for faster and deeper recovery, in addition to the benefits gained in promoting gender equality and addressing gender - based vulnerabilities.
2.11. Conceptual framework

Fig. 2.1 Conceptual Framework of the Study

**Gender roles**

socially constructed roles:

- Men-productive
- Women-reproductive

**Disasters**

Violence

Displacements

**Gender differentiation management and outcomes**

- IDP Camps
- Transitional Camps
- Resettlements

**Gender differentiated impacts:**

- Employment vs unemployment
- Inclusive vs exclusion in decision making
- Sexual abuse
- Discrimination in relief services
- Access to land & facilities
The framework indicates gender roles which are socially constructed. Men are assigned productive roles while women take up reproductive roles. Men are mostly heads of families and dominate decision making and planning, provide protection for the family, invest and own property whereas women are assigned basically child care and domestic chores.

Disasters can be human – caused, resulting to violence and displacements. This leads to gender differentiated impacts which may be in form of inclusions versus exclusions in decision making, employment versus unemployment, discrimination in relief aid and services, sexual abuse of women and girls, access or non access to land and facilities. When these disasters occur, they are likely to impact on one sex more than the other because of existing gender inequalities. Inequalities on the other hand can also trigger violence and cause displacements. The outcome of this is that people flee for safety to places like IDP camps, transitional camps or resettlement areas. While in these places of safety they may again experience gender differentiated impacts.

2.12 Theoretical framework

Conflict theory states class struggle is between the ‘haves’ and ‘have-nots’. Marx argues that individuals and groups within society have differing amounts of material and non-material resources thus creating a class of the wealthy usually owners of production vs. the poor who are workers. The theory explains that more powerful groups use their power in order to exploit groups with less power. Thus social relationships are about power and exploitation. The strong-rich exploit the poor-weak who end up getting less than they deserve.

IDPs found themselves in the class of the have-nots as they lost their property during violence and displacements. The politicians used the voters to get to political positions. When there was dispute about the presidential results the voters were incited and fought each other leading to violence and displacements. The politicians forgot about their predicaments in the relief camps. The weaker and vulnerable were further exploited in the camps in terms poor shelters, inadequate food supply, abuses and no compensation for losses.

Structural Functionalism theory looks at society as a whole with constituent elements namely norms, customs, traditions and institutions. Gender roles are bound up in institutions and social
structures (economic, educational, legal and even gender-based). They are functional in the sense that they assist society in operating and fulfilling its functional needs so that it embraces social cohesion. These socially constructed roles are however perceived to be unequal by the Feminist theory which focuses on limited rights to women based on the flawed perceptions that men held of women.

The Disaster Crunch Model theory shows that a disaster happens when and only if a hazard meets with vulnerability. The Model explains that people rely on ‘elements’ such as houses, water supply, crops, livestock, social groups and natural environment and if these elements are vulnerable, the hazard is likely to cause damage to them. Vulnerability may be in the following forms:

- Economic i.e. fragile livelihood, no credit or savings,
- Individual i.e. lack of skills, knowledge or opportunity due to gender or health conditions (HIV/AIDS)
- Social i.e. disorganized fragmented society, bad leadership.

The theory further illustrates that the vulnerable conditions exist because of pressures (policies and processes), acting on the individual and communities. The pressures are caused or increased by a set of ‘underlying causes’ that encourage those in position of power to behave in a certain way. These causes may be cultural issues, economic principles or political ideas.

Fleeing victims of post election violence who were poor ended up in IDP camps, then to transitional camps and eventually resettled on their own or by the Government in other safe places. Their level of vulnerability which may have been a combination of economic, individual and social as illustrated by the Crunch Model put them in such conditions compared to those who were rich. In the aftermaths of disasters, human beings perpetuate patterns of discrimination and these entrenched patterns cause certain groups of people to suffer more than others.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This part sets out the research methodology that was adopted to meet the objectives stated in section one of this study. The research design, research setting, population of study, sampling, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and presentation are discussed.

3.2 Research Design
This study took a descriptive research design. Descriptive studies are more formalized and typically structured with clearly stated investigative questions and serves a variety of research objectives such as descriptions of phenomenon or characteristics associated with a subject population, estimates of proportions of a population that have these characteristics and discovery of associations among different variables (Moore et al 1986).

According to Cooper and Schindler (2006) descriptive study is concerned with finding out who, what, where and how of the variables, which was the concern of this research. This assisted the researcher in describing the phenomenon under study which was to establish the extent of gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery for Internally Displaced Persons in Rongai District. The approach was qualitative, therefore focus groups discussions, key informants and observation methods were the most preferred method of data collection in this study.

3.3 Study Area and Study Population
The research was carried out in Rongai District, Nakuru County. This region was picked in consideration of the financial and time resources available to the researcher, which did not allow for a study to cover all the geographical regions hosting internally displaced persons. The region forms part of the areas of Rift Valley Province in Kenya that experienced violence due to disputed presidential results of 2007 elections, leading to internal displacement.
The study focused on internally displaced persons as a result of 2007 post election violence in Kenya. They consist of men, women, boys and girls who went through IDP relief camps but have since relocated to other resettlement areas. The target population therefore was internally displaced persons in Rongai District.

3.4 Sampling
Sampling is a process of selecting a sub-set of cases and draw conclusion from the active set. It is a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group, (Orodho, 2005).

The study used purposeful sampling. Women, men, boys, girls who were internally displaced as a result of 2007 post election violence were selected for focus group discussions. Two resettlements with IDPs were sampled namely Minto and Giwa resettlements in Rongai District. Four focus groups were picked from each resettlement. They were 8 focus groups in total, consisting women, men, girls and boys. The researcher chose these two sites because of numbers and the sites were also more accessible.

3.5 Data Collection Techniques
Qualitative research method was employed in this study. The techniques of data collection included focus group discussions, key informant interviews and observation.

3.5.1 Focus Group Discussions
Focus groups are a form of group interview that capitalizes on communication between research participants in order to generate data. According to Barker (2010), a focus group is an interview conducted by a trained moderator in a non-structured and natural manner with a small group of respondents. The moderator led the discussion. The main purpose was to gain insights by listening to a group of people talk about specific issues of interest.

This technique was used as a quick and convenient way to collect data from several people simultaneously in group interaction. This meant that instead of the researcher asking each person to respond to a question in turn, people were encouraged to talk to one another asking questions, exchanging anecdotes and commenting on each others' experiences and points of view. The
method was particularly useful for exploring people's knowledge and lived experiences. It was used to examine not only what people thought but how they thought and why they thought that way, (Morgan 1997).

The FGD facilitator used a discussion guide (Appendix II) which described the topics covered. The topics included how gender issues were systematically identified and applied to men, women, girls and boys, gender discriminations and inequalities, the portrayal of women's, men's, girls' and boys' roles by relief agencies, participation of women and men in leadership/decision making while in the resettlement areas.

The study used eight focus discussion groups comprising of women, men, boys and girls who were internally displaced and are resettled in Minto and Giwa resettlement areas. The FGDs had ten to twelve members each. The participants were homogeneous with some characteristics in common such as sex and age, so that they felt comfortable speaking in the group. The boys and girls focus groups discussions were conducted from Gachaha Primary School and from Kenyatta Secondary School where they were available. The men and women group discussions were conducted at Minto and Giwa resettlements, in an open space. The groups were set up in such a way that sessions were relaxed i.e. a comfortable setting: sitting on the ground so that participants had eye contact with each other and heard each other speak. The facilitator explained that the aim of focus groups is to encourage people to talk to each other instead of addressing themselves to the researcher. Once a group of participants was assembled for the discussion, the facilitator explained the discussion topic, starting with a broad topic i.e. what they understood by Gender mainstreaming, which was easy to discuss and leaving more sensitive issues to be raised as the discussion progressed and the participants felt more comfortable with each other and with the facilitator.

The FGDs lasted from 1-2 hours and were led by a facilitator. The FGDs were recorded on audio tape and later transcribed and analyzed. Where recording was not possible written notes were taken.

3.5.2 Key Informant Interviews

Key Informants are a selected group of people who are especially knowledgeable or experienced about certain issues or problems and are willing to share their knowledge. Key informant
Interviews refer to getting information from an individual who is considered to be particularly knowledgeable about the topic of interest. According to Barker (2010), interview is a technique that is primarily used to gain an understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations for people’s attitudes, preferences or behaviour. The semi-structured interviews can be undertaken on a personal one-to-one basis or in a group, which allows the researcher to seek insights, ask questions and assess phenomena in different perspectives. They can be conducted at work, at home, in the street or in a shopping centre, or some other agreed location. Barker states that interviews have the advantage of enabling serious approach by respondent resulting in accurate information, good response rate, completed and immediate, possible in-depth questions and interviewer in control can give help if there is a problem.

Key Informant Interviews are advantageous because they are used when written records are limited or do not exist, or when there are Key informants who are accessible and have in-depth knowledge about a topic.

The researcher selected ten Key Informants for interviews from relief agencies involved. These agencies were the Kenya Red Cross which was the lead agency in coordinating humanitarian aid, Catholic diocese of Nakuru, Ministry of Health, Ministry of State for Special Programmes, Provincial Administration officials, Ministry of Gender, children and social development. The KII included Regional protection/tracing/antennae coordinator, Kenya Red Cross Society South Rift Region, Social Worker Red Cross Nakuru branch, Medical Officer of Health Nakuru Provincial General hospital, Social Welfare Officer from Catholic Diocese of Nakuru, District officer Rongai Division, Chief Central division and Assistant Chief from Rongai, resettlement officer from Ministry of State for Special Programmes Nakuru and, Director Children Services, Deputy Director Gender and Social Development.

The researcher hoped to understand the perceptions and policy application of gender mainstreaming in humanitarian aid and services given to IDPs, from the point of view of relief agencies.
3.5.3 Observation
Observation provides information about actual behavior or habitual routines of people that they may not be aware of. Direct observation allows the researcher to put behavior in context and thereby understand it better. In this study the researcher made observations as interviews were conducted.

Observations were made on safety networks and security of the resettlement, physical structures such as appropriateness of shelter, hygienic places, social amenities and gender roles as the IDPs carried on their daily activities in Minto and Giwa resettlement.

3.6 Data Analysis and presentation
Data analysis refers to examining what has been collected in a study and making deductions and inferences. Data gathered in this study was qualitative in nature. Therefore content analysis was the most useful analysis approach or technique. Nachamias and Nachamias (1996) describe content analysis as any technique used to make inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specific characteristics and messages. According to Nachamias and Nachamias, content analysis is used to analyze the data through describing phenomena, classifying it and seeing how the concepts interconnect as indicated by the responses or data. This approach of analysis was preferred as it gives results that are predictable, directed or comprehensive. Content analysis enabled the researcher to sift through large volumes of responses and analyzed commonality of the themes presented. Therefore, analysis of the data collected were in three stages as follows:

Familiarization: At this stage, the researcher read the transcripts of the interviews. Characteristics and messages of the content of raw data were systematically and objectively identified. The researcher then labeled or coded the data so that it can be easily identified and categorized as common themes emerged.

Organization: The researcher structured the data by collating it under the different labels/codes, then started building up an outline of the issues and compiling them under common themes which are: how gender issues have been systematically identified and applied to men, women, boys and girls by relief agencies, gender discrimination and inequality, portrayal of gender roles
(women, men, boys and girls), participation of women and men in leadership/decision making process.

Interpretation: Issues and themes were then developed and a narrative report written with quotations from key informants and respondents from the focus group discussions. This information thus processed was presented in prose in accordance with the research objectives.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1. Introduction
This chapter presents the study findings. The study objective was to find out the extent of gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery for internally displaced persons in Rongai district. In the chapter are the analysis of data, presentation and suggestions by the respondents.

4.1.2 How gender issues were systematically identified and appropriately applied to men women, boys and girls.

The study in this theme sought to find out how genders issues were systematically identified and appropriately applied.

4.1.3 Participants’ gender issues in the relief camps and in the resettlement.
Participants stated some of the gender issues in the relief camps and resettlements to be hygienic facilities, sleeping arrangements, shelter, undergarments, clothes, contraceptives, condoms, sanitary towels, shaving items, and special diet for children, pregnant and lactating mothers.

4.1.4 Identification and application of gender issues by relief agencies
The study found out from the women, men, boys and girls FGDs that gender issues were not appropriately identified and applied by relief agencies in form of congested temporary shelters, shared and communal toilets which were unhygienic, inadequate supply of undergarments, inadequate sanitary towels, no contraceptives, no condoms and no shaving items. There was no provision of nutrition and special diet to children, pregnant women and lactating mothers.

The girls and women FGDs stated that toilets and bathrooms for women were not separated from those of men in the relief camps and in the resettlements. They were few and communal. There was no lighting along the pathways. The sharing of toilets and no lights occasioned sexual harassment of women and girls when they tried to use the facilities at night. These facilities were congested and unhygienic leading to disease outbreaks especially to children and those who walked barefooted. The facilities did not provide for places for airing undergarments. They further said that sanitary towels and pants were either in short supply or irregularly supplied. Girls’ FGDs cited missing sanitary towels during menstruation because the older women
benefitted first. Water for bathing, soaps and oil were also in short supply. The girls’ FGDs stated:

'The ‘Always’ (a brand of sanitary towels) was issued to mothers first and they got finished before any one of us could get. We had to improvise old blankets, clothes or part of the mattress for use during our menstruation or stay inside the tent and keep washing off the blood.'

The girls’ voices indicated exclusion in the issuance of essentials such as sanitary towels and pants causing them to improvise other unhygienic clothing. The inability to get these basic necessities when required implied that women and girls’ needs were ignored during humanitarian aid thus their misfortunes elevated further by relief agencies when these circumstances forced them to stay indoors. The relief agencies did not factor in sanitary towels and pants for women and girls as essentials in the planning and budgeting process.

The men and boys FGDs cited no supply of undergarments, condoms and shaving machines in the humanitarian aid. Majority of them confessed they did not wear undergarments even in the resettlement because even the outer clothes i.e. shorts or trousers were in short supply. The researcher observed the participants had worn clothes, men who had unkempt long hair and beards. The men FGDs stated lack of shaving items and money to pay a barber. The girls and boys FGDs stated inappropriate and inadequate clothing. They cited old or oversize clothes and shoes issued to them by Relief agencies. They said they were given oversize clothes, some of which were old or torn. They sometimes got shoes of different designs or sizes that could not be fit. The items were neither clean nor in good condition. Distribution method was discriminating, they were provided left over items after the adults had selected good ones.

Women and men FGDs said shelter was congested and inappropriate. Special sleeping space for pregnant mothers and lactating women was not provided. There was congestion in the tents and only a few exceptional cases such as a woman giving birth inside the tent and she had to be known to the officials would then be transferred to a building, set aside for very old women. They stated that the new shelters constructed by the government in the resettlement area were incomplete. They are shells; the inside was not partitioned or furnished. The women FGDs explained:
We were all lumped in one tent if one was lucky to receive a tent. Some IDPs accommodated other families who had no shelter. There was no separate or extra tent for parents or children. Only one tent for entire family was given irrespective of whether children are too old to share with their parents or a family is polygamous. Our new houses are incomplete; they have no partition, no furniture. All we have are a few utensils, an old blanket and mattress they gave us at the relief camps.

The statement from the women FGDs showed that limited shelter meant that privacy for parents and children was compromised. Inconveniences and discomfort to pregnant and lactating mothers was prevalent. This implied that adequate and appropriate shelter as primary need for men, women, boys and girls was not integrated in policy, planning and implementation of the relief programme.

The men FGDs stated intensified poor health conditions for those who were infected with HIV/AIDS. The infected who did not declare their health status did not get special diet or medicine in the medical tent. They were told to find their way to the government hospital and explain their condition so they can be provided with ARVs. The men FGDs further said they were not provided with condoms for prevention of pregnancy or further infection of sick spouses. They said one of the relief agencies clearly told them that the provision of condoms was against their doctrine while other relief agencies indicated condoms were not a priority. The women FGDs said they were not provided with contraceptives or female condoms. They were to look for them at the Provincial General hospital.

One key informant from Provincial administration stated that distribution process of relief food and non food items, took no special consideration in regard to the sick, pregnant or lactating women causing them to miss most of these items. There was no special diet for children, diabetic cases or needy sick persons. She said that not every woman got items like sanitary towels. Pregnant or breastfeeding women could not access food easily or medication as they had to attend to the babies first and by the time they reached the distribution point, the food was finished. The respondent said gender specific needs were not taken to consideration by both government and most relief agencies. She narrated this:

Some women shared ARVs from other women for failure to get the medication. Men and women used one toilet block in the IDP relief camps, children contracted diseases due to unhygienic conditions. There was insecurity and stealing from one another. Men who could not identify their tents would infringe into privacy of women in other
tents. There was food for sex and money for sex used on women and girls. Young girls got oversize clothes or could be given torn clothes. Food was uniformly given without prior consideration of special needs cases, children's diet was not there. Reserved tents for maternity gave room for the fathers to be promiscuous. Women who gave birth were seen by their husbands as bringing forth extra burden to the family.'

This quotation indicates poor planning and management of relief shelters by policy makers, existence of gender insensitive facilities in form of shared toilets between men, women and children which were unhygienic leading to diseases. Children got either oversize clothes or worn out ones hence no consideration was given to age and vulnerability to extreme weather conditions. Monopoly of one diet excluded the IDPs with special needs such as children and the sick, implying that gender issues lacked serious consideration at planning and implementation of the mitigation of IDPs situation. A key informant from Ministry of gender stated:

'Both men and women's personal issues were overlooked by planners from both government and non-governmental organizations. There was no due consideration for proper clothing in line with sizes for different ages, weather conditions especially those in cold places like Molo, things like contraceptives, condoms and ARV's for rape victims. We were hardly co-opted in the relief services.'

A key informant on children matters said the needs and concerns of boys and girls were not included in the relief activities and resettlement programmes despite provisions of the Children's Act, 2001 on best interests of the child. He stated that the children's rights to protection and development were compromised. Most children were orphaned; a good number were either separated or unaccompanied by families in the relief camps. There was no systematic tracing of lost children and some are still in Charitable Children's Institutions, most of them traumatized. The relief agencies did not set up special counseling and debriefing points for children within the camps since children cannot express themselves freely in the presence of adults. There was no special protective measures put in place for children living alone in the tents and the orphans were not given any special consideration from the rest of the IDPs during relief distribution. Some orphans in relief camps were forced by the circumstances to engage in cheap child labour. He further stated that girls were collected by able residents of Nakuru town to work as house girls for any amount of money because children do not know how to negotiate. He stated that even in the resettlement, poor conditions force the girl child to be taken advantage of by male
adults in form of sex for favours, prostitution in places like Nakuru and Salgaa which are a stopover for big tracks transporting goods to Uganda, Rwanda or Sudan.

4.1.4 Participants Suggestion on how relief agencies can systematically identify and apply gender issues.

Women FGDs suggested humanitarian aid agencies to do individual needs assessment so that they can provide enough undergarments and sanitary towels, special diet for pregnant women, the sick and children. They said women and girls should be assigned female security staff in relief camps whom they can complain to when sexually harassed or abused. The boys and girls FGDs suggested children should be included in relief aid and provided for in different feeding places from adults. The men FGDs suggested employment for men so that they can provide for their families.

4.2. Various forms of gender discrimination and inequality used on women, men, boys and girls internally displaced.

4.2.1 Participants perception of Gender Discriminations and Inequalities.

Respondents from focus group discussions, of men, women, boys and girls from Minto and Giwa resettlements expressed the discriminations and inequality as they experienced them. The women focus discussion groups perceived discrimination as not treating women and girls equally with men and boys. They equated discrimination to inequitable distribution of relief aid and basic needs. The men focus discussions understood gender discrimination as favoring one sex or some IDPs. The respondents from both men and women focus group discussions expressed gender inequality as treating some people better than others. The boys and girls focus group discussions perceived discrimination as exclusions of boys or girls from humanitarian aid activities and inequality as uneven distribution of things such as books, clothes, shoes, tents and food.

Interviews with the key informants showed that they understood gender discriminations and inequality to mean unfair treatment of some people or groups and also as unequal treatment of people based on ethnic group or sex.
The researcher learnt that gender discrimination and inequality was perceived by the respondents as unfair treatment based on sex, inequitable distributions of goods, services, favoritism and exclusions from activities.

4.2.2 Participants' views of perpetrators of gender discrimination and inequalities.
The respondents identified perpetrators of gender discrimination inequalities to be camp leaders, fellow IDPs, officials from relief agencies, service providers such as teachers, kitchen staff, and distributors of food and non-food items, security personnel and government officials. The women focus discussion group from Giwa cited camp leaders favoring some IDPs by distributing to them more relief items such as clothing’s, toiletries, beddings and food items. They cited the security personnel as ignoring them when they required assistance. The men focus groups from Minto and Giwa identified the relief agency Kitchen staff as discriminating IDPs by giving less food ration and carrying some to their homes. They narrated this:

'Those people who worked in the kitchen at the Show Ground (Relief Camp) used to hide food meant for us. Food always got finished while we were still queuing, yet in the evenings the kitchen staff carried food in paper bags to their homes. If we complained we were threatened to be thrown out of the camp.'

Kitchen officials stole food meant for IDPs in the relief camps and the IDPs were not allowed to voice the problem. Officials from relief agencies were cited as favoring camp leaders. The men and women focus groups cited camp leaders always being the first ones to receive relief aid. The men FGD from Giwa said this:

'Camp leaders were always with Red Cross officials. They knew when the relief items were being brought and they were the first ones to pick for themselves what they wanted from the store before other IDPs could scramble for the remaining items.'

The responses above imply that inequality was perpetrated among IDPs in form of discrimination and unequal treatment by officials who were meant to provide them with essential services. There was collusion between relief aid workers and camp leaders in distribution of relief, misuse of position or abuse of office by workers from relief agencies and camp leaders to suppress further the vulnerable IDPs.
4.2.3 Participants perspectives of forms of gender discrimination and inequalities.

The women FGDs from Minto and Giwa resettlements cited various forms of discrimination and inequalities. They cited gender-based violence while in relief shelters and the resettlement areas. The FGDs talked of physical and sexual exploitation against them while at the Nakuru show ground. They cited sexual harassment by fellow male IDPs, camp leaders and sometimes the security personnel. Rapes took place in poorly lit places such as access routes to toilets or in the tents while women and girls slept at night. Tents were inadequate; men and boys spent the nights outside while women and children slept alone in the tents. They stated that tents were erected in close proximity, without secure doors and no lighting in many parts of the camp. The set up and location of the tents (shelter) was too close to one another but far from sanitary areas which were communal.

The women respondents expressed fear of young men and some policemen who loitered at night in the relief camps in the pretext of keeping vigilant while their aim was to molest women and girls. The women FGD from Minto had this to say:

'We were very many at the showground and toilets were few. When one went to answer a natural call, one could be accosted by a man, sometimes a fellow IDP or policeman and it is at night without lights. There was so much noise in the camp, one couldn’t be assisted even if they screamed, and the policemen ignored us and stayed in their tent.'

A key informant from provincial administration expressed that security personnel were overwhelmed and were not visible in protection of women. There were no security lights in the camps hence rape and sexual abuse for women and children was rampant especially where there was chang'aa (illicit local brew) and ‘bhang’ (cannabis sativa ) selling.

One of the key informants stated women experienced gender based violence in form of rape and sexual exploitation. He cited one case of a woman raped by a police man she knew and when the case was reported, the Officer Commanding Station discouraged her against pursuing legal action and turned her away. The social worker said this:

'I can't forget one woman in Kaptembwa who came to us for help. She was fleeing for safety during post-election violence, when she was cornered by a general service policeman and raped by him. She reported the matter to Nakuru police station but no action has been taken until now.'
There was congestion in the camps composed of makeshift shelter, which meant that sanitary facilities were few and far from the shelters. The vignettes above imply there was a form of discrimination against IDPs in the sense of lack of sufficient facilities such as bathrooms and pit latrines. However this discrimination was particularly more detrimental to women and girls because it exposed them to rape as they came out for natural calls of nature by night. Inadequate lighting in the camps and security arrangements were ineffective especially at night resulting to insecure environment. Women and girls suffered ignominies mainly because of the inefficiency of security personnel in the camps and their complicity in crime. Police officers and fellow male IDPs committed crimes of rape against vulnerable women and girls in the camps. Policies and laws on sexual offences were flouted by law enforcement officials.

The women respondents from both Giwa and Minto said there was increased domestic violence whereby husbands beat up wives for refusing demands for conjugal rights in the presence of children and also the close proximity of their neighbors' tents. The men FGD from Giwa said the location of the tents, the sharing of shelter with children did not provide a conducive environment for exercising conjugal rights of spouses. The men respondents from Minto focus group cited insubordination from their wives saying women took advantage of the situation to deny their husbands conjugal rights while other women were cited to be promiscuous.

The girls' focus group discussions cited sexual exploitation of orphaned girls who were household heads, taking care of their siblings. They received uninvited males adults in their tents who requested for sex in exchange for protection, money or goods. There was demand for sex in exchange for favors and exposure to promiscuity against orphaned girls. This was discriminative in that the men took advantage of their age and vulnerability resulting to the young girls getting unwanted pregnancies and had to bear with an extra burden of unwanted child.

The boys and girls respondents said their parents intruded and they were sometimes interrupted and sent out of the tents during the day by their fathers so that the 'parents can have some time together.' They felt embarrassed seeing their parents lock themselves up in the tent in broad daylight. The girls' focus discussion group from Giwa said:
"My father came in the tent one mid morning drunk. He found us in the tent with mother and told me and my brothers to get out. We complied and went outside the tent. Our next neighbors aware of the happening came out of their tents and stared at us. We were embarrassed."

The quotation indicate inequality of space in the shelters, lack of comfort and privacy for the young in that children were discriminated when asked to step out to allow parents to have privacy for conjugal rights.

Women and girls focus group discussions cited inadequate hygienic areas in the IDP camps and in the resettlements. Toilets and bathing areas were not segregated by sex at the Relief camps, nor was there a separate place to wash and dry their under garments and menstrual clothes. The girls' focus groups said shared hygienic areas made them more vulnerable to male perpetrators, especially when left alone in the camp to care for the young siblings, while parents went to seek for assistant outside the camps. They said they opted to bath inside the tents for security reasons even if there was no bathing facility inside those tents. They said this:

"When we heard some girls were raped while bathing at night, we were scared. We decided we will be bathing inside the tents"

There was insecurity at night. Bathing facilities were not well designated for women and girls in a way discriminating against them. There were gender insensitive hygienic areas in the camps exposing the women and girls to dangers and health hazards as they used the tents as bathrooms, which did not have drainage and airing lines for wet clothes.

Women focus groups cited inequality in staff providing services who they said were male dominant. They said men had male police officers living in the camp; women did not have access to female security staff and law enforcement officers. They indicated availability of very few female health workers and no female doctor in the camp mobile clinic and hence disadvantaged when needing these services.

There was inequality when choosing camp leaders/ representatives and discriminating women in decision making was cited in both the men and women focus group discussions. Women said they were overlooked by camp officials and the one or two picked were those with connections.
The men said most leaders and representatives were handpicked as opposed to being elected by the IDPs. One male participant remarked:

‘There are those who presented themselves to the Humanitarian aid officials. They were told to come and choose camp leaders; they told their friends and chose themselves, even their family members.’

There was favoritism and no systematic representation of IDPs by camp leaders which implies that the needs of many IDPs were ignored for lack of proper representation. And cohorts may have been formed to carter for the interests of a few who were friends or relatives of camp leaders.

The focus group discussions for women, men, boys and girls from both Giwa and Minto cited inequality in distribution of relief aid.

Women focus groups said there was unequal issuing of beddings. Old women aged above 55 years and above got more items than they needed such as mattresses and blankets unlike women who were younger. The women indicated unfairness since the older women did not require four blankets for one person when others like lactating mothers got none. The women focus groups expressed this:

‘Old women got up to four blankets, but for us even if one were sick or with a small child, we got just one blanket.’

There was overconcentration on the old women on issuance of beddings, discriminating other women who were equally needy.

Special needs for pregnant and lactating women were discriminated and not given preference by relief operations according to women focus groups. No milk, vitamin supplements or other nutrients was available to them. During meals, they cued like everyone else and sometimes missed food for lack of physical strength to scramble for food. Those with babies struggled to feed them first and by the time they queued for their share, the food was finished.

The men focus groups cited inequality in power. Aid distribution system targeted women who were made household heads. The men and boys cited inequality perpetrated in the new policy and found it difficult to accept the transfer of power to women, while they were not in a position to secure the food themselves. The agencies perceived men to be dishonest with household
numbers or may be polygamous with the other family(s) not necessarily internally displaced and instead entrusted women with the responsibility of providing for the household.

Men respondents from Minto said they found the scenario of women as heads of household difficult since they perceive themselves as having the ability to meet social expectations around the roles of men as providers for the households. They expressed psychological tension and loss of self-esteem because they come from a patriarchal community where culture places the status of women as subordinate to men and not the other way round.

Men focus group discussion from Giwa said they were accustomed to being heads of families and should have remained household heads. They narrated this:

‘Women were made the household heads; they now have more say since we cannot provide for the family. Even in non-relief items, women were given more personal items like pants and sanitary towels but we men were not considered for undergarments or shaving items. If one asked for something like soap or even ARVs you were reprimanded and told as a man you should find ways of getting the items. Before the disaster, we could find ways to get money for these items but we lost everything; they don’t understand what we are going through’

There was shift in power as women’s status as household heads was flagged by relief agencies. This brought inequality on the side of men who did not practically relinquish their status as family heads but retained the power locus, which brings conflict of interest between men and women.

The study found from girls’ focus group discussions that the girls were treated with inequality. They remained at home to watch over property in the tents or do washing of dishes and clothes as well as not being included in decision making and some of the activities like food distribution and going to school.

The boys’ focus group discussion cited discrimination and inequality in receiving of food and clothing based on their age. They said receiving relief items depended on whether one’s parent was a camp leader, relative or friends of the leaders or officials of relief agencies. Youths below 20 years suffered more as the focus group expressed:

‘Our age was not catered for because they had not defined which age queued with children and which one cues with adults especially those of us between 15-19 years. When we cued for food in the cue for male adults, we were told
to go to the cue for children, when we went there we were told we are not children we go back to the adult's cue. We often missed food because of being tossed from one cue to another.'

Educational facilities was said to be inaccessible as discussed by the boys and girls focus groups. There were no schools in the relief camps except for pre-primary and primary school. The boys' FGDs said:

'We went to schools in town often without breakfast because it was served around 8am and if one waited for it, we got late for school. Getting to school late meant you are sent for your parent. The parent also scolded you if you went for her.'

Food as basic need for school going children was missing making the children to choose between breakfast and punctuality at school. Relief agencies failed to include the basic needs of school going children in the feeding programme.

Boys and girls focus groups stated that teachers discriminated them in schools. They exempted them from lunches because they were unable to pay school levies, and punished them when absent from school without permission or if not punctual for school parade.

The girls’ FGDs said they lacked opportunity to attend school because their parents needed extra labor in the household such as collecting relief items for the family, washing clothes, looking after their younger siblings, nursing sick relatives, collecting water and other domestic chores. They cited unsafe routes to schools which are far from the resettlement, while others were unable to attend regularly due to lack of uniform for those in primary schools and fees for those in secondary school. They cited further discrimination and inequalities in schools where the teachers labeled them as poor IDPs who have made the school’s performance to drop due to regular absenteeism from school caused by lack of school fees. The girls’ FGDs said:

'We hear the head teacher wants to convert the school to a boys' boarding school from next year so as to lock us out because we cannot afford fees... he claims we have brought indiscipline to the school.'

The men FGDs said some names were missing from the list of land allocation during resettlement. They cited favoritism by the leaders who inserted in the list names for their relatives who were not genuine cases. One boy, Kamau, (not his really name) was allocated land
and a house constructed for him while his family has property and lives in Baraka, Molo. The girls’ participants said that while some boys were allocated land, no girl IDP was given.

Men and women respondents from Minto cited discrimination and inequality from the government in the resettlement process. The respondents said they have no water, are excluded from shelter construction and allocation of land unlike those in Giwa. The women FGD from Minto resettlement narrated this:

‘Since we came from the show ground, no government official has visited us. We don’t know what is going on. They pass the other side of the road to Giwa resettlement but do not come here. You see these tents, we came along with them from the relief camps; they are totally worn out! We are bitten by insects all night and when it rains we are rained on, we are not safe. There is a borehole at Giwa but it is not free. We hear meetings are held at Giwa but we are not invited. Even the day the Minister for special programmes came, The District Officer did not bring her here. Shelters are build for Giwa IDPs, they have water, us we don’t have those.’

There was inequality in the resettlement of IDPs in a sense that IDPs in Giwa resettlement got government support while those in Minto received none even though both were internally displaced. Water was available but inaccessible to IDPs. It was sold at two shillings per twenty litres jerican, for those who could afford. The researcher observed girls and women walking long distance with buckets in search of river water. The girls’ FGDs and women FDGs cited harassment by male passer-byes on the paths as they trekked from the resettlement to fetch water from the river.

Men and women FGDs cited lack of seeds, fertilizers and farming equipments such as jembes, pangas to enable them cultivate. They said they were left in a state of desperation even though they had been given a place to resettle by the government. When they requested for these items, some of the government officials openly called them lazybones who waited for handouts.

The men FGDs further cited corruption by some government officials. They said IDPs did not know when the relief food is brought to the resettlement camp and when they knew, the camp leaders told them that police, District officer and chief have a share in it. Some government officials were also benefitting from the relief items meant for the IDPs which were not adequate.
A key informant from a relief agency stated that no discrimination and inequality was meted on the IDPs. He said all humanitarian aid was systematically coordinated by the Red Cross Society of Kenya and all beneficiaries got their shares. The respondent had this to say:

'IDPs were registered in a register and assessment done to know the number of people in the camp, using World Food programmee Standards. They were to be provided with food aid which included corn meal, beans, energy biscuits, cooking oil and non food aid included tents, utensils (spoons, knives, water jericans, cooking utensils, cooking pan) and clothes. Food contribution per family was 12kg per person per month, very special cases were considered for more food ration. The recipients were mothers who were considered heads of families.'

A key informant from the Kenya Red Cross said services were very much accessible to IDPs. He said relief camps had satellite ware houses for stock and specific days were set aside for distribution of Aid items. The agencies used camp leaders and camp cluster leaders (men) in the distribution. He stated that although IDPs' needs identification was done on arrival and personal utilities like soaps, pads, pants issued to women immediately on arrival since some were on their menstruation and in bad shape, this kind of aid was given for the first 4 weeks. The respondent narrated this:

'Not everybody was reached. Those with their own materials cooked for themselves i.e. those who managed to come with some items from relatives who initially accommodated them but got tired of them and sent them away. IDPs who had nothing were put in tents, some shared e.g. those who were neighbors before. Men scrambled for Aid such as food and tents. Some men used resources to woe girls and other people's wives. Some women experienced domestic violence when they denied their men conjugal rights.'

The quotation implies that IDPs who were financially able prepared their own food and were able to cope as opposed to those who had to rely entirely on relief aid. There were very needy IDPs who were not reached by the relief agencies; lack of adequate humanitarian aid made IDPs to be discriminated by the relief agencies.

4.2.4 Participants suggestion for alleviating Gender Discrimination and Inequalities.

The study identified from the participants various ways of alleviating gender discrimination among the IDPs.

The women participants suggested arresting of perpetrators of sexual offences. Equal provision of basic needs based on individual needs assessment, removal and prosecution of corrupt leaders,
empowering both men and women with micro-finance so that they can provide for their children and themselves. The FGDs emphasized on the need for the Government to make follow ups of post – disaster humanitarian Aid provided on the ground to ascertain that it has reached the right beneficiaries. They suggested forums to be created where issues affecting IDPs are raised publicly. They stated that they should be considered along with others during employment for economic empowerment. Erection of physical infrastructure (market, shops, free water, health centers, and schools) in the resettlements was suggested in order for them to get services like other people. The girls participants emphasized on equal duties division of domestic work, while the boys cited formation of youth groups to receive micro –financing and devise projects for financial growth.

4.3 Representation and Portrayal of Gender Roles by Relief Agencies

The study sought to find out from the participants of focus group discussions, how women’s and men’s, boy’s and girl’s roles were represented and portrayed by relief agencies in the IDP and resettlement areas.

4.3.1 Relief agencies involved in humanitarian aid

The respondents cited Red Cross, Ministry of Health, Ministry of State for Special Programmes, individuals groups, Catholic diocese of Nakuru, the police, Unicef, the business community of Nakuru and World Vision as some of the agencies that provided Aid at the relief camps and resettlement of IDPs. Food stuffs (maize flour, beans, wheat and wheat products, porridge flour, and non food items, and non food stuffs (tents, blankets, sufurias, plates, kitchen knives, spoons, cooking pan, clothes) were provided by these various bodies. The Kenya Red Cross Society was the lead agency and involved in camp management which included water &sanitation, shelter, hygienic promotion, provision of food aid, tracing services; liaising with the Government departments in humanitarian aid i.e. children department in tracing of children, provincial administration, Unicef and Ministry of education in setting temporary classrooms, Ministry of health in mobile clinics and sensitization on gender based violence. Catholic Diocese of Nakuru is involved in guidance and counseling services provision of ARVs for HIV positive IDPs, farming equipment and seed as well as occasional debriefing.
4.3.2 Method used in distributing Humanitarian Aid by relief agencies
The study sought to find out how aid was distributed by the relief agencies. The Key informant from Kenya Red Cross stated that the agency coordinated all other agencies in receiving, storing and distributing relief aid. Distribution was a process which involved the following:

1. Recipients must be registered IDPs.
2. Food distribution per family consisted 12 kg per person per month
3. The recipients had to be the household heads who were women.
4. Identification of most vulnerable IDPs such as those with HIV positive, the disabled and children in aid distribution for special consideration.

4.3.3 Accessibility of Services
The camps had satellite ware houses for stock and specific days were set aside for distribution of Aid items. The agencies ensured distribution through the help of camp leaders and camp cluster leaders mainly, men. Ministry of Health took care of diabetic, hypertensive cases; the clusters had committees where one third of its members were women who expressed women’s needs.

4.3.4 Roles attributed to women, men, boys, and girls
The relief agencies attributed various roles to men, women, boys and girls in the IDP camps and in the settlement. Men offloaded the items from Lorries and distributed to the satellite store as well as cooking and serving the food to fellow IDPs. Women were household heads. They did domestic chores such as feeding the children, queuing for food, fetching water and watching over their properties in the tents, nursing injured relatives and did general cleaning (clothes, toilets, dishes). The boys helped with fetching water, firewood for cooking in the camp, peer counseling duties, organizing and participating in games to break the boredom and monotony of camp life, became family heads where there were no parents. Some who were strong assisted in cooking and serving food and joined the men in keeping vigil at night. The girls helped their mothers in general cleaning, feeding younger siblings, keeping the tent clean, fetching water, looking after the sick and babysitting.
The women FGDs stated that men were more in representation as opposed to women in distribution of relief food and non food items. They said they were excluded in committees or as volunteers in distribution of relief items.

The key informant from Red Cross stated the role of men as assisting in distributing relief aid, members of camp committees, ferrying goods to the satellite store in the camp and offloading goods from the Lorries. Women were camp committee members, one third of committee members. Boys and girls not assigned much work. The social worker from the catholic Dioceses said:

‘Roles were assigned according to culture. For example, among Kalenjins IDPs, men sat at a distance or carried food to the distribution place while women and children did the house chores, cleaning of toilets and distributed food. For the kikuyu community some women carried food and men did the distribution.’

From the quotation above, gender roles remain discriminative on women and children. Whereas certain situations such as IDP camps created room for flexibility in roles, there was rigidity in shift of roles backed by culture among IDPs from the Kalenjin Community.

The researcher observed women and girls returning from the river with water jericans on their backs and some on their heads at the resettlements, while men idled around. Most of the boys were in schools. Some girls who remained at home were seen collecting firewood within the vicinity of the resettlement area; others were washing clothes and utensils. The researcher saw that some girls were still subjected to domestic chores where as the boys attended school thus excluding girls from productive roles.

4.4 Participation of women, men, boys and girls in Leadership and Decision making process while at the resettlement

The study inquired into the participation of men and women, boys and girls in leadership and decision making process in resettlements. The men and women focus group discussions cited non involvement in the government’s decision on ‘Operation return home programme’ that saw all IDPs relocate from the relief camps to transitional camps and other areas of resettlements. The men focus group discussion from Giwa resettlement explained:
Our opinion was not asked for, the government told us to leave the show ground or they evict us. They want us to go back to our land where enemies killed us and burnt our houses. How can we stay together? Even in this resettlement, they just bought the land and brought us here, the neighborhood is not friendly.'

There was no involvement of IDPs in decision making on the resettlement programme. IDPs were intimidated by authorities to vacate the relief camps and the choice of resettlement site was not decided jointly or consulted and therefore no preference of the site by the beneficiaries since it neighbors the ethnic group involved in clashes.

One of the key informants from a government agency said they often meet for peace talks and the camp leaders are invited to the district leaders’ committee meetings. He said this:

‘The IDPs have leaders comprising 10 men and 3 women who attend our leaders’ meetings in the district headquarters ones in a month and are also involved in peace talks held in the public barazas’

Community participation is low in leadership since the representation is uneven between men and women and too, the numbers are few. The frequency of meetings is also determined by the government which is indicative of micro-management in terms of when and how the IDPs participate in meetings.

One key informant said that women shied away from leadership roles and that they preferred to be in sub-committees through which they would forward their concerns.

4.4.1 Respondents proposal of areas of participation in leadership and decision making

The focus group participants identified some of the areas that needed their participation in leadership and decision making.

The men focus group discussions said they would have liked to participate in receiving and distribution of relief items, since in that way they will know what items were brought, their amount and to whom they were distributed. They stated that they needed to be in the committee on security so that they would present insecurity challenges they faced while in the resettlement.

They cited weak reporting procedures since structures were not in place. They cited examples of sale of alcohol in the relief camps, sexual molestation on women and physical assault which were not investigated and perpetrators not brought to books by camp officials or law
enforcement officers. In the resettlement, the respondents indicated they should be in the security committee so that they can pressurize the government to fence or install electricity and put a police post within the area so that security is strengthened.

Another area the respondents wished to participate in was projects. The women and men FGDs said they should be members in committees that decide which rehabilitation and reconstruction programmes should be implemented in the resettlement. The men focus discussions expressed this:

'We see foreigners doing construction of primary and secondary school and also a dispensary down here. But where is the nursery school for small children which are a requirement by Ministry of education before a child joins standard one. Again in our midst we have many masons, why didn’t they employ us to do that job?'

The IDPs were excluded from the construction projects thus denying them a chance to get some employment. The school project did not take into account the need for children’s pre-primary learning facilities which is a requirement for entry to standard one. This implies there were no consultations or involvement of IDPs in the planning of these projects meant for them. IDPs were excluded from decision making.

The men FGDs stated they wanted to be included in peace and reconciliation talks and programmes such as construction, micro-financing for small business and formation of self help groups. They said if they were involved in decision making, these are some of the needs they would have recommended to the government.

4.4.2 Participants areas of participation in rehabilitation and reconstruction.

The study found out some of the areas of participation by IDPs in rehabilitation and reconstruction. These were land allocation of two and quarter acres per household, land cultivation, construction of shelters (houses) peace and reconciliation. Peace building talks, involving the provincial administration officials i.e. District commissioner, District Officer, Chief, assistant chiefs, camp leaders and leaders from the warring communities (Kalenjin, Kisii and kikuyu) The aim of the peace talks was to encourage the communities to leave together and it served as a healing process.
The men focus group respondents cited partial involvement in the peace talks as only their representatives attended the meetings. Women focus group discussion stated that they were fewer in numbers i.e. three while men were ten in the leaders committee. Girls’ focus groups respondents cited non participation in some school lessons as some opted to go to school late thus missing morning preps to avoid attacks by strangers early in the morning.

The men focus group respondents stated limited movement and non involvement in productive activities outside the resettlement area for fear of being mugged in the evenings. They cited insecurity was high in the resettlement citing death of male IDP murdered on his way home from Rongai shopping centre.

The women and men FGDs were not involved in the design of resettlement shelters. They said the shelters in the resettlement and toilets were inappropriate, in that they were neither partitioned nor equipped with furniture. The respondents described the shelter as follows:

‘No different from the tents apart from the iron sheet roofs, no privacy from our children, it is a hall inside without partition and doors. There are no chairs or tables; we sleep on the floor with the old mattresses we came with from the show ground. We are supposed to fix the doors ourselves and we have no means.’

The pits were dug but not constructed. The researcher observed less than 10 pit latrines, poorly constructed with polythene papers. Participants said these toilets are shared. The respondents indicated that had the government involved them, they would have suggested the kind of shelter which would have been appropriate and hygienic areas. They currently use the bushes around. Their shelters often have snakes sneaking to the houses and inversion of army ants.

4.4.3 Challenges in participation in leadership and decision making.
Relief agencies cited several challenges that hindered appropriate participation in leadership and decision making by the IDPs during aid distribution. The Kenya red Cross stated duplication of relief items especially the non food aid in logistics and procurement where requests for some items took too long to be honored, lack of coordinating and consultations between the lead agency and relief agencies on the needs of the IDPs. The women, men, girls and boys FGDs cites corruption and favoritism of camp leaders as factors that excluded IDPs from participating in leadership and decision making.
4.4.4 Participants suggestion on how to participate in leadership and decision making
The men and women focus groups respondents suggested ways in which they can participate in leadership and decision making in rehabilitation and reconstruction program. The women focus groups expressed this:

‘Individual IDPs needs assessment by government and humanitarian aid agencies should be done in order to reach many IDPs who have not opened up their deep rooted problems. This will guide them in the programmes activities that can help people to recover. The current representatives in the resettlement should be disbanded and allow the people to elect fresh leaders since the present ones came with us from the show ground and are oppressive.’

The sentiments of the FGDs respondents imply that IDPs need to participate in recovery programmes both at planning and execution level so that there is equity and involvement.

The women FGDs suggested empowerment with micro finance for IDPs to that they can engage in income generating activities, community capacity building on how to manage the loans, continued and provision of humanitarian aid. The men and boys FGDs suggested peer counseling and sports to avoid idleness.

4.5 Participants suggestions on the Road to Recovery
Some suggestions were given by Key informants and the Focus Group Discussions on the road to recovery. The women and men FGDs said agencies assisting in resettlement should involve the IDPs in needs assessment and community participation in decision making. The KIIIs suggested that the Government should make and implement good policies. Community capacity building should be conducted in order to enhance the people’s understanding of their roles in peace building; awareness creation on Gender Based Violence and sexual offence laws. The Government should do more peace building so that IDPs can settle back in their farms. Support should be provide in farm inputs such as seeds and fertilizers, farm equipments and psychosocial support for the aged so that IDPs can grow and sell the farm produce to get some income for self sustainability.

The KII suggested peer counseling for the IDPs and cited the case in Bondeni Estate, Nakuru whereby IDPs come together, engage in games, share experiences and are debriefed by counselors with a view to strengthening community support networks. IDP children in secondary
schools and tertiary colleges should be supported with tuition and fees so that they can complete their education.

Women FGDs suggested support from government to form women groups, and to be advanced with loans from the Women Enterprise Fund. The men FGDs suggested capacity building on micro-financing so that they can start business. They proposed an information centre for briefs on the day to day happenings since they are closed up in the settlements. The men FGDs from Giwa resettlement expressed:

'We don’t know what goes on, we heard recently policemen were being recruited and we have our children who have certificates. They missed the opportunity just like that because the dateline passed without us knowing.'
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the summary of the study findings drawn from responses of FGDs, KII and observations. It draws conclusion, recommendations and suggestions for further research based on the objectives of the study which were: the extent gender issues were systematically identified and applied to men, women, girls and boys who were internally displaced, to establish the various forms of gender discriminations and inequalities, the representation and portrayal of women's, men's, boys' and girls' roles by relief agencies, the participation of men, women, boys and girls in leadership / decision-making process while in the settlements in Rongai district.

5.2. Summary of Findings
The study findings indicated that gender issues were not systematically identified and appropriately applied to men and women who were internally displaced in Rongai district in various ways. Hygienic areas were communal for women, men, boys and girls. They were also few for the entire population and unhygienic. Because toilets and bathrooms for women and men were not erected separately in the relief camps and the paths leading to these facilities did not have lights, they posed security and health risks to girls and women. Sanitary towels, pants and oils were inadequate and irregularly distributed. Men's needs like shaving items, undergarments and condoms were not considered by relief agencies as a priority. The temporary tents for shelter were inadequate and inappropriate; separate sleeping space for parents and children was not provided for. The study findings showed that women who had given birth were accommodated in a building reserved for the old women instead of maternity facility. Pregnant and lactating mothers were not given special diet.

The study findings show that IDPs experienced various forms of gender discriminations and inequalities. Women and girls experiences gender - based violence manifested in form of rapes, sexual harassment and physical violence. The rapes happened in dark avenues leading to toilets and hygienic facilities in the camps as IDPs went to answer to a natural call at night. The perpetrators of rape were mainly fellow male IDPs and policemen. Discrimination was more prevalent on women and girls due to police laxity in providing enough security and their
complicity in rape crimes. There was favoritism and corruption among camp leaders and relief agency officials in the distribution of relief aid. Food and non-food items were unequally distributed to beneficiaries. Camp leaders and officials benefitted along with a few IDPs who were friends or relatives of the officials. Children, lactating and pregnant women missed most of the relief aid due to inability to scramble for them. Women and girls were discriminated more in that shelters and hygienic facilities (toilets and bathrooms) were few and inappropriate because they were shared. They posed security risks as they became avenues for rapes and health hazards to children.

The study findings show that although women, men boys and girls were subjected to some of the socially constructed gender roles, there was a shift in gender roles. Women were made household heads in the relief camps and allocated land in the resettlement. Women and girls did house chores such as watching over property in the tents, washing dishes and clothes, feeding the children, fetching water and nursed injured relatives. Men and boys were involved in offloading the items from lorries to the satellite store, keeping vigil at night, peer counseling duties, cooking and servicing meals, organizing and participating in outdoor games to break the boredom and monotony of camp life. The assigning of women as heads of households and property ownership brought power struggle between men and women. The men felt suppressed and sidelined under the circumstances they were unable to provide for their families. They said they lost the power grip over their women and this affected them psychologically.

The study findings showed that the women were under represented in leadership and decision making compared to men. There were one or two women at most in camp committees. Boys and girls were not involved. On leadership and decision making in the rehabilitation and reconstruction process, the study findings showed that men and women were not involved in planning and decision making in resettlements, where to resettle, the construction of shelters, peace building talks and distribution of humanitarian aid. They stated the government officials determined when and how peace talks were conducted.

5.3 Conclusions
The study set out to explore gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery for internally displaced persons in Rongai district. From the findings the study concludes that gender issues were not
systematically identified and appropriately applied. Shelters and hygienic areas did not provide comfort, privacy and security for women and girls, sanitary towels, under garments, shaving items, condoms and special diet for the sick were not adequately provided to IDPs. Female relief workers such as security officers and medical practitioners were not visible to address women’s issues appropriately.

There was gender discrimination and inequality in form of rapes and favoritism in relief aid distribution. The rapes were perpetrated by male IDPs and security personnel. There was inequitable gender representation in leadership and decision making process. Gender roles and relations shifted in a sense of women empowerment with land ownership and authority as household heads whereas men were assigned cooking and serving food in relief camps in a patriarchal setting.

From the study findings, women’s, men’s, boy’s and girl’s concerns and experiences were not made an integral dimension of policy, design and implementation of programmes in relief camps and the resettlement, hence there was no gender mainstreaming in disaster recovery process for internally displaced people in Rongai district.

5.4 Recommendations

The following are the recommendations made out of the study:

- The IDPs recommended that the government should make a gender responsive national budget for financing victims of internal displacements. Humanitarian aid agencies should do individual needs assessment of IDPs and procure relief aid according to needs. There should be effective monitoring of provisions of relief aid relief such as adequate shelters, clothing, hygienic places, water, health, nutrition and education. They suggested effective coordination for management of relief items to avoid exposing the victims to greater risks and slow recovery. This approach will integrate gender perspective and enable programmes to reach men, women, boys and girls according to needs, in spite of their extent of disadvantages.

- Socio-cultural dimension should be taken to consideration by relief aid agencies and the government in assigning gender roles to disaster victims. Men’s powers should not be
relinquished to women in a patriarchal setting, since this heightens conflicts between men and women in families. Gender roles shift during disasters. Victims should be sensitized on these changes to enable them adjust and cope with the changes, hence moderate culture.

- Disaster response and recovery programmes should be designed by policy makers to include community capacity building, sensitization and community participation. IDPs should be involved and participate in decision making on matters that affect their welfare and on resettlement. They recommended stepping up security by installing a police post within the resettlement area, fencing the land, constructing schools for all children within the resettlement, putting up an information centre, setting up of counseling and debriefing centres in various parts of the country. This approach will strengthen social networks so that men, women, boys and girls can get psycho-social support until they develop resilience.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

The study recommends a further study on:

1. Explore the pros and cons of the road to recovery of internally displaced persons in order to mitigate future recurrence of human-caused disasters.


4. The study can also be replicated in other districts with internally displaced persons.
REFERENCES


Dear respondent,

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

My name is Josephine Oguye. I am a student at the University of Nairobi pursuing a Master of Arts degree in Sociology. I am currently in a research project which is part of the degree requirement. My research is entitled 'Gender mainstreaming for internally displaced persons in Rongai District, Kenya.'

I am here to collect data and kindly request for your time and cooperation.

Information provided will be for no other purpose other than educational and will be treated confidentially.

Thank you very much.

Yours sincerely,

Josephine Oguye.
Appendix II: Interview Guide for Focus Group Discussions

A. How gender issues are appropriately identified and applied to men and women by relief agencies

1. What were your gender issues in the relief camps and in the resettlement?

2. How were these gender issues identified and applied by relief agencies?

3. What are some of gender issues that were not identified and applied by relief agencies?

4. Suggest how relief agencies can systematically identify and apply gender issues.

B. Various forms of Gender discrimination and inequalities used on women, men, boys and girls.

1. What do you understand by gender discrimination and inequalities?

2. Who were perpetrators of gender discrimination and inequalities?

3. What were the various forms of gender discrimination and inequalities?

4. Suggest some of the ways of alleviating gender discrimination and inequalities.

C. Representation and Portrayal of women's and men’s roles by relief agencies

1. What Relief agencies were involved in humanitarian aid?

2. What method was used in distributing humanitarian aid by relief agencies?

3. How accessible were the Services provided?

4. What roles were attributed to women, men, boys, and girls by relief agencies?
D. Participation of men, women, boys and girls in leadership/decision making process in relief camps and at the resettlements

1. Which areas required your participation in leadership and decision making?

2. Which positions of leadership were women, men, girls and boys given in the IDP Camps and in the settlement?

3. What areas did you participate in rehabilitation and reconstruction?

4. What were the challenges in participation in leadership and decision making?

5. Suggestion on how you could participate in leadership and decision making.

E. What is your recommendation on the road to recovery?
Appendix III: Interview schedule for Key Informants

Name of the Agency

Position of respondent

A. How gender issues are appropriately identified and applied to men and women, boys and girls by relief agencies.

1. What were your gender issues in the relief camps and in the resettlement?

2. How were these gender issues identified and applied by relief agencies?

4. Suggest how relief agencies can systematically identify and apply gender issues.

B. Gender discrimination and inequalities

1. Which humanitarian aid did your agency provide to internally displaced people?

2. How accessible were your services?

3. How were you distributing?

4. How did your organization treat men, women boys and girls in distribution of relief aid?

C. Representation and Portrayal of women’s and men’s roles by relief agencies?

1. How did your agency represent and portray women’s, men’s, girls’ and boys’ roles in the IDP camps?

D. Participation of men and women in leadership/decision-making process in the IDP Camps and at the settlements

1. What leadership positions did your organization give to women, men, boys and girls while in the IDP Camps and in the settlement?

2. How did your organization engage women in planning and consultative meetings?

3. Were both women and men engaged in decision making?
Appendix IV: Observation Checklist.

A: Security and safety indicators in the resettlement
   i) Lighting
   ii) Presence of security personnel and offices
   iii) Fencing, gates leading to the settlement

B: Shelter appropriateness
   i) Closeness of shelter from neighbours
   ii) Hygienic places (toilets, distance from the sleeping places, separation for males and females)

C: Social amenities
   i) Visibility of roads and public transport
   ii) Schools
   iii) Health facility
   iv) Community hall
   v) Financial institution
   vi) Post office