EFFECTS OF POST- ELECTION SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED WOMEN AND GIRLS AT THE K1RATHIMO IDP CAMP IN LIMURU, KENYA

BY

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NOVEMBER 2010
DECLARATION

I, the undersigned declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other university other than the University of Nairobi for academic credit.

Wahome Mary Njeri

Signed: ___________________________ Date: 1°

This research project has been presented for examination with my approval as the supervisor.

Prof. E.H.N.Njeru

Signed: ___________________________ Date: 29/11/10
DEDICATION

To the victims of post-election sexual violence who want to see the problem addressed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ........................................................................................................... »
DEDICATION ........................................................................................................... »
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT AND ................................................................................ iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS ................................................................................................. v
LIST OF TABLES .......................................................................................................... viii
LIST OF FIGURES ......................................................................................................... viii
ABSTRACT ................................................................................................................... ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION ............................................................................... 1
1.1 Background to the Study. ......................................................................................... 1
1.1.1 The Context of sexual violence ........................................................................... 1
1.1.2 The Global Perspective of sexual violence ....................................................... 2
1.1.3 The Continental Perspective of sexual violence .............................................. 3
1.1.4 The Regional Perspective of sexual violence ..................................................... 4
1.1.5 The Local Perspective of sexual violence ......................................................... 4
1.1.6 Dealing with the problem of sexual violence .................................................... 5
Summary ..................................................................................................................... 6
1.2 Problem Statement ................................................................................................. 7
1.3 Objectives of the Study .......................................................................................... 10
1.3.1 General Objective ............................................................................................ 10
1.3.2 Specific Objectives ........................................................................................... 10
1.4 Justification of the Study ....................................................................................... 10
1.5 Scope of the Study ................................................................................................. 12
1.6 Limitations of the Study ....................................................................................... 12
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW .................................................................. 14
2.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................ 14
2.2 Types/forms and effects of sexual violence against women and girls .................. 14
2.3 Constraints/challenges against efforts ................................................................... 19
2.4 Coping mechanisms and intervention strategies .................................................. 26
2.5 Theoretical framework ......................................................................................... 32
4.5 Intervention strategies used to address sexual violence against women and girls at IDP camps..........................................................54
4.6 Constraints/ challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo IDP camp and how to address them.................57
4.7 Key Informant Interviews.............................................................60

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ........67
5.1 Introduction ...............................................................................67
5.2 Summary of Findings.................................................................67
5.3 Discussion of Major Findings.....................................................68
5.3.1 Types/forms and effects of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps... 68
5.3.2 Coping mechanisms.................................................................70
5.3.3 Intervention strategies used....................................................71
5.3.4 Constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps......................................................73
5.4 Conclusions..............................................................................75
5.5 Recommendations.......................................................................77
5.5.1 Policy Recommendations.......................................................77
5.5.2 Recommendations for further Research..................................78

References....................................................................................80
Appendix.........................................................................................85
LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Level of education of respondents ................................................................. 48
Table 4.2 Size of household of Respondents ................................................................. 49
Table 4.3 Number of dependants in the family ................................................................ 49
Table 4.4 Ranking of the forms/types of sexual violence .................................................. 51
Table 4.5 Effects of sexual violence .................................................................................. 52
Table 4.6 Intervention strategies as confirmed by respondents after pre-empting .......... 56
Table 4.7 Constraints/ challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo IDP camp as mentioned by respondents before prompting ................................................................. 58
Table 4.8 Constraints/ challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo IDP camp as mentioned by respondents after prompting ................................................................. 59

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Age distribution of respondents ......................................................................... 46
Figure 2 Marital status of respondents ............................................................................ 47
Figure 3 Coping mechanisms used by women and girls at Kirathimo camp ..................... 53
Figure 4 Mechanisms of coping with sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo camp ........................................................................................................ 54
Figure 5 Intervention strategies against sexual violence on women and girls as mentioned by respondents ...................................................................................... 55
Figure 6 Organizations and personalities behind implementation of intervention Strategies ....................................................................................................................... 57
Figure 7: Ways of addressing constraints/challenges affecting efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls ................................................................. 60
ABSTRACT

This research was concerned with the examination of the key aspects of post-election sexual violence among the internally displaced persons focusing on women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru.

The research design used was the survey. The study sample population consisted of the sexually violated women and girls at the Camp. A sample of 60 respondents was drawn using convenience/accidental sampling. Both primary and secondary sources of data were used in this study. Secondary data was collected by way of reading, analyzing, collating and recording data contained in ready prepared materials. Primary data was collected through direct observation and interviews using a structured open and closed ended interview schedule which was administered to the respondents through face to face interviews. Information relating to the subject under investigation was also obtained from three key informants. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the quantitative data. The data was presented in form of frequency and percentage tables, pie and bar charts. The information was presented thematically guided by the objectives of the study.

The major findings of the study were that internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps faced a number of forms/types of sexual violence, the most common ones being battery/beating and rape. The effects of the violence on the victims included contracting HIV/AIDS, low self esteem, stigmatization or depression, unwanted pregnancies, abortions and/or miscarriages, pain/injury, trauma and death. The study also found that the sexual violence coping mechanisms employed by the victims were numerous, both positive and negative such as seeking medical attention/going for VCT services, keeping quiet. The intervention strategies employed to address sexual violence against women and girls in camp included; provision of security, improvement of camp lighting, involving group leaders in problem solving, forcing abusers out of the Camp, assisting in repatriation and resettlement and meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps. However, efforts to address the problem faced challenges/constraints such as inadequate finances, presence of criminals in camp, hostility of locals, lack of medical care and poor reporting systems. The way out of these constraints/challenges could come by ways such as through proper planning at the
camp, involving government security forces in the protection of IDPs at the camp, provision of family tents and establishment of recovery centres.

This study recommends that adequate resources be sourced and all IDPs repatriated and resettled back in their original farms or other safer areas. However, before all IDPs are resettled, it is recommended that those still in camps be provided with their basic needs. The Sexual Offences Act of 2006 should also be strictly enforced in order to deter the perpetrators of the sexual violence vice in Kenya in general and IDP Camps in particular.
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

1.1.1 The Context of sexual violence

One of the principal and widely held perceptions among nations of the world, Kenya included, is the recognition of the importance of eradicating sexual violence against women and girls in particular and human rights violations in general. Universally, sexual violence against women and girls is accepted to be a degradation of human dignity in the vital aspect of development in both social and economic terms. This is based on the realization that sexual violence against women and girls is a hindrance in the attainment of quality life among the women and girls in particular and the entire population of a country in general. For example, Integrated Regional Information Networks (IRIN) (2004) argues that sexual violation of women erodes the fabric of a community in a way that few weapons can. Rape's damage as a form of sexual violence can be devastating because of the strong communal reaction to the violation and pain stamped on entire families. The harm inflicted in such cases on a woman or a girl by a rapist is an attack on her family and culture, as in many societies women are viewed as repositories of a community's cultural and spiritual values.

Sexual violence is a serious human rights, social and public health problem which occurs in both physical and psychological forms. It includes forced sex, either attempted or consummated unwanted sexual contacts and comments or advances of sexual nature by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim. The rape of women and girls is the most ghastly and widespread form of Sexual violence. Types of sexual violence against women and girls include rape, battery, trafficking, exploitation, early and/or forced marriages, sexual slavery (including enforced prostitution), illegal detention with or without the consent of family members, abduction/kidnap and forced removal from families and homes, disappearances, torture, discrimination, Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) and other forms of inhuman treatment (Vlachova and Biason, 2005).

In many cases, sexual violence has occurred in situations of disturbed peace and insecurity such as during political strife/tensions within and outside countries. War and civil unrest also
contribute to violence in the home. Death, upheaval and poverty increase tensions within the family and the likelihood of violence against girls and women. Men who feel that they have lost the ability to protect their women may compensate by exercising violent control over them at home. As shown by a number of studies, women and children continue to bear the brunt of sexual abuse. For example, during Liberia's disarmament and demobilization, 73 percent of the women and girls experienced some form of sexual violence. Again, more often, the victims of sexual slavery are younger persons. An estimated 40 percent of child soldiers around the world are girls, the majority of whom are forcibly or coercively conscripted. Their responsibilities may range from portering to active combat, with the additional expectation that they will provide sexual services to their superiors or fellow combatants (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 2005; Amnesty International, 2004; Vlachova and Biason, 2005).

1.1.2 The Global Perspective
The problem of sexual violence against women and girls especially in internally displaced persons' (IDP) camps and established temporary refugee centres, is a commonplace phenomenon in many countries of the world. For instance, Burmese military raped women from ethnic minorities as a weapon of war. During World War II in Burma, women were abducted, imprisoned and forced to satisfy the sexual needs of occupying forces and many Asian women were also involved in prostitution during the Vietnam war. Burma, also wracked by long-standing civil conflict, is thought to supply some 40,000 trafficked women and girls annually for work in brothels, factories and as domestic laborers in Thailand. The Hindu fundamentalists raped Muslim women as a form of attack against Muslim Indian population. Rape has been documented in many armed conflicts including those in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Cyprus and Haiti. More than 20,000 Muslim girls and women have been raped in Bosnia since fighting began in April 1992. Teenage girls have been a particular target in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Croatia where impregnated girls have been forced to bear 'the enemy's' child. For example, between 20,000 and 50,000 women were raped during the conflict in Bosnia in the early 1990's (UNICEF, 2005).
In eastern countries such as East Timor, Indonesian military reportedly raped women in front of their families and forced Timorese men to rape Timorese women. In Colombia, the Ministry for Social Protection reported in 2003 that 36 percent of internally displaced women in the country had been forced by men into sexual relations, a statement confirmed in a study undertaken in the same year which found that displaced women living in barrios in or near Cartagena had suffered higher levels of physical and sexual violence since displacement than prior to flight. Colombia’s Department of Security estimated that 35,000 to 50,000 women and girls were trafficked in 2000, the majority to countries in Asia and Western Europe as well as to the United States. In Colombia, paramilitary control of some regions often includes sexual violence and torture of women and girls. For instance, it has been reported that a Colombian girl was raped and killed, her eyes and nails then removed, and her breasts cut off (Inter-agency Standing Committee (IASC), 2005).

1.1.3 The Continental Perspective

African countries appear to bear the brunt of the sexual violence problem especially in the war-torn countries in general and in the internally displaced persons’ camps in particular. In Chad, members of armed groups targeted displaced women and girls in attacks on IDP sites in the northern parts of the country. UNICEF received reports that 33 women and girls from particular tribes in the IDP camps were raped. In Sudan, displaced women who worked in the fields or collected water and firewood outside the camps, repeatedly fell prey to sexual abuse. In the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Darfur, the rape of displaced and other women is among the war crimes allegations investigated by the International Criminal Court. International peacekeepers have repeatedly committed sexual abuses against displaced women especially in DRC and Liberia. In Liberia, displaced women have been forced to exchange sex for aid, including food from national and international peace workers. In 2005, the United Nation’s Office of Internal Oversight Services reported that it had found a pattern of sexual exploitation by peacekeepers personnel in the DRC (United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), 2005; UNICEF, 2005; Hobson, 2005).
1.1.4 The Regional Perspective

African countries have not been spared either. According to Amnesty International (2004), in some raids in Rwanda, virtually every adolescent girl who survived an attack by the militia was subsequently raped. Many of those who became pregnant were ostracized by their families and communities with some of them abandoning their babies while others committed suicide. There were between 250,000 and 500,000 women who were raped during the 1994 genocide in Rwanda. In Burundi, displaced widows reportedly often had no choice but to resort to multiple sexual relations in order to support themselves and their children. In Northern Uganda, in 2006, there continued to be cases of sexual exploitation and sexual violence against women and girls in the IDP camps and worse still the number increased on the IDPs leaving the camps for new settlement areas (UNFPA, 2005; International Rescue Committee (IRC), 2004; Nduna and Goodyear, 1997).

1.1.5 The Local Perspective

Kenya has had a share of the problem of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps. Cases of sexual abuse and other forms of violations are evident in Kenya especially in the camps. Research among refugees living in camps in Dadaab, undertaken almost 10 years ago, found that more than 90 percent of reported rapes occurred under these circumstances. The incidence of rape was reported to be alarmingly high at camps for Somali refugees in Kenya in 1993. The camps were located in isolated areas and hundreds of women were raped in night raids or while foraging for firewood (Ochieng, 2005). In Kenya, the situation of sexual violence against women and girls was aggravated when clashes erupted all over the country in December 2007 elections which saw more than 1,500 people dead and 350,000 displaced (Daily Nation, October 16, 2008). For instance, since the violence began on 27th December 2007, the Nairobi Women's Hospital and the Coast General Hospital in Mombasa had reported a two to three-fold increase in the number of women and children seeking treatment for sexual assault. At Nairobi Women's Hospital alone, more than 322 women and children sought treatment for sexual assault in a matter of six weeks while 26 were reported to the Moi Teaching and Referral Hospital and two cases to Nyanza Provincial Hospital (UNFPA, UNICEF and Christian Children's Fund, 2008; Nairobi Women's Hospital, 2008). According to Kenya IDP Agency (2008), the risk of rape and sexual abuse

1.1.6 Dealing with the problem

Efforts to tackle sexual violence in countries such as Kenya have been driven by the negative effects of the vice on women and girls in particular and the society in general. As observed by a number of studies, sexual violence has numerous side effects to women and girls ranging from physical, psychological and emotional effects (UNFPA et al., 2008). The specific effects include the spread of HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, disregard for one's own wellbeing, miscarriages, high risk for sexually transmitted infections (STIs), infertility, complications associated with miscarriages and self-induced abortions of the child of the invader, injuries such as vaginal destruction, forced pregnancy, death (through suicide and murder), being maimed, trauma, abandonment of wives and broken marriages, separation from the rest of the family, anxiety, dropping out of school among school-going girls, fear among the victims, loss of property to the sexual abuser who robs the victim after the assault and discrimination and/or rejection of the victims by other members of the community such as a husband after a wife is sexually abused by a non-husband (African Rights, 2004; Amnesty International, 2004; United Nations Children's Fund (UN1CRF), International Rescue Committee (IRC) and Christian Children's Fund (CCF), 2004; Nduna and Goodyear, 1997; Vlachova and Biason, 2005).

Studies have established that women and girls affected by sexual violence have adopted a number of coping mechanisms to deal with the vice during and after any sexual violence incident. In some situations, affected women and girls have fled from the camps to safer areas or returned and resettled in their home communities. Some may head towards urban settings, possibly in search of the relative security of a densely populated area or in the hope of obtaining employment. However, during flight, women and girls remain at high risk for sexual violence mainly committed by bandits, insurgency groups, military and border guards in the war-torn countries. Many women must flee without the added safeguard of male relatives or community members," further increasing their vulnerability. Without money or other resources, displaced women and girls may be compelled to submit to sex in return for
safe passage, food, shelter or other resources. Other women have been forced to confine themselves in the camps and avoided venturing far outside the confines of camps to search for firewood or other staples unavailable in the camp and others have sought post-exposure treatment and counselling. A few victims have had to light their attackers to ward them off although this has at times led to injury and/or deaths of the victims. Others still have resigned to their fate and decided to live in disregard for their own wellbeing by intentionally venturing into risky behaviors such as prostitution (Benton, 2004; UNI-PA, 2005; Physicians for I luman liights (PI IR), 2002).

Stakeholders, both governmental and Non-governmental attempting to deal with the sexual violence vice have tried to use a number of intervention strategies to address the problem. Some of the strategies include securing the IDP Camps by deploying security forces or fencing them, providing health services (such as clinics, medicine and counselors), providing legal services to victims and offering compensation, meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP Camps and assistance in repatriation and resettlement. It is however important to note that there have been a number of constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence in IDP Camps. Most of these constraints/challenges have to do with inadequate and/or unsatisfactory physical infrastructural, human and financial resources. Others are breakdown of law and order and a sense among perpetrators that it is okay to do it. There are also exacerbating factors in play such as alcohol abuse, close camp quarters, men whose traditional roles have suddenly changed, limited security, impunity and limited access to legal services (Sunday Nation, June 8, 2008; UNICEF, 2005; IASC, 2005; UNFPA et al., 2008).

Summary
An examination of the problem of sexual violence reveals that it is a widespread phenomenon with varied features and affecting countries mainly experiencing political conflicts and/or disturbed peace within and/or outside their national boundaries. In most of the cases of sexual violence, the main victims appear to be women and girls exposed by the conflicts to difficult life situations.
It is worth noting that the features of sexual violence may not apply universally to all countries in the world. Where they are showed to occur in the environment of internally displaced persons in camps in the Kenyan setting in general and the Kirathimo IDP Camp in particular, there is reason for a serious concern. As clearly put by the Commission on Post-Election Violence in Kenya, popularly known as the Waki Commission, sexual offending in the IDP Camps was given little attention even by the government and the police in particular as indicated by the low cases recorded in police stations despite victims reporting the heinous acts as they occurred. This therefore forms the basis of this study. The aim is to examine the key aspects of post-election sexual violence among the internally displaced persons using women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru as a case.

1.2 Problem Statement

Sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps in Kenya is considered a serious form of deviant behaviour that is widely condemned by many members of the Kenyan society. Many organizations have committed immense resources and efforts towards the fight and control of sexual violence especially against women and girls. Organizations such as the Government’s Kenya National Commission on Human Rights (KNCHR) and the Federation of Women Lawyers (that is, FIDA) have been on the frontline in fighting this social evil.

In Kenya, the problem of sexual violence against women and girls, following the post-election violence witnessed after the December 27th 2007 General Elections is real and serious as has been established by a number of institutions and organizations. Police statistics show that more than 2,800 cases of rape were reported in 2004, an increase of close to 500 compared to the previous year. This number is relatively high and given that there are displaced women and girls in camps, there is an urgent need to give attention to the phenomenon. These sexual abuse cases have numerous side effects to women and girls ranging from physical, psychological and emotional effects (UNFPA et al., 2008). Despite the passage in 2006 of the Sexual Offences Act, the media and research reports indicated high levels of rape, child sexual abuse and domestic violence. According to Kenya IDP Agency (2008),

women and girls continued to face widespread violence. Women were gang-raped after they were left behind when their male counterparts were either flushed out of the
areas or killed. For instance, in the first two days of the violence, 56 cases of rape were recorded in Nairobi alone. At the Nairobi Women's Hospital alone, more than 300 women and children sought treatment for sexual assault in a period of six weeks of the eruption of the post-election violence. Similarly, during the first days of mass action, the Nairobi Women Hospital admitted eight girls, the youngest being 12 years. It has also emerged that sexual violence targeting women and girls was rampant in the IDP Camps (Nairobi Women's Hospital, 2008).

It is known that women and girls suffer domestic and other types and/or forms of violence in settings that may be described as normal or ordinary life settings such as in their matrimonial homes. However, as it has been reported by a number of humanitarian and human rights organizations, life in IDP Camps is characterized by many difficulties such as limited access to basic goods and services essential for average living. This therefore leaves one wondering which types of sexual violence against women and girls can be identified in IDP Camps bearing in mind that the phenomenon of post-election IDP Camps has never been witnessed in the history of the country. One is tempted to think that the types of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps could be unique just as the way the living conditions in the camps are different and unique from the normal life situations.

Any unpleasant situation elicits reaction towards addressing it. This is because it is human nature to seek comfort. It was still not clear which coping mechanisms were being used by the victims of sexual violence in the IDP Camps to address the menace. Further, it was not yet known which intervention strategies had been tried by stakeholders to address the problem of sexual violence against women and girls at the IDP Camp level. Worse still, researchers, policy makers and programme designers do not appear to have accorded sufficient (if any) attention to the issue of establishing the constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps. Addressing the constraints/challenges facing efforts aimed at addressing the general problem of violence in Kenya in general and that of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps in particular would be a milestone towards eliminating the problem in the country. However, this was only possible after establishing the constraints/challenges.
One of the unfortunate scenarios is that sexual violence continues to have side effects to women and girls ranging from physical, psychological and emotional effects. These effects include the spread of HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, disregard for one's own wellbeing, miscarriages and self-induced abortions, high risk for sexually transmitted infections (STIs), spread of HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, disregard for one's own wellbeing, infertility, complications associated with miscarriages and self-induced abortions of the child of the invader, injuries such as vaginal destruction, forced pregnancy, death (through suicide and murder). Worse still, some government and non-government officials expected to provide assistance to the displaced persons in the camps had been accused of perpetrating the vice by sexually assaulting women and girls. Some humanitarian workers had also been accused of pimping or acting as middlemen in the acts of prostitution and sexual trafficking of refugee women (UNFPA et al., 2008; Daily Nation, October 16, 2008).

The problem of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps is a complex social phenomenon that involves secrecy. There is lack of reliable statistics on sexual violence against women and the girl child in countries undergoing internal displacement. It had been argued that the reports from the refugee camps painted a grave picture and that there was likelihood that the cases coming to the attention of aid workers could just be a tip of the iceberg. Many more could be suffering silently. In Kenya, it had been observed that in some camps, women were not prepared to report rapes or even to talk about it amongst themselves for shame and also because they were afraid their daughters would be targeted by the perpetrators. This situation gave the researcher of this study the desire to investigate the key aspects of the problem that had not been investigated before, bearing in mind that this was the first time Kenya was experiencing the problem of sexual violence against women and girls among the internally displaced persons in camps as a result of post-election violence. Therefore, in order to understand the problem of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps, the study attempted to establish the key aspects of post-election sexual violence against the internally displaced persons using women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru as a case. This study hoped to provide information on the types of sexual violence meted on women and girls in IDP Camps, the effects of the vice on the victims, the victims'
coping mechanisms, intervention strategies to address sexual violence in IDP Camps and the constraints/challenges facing efforts to tackle the problem.

The study was therefore guided by the following specific questions:

1. What are the types/forms and effects of sexual violence against women and girls in the IDP Camps?
2. What are the coping mechanisms used by the victims of sexual violence in IDP Camps?
3. What are the constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps?
4. What are the intervention strategies that have been used to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective was to establish the effects of post-election sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1) Identify the types/forms and effects of sexual violence against women and girls in the IDP Camps.
2) Establish the coping mechanisms used by the victims of sexual violence in IDP Camps.
3) Establish the constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps.
4) Establish intervention strategies that have been used to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps.

1.4 Justification of the Study

This study was useful for a number of reasons. First, the study contributed to knowledge about the key aspects of post-election sexual violence among the internally displaced women and girls in the IDP Camps. The sexual violence against the women and girls in the IDP
camps was little known by Kenyans in general especially because post-election violence had not been witnessed before in the country. Many studies on sexual violence had been conducted elsewhere but none on post-election sexual violence in Kenya and therefore this study which was based on the Kenyan situation informed people of what was happening in this country. The study highlighted what was going on in the IDP Camps and elsewhere and came up with local strategies and others for elsewhere on how to deal with the menace.

This study provided good information for use by scholars in the field of conflict and added to the existing literature which had gaps. The study identified the types of sexual violence faced by women and girls in IDP Camps. Such an attempt had been given very little attention (if any) by previous researches especially in the field of sociology yet sexual violence against women and girls had adverse implications on them. Previous studies had concentrated on the types of violence meted on women and girls in Refugee Camps. The study therefore filled the gap in knowledge by providing the essential data on the types of sexual violence faced by women and girls in IDP Camps in Kenya. The study also attempted to establish the sexual violence coping mechanisms used by women and girls in IDP Camps. Importantly, the coping mechanisms had not been documented in Kenya even though there seemed to be a widespread use of the 181 IDP Camps in Kenya.

Many people in Kenya and in the international scene may have been taking for granted situations of internal displacement without recognizing the precariousness of the situations. The study on key aspects of post-election sexual violence was a good source of information of what was going on in situations of ethnic and/or political based conflict and displacement. It highlighted what was bound to happen if such situations were not addressed on time.

The study is useful to the government and other stakeholders in working intervention strategies. Post-election sexual violence in IDP camps being a new phenomenon in Kenya, the government and other stakeholders had been working without clear data on the problem. The study therefore provides good information that would help them to make informed
decisions. It would help policy makers, planners and implemented in formulating appropriate policies and programs to ameliorate sexual violence against women and girls in the IDP Camps. If eradicated, improved wellbeing of women and girls in IDP Camps would be attained.

With the enactment of the Sexual Offences Act in 2006, sexual violence is now one of the serious crimes to be dealt with by the society in general and the police in particular. This study is therefore a good reference for issues on crime and deviant behavior in the country. There is no doubt that the study stimulates thinking among crime prevention and management agencies on how to deal with the aspects of this type of crime.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study was confined to the types/forms and effects of sexual violence faced by women and girls in IDP Camps. It attempted to establish the sexual violence coping mechanisms used by women and girls in IDP Camps, the intervention strategies that were being used to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps and the constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

There were three main limitations in this study. First, it proved difficult to get good and accurate information due to the sensitivity of the subject. Issues to do with sex are taken to be shameful and are treated with a lot of secrecy and not discussed by victims openly contrary to what is expected in research studies. To address the limitation, the researcher made use of probing questions. Respondents were also assured of the confidentiality of their information before the interviews which made some of them to open up.

The other limitation related to the difficulties associated with getting the right and/or key respondents for the study and having to depend on proxies who were bound to be biased in their information. The population of women and girl victims of sexual violence at the Kirathimo IDP Camp was not easily identifiable since the problem was shameful and treated
with a lot of secrecy. Again, due to the somatization attached to it, sexual violence was generally underreported. Therefore, tracing the victims to participate in the study proved to be difficult. To address this limitation, the researcher had to go through women leaders in the Camp to help in identifying the victims of sexual violence.

The usefulness of the data of this study was affected by the use of inadequate respondents who did not guarantee generalization of the findings. Due to the unwillingness of some victims to participate in the study and the time limitation in tracing the willing victims some of whom were not easily and readily available, the study was forced to study only a few (that is, 60) respondents. Some of willing respondents were not easily available because they were away in their occupations outside the Camp.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
The main objective of this section (chapter) was to review the available literature on the key aspects of sexual violence against women and girls in general and on the key aspects of post-election sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls at IDP Camps in particular. The review was done while cognizant of the fact that systematic studies on post-election sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls at IDP Camps were limited. The review of the literature in this chapter took the following format.

2.2 Types/forms and effects of sexual violence against women and girls.
2.3 Constraints/challenges against efforts.
2.4 Coping mechanisms and intervention strategies.
2.5 Theoretical framework.

2.2 Types/forms and effects of Sexual Violence against Women and Girls
There is compelling evidence that violence against women is severe and pervasive throughout the world. Studies have indicated a number of root causes of violence against women and girls. War and civil unrest have been cited to contribute to violence in the home. Women are the specific targets in religious and ethnic hatred and wars. For instance, Burmese military raped women from ethnic minorities as a weapon of war. The Hindu fundamentalists raped Muslim women as a form of attack against Muslim Indian population. Tutsi women were raped, subjected to forced pregnancy and infected by STDs and AIDS by Hutu men as part of the state sponsored genocide against Tutsi minorities. Death, upheaval and poverty increase tensions within the family and the likelihood of violence against girls and women. Men who feel that they have lost the ability to protect their women may compensate by exercising violent control over them at home. Worse still, either as a refugee or an IDP, women face more hardships and vulnerabilities. In times of displacement and hunger, women carry the burden of searching for food and other means for their family and children's survival. Surveys conducted show that women suffer from sexual, physical and psychological abuse (UNHCR, 2005; Amnesty International, 2004).
Women suffer specific types/forms of violence. One of these types/forms of violence is rape. Rape's damage can be devastating because of the strong communal reaction to the violation and pain stamped on entire families. The harm inflicted in such cases on a woman by a rapist is an attack on her family and culture, as in many societies women are viewed as repositories of a community's cultural and spiritual values. Violence against women, especially rape, has added its own brand of shame to recent wars. From conflicts in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Peru, girls and women have been singled out for rape. Rape, identified by psychologists as the most intrusive of traumatic events, has been documented in many armed conflicts including those in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Cyprus and I Iaiti. Systematic rape is often used as a weapon of war in 'ethnic cleansing'. More than 20,000 Muslim girls and women have been raped in Bosnia since fighting began in April 1992. Teenage girls have been a particular target in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Croatia. Between 20,000 and 50,000 women were raped during the conflict in Bosnia in the early 1990's. In Timor East, Indonesian military reportedly raped women in front of their families, and forced Timorese men to rape Timorese women ((Vlachova and Biason, 2005; UNICEF, 2005).

African countries such as Liberia, Somalia and Uganda have also witnessed sexual violence in general and rape of women and girls in particular. Studies have shown that there were between 250,000 and 500,000 women who were raped during the 1994 genocide in Rwanda. In some raids in Rwanda, virtually every adolescent girl who survived an attack by the militia was subsequently raped. In Northern Uganda, where an 18-year insurgency by the Lord Resistance Army has been going on, it has been reported that some men have been commanded by rebels to have sex with their daughters. Kenya has not been left out of the picture. The incidence of rape was reported to be alarmingly high at camps for Somali refugees in Kenya in 1993. Despite the passage in 2006 of the sexual offences Act, Kenya continues to face widespread violence in general and the problem of high levels of rape, child sexual abuse and domestic violence in particular. The risk of violence and sexual abuse has been reported to be particularly high among girls orphaned by AIDS. For instance, according to a Kenyan situation report by the Amnesty International, an estimated 300 women (many of them women and girls who had travelled from Rift Valley Province to Nairobi) were treated

Women and girls have also been subjected to torture and execution in countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Peru and Rwanda. During Mozambique's conflict, young boys, who themselves had been traumatized by violence, were reported to threaten to kill or starve girls if they resisted the boys' sexual advances. Comparable violations by Russian soldiers in Chechnya had been reported during "imop upi" operations that ensued after rebel Chechen lighters had decamped a town. Of four Chechen women vaginally and orally assaulted by Russian military in February 2000, one purportedly suffocated to death while a soldier sat on her head. In Colombia, paramilitary control of some regions often included sexual violence and torture of women and girls. Intimidation campaigns were carried out on their bodies, as in one of many cases reported in 2001 to the United Nations. A United Nations' Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women noted a situation where a Colombian girl was raped and killed, her eyes and nails then removed and her breasts cut off. Many rape survivors in Rwanda reportedly still live under a constant shadow of pain or discomfort which reduces their capacity to work, look after and provide for their families. Reports have indicated that one such survivor, who was gang-raped and beaten unconscious during the genocide, woke up only to witness the killing of people all around her (IASC, 2005).

Forced pregnancy is another type of sexual violence against women and girls. Impregnated girls have been forced to bear 'the enemy's' child. In Bosnia, Muslim women impregnated by Serbs were reportedly held captive until late times to prevent them from aborting. In Kosovo, an estimated 100 babies conceived in rape were born in January 2000 alone, with the International Red Cross speculating at the time that the real number of rape-related pregnancies was likely to be much higher. Closely related to the problem of enforced pregnancy is the problem of arrest, prosecution and conviction of women and girls for illegal pregnancies. For example, some rape victims in Darfur-Sudan have been arrested, beaten up by police, remanded in police cells, performed hard labour for the officers and finally lined and jailed for illegal pregnancies (that is, pregnancies occurring outside the context of marriage) conceived from the rape ordeals (UNICFF, 2005; Amnesty International, 2004).
Discrimination and rejection of women and girls who have been victims of rape is taken to be another type of sexual violence. Some rape victims may be rejected by their families and communities for having lost their value. In Burundi, reports have indicated that some women rape victims had been mocked, humiliated and rejected by women relatives, classmates, friends and neighbors because of the abuse they had suffered. In Rwanda, many of those who became pregnant after rape were ostracized by their families and communities. Some abandoned their babies while others committed suicide. Raped women may be abandoned by husbands who fear contracting HIV, or who simply can not tolerate the shadow of dishonor they believe their raped wives have cast across them. For those who are subject to discrimination and rejection by the family and community and who also do not receive basic psychological support, the emotional effects of their violation may be as debilitating as any physical injuries. Without prospects for the future, prostitution may seem the only viable option to these women. Within refugee camps, women face various forms of discrimination. They are 'invisible' refugees who are left out of processes to design or plan programmes that affect them. They are less likely to receive a fair share of food, water and shelter allocations. In the 1980s, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) admitted that assistance was generally distributed to "able-bodied male heads of households" (African Rights, 2004; Nduna and Goodyear, 1997).

In some instances, girls and women are also subjected to forced prostitution and trafficking especially during times of war. For instance, some humanitarian workers have been accused of pimping or acting as middlemen in the acts of prostitution and sexual trafficking of refugee women. Many Asian women were forced into prostitution during the Viet Nam war. In other post-conflict settings, incidents of rape may decrease, but the risk of exposure to forced or coerced prostitution, as well as trafficking may increase. Colombia's Department of Security estimated that 35,000 to 50,000 women and girls were trafficked in 2000, the majority to countries in Asia and Western Europe, as well as to the United States. Burma, also wracked by long-standing civil conflict, is thought to have supplied some 40,000 trafficked women and girls annually for work in brothels, factories and as domestic labourers in Thailand. Afghan refugee women living in the city of Peshawar, Pakistan, for example,
described being forced to exchange sex for rent-free housing. In Colombia, the Ministry for Social Protection reported in 2003 that 36 percent of internally displaced women in the country had been forced by men into sexual relations. Unaccompanied girls were more likely among the most vulnerable to sexual exploitation. In Sierra Leone, some women and girls who previously had been abducted by rebels voluntarily became prostitutes after they were released by their captors. For other women and girls, their histories of victimization may dull them to the dangers of entering the sex trade (IASC, 2005; UNICEF, 2005).

Abduction of women and girls especially for forced recruitment into the army and for sexual and other services to army men is another type of sexual violence. During the World War II between 1939 and 1945, women were abducted and forced to satisfy the sexual needs of occupying forces. Many other instances have been identified where women and girls are abducted for the purposes of supplying combatants with sexual services. More often, the victims of sexual slavery are younger and in many cases, their victimization comes under the terms of military duty. Some girls who are forced or coerced into sexual slavery may succeed in escaping their captors only to be seized again. An estimated 40 percent of child soldiers around the world are girls, the majority of whom are forcibly or coercively conscripted. Their responsibilities may range from portering to active combat, with the additional expectation that they will provide sexual services to their superiors or fellow combatants. Much of the violence reportedly committed against women and girls by guerrilla groups in Colombia, for example, is in the context of forced recruitment. Even those women and girls who involuntarily join fighting forces are unlikely to anticipate the extent to which they will suffer sexual exploitation. Data collected in 2004 from women participating in Liberia's disarmament and demobilization program indicate that 73 percent of the women and girls experienced some form of sexual violence (UNHCR, 2005; Amnesty International, 2004; Vlachova and Bias, 2005).

The other types of sexual violence that have been observed in previous studies include wife battery/beating, displacement of women and girls, slavery, enforced sterilization, mutilation of genitals, separation from the family, forced and/or early marriages and infection with STDS and AIDS, some of which have been used as techniques of ethnic cleansing. For
example, women in Rwanda were tainted by their genocidal rapists, who promised to infect them with HIV. In the camps, orphans or children separated from their families are confused such that some girls in those camps are so distressed that they contemplate hanging themselves as the only way out (Amnesty International, 2004).

2.3 Constraints/Challenges against efforts

Raging wars and political disturbances have been identified as critical impediments to efforts aimed at addressing sexual violence against women and girls. According to IJNICEF (2005), war leaves women and girls especially vulnerable to violence. Nearly 80 per cent of the 53 million people uprooted by wars today are women and children. When fathers, husbands, brothers and sons are drawn away to fight, they leave women, the very young and the elderly to fend for themselves. The motivation for violence in general and rape committed during armed conflict in particular can be a by-product of the collapse in social and moral order that accompanies war. Men from the local community may exploit the chaos of conflict to commit sexual violence against women without fear of punishment like what has happened under the volatile and disorganized rule of the Mujahideen. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) estimated the total number of people displaced by armed conflict in 2004 at 34 million: 9.3 million were refugees in neighboring states and another 25 million were internally displaced in their home countries (UNHCR, 2005).

Sexual violence may also be systematic, carried out by fighting forces for the explicit purpose of destabilizing populations and destroying bonds within communities and families. In these instances, rape is often a public act, aimed to maximize humiliation and shame. Under such situations, rape is frequently used as a deliberate strategy to destroy family and community bonds apart from being a tool of ethnic cleansing. It is deliberately used to infect women with HIV and AIDS and other diseases which often expose the victims to social exclusion and somatization ensuring that they continue to suffer from the crimes years after they are perpetrated. In East Timor, Indonesian military reportedly raped women in front of their families and forced Timorese men to rape Timorese women. Noting the sexual violence
not only occurred as a by product of social order during the post election period, researchers observed that it was being used as a tool to terrorize individuals and families and precipitate their expulsion from the communities in which they lived. Many rape survivors in Rwanda reportedly still live under a constant shadow of pain or discomfort which reduces their capacity to work, look after and provide for their families (UNFPA et al., 2008).

The disintegration of families especially in times of war is another constraint. Women and girls are at high risk of sexual exploitation in situations where the social structures and networks that protected them are strained or no longer able to function. Death, upheaval and poverty increase tensions within the family and the likelihood of violence against girls and women. Men who feel that they have lost the ability to protect their women may compensate by exercising violent control over them at home. Rejection, abandonment and discrimination at the family and community level of the sexual violence victims pose a major challenge towards addressing the problem. Some rape victims may be rejected by their families and communities for having lost their value. Reports on Burundi in 2003 indicated that women who had been raped had been mocked, humiliated and rejected by women relatives, classmates, friends and neighbors because of the abuse they had suffered. Raped women may be abandoned by husbands who fear contracting HIV, or who simply cannot tolerate the shadow of dishonor they believe their raped wives have cast across them. Without prospects for the future, prostitution may seem the only viable option to these women. For those who are subject to discrimination by family and community and who also don’t receive basic psychological support, the emotional effects of their violation may be as debilitating as any physical injuries (IASC, 2005).

Lack of resources among the victims of sexual violence is another major constraint. A risk assessment carried out in 2004 in seven IDP camps in Montserrado County in Liberia concluded that poor or unequal access to resources all conspired to increase the likelihood of sexual violence against women and girls. The deprivation that informs the lives of the IDPS has bred a situation where desperately impoverished young girls are sexually exploited in
order to get some food or clothing. Without money (for example for treatment) or other resources, displaced women and girls may be compelled to submit to sex in return for safe passage, food, shelter or other resources. Some Human Rights officials have received information about children and women trading sex for food. For example, Afghan refugee women living in the City of Peshawar-Pakistan were reported as being forced to exchange sex for rent-free housing. In the absence of adequate services, the girl-child may feel compelled to engage in sex in exchange for the essential resources. This eventually leads to children becoming wives, increases vulnerability to sexually transmitted infections (STIs), stress and many other health related impacts. An inter-agency assessment of GBV in Kenya reported that in the early stages of camp development at the Nakuru showgrounds in 2008, community members took girls from the camp to serve as domestic helps, likely increasing their risk of sexual exploitation (UNFPA et al., 2008; Kenya IDP Agency, 2008).

The absence of border controls and normal policing make conflict-affected countries prime routes for traffickers. In Colombia, the ongoing internal conflict has given rise to one of the western hemisphere's most active trafficking networks. Colombia's Department of Security estimated that 35,000 to 50,000 women and girls were trafficked in 2000, the majority to countries in Asia and Western Europe, as well as to the United States. Burma, also wracked by long-standing civil conflict, is thought to supply some 40,000 trafficked women and girls annually for work in brothels, factories and as domestic laborers in Thailand. Research among refugees living in camps in Dadaab, Kenya, undertaken almost 10 years ago, found that more than 90 percent of reported rapes occurred under these circumstances. Concerns have been voiced about lack of regulations in the IDP Camps allowing men from outside to enter unchecked by camp officials (IASC, 2005; UNICEF, 2005).

Although gang rapes may be planned and ethnically motivated, they are also likely crimes of opportunity carried out by men taking advantage of the lack of proper security. Most violence is carried out in gangs during times when there is a breakdown of law and order and so gang rape is merely a replication of the other kinds of violence. Evidence suggests that
sexual violence does not necessarily end with the cessation of armed conflict. For example, incidents of rape are reported to have increased sharply in the context of ongoing insecurity in post-war Iraq. Closely related to the issue of lack of proper security is the problem of delayed security provision. Repeated reports of attacks by a number of international human rights organizations resulted in recent efforts to improve policing and security related to firewood collection in the camps for displaced persons in some countries. However, for many women, these security measures have come too late (UNICEF et al., 2004).

Women are also at risk of rape in or near camps, particularly when the camps are poorly planned and/or administered. The key issues are those of overcrowded conditions, insufficient or lack of lighting at night especially in the informal camps, makeshift sleeping arrangements where men and women are forced to sleep under one tent or out in the open, children having to walk long distances to fetch water and the close proximity of male and female latrines and bathhouses which are not gender segregated or are located far from living areas. In a 1996 survey of Burundian refugee women displaced to a camp in Tanzania, more than one in four reported being raped during the prior three years of conflict, with two-thirds of the rapes occurring since displacement, either inside or close to the camp. The majority of perpetrators were other refugees (59 percent), followed by local Burundian residents (24 percent) and then local Tanzanians, soldiers and police. Sexual assault has continued to present a major problem in camps for refugees and the displaced. The incidence of rape was reported to be alarmingly high at camps for Somali refugees in Kenya in 1993. The camps were located in isolated areas and hundreds of women were raped in night raids or while foraging for firewood. As with firewood collection, advocates and humanitarians have for several years spoken out about the relationship between ill-considered camp design and violence against women with the sole intention of finding ways for reducing women's vulnerability (Nduna and Goodyear, 1997; Ochieng, 2005).

The human resource factor has also not been very supportive in dealing with the problem of sexual violence against women and girls. Health worker's belief that it is their responsibility
to approve or disapprove rape is also a limiting factor in the provision of quality care to victims of sexual violence and especially on real rape/defilement or attempted. Another common thread in many IDP camps is the sexual coercion and exploitation of girls and women by people in positions of responsibility or power in exchange for food and services. International peacekeepers have been accused of committing sexual abuses against displaced women especially in Burundi, the DRC and Liberia. In 2005, the United Nations Office of Internal Oversight Services reported that it had found a pattern of sexual exploitation by peacekeepers personnel in the DRC (IASC, 2005; UNFPA et al., 2008; Benton, 2004).

Insufficient and unsatisfactory physical resources and/or services have been dedicated to addressing the sexual violence. In Rwanda, as elsewhere, treatment for rape victims infected with HIV has been described as too little and too late. Many victims reported that it was difficult for them to access help from the Genocide Survivor's Fund. The challenges of meeting the myriad health needs of survivors of war-related sexual assault were complicated by the absence of adequate facilities and trained staff in many war-torn settings. Lack of medical care, combined with the physical and psychological pressures of conflict, leads to an increased incidence of miscarriage, premature labour, low birth weight babies and menstrual problems. According to research conducted in post-conflict East Timor and Kosovo, and among internally displaced women in Colombia, over two-thirds of women interviewed reported that reproductive-health services were difficult to access. Even where services existed, they were not free just as is the case in many countries in Africa, where state-run health centers operate on a cost recovery basis. Moreover, many health clinics are constructed with open waiting areas where women and girls may be expected to disclose their reasons for seeking care. In the absence of confidentiality, they are likely to conceal their victimization. In Kenya, a number of the victims reported that hospitals were overwhelmed by victims of violence and that they were unable to be examined. Some victims were also unable to reach the medical care facilities due to the facilities' distant locations (UNFPA et al., 2008; Amnesty International, 2004)
Lack of a properly functioning Criminal Justice System has been cited as a constraint in trying to address the problem of sexual violence. Health worker's belief that it is their responsibility to approve or disapprove rape is a living factor in the provision of legal redress to victims of sexual violence and especially on real rape/defilement or attempted. In some settings, a woman seeking medical treatment may be required first to report her case to the police in order to get a medical referral. This prerequisite, in turn, may expose women to further violence. Women and girls are at high risk of sexual exploitation in situations where justice and policing mechanisms are unable to fill the gaps or are colluding in the violence. For instance, most police officers have been accused of corruption and/or incompetence in the investigation and prosecution of sexual offences. To compound the problem, there are very few police doctors and in most cases, victims themselves destroy evidence before the police doctor is able to conduct any medical tests on them. In places such as Darfur in Sudan, rape victims have been arrested and charged for illegal pregnancies. In some cases, the "victims have reported being beaten by the police and later committed to jail or fined. In Kenya, legal redress may be available in urban centres like Nairobi, Mombasa or Nakuru, but in the rural areas, women have limited access to legal services. The Chief's office is also not currently well-equipped to deal with rape cases (Kenya IDP Agency, 2008; Medicins Sans Frontieres (MSF), 2005; Daily Nation, October 16th, 2008).

Retrogressive cultural beliefs and practices are a constraint in addressing sexual violence in some countries. Some people believe that having sex with a virgin or a minor can be a "cure" for HIV/Aids. This results to some HIV/Aids patients raping minors for them to be "cured". This factor enhances the chances of girls in particular being at high risk of being raped and infected with HIV/AIDS. Further, there are pre-disposing factors to sexual violence in the camps. One of these factors is the lack of respect for human rights, a sense among perpetrators that it is okay to sexually abuse a woman or a girl since they are sex objects. There are also exacerbating factors in play such as alcohol abuse and men whose traditional roles have suddenly changed. These also create an environment where rape can become common. In many instances, the risk to women and girls of falling prey to sexual exploiters is exacerbated by reconstruction programs that fail to specifically target their needs, or to
address long-standing patriarchal traditions that discriminate against women. For example, after the genocide in Rwanda, inheritance laws barred surviving women and girls from accessing the property of their dead male family members unless they had been explicitly named as beneficiaries. As a result, thousands were left with no legal claim to their homes and land. In the Kenyan situation, the Kikuyu IDPs who had been uprooted in Rift Valley found it difficult to return and settle with their people who had remained in Central Province since there was no land for them (UNFPA et al., 2008; Benton, 2004; UNFPA, 2005; PCHR, 2002).

Closely related to the constraint of retrogressive culture is the constraint of conflict between the cultures of different groups in the society. It has been observed that IDPs face a peculiarly difficult circumstance. They are displaced within their own community or country for various interlocking reasons. They are persecuted because they belong to religious and/or ethnic minorities. Within refugee camps, women refugees may be subjected to rape because of their increased vulnerability as refugees or because of their actual or perceived political or ethnic affiliations. Women are also the specific targets in religious and ethnic hatred and wars. For instance, Burmese military raped women from ethnic minorities as a weapon of war. The Hindu fundamentalists raped Muslim women as a form of attack against Muslim Indian population. Tutsi women were raped, subjected to forced pregnancy and infected with STDs and AIDS by Hutu men as part of the state sponsored genocide against Tutsi minorities. The basic fact is that the perpetrators are able to carry out these crimes with impunity in case there is a prevailing culture of impunity which generates a high potential for violence within the affected society (Amnesty International, 2004; Donovan, 2002).

The lack of reliable statistics on sexual violence against women and the girl child in countries undergoing internal displacement is a constraint. This because the first step towards the successful solution of a particular problem involves establishing the problem's details and/or components before any meaningful intervention strategies are designed. The stigmatization and labelling attached to sexual violence makes the vice to be generally underreported (UNFPA, 2005). In Kenya, the situation of insecurity during the post-election violence may
also have added to the usual under-reporting. The agencies trying to address the problem observed that the exact number of cases of sexual assault in IDP camps was difficult to ascertain, because not only the camps lacked standardized reporting mechanisms but also because of the challenge associated with acknowledging victimization, including availability of services, the level of awareness about the value of medical assistance, the degree of trust in police and other security related issues, as well as the cultural acceptability of disclosing rape (OHCHR, 2008; Kenya IDP Agency, 2008).

2.1 Coping mechanisms and intervention strategies

The victims of violence have a number of coping mechanisms in the event of the heinous act. One of the mechanisms is to flee or make an attempt to flee and seek refuge elsewhere when confronted with a likely situation of sexual violence. Some may head towards urban settings, possibly in search of the relative security of a densely populated area or in the hope of obtaining employment. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, Myanmar and Somalia, refugee families frequently cite rape or the fear of rape as a key factor in their decisions to seek refuge. Some victims have coped by fleeing to displacement in camps or other settings, through to their return and resettlement in their home communities. Unfortunately, camps for internally displaced or refugee persons may offer limited protection from sexual violence. In Liberia, cases have been reported of women who had been raped before seeking safety in other camps for internally displaced persons (IDPs) only to be raped again when they left the new camps to look for firewood. For too many other women and girls who attempt to escape the perils of war, the threat of sexual violence follows them. Again, some girls and women who are forced or coerced into sexual slavery may succeed in escaping their captors only to be seized again. During flight, women and girls remain at high risk for sexual violence committed by bandits, insurgency groups, military and border guards. This is because many women must flee without the added safeguard of male relatives or community members, further increasing their vulnerability. Still, others attempting to escape from war may be the target of traffickers (IJNI ICR, 2005).

Displaced women and girls who have been sexually violated before and who are without money or other resources may be compelled to resign to fate and submit to further sex with
their assailants or other persons in return for safe passage, food, shelter or other resources. For example, Afghan refugee women living in the City of Peshawar in Pakistan have described their being forced to exchange sex for rent-free housing. In Colombia, the Ministry for Social Protection reported in 2003 that 36 percent of internally displaced women in the country had been forced by men into sexual relations. In Burundi, displaced widows reportedly often had no choice but to resort to multiple sexual relations in order to support themselves and their children. Some women voluntarily associated with the Maoists in Nepal were sometimes forced to sexually satisfy about a dozen militia per night. Without prospects for the future, prostitution may seem the only viable option to these women. For other women and girls, their histories of victimization may dull them to the dangers of entering the sex trade. Studies conducted in Sierra Leone showed that some women and girls who previously had been abducted by rebels voluntarily became prostitutes after they were released by their captors (Benton, 2004; UNFPA, 2005).

Some victims of sexual violence have tried to cope by resisting the efforts of their abusers. The resistance may be physical and/or non-physical. It has however been reported that most victims who physically resist their assailants have themselves or their relatives suffered injuries and/or death. For instance, some victims who resisted sexual abuse from the militia in the district of Bunia in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) had their husbands and sons hacked to death by the irregular militia in May 2003. Reports indicate that many rape survivors in Rwanda reportedly still live under a constant shadow of pain or discomfort which reduces their capacity to work, look after and provide for their families. Non-physical resistance involves refusing the assailants sexual advances and the demands to be their girlfriends and/or wives. Some women and girls captured by rebels in Liberia first refused to be wives but they had to agree later because there was nobody to speak up for them and nobody gave them food except the rebels (UNFPA, 2005).

Another coping mechanism is that of seeking medical and counselling assistance by the victims for the injuries, infections and trauma afflicted by the assailants. During and after the Kenyan post-election violence, some victims of sexual violence sought assistance from hospitals. For example, some internally displaced persons presented themselves for mental
healthcare from Machakos District Hospital. The Nairobi Women's Hospital also referred some girls (who had been raped) for psychological care and support and continuation with the HIV post exposure prophylaxia (PEP) programmes (PUR, 2002; UNFPA et al., 2008; Nairobi Women's Hospital, 2008; Machakos District Hospital, 2008).

A number of intervention strategies appear to have been used by stakeholders to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps. The establishment of security systems has been a key strategy towards addressing sexual violence within refugee and IDP camps. The continued rape and sexual exploitation has highlighted the need for better protection of women and girls in the camps. In response, several organizations, under the umbrella of the United Nations Protection Cluster, have come together to ensure that new camps are constructed with separate toilets for men and women, sufficient lighting and more organized sleeping quarters. The UNHCR has had to organize security patrols, fence camps with thorn bushes and relocate the most vulnerable women to safer areas. Some rape victims who were ostracized were moved to other camps or given priority for resettlement abroad. The UNHCR has also installed formal guidelines for preventing and responding to sexual violence in the camps and it trains field workers to be more sensitive to victims' needs. Refugee women are encouraged to form committees and become involved in camp administration to make them less vulnerable to men who would steal their supplies or force them to provide sex in return for provisions (UNHCR, 2005).

Criminalizing the various types of sexual violence has been another strategy to address the vice. The post-World War II Nuremberg trials condemned rape as a crime against humanity. In DRC, Darfur and Northern Uganda, the rape of displaced and other women is among the war crimes allegations investigated by the International Criminal Court. As a result of the systematic and exceptionally violent gang rape of thousands of Congolese women and girls, doctors in the DRC are now classifying vaginal destruction as a crime of combat. Kenya has responded to the problem of sexual violence in the country by among others, the enactment of the Sexual Offences Act of 2006 (UNICEF, 2005).
In most conflict-affected settings, human rights and humanitarian activists are fighting to ensure that the most basic services are accessible. The UNHCR, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and UNICEF are promoting reproductive health services for refugees to counter high birth rates, maternal mortality, STDs and HIV/AIDS. UNICEF provides support for women affected by armed conflict in countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Burundi, Croatia, Georgia, Liberia, Rwanda, Somalia and the Sudan. In Rwanda, treatment of rape victims infected with HIV is conducted by state-run health centers which operate on a cost recovery basis. Most of the victims of political violence in Kenya, most of whom were women and who were internally displaced, sought mental health care from the Nairobi Women's Hospital. The Hospital referred girls who had been raped for psychological care and support and continuation with the HIV post exposure prophylaxis (PEP) programmes. At the Nairobi Women's Hospital alone, more than 300 women and children were treated for sexual assault in a matter of six weeks during the early days of the post-election violence witnessed following the contested December 27th 2007 General Elections in Kenya. The Machakos District Hospital also treated IDPs who presented themselves for mental healthcare (UNFPA et al, 2008- Nairobi Women's Hospital, 2008; Machakos District Hospital, 2008).

Stakeholders have also launched awareness campaigns both locally and internationally on the problem of sexual violence and ways to address it. The United Nations Human Rights provisions require that all governments enforce international law and codes of conduct on all aspects of human rights violations. For example, in Kenya, Kenya's Red Cross Society has been running seminars on Gender Based Violence (GBV) where participants (inclusive of coordinators of health services at the camps such as the Nakuru IDP Camp) are taught about the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (that is, a mechanism for coordinating humanitarian assistance by key United Nations and non-UN partners) guidelines on gender-based violence in emergencies. After the seminars, participants are encouraged to form groups to start spreading the message and see how they could protect people. The guidelines outline preventive and curative measures for dealing with GBV in IDP camps, including providing activities for bored young people such as sports and income-generating projects to keep older men and women busy and able to support their families. Other initiatives include sensitizing
camp residents to the inhumanity and risks of sexual violence (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), 2008; UNFPA et al., 2008).

Another important strategy that has been used is that of creating response centres, fielding officers to the institutions and ensuring that the officers are trained in handling cases of sexual violence. For example, there is already established a Gender Violence Recovery Centre at the Nairobi Women's Hospital. In Kenya, the government agency that manages the IDP sites has posted two female officers at each site to encourage reporting of sexual violence cases. Steps were also being put in place to train camp officials and others working with IDPs on the issue of sexual exploitation and abuse, the adoption of codes of conduct for camp officials and other humanitarian workers and to develop reporting mechanisms. The response centres recognize that not only are these women and girls in camps raped, but many have lost loved ones, land and property and suddenly find themselves in the strange surroundings of an IDP camp, all of which contribute to trauma. Efforts are therefore put to offer psychological first aid in the form of counselling and other services for victims. Other initiatives include strengthening the legal system and ensuring that the police and other staff handling sexual assault cases are properly trained. In Kenya, legal redress to victims of sexual violence has been available in urban centres like Nairobi, Mombasa and Nakuru but more places need to be reached (Nairobi Women's Hospital, 2008; Machakos District Hospital, 2008; UNFPA et al., 2008; Kenya IDP Agency, 2008).

The Government of Kenya and other stakeholders have also adopted the strategy of mobilizing financial and other resources to deal with the problem of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). For instance, during the 2007/08 and 2009/2010 fiscal years, the Government set aside 1.3 billion and 2.2 billion Kenya Shillings respectively to acquire land and other resources for settling squatters and IDPs. UNICEF was also appealing for $3 million to provide emergency protection for children and women who had been displaced by post-election violence in the country and for those who remained in their home communities, but were at risk of violence and exploitation (African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), 2008; Daily Nation, September 11, 2009).
Efforts aimed at eradicating political violence are a key strategy towards addressing sexual violence. The efforts may come in the form of signing peace deals between conflicting groups or even the deployment of security forces in war torn areas as has happened in countries such as Rwanda, Burundi and Sudan. The February 2008 Fact-Finding Mission to Kenya on Post Election Violence (of the United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights) that was deployed to look into the violence and allegations of grave human rights violations following the Kenyan Presidential Elections in December 2007 discovered that the recurrence of politically instigated violence, particularly during elections, coupled with a prevailing culture of impunity contributed to generating a high potential for sexual violence on women within Kenyan society. As a way of dealing with political violence in Kenya, President Mwai Kibaki and lion. Raila Odinga signed a peace agreement and it was hoped that the IDP camps would be disbanded and Kenya's 600,000 displaced persons would be willing to return to their homes. The return of some IDPs has been realized but more are still in the camps (OHCHR, 2008).

Ensuring that children are in school has been seen as a good strategy to protecting them from many forms of violence. This explains the reason why the Kenya Government was trying to ensure that children in IDP Camps continued to attend schools. According to UNICEF, getting children back to school will result in better protection and a return to normalcy in their lives. UNICEF indicated that the $ 3 million money from the emergency appeal it was making was partly to be used to set up safe play areas in displacement camps in the town of Nakuru in the once war torn Rift Valley so that parents could seek work or collect water and food, knowing that nothing wrong would happen to their children. UNICEF also indicated that safe play areas would be created in the heart of affected communities where children who were not displaced suffer nevertheless from violence and deprivation. This was in recognition that camps for internally displaced or refugee persons offered limited protection from sexual violence. Again, Humanitarian aid workers have consistently identified the danger to women who must venture far outside the confines of camps to search for firewood or other staples unavailable in the camp (Kenya IDP Agency, 2008).
2.5 Theoretical Framework

2.5.1 Introduction

A number of theories appear to be useful for this type of study. The subject of sexual violence has been viewed differently by different scholars. Therefore, a number of theories have been used by scholars in highlighting sexual violence and other criminal behavior. Some of the dominant ones are highlighted here below.

For many years, sociological and criminological studies have tried to understand crime and delinquency in the context of the biological, psychological and sociological causes responsible for criminal behaviour in society. Early and modern biocriminological research has mainly focused on physiological or anatomical make up of the criminal which differentiates him/her from the non-criminal (Conklin, 1995).

Based on Freud's Psychoanalytic theory, psychological research has tried to explain crime and delinquency on the basis of socially maladjusted personality (and other psychological problems) resulting from inadequate socialization during childhood experience (Adler, Muller and Laufer, 1991).

Sociological theories such as the differential association theory, delinquency subculture theory, culture conflict theory, differential opportunity theory and labeling theory have addressed a slightly different question: the reasons for the differential crime rates in the social structure as determined by the social (and economic) milieu. According to sociologists, the origin of crime and delinquency is found in factors such as constant contact with excess definitions favourable to violation of law (Sutherland, 1970), conflicting cultures in a given society (Sellin, 1938), delinquency subcultures (Cohen, 1955), strategies that regulate human behaviour and lead to conformity or non-conformity to conventional norms (Ilirschi, 1969) the effects of labeling and stigmatization (Lemert, 1951), blocked legitimate means which results to strain (Merton, 1957) and differential access to legitimate opportunities in attaining desired goals (Cloward and Ohlin, 1961).
The causal approach to the understanding of crime and delinquency in an individual (s) has however caused a ripple of dissatisfaction among recent criminologists. Although some modern criminologists agree that the causal theories have some validity when applied to different categories of offenders, of late, these criminologists have come to ask whether any one common theoretical explanation can adequately explain the diverse criminal behaviour in society (Conklin, 1995; Adler et al, 1991; Gibbons, 1970).

Recent studies have further complicated matters by questioning the critical assumptions underlying much of the previous criminological research. For example, studies have indicated that criminal behaviour is distributed across all biological/physical body make ups as opposed to specific body make ups such as mesomorphy and atavistic stigmata of degeneracy as had been advanced by Sheldon and Lombroso in the somatotyype and phrenological theories respectively.

Similarly, the psychoanalytic argument that crime results from inadequate socialization is questionable. This is because an individual may also become a criminal because of adequate socialization to the demands of a group whose norms conflict with the law (Conklin, 1995).

The sociological theories have not been spared by the critics either. Although most of the sociological theories locate crime in the lower class structures of any society, there is also growing evidence of middle and upper class crime and delinquency (as in car jacking) than was previously believed. These findings challenge previous assumptions of the distribution of criminal behaviour which formerly served as a general basis for much research and theory over the last few decades. In this study, the social disorganization/anomie theory and the social control theory will be used to explain sexual violence.

2.5.2 Social Disorganization/Anomie Theory

The sociological and/or criminological perspective in sexual violence is in consonance with other theoretical approaches explaining crime and deviance, in the society. The Social Disorganization/Anomie theory is relevant in explaining sexual violence. The Anomie theory
was developed by Emile Durkheim in the early 1890s. According to Durkheim, deviance is at times functional to the society for it provides an opportunity for a particular society to reaffirm its commitment to the society's moral arrangement/order. Therefore, the public outcry in Kenya about sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps could be a clear indication of the need for the Kenyan society to restore its moral order (Lukes, 1973). In his writings, Durkheim was referring to the European societies that were under intense social disorganization resulting from the industrial revolution whose impact included the breakdown of the time's traditional order. He therefore set out to show how forces external to the individual (and in this case, the forced displacement of individuals and families from their normal residences) produced patterns of abnormal behavior in the affected persons. As a society, Kenya underwent the very same rapid and unexpected social changes following the post-election violence that erupted in December 2007 resulting to general disorganization in some segments of the country's population. The unfortunate thing is that sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps is part and parcel of the general malaise being experienced in the Kenyan society.

In advancing his Anomie theory, Durkheim further observed that the dissolution of the traditional order (like the one existing in normal home circumstances) results in the weakening of the bonds/meshes of the social fabric, which in turn leads to prevalence of egoistic and anomic tendencies. Social-psychologists argue that egoism exists where society is not adequately integrated at all interaction points. Therefore, a weak and disordered society allows too many people to escape its social control influence completely (Cloward and Ohlin, 1961). Judging Kenya, the Kenyan society could be said to be a highly egoistic society. Individual freedom seems to be increasing significantly and this explains why rates of deviance (such as sexual violence and domestic terrorism such as that of the criminal gangs) among both adults and the youth are relatively high resulting in social disorder and malaise.

Durkheim asserted that anomie resulted from the lack of collective cultural values/forces at certain points in society for the regulation of social life. In other words therefore, anomie refers to a social condition unfavourable for people to guide their behavior by the established norms they experience which are weak, unclear or conflicting. He further argued that in times
of rapid social changes, people become unsure of what is expected of them and find it hard to re-fashion their actions in terms of conventional norms and/or collective good. The previously esteemed old norms (such as the maintenance of social boundaries with regard to the use of separate facilities like toilets for the women and men or for the old and young in the normal home settings) do not seem relevant in the new circumstances (such as IDP Camp "environments) and emerging norms (such as shared facilities in camps) are still too ambiguous and poorly formulated to provide effective and meaningful guidelines of behavior. Under such unfavourable circumstances in IDP Camps where there appears to be broken down social norms, deviant behavior such as sexual violence could be witnessed. Durkheim proposed that the solution to this situation of malaise is the restoration of the importance of intermediary groups in society such as the family, the church and the schools so that these can have a firm hold on the individual in order for him to adhere to them (Merton, 1957).

Anomie theory gains relevance in the study of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps in Kenya in general. If, as the theory tells us, deviance in behaviour results from the break down of the social structure and norms, it makes sense to the Government of Kenya to design resettlement programmes that give IDPs the opportunity to go back to their previous homes and continue with their normal lives under the control of conventional norms and regulations applied to the general population in the country. This is also the rationale behind the efforts by UNICEF to ensure that children in IDP Camps continue with education as a way of protecting especially the girl child from sexual violence in the camps.

2.5.3 Social Control Theory

Travis I lirschi developed the control theory of delinquency. The theory focuses on techniques and strategies that regulate human behaviour and lead to conformity, or obedience to society's rules-the influences of family and school, religious beliefs, moral values, friends, and even beliefs about government. The more involved and committed a person is to conventional activities and values and the greater the attachment to parents, loved ones, and friends, the less likely that person is to violate society's rules, thereby jeopardizing relationships (Adler et al., 1991).
Control theory has two popular perspectives namely the macro sociological views of control and the micro sociological views of control. Macro sociological studies explore formal systems for the control of groups. These formal systems include the legal system, laws, and particularly law enforcement; powerful groups in society such as political parties; and social and economic directives of government or private groups. These types of control can be either positive - that is, inhibiting rule breaking behaviour by a type of social guidance or negative, that is, fostering oppressive, restrictive or corrupt practices by those in power.

This perspective focuses on informal control systems. According to Hirschi, there are four social bonds that promote socialization and conformity and operate to restrain an individual's impulse to break the law. Attachment is the first bond and includes attachment to parents, to schoolteachers and to peers. Youths who have formed a significant attachment to a parent refrain from delinquency because the consequences of such an act would likely be detrimental to their relationship. The bond of affection between a parent and child thus becomes a primary deterrent to criminal activities. Hirschi argued that there was a link between the inability to function well in school and delinquency. For example, academic incompetence leads to poor school performance which in turn results in a dislike of school which leads to rejection of the teachers and administrators as authorities. The result is delinquent acts. Thus attachment to school depended on one's appreciation for the institution, one's perception of how teachers and peers received him or her and how well one did in class.

Commitment is the second social bond which involves motivation to perform socially approved activities. Hirschi identified a number of stakes in conformity or commitments: vocational aspirations, educational expectations, and educational aspirations. The greater the aspiration and expectation, the more unlikely delinquency became.

The third bond is involvement, or "preoccupation with activities that promote the interests of the society. The bond is derived from involvement in school activities (such as homework and school games) rather than in working-class adult activities (such as smoking and
drinking). Therefore, a person who is busy doing conventional things has little time for involvement in deviant activities. In some IDP Camps, it has been observed that IDPs operate in a state of enforced idleness because they have few conventional activities to undertake within the camps. They also can not involve themselves in activities outside the camps due to insecurity reasons. These factors work to encourage men to involve themselves in vices such as sexual violence. Some women and girls decide to venture into prostitution due to boredom and lack of constructive activities in the camps.

Belief, which is the fourth social bond, consists of assent to the society's value system. Essentially, the value system of any society entails respect for its laws and for the people and institutions that enforce them. The results of Illirschi's survey led to the conclusion that if young people or adults no longer believed that the laws were fair, their bond to society weakened, and the probability that they would commit delinquent acts increased. Retrogressive cultural beliefs and practices are a constraint in addressing sexual violence in some countries. Some people believe that having sex with a virgin or a minor can be a "cure" for HIV/Aids. This results to some HIV/Aids patients r; ping minors for them to be "cured". This factor enhances the chances of girls in particular being at high risk of being raped and infected with HIV/AIDS. In conclusion, if the four social bonds of the individual were broken, as could occur in a broken home in the IDP Camps, lawbreaking becomes more likely. The specific effects of this tendency would be a generalized disposition to crime and deviance (Conklin, 1995).

With regard to the control of sexual violence against women and girls especially in the IDP Camps, the Criminal Justice System in Kenya has its own mechanisms of social control which are intended to help in reducing crime and delinquency in general. For example there is the judiciary which consists of courts. The courts are supposed to enforce laws by imposing penalties to offenders. The police are supposecl to be at the forefront in enforcing law and order. However, social control theory appears to have little relevance in dealing with the problem sexual violence against women and gi is. The police have been accused of being unable to effectively investigate and successfully secure the conviction of sexual offenders. Moreover, police officers have themselves been accused of sexually abusing
women and girls including in the displacement camps and in the police cells. The courts, which heavily rely on the evidence of prosecution witnesses to prove whether a suspected sexual offender is guilty or not, have at times let the offender off the hook either through the weaknesses of the prosecution or corruption among officers of the courts.
3.1 Site selection and description

There are many IDP Camps in Kenya which fit into this study. However, the camp selected for this problem study was Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru. The camp was chosen for three main reasons. Firstly, there was apparently no sociological and/or criminological study that had been done before in this post-election IDP Camp. Previous studies had mainly focused on the refugee camps in places such as Dadaab. Secondly, familiarity with a study site is a very important factor in many researches. The researcher was conversant with Limuru for many years and knew most of its key areas. This factor was useful for it increased the researcher's mobility and enabled the easier tracing of the key respondents, that is, women and girl victims of sexual violence during the study period and/or exercise. Limuru is also near Nairobi City for it is about 40 Kilometres from Nairobi on the Nairobi- Nakuru Highway and therefore, its accessibility from the City helped in saving on the limited financial and time resources available to the researcher. Finally, Kiambu District in general and Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru in particular captures the traits of the entire post-election IDP population in other Kenyan districts and IDP camps. The use of respondents from Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru was therefore justified on this basis (APKM, 2008; Kenya, 2002).

Using the 2002-2008 Kiambu District Development Plan, this study described the former and larger Kiambu District (since it had recently been subdivided into more districts) in general and assumed that Limuru had most of its characteristics. In 2002, Kiambu was one of the seven districts that formed Central Province. The district comprised of seven divisions namely Kiambu Municipality, Kiambaa, Limuru, Ndeiya, Githunguri, Lari and Kikuyu. With regard to geographical location, Kiambu District bordered Nairobi City and Kajiado District to the south, Nakuru District to the west, Nyandarua District to the northwest and Thika District to the east (Kenya, 2002).

On spatial area, Kiambu District has an area of 1,323.9 Square Kilometres with Limuru having an area of 155.5 Square Kilometres. The district is quite densely populated except for
the semi arid areas of Ndeiya Division and Karai Location of Kikuyu Division. It had a population of about 802,625 people and 96,950 of them were reported to be living in Limuru Division. The District had a population density of 606 while Limuru Division had a population density of 623. This implied that there was a likelihood of land scarcity and IDPs at the Kirathimo Camp could not be comfortably resettled in the District. The settlement patterns in the District had been influenced by various factors such as rural-urban migration, well-developed infrastructure and close proximity to Nairobi City (Kenya, 2002).

According to the 2002-2008 Kiambu District Development Plan, it was estimated that 25.08 percent of the District's population was poor with Limuru Division having 20 percent of its population estimated to be poor. The main causes of poverty in the District included poor marketing systems, inaccessibility to credit facilities, adverse impact of economic reforms and structural adjustment programmes, poor and inadequate infrastructural facilities and adverse climatic conditions. This implies that a substantial proportion of the poor population would continue to expect assistance especially from the government and well wishers. Poverty has at times been blamed for contributing to sexual violence especially when the man felt that he was unable to provide for the family. Poverty also drives some women to prostitution in an attempt to provide for their families. An effective sexual violence prevention system therefore needed to address the needs of this special category of population (Kenya, 2002).

Maintenance of law and order is a major challenge as there has been widespread insecurity in the District. Some organized criminal gangs operate in most parts of Kiambu. Moral decay in the society, lack of employment opportunities, poverty, rural-urban migration and rapid population increase has all aggravated the problem. In security may discourage potential investors in the District, hence leading to increased unemployment and persistent vicious cycle of poverty (Kenya, 2002). There is thus need to improve on security even for those at the Kirathimo IDP Camp.
3.2 Research Design

According to Cooper and Shindler (2000), research design is the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. It is the plan and structure of investigation conceived to obtain answers to research questions. This research was based on a survey design. This design was appropriate because the research intended to come up with conclusive results on the key aspects of post-election sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru. The design was also appropriate since the data desired was subject to a survey which was empirical in nature. According to Conklin (1995), a survey is a research strategy in which samples of people who are representative of a large population are asked a series of prepared questions. Schutt (1996) defines a survey as the systematic collection of answers to questions that are asked of respondents in questionnaires or interviews in order to gather information about the attitudes, characteristics or behaviour of a large group of persons (called the population) using a selected representative subset of that population (called the sample). The descriptive survey was instrumental in narrating the types of sexual violence faced by women and girls in IDP Camps, the sexual violence coping mechanisms used by women and girls in IDP Camps, the intervention strategies that have been used to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps and the constraints facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camps.

3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population

According to Koul (1984), a population is the total collection of elements about which we wish to make inference. The population for the proposed study will consist of those women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp who will attest to having been sexually violated.

3.3.2 Sampling Design

3.3.2.1 Sampling

According to Koul (1984), sampling is the process by which a relatively small number of individuals or measures of individuals, objects, or events is selected and analyzed in order to
find out something about the entire population from which it was selected. Kathuri and Pals (1993) define sampling as a process of selecting few cases in order to provide information that can be used to make judgments about a much larger number of cases. The "few cases" are referred to as a sample while the "large number of cases" is referred to as a population or universe. A sampling design refers to that part of the research plan that indicates how cases are to be selected for purposes of gathering information (Singleton, 1993). The design therefore maps out the procedure to be followed to draw the study's sample.

3.3.2.2 Sampling Technique

The study utilized non-probability sampling technique. This technique is mainly used when the researcher requires a maximum degree of insight into the problem with comprehensive information. This technique gained insight into the problem by selecting only informed persons. There were also no complete lists of known women and/or girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp who had been sexually violated to warrant probability sampling. At the Camp, convenience/accidental sampling was done. This meant that any sexually violated woman and/or girl, who was living in the Camp and who was conveniently available for the interviews was selected. This was in recognition of the fact that some sexually violated women and/or girls did not have time for the study interviews due to their own reasons. Snow ball sampling was also used. This meant that after interviewing a particular sexually violated woman and/or girl, the researcher asked her whether she knew of any other sexually violated woman and/or girl in the Camp who the researcher could reach for more interviews.

3.3.2.3 Sample Size

A predetermined sample size of 60 was adopted and assumed that the samples corresponded to the population of interest. The sample size was adopted in order to cater for unforeseen circumstances in the field and to guard against interviewing respondents who would be below the recommended minimal size in survey researches. According to Kathuri and Pals (1993), it is generally recommended that the minimal size for a survey research to be 100 respondents for each major subgroup and 20-50 respondents for each minor subgroup (such as sexually violated women and/or girls in this case).
3.4 Sources of Data and Methods of Data Collection

3.4.1 Sources of Data

This study used both primary and secondary sources of data. Primary data was the original data information collected from the respondents in the field pertaining to the key aspects of post-election sexual violence against women and girls. The secondary data materials used included statistical records, personal documents, Government records (such as National Development Plans), books, journals and mass medial communication on sexual violence in Kenya.

3.4.2 Data Collection Methods and Tools

Methods of data collection are the ways to obtain relevant qualitative and/or quantitative data or information for a particular study from the relevant sources. This study collected data using a number of methods and tools.

3.4.2.1 Secondary data collection methods and tools

Secondary data was collected by way of reading, analyzing, collating and recording data contained in ready prepared materials such as statistical records, personal documents, Government records, books, journals and mass medial communication. The main tools that were used in collecting the secondary data were field notebooks, pens, pencils and rubbers.

3.4.2.2 Primary data collection methods and tools

The primary data was collected through interviews (that is, structured individual face-to-face interviews) conducted by the researcher with the respondents of the study. An interview schedule was the tool used to solicit information from the women and/or girls' victims of sexual violence. An interview schedule is a device consisting of a set of questions which are asked and filled in by an interviewer in a face to face situation with another person (Koul, 19X4). The schedule had both open and closed ended questions which were administered through structured face-to-face individual interviews with the respondents in secluded places. This approach helped in the creation of rapport, confidentiality and ensured validity of the
data collected. The direct observation method was also used in collecting data on general aspects of living conditions in the IDP Camp and observable issues (such as physical health) among the victims of sexual violence. An observation notebook was the tool used for recording of the observed data.

3.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Data obtained from the open and closed-ended questions was first coded in a code sheet and then the computer was used in organizing, interpreting and presenting the data for the purpose of analysis. In particular, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) technique was used to analyze the data collected from the field. The data was presented in form of frequency and percentage tables, pie and bar charts. The information was presented thematically guided by the objectives of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings that emanate from qualitative and quantitative data collected through this study. The study was carried out at Kirathimo IDP camp in Limuru, Kenya. The findings are based on responses from a total of 60 respondents who were interviewed at the IDP camp. There were also a total of three key informant interviews conducted with personalities that were knowledgeable in the area. These key informants were relied upon to give substantial information as pertains to the situation of IDPs. The key informants included; Limuru District Officer, Limuru area Chief and an official of the Kenya Internally Displaced People Association (KIDIPA), that is, a group of IDPs who have come together to address issues such as the acquisition of land.

The findings are presented in both table and figure form. The analysis of quantitative data is done by use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 15.0). Statistical methods have been used to summarize data to give meaningful information. This has mainly been done by use of descriptive statistics.

The chapter is organized into sections. The first section addresses demographic characteristics of respondents; the second section addresses types/forms of sexual violence against women and/or girls at Kirathimo IDP camp; the third section deals with coping mechanisms used by women and girls in IDP camps; the fourth section is tackling intervention strategies used to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps and lastly, the constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps.

4.2 Demographic characteristics of respondents

Information on the demographic characteristics of those interviewed in this research is essential in understanding the findings of this research. The demographic characteristics of the 60 respondents interviewed at Kirathimo IDP camp are presented in sub headings that
follow; age, tribe, district of permanent residence, marital status, level of education, size of household and number of dependants in the family.

4.2.1 Age
Age is an important component of this study as it would be of relevance to know the general age distribution in the camps. Figure 1 illustrates age distribution of respondents at the camp and also the general age distribution in the camps.

Figure 1: Age distribution of respondents

Ages are spread across all groupings with more concentration between 30 years and 49 years. This concentration accounts for 30 respondents or 50.0% of the sample size. This implies that half of the female population in the camp is between 30 years and 49 years old. This is a group that is still very active and can contribute immensely to the development of society if their security threats are addressed.

4.2.2 Tribe
Tribe that was the basis for displacement during Post Election Violence was also established among respondents. The study highlighted the tribe most affected are the Kikuyu that made 63.3% of the total sample. This was then followed by Luos that accounted for 21.7%. Kisiis were 11.7% and Kambas 3.3%. During the 2007 elections, the key presidential aspirants were from Kikuyu, Luo and Kamba. This later refocused on Kikuyu and Luo aspirants.
Given the disputed results, these two tribes had to bear the burden of violence by being displaced in unfamiliar territories.

Judging from the number of respondents who were Kikuyus and the sampling procedure used, it is clear that the Kikuyus were most hit as they form more than half of the total population in the camp. When asked about district of permanent residence, the Kikuyus seem to be spread all over as they mentioned Pipeline, Molo, Nakuru-Bahati, Elburgon, Eldoret, kilgoris, Burnt forest, Mai Mahiu, Narok, and Gitwamba. The Luos who responded at the camp claimed their district of permanent residence as Limuru, Naivasha, Nakuru-Bahati and Mai Mahiu. The Kisiis mentioned their district of permanent residence as Bamachoge, Kisii, Kisumu and Eldoret. The Kambas who responded to the question mentioned Molo as their district of permanent residence.

4.2.3 Marital Status

The atrocities being committed at the camp makes it important to know marital status of those in the camp. This question was responded to by all the 60 persons interviewed. Figure 2 gives an illustration of marital status as mentioned by those interviewed.

Figure 2: Marital status of respondents

Source: Primary data, 2009.

A total of 61.7% of the respondents are married; another 20.0% widowed and 1.7% divorced/separated. This brings to a total 83.4% who are married or have been married at some point in their lives. It is only 16.7% of the respondents who have never been married. This implies rape and forced sex for essentials does not only affect the victims but also their families that was approximated by this study at five members per household.
4.2.4 Level of education

Education is a key component of intellectual growth. It is achieved through continuous training towards a desired goal. Training can generally be termed as a means of acquiring skills, knowledge and competence. Table 4.1 shows the level of education of respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary - Form one to Form four</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University/College</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary - Form five to Form six</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

From Table 4.1, it was evident that majority (58.3%) of the respondents had attained secondary school education of between Form 1-4, another 3.3% had attained High School education of between Form 5-6 and 1.7% had attained university or college education. This adds up to 73.3% who have secondary education and above. The basic concept of literacy (that is, the percentage of population aged 15 years and above who can both read and write a simple statement in at least one language), is achieved by 90.0% of the respondents, a figure that is much higher than 79.0% nationally.

4.2.5 Size of household

The 2007 electoral violence sent so many people into camps where security was presumptively better. These people moved into the camps with members of their families who survived the violence. Each family was given a tent that may have been a family or none family tent. This study went a step ahead to know the number of people that leave in each family. The findings on Table 4.2 below showed that 66.7% of the respondents had 4-6 household members; another 15.0% had 1-3 members per household and 1.7% had 7-9
members. Only 6.7% of the respondents had 10-12 household members. The average number of members per household as given by respondents was five.

Table 4.2 Size of Household of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of household</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

4.2.6 Number of dependants in the family

From the study, and as shown on Table 4.3, it was revealed that the majority (63.9%) of the respondents had 1-3 dependants; 21.7% had 4-6 dependants and 11.7% had 7-9 dependants. This result suggested that the IDP families needed to have adequate financial and other resources to cater for the basic needs of the dependants.

Table 4.3 Number of dependants in the family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of dependants</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

4.3 Types/forms and effects of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps

The sad state of affairs at IDP camps may be numerous but the outstanding one is the dehumanizing act of sexual violence against women and/or girls at the camp. This study sought to understand the forms taken by sexual violence on women and girls at the IDP camp.
Understanding the forms of sexual violence against women and girls was a key component of the study and as such, respondents were first asked to indicate whether or not sexual violence against women and girls existed in the IDP Camp before being asked about the forms/types of sexual violence. All the respondents reported that the vice existed in the Camp. When the respondents were asked list down the types/forms of sexual violence available in the camp, woman and girl battering/beating was the most common as it was mentioned by 36.1%, followed by rape which was mentioned by 32.3% and then forced sex for essentials which was mentioned by 22.6%. Forced marriages and exploitation were least mentioned with each accounting for 4.5% of the respondents. To stress on the issue of sexual violence facing IDP women, one medium aged lady could only say:

"I was raped by nine, . . . . . ethnic community men ami then managed to flee and hoarded the lorry to this place, . . . . Then one night I went to help myself outside and a man pounced on me and raped me.... I have not reported to anybody though I suspect it's one of the men in the Camp " (Respondent at Kirathimo IDP Camp; September, 2009).

After their responses, respondents were then prompted to respond to a set of twelve forms of sexual violence that were assumed to be practiced at the camp. Their duty was to confirm if the type of violence existed at the camp or not. The same respondents were later asked to rank the types/forms of sexual violence against women and girls according to their prevalence. This question was a multiple response one and each attribute had a chance of getting a total of sixty responses. According to the results of the study, all the twelve forms/types of sexual violence existed at the Kirathimo IDP Camp. The ranking indicated that battering/beating was the most prevalent as was reported by the majority (61.7%) of the respondents followed by rape (51.7%) while abduction/ kidnap and forced removal from families and homes was the least prevalent in the Camp as shown on Table 4.4 below. Other types/forms of sexual violence on women and girls include; disappearances, sexual slavery, trafficking, illegal detention with or without the consent of family members and Female Genital Mutilation.
Respondents were asked to state the effects of sexual violence against women and girls. The majority (90.0%) of the respondents mentioned the spread of HIV/AIDS; 81.7% mentioned low self esteem, somatization or depression; 80.0% mentioned unwanted pregnancies; 40.0% mentioned abortions and/or miscarriages; 30.0% mentioned pain/injury; 18.3% mentioned trauma while 10.0% mentioned death. Respondents were then prompted to respond to a set of seventeen effects of sexual violence by indicating whether or not the effects were witnessed in the Camp. This question was a multiple response one and each attribute had a chance of getting a total of sixty responses. As shown on Table 4.5 below, all the effects were witnessed with loss of or damaged self esteem being the most common effect (reported by all respondents) and loss of property to the sexual abuser being the least common effect witnessed at the Kirathimo IDP Camp as was reported by 10.0% of the respondents.
Table 4.5: Effects of sexual violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of sexual violence witnessed at the camp</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Loss of or damaged self esteem</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spread of HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted pregnancies</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abortions/miscarriages</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complications associated with miscarriages</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injuries such as vaginal destruction</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trauma</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abandonment of wives and broken marriages</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separation from the rest of the family</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropping out of school among school going girls</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejection of the victim by other members of the community</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being maimed</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disregard for one’s own wellbeing</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>71.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death (through suicide and murder)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forced pregnancy</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of property to the sexual abuser</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

To emphasize on the effects of sexual violence, one respondent had this to say:

"I was raped by... I was bleeding heavily...! I bledd for two weeks with no one to share with. Then my husband finally came to this Camp. I had no choice but to tell him what had happened since I was still bleeding. That is when he took me to Tigoni Ilospital. lie refused to have sex with me after that. He then ran away and went back to Burnt Forest where I hear is now married... " (Respondent at Kirathimo IDP Camp; September, 2009).

4.4 Coping mechanisms used by women and girls in IDP camps

All the respondents interviewed indicated that there were ways by which women and girls coped with the situation during and after sexual violence happened. When respondents were asked to list down some of the coping mechanisms used by sexually violated women and girls at the camp, they mentioned several mechanisms. All these mechanisms were collated and are presented in Figure 3 below. The respondents had the opportunity of giving several responses and as such, it was a multiple response question. Most (22.5%) of the respondents
reported the vice to relevant authorities; another 22.0% mentioned that they sought medical attention to get Anti-retroviral that had the capability of reversing infection if administered within 72 hours of exposure. Some people also managed to run away before the vice is administered on them. It is however very unfortunate that 16.5% of the respondents resorted to just keeping quiet or submitting to the vice because this would not assist in curbing the vice.

Figure 3: Coping mechanisms used by women and girls at Kirathimo camp

Source: Primary data, 2009.

When the same respondents were asked to rank the coping mechanisms they had mentioned as being used at the Camp, the rankings from the ones most used to those list used were as follows; seeking medical attention/going for VCT services (35.2%); keeping quiet (33.3%); reporting to relevant authorities (33.3%); running away (31.0%) and submission (22.2%). Seeking alternative housing (11.1%); procuring abortion (11.1%) and isolation from the rest (8.3%) were the least used coping mechanisms during and after sexual violence happened on the Camp’s women and girls.

These same respondents were asked to respond by acknowledging or disapproving of coping mechanism read to them by the researcher. A set of six coping mechanism methods were read to each respondent. The responses received were collated and presented in Figure 4 below. Each respondent had the opportunity to answer all the six coping mechanisms mentioned to her. From the results of the study, a total of 18.6% of the 60 respondents highlighted coping mechanisms as flight from camp to safer areas; resisting their attackers to
ward them off; getting post exposure treatment and confining themselves in the camp. Others also choose to remain on the negative by submitting to sex to gain favors and disregarding own wellbeing by intentionally venturing into risky behaviours.

**Figure 4: Mechanisms of coping with sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo camp**

When the researcher asked about the use of six specific coping mechanisms, the findings showed that all the six were being used at the Kirathimo IDP Camp. The ranking of the six coping mechanisms showed that the most common was submitting to sex in return for safe passage, food, shelter or other resources (61.7%) followed by flight from the camp to safer areas (51.7%); post exposure treatment and counseling (41.7%); disregarding own wellbeing by intentionally venturing into risky behaviours (31.7%); resisting their attackers to ward them off (30.0%) and confining in camp (20.0%).

**4.5 Intervention strategies used to address sexual violence against women and girls at IDP camps**

Human beings adapt to changes and challenges. The IDPs are not left behind either; they have formed reaction strategies to the actions that are executed within the camps in which they reside. All the respondents mentioned that there were intervention strategies used to
address sexual violence against women and girls in the IDP camp. This sub-topic underscores responses to intervention strategies used at the camp and the people behind intervention strategies.

Respondents were asked to name some of the intervention strategies used in the camp to guard against or mitigate acts of sexual violence on women and girls. This question allowed for more than an answer from an individual. The respondents were allowed to give their responses without prompting. According to the results of the study, most (23.0%) of the respondents mentioned the provision of security, 20.0% mentioned the improvement of camp lighting while a few of the respondents mentioned involving group leaders in problem solving (3.0%) and forcing abusers out of the Camp (3.0%). Figure 5 presents the findings in pictorial form.

**Figure 5: Intervention strategies against sexual violence on women and girls as mentioned by respondents**

![Diagram showing intervention strategies]

Source: Primary data, 2009.

Having asked the respondents about strategies used at the camp, their awareness about the strategies was confirmed. In order to understand if there was any other strategy omitted by the respondents but was practiced at the camp, a set of eleven strategies were read to the respondents. In return, the respondents were to approve of or disapprove of the strategy in relation to use in the Camp. Each respondent was allowed to approve or disapprove the
strategy mentioned and then to rank the strategies mentioned. Although the respondents did not approve of all the intervention strategies read to them, they ranked all the strategies read to them. The two strategies that were approved by every respondent were; establishment of security systems and assisting in repatriation and resettlement. The other two strategies that were largely mentioned by the respondents included; criminalizing the various types of sexual violence and meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps. The strategies, however basic, helped in curbing sexual violence at the camp.

The ranking of strategies used from the most used to the least used was as follows; establishment of security systems, criminalizing the various types of sexual violence, meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps, assisting in repatriation and resettlement, mobilizing financial and other resources to deal with the problem of IDPs, awareness campaigns on the problem of sexual violence, creation of response centres and/or staffing them with skilled officers, ensuring that children are in school, providing legal services to victims, offering compensation to sexually abused women and/or girls and engaging in efforts aimed at eradicating political violence. Table 4.6 below gives the findings that respondents gave after being pre-empted by the researcher.

Table 4.6: Intervention strategies as confirmed by respondents after pre-empting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intervention strategies used in camp</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establishment of security systems</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assisting in repatriation and resettlement</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminalizing the various types of sexual violence</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobilizing financial and other resources to deal with the problem of IDPs</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness campaigns on the problem of sexual violence</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

The intervention strategies were good ideas aimed at stopping or controlling sexual violence, these strategies needed an extra hand to implement. As is highlighted by Figure 6, the Government plays a major role in the implementation of strategies at the camp. This can be attributed to the lead role that the government assumed in the IDP situation and the fact that it is the sole provider of state security. The government was then followed by Red Cross and
other NGOs and churches. Others who had made contributions included friends and relatives, camp leaders and well wishers. The organizations and personalities mentioned by respondents to be behind intervention strategies were as listed in Figure 6.

**Figure 6: Organizations and personalities behind implementation of intervention strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Reforest and other NGOs</th>
<th>Churches</th>
<th>Reforest and/or friends</th>
<th>Camp leader?</th>
<th>Well wishers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

4.6 Constraints/ challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo IDP camp and how to address them

The effort to address sexual violence against women and girls faced several challenges as was confirmed by all the respondents. The respondents were asked to mention constraints faced in the process of addressing sexual violence against women and girls at the camp without the researcher mentioning any challenge. The respondents were then to rank the identified challenges/constraints starting with the most serious to the least serious challenge/constraints. From the findings, inadequate finances presented the major stumbling block towards the realization of stoppage or reduction of sexual violence against women and girls as was reported by 70.0% of the respondents and as shown on Table 4.7 below. The other major threats were the existence of unplanned and/or overcrowded camps (50.0%) that makes law and order elusive, the presence of criminals in camp/ hostility of locals (38.3%)
and lack of medical care (30.0%) which was also instrumental in providing preventive and curative services and its absence spelt doom to control measures towards sexual abuse.

Table 4.7: Constraints/ challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo 11' camp as mentioned by respondents before prompting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges/constraints</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate finances</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unplanned/ overcrowded camps</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of criminals in camp/ hostility of locals</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of medical care</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor reporting systems</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few technical personnel</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of basic needs - housing privacy and others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor coordination between government and IDPs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor weather patterns</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

The story of one respondent helps to highlight constraints at the Kirathimo IDP Camp:

"I was raped, . . . . I was bleeding heavily. There was no one to report to. No medical care....I had no food and no financial help....I have not reported to anybody..." (Respondent at Kirathimo IDP Camp; September, 2009).

Although the respondents had earlier been asked about the challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls at the camp, a total of twelve challenges were read to them for them to indicate whether or not they were affecting efforts to address sexual violence against women and/or girls in the IDP Camp. The respondents had the opportunity of giving several responses and as such, it was a multiple response question. Data in table 4.8 below show that respondents were unanimous about several challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence. These challenges included; raging wars and
political disturbances, disintegration of families, lack of resources among the victims of sexual violence, lack of reliable statistics on sexual violence, lack of normal policing and proper security, poorly planned and/or administered camps, insufficient and unsatisfactory human resource factors and insufficient/unsatisfactory physical resource and/or services, lack of a properly functioning Criminal Justice System and absence of border controls. Conflict between cultures of different groups in the society and retrogressive cultural beliefs and practices were mentioned by a minority of the respondents.

Table 4.8: Constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls at Kirathimo 11)1' camp as mentioned by respondents after prompting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges/constraints</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Raging wars and political disturbances</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disintegration of families</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of resources among the victims of sexual violence</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of reliable statistics on sexual violence</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of normal policing and proper security</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poorly planned and/or administered camps</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient and unsatisfactory human resource factors</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient and unsatisfactory physical resource and/or services</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of properly functioning Criminal Justice System</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of border controls</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict between cultures of different groups in the society</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrogressive cultural beliefs and practices</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data, 2009.

The same respondents were then offered the opportunity to mention how the challenges could be addressed. There were six responses on ways of addressing the challenges. What stands out as given in Figure 7 below is the provision of basic needs. It had also been clearly mentioned that there was need to have proper planning at the camp and involve government security forces in the protection of IDPs at the camp. Other ways of addressing the challenges
included; provision of family tents, establishment of recovery centres and involvement of IDPs in resettlement process.

**Figure 7: Ways of addressing constraints/challenges affecting efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls**

![Graph showing ways of addressing constraints/challenges](image)

Source: Primary data, 2009.

### 4.7 Key Informant Interviews

This study utilized key informants to collect more data on the subject. Interviews with the key informants provided qualitative data which was used in the interpretation and analysis of the data. A total of three informants were interviewed and the findings are presented in the section that follows.

#### 4.7.1 District Officer (D.O) - Limuru

The D.O began by saying that IDPs at the Camp were looking pathetic since they had been removed from their families and were living in unfamiliar grounds where family ties had been seriously severed. The officer added that some IDPs were already HIV positive at the time they were fleeing their original homes due to tights. Unfortunately, there were no ARVs at Kirathimo Camp since the Government had not anticipated the situation to be able to make any prior arrangements for medication. Faced with the lack of medical care and proper diet, most women and girl IDPs had lost hope in life and had resorted to exchanging sex for
foodstuffs. Volunteer workers were reported to coerce women and girls to exchange sex for security and food. Some girls opted for early marriages in order to have shelter rather than languish in camps. The interview with the D.O indicated that some IDPs had reported being raped during the flight period at their original homes and at the Camp.

According to the officer, a number of challenges faced efforts to assist the IDPs at the Camp. IDPs faced both attempted and real rape from rapists who were locals in the areas surrounding the Kirathimo Camp. Even the locals who were commercial sex workers and those with Sexually Transmitted Diseases masqueraded as IDPs thus complicating the rescue plans. The women and girls at the Camp who had become victims of sexual violence were not helping authorities to address the problem in that most of them had opted to keep quiet after being violated due to fear and stigmatization. Other victims did not know what to do after violation and opted to submit to further violation.

According to reports received by provincial administrators, many men who realized that their wives had been raped decided to beat them up and send them away. This had then prompted the sexually violated women and girls to just keep to them any abuse. Others who happened to get pregnant from the rape ordeals decided to secretly procure abortions using crude methods. There were also reports of isolated cases of suicide related to rape. The sexual violence incidents had led to the breakdown of families and wife and girl battering had increased due to stress and idleness of the men in the Camp. Another challenge had been posed by the distribution of relief money to the IDPs. Many men with loose morals became more sexually active and went out to abuse alcohol and seek the services of commercial sex workers. This behavior increased conflicts within families, men battering women and many wives took off for fear of contacting HIV/AIDS.

The D.O said that there were more challenges encountered in addressing sexual violence at the IDP Camp included: lack of financial and personnel resources; lack of adequate space for the Camp; lack of activities to keep IDPs busy; lack of schools for school going children; difficulties in the identification of genuine IDPs; lack of reporting mechanisms after incidents of sexual violence; overwhelming number of traumatized, injured and sickly IDPs; lack of
basic resources like medicines, water, too much time used in solving internal domestic disputes; crime within and outside the camp; controlling commercial sex and eventual spread of HIV/AIDS; interested groups pretending to be helping yet using IDPs to get external funding for own use; lack of regulations in the camp where outsiders are not vetted and makeshift sleeping arrangements for both women and men sleeping under one tent or out in the open. Information received at the D.O's office from some parents indicated that some women were involved in sex business in Narok where some IDPs had come from and that they were HIV positive. The parents feared that the women would spread the virus to unsuspecting men in the Camp.

The D.O indicated that within the first week of receiving reports of infiltration of commercial sex workers in the Camp, his security team had sent away from the Camp six women who had been reported to be commercial sex workers. Security agents in the area intensified security to ensure the safety of women and girls. More security officers were deployed to patrol during late hours of the night in an effort to ward off potential thieves and commercial sex workers. More lighting was also provided in the Camp and the number of tents was increased for families with others being pitched at a nearby church called 'Word of Faith' which mostly catered for girls' accommodation. More separate tents for boys and girls were also pitched. Unlike before, efforts were made to separate women and men who were not couples. Family counselors were brought in to talk to them especially in the area of safe sex. Voluntary Counselling and Testing Centres were established within the Camp and groups were sensitized on avoiding sexual violence. The District Security Committee ordered for a change of Red Cross Officers from the locals to new ones after it was established that the locals were involved in sexual harassment against the IDP women and girls in exchange of basic commodities. There have efforts to provide post-attack treatment to victims of sexual violence and arrested criminals in the Camp are arraigned in law courts for prosecution and sentencing. There is also a close collaboration between IDPs, provincial administration and churches in the provision of essentials in the Camp.
4.7.2 Official of the Kenya Internally Displaced People Association (KIDIPAJ-Limuru)

The official began by mentioning that the IDPs at the Kirathimo Camp did not know each other since they had come from different parts of the country. They were however predominantly from the Kikuyu ethnic community and had run away from their original homes following political disturbances witnessed after the 2007 General Elections. Upon landing at the Camp, all the IDPs were grouped together regardless of age or marital status. Since tents had no privacy, couples did not have privacy and ended up seeing one another outside the tents at night. People could walk in and out of different tents freely and this became dangerous as women and girls could be pulled away by rapists. During the earlier days of the Camp, many men went back to their original homes to see what they could salvage. Their wives were left vulnerable and were easy prey to other men in and outside the camp. Some women and girls exchanged sex for basic commodities. Others were driven by peer pressure since there was no privacy and could see others in the tents in compromising positions. There were temptations from other women to cohabit with men outside the camps where they could sleep on beds.

Life in the Camp has not been smooth for families. Many women divorced their husbands out of desperations. The women felt that the men were of no value since they were all under the same camp circumstances where the men also could not provide food or security for their families. Displaced men were bitter and passed their frustrations to wives and children. There were many cases of rape especially because toilets were outside the Camp and there was no adequate security and lighting. The raped women and girls who did not report the heinous acts within the minimum of 72 hours were highly exposed to HIV/AIDS infection. Life in the Camp has been that of survival in a morally unacceptable way. Due to idleness and lack of necessities, young girls were exchanging sex for as little as fifty shillings. Impoverishment and stigmatization had forced women and girls to adopt a "don't care attitude" and prostitution had became rife in the Camp. The situation was compounded by the fact that strange men disguised themselves as IDPs and the structures at the Camp were unable to keep out potential rapists. Men were also going out with commercial sex workers due to idleness, crowding in the tents and lack of privacy for sex. Perpetrators take advantage of loose laws and impunity among sex offenders. A precarious scenario is that sexual partners
outside marriage refuse to use condoms and their wives too refuse to sleep with them and men end up raping their wives. Others fear pregnancies under the prevailing conditions and this was leading to rape. The official went further to observe that the government had not foreseen the problem of sexual harassment. Therefore, most resources had been directed towards food and there were no arrangements made for essentials such as VCTs, hospitals and condoms.

As a remedy to the problems facing IDPs at the Kirathimo Camp the KIDIPA official had the following recommendations: The Government needed to be prepared for such eventuality and provide proper organized centres for those escaping political disturbances; hospitals, water and security were paramount; IDPs needed to be involved in the resettlement programme; there was need to create and raise the levels of awareness and proper reporting mechanisms in the event of sexual violence since lack of the same had interfered with the accuracy of the number of abused women and girls and hence difficulty to seek adequate help bearing in mind that many women came out to report when infected, pregnant or when a miscarriage occurred; it was imperative to take stock of the IDPs' needs and their required essential commodities; the protection of IDP Camp women and girls needed to be enhanced; impunity in Kenya had to be dealt with regardless of the status of the perpetrators and reconciliation of communities should be encouraged to avoid such a scenario in future.

4.7.3 Area Chief- Limuru

The administrator observed that the problem of sexual violence was not openly discussed as the victims in particular and society in general believed it was shameful. The Chief added that he had received information to the effect that some women and girls had been sexually violated while in their original farms before even fleeing to Kirathimo Camp. As the grassroots government representative, he had first intervened in the problem of IDPs by helping in the establishment of the Camp soon after the displaced persons flocked into the area from different parts of the country following ethnic conflicts arising from the disputed presidential elections of December 2007.
The Chief indicated that addressing the problem of sexual violence in the Camp had a number of challenges. He observed that desperate mothers were exchanging their young daughters for food. The mothers were releasing them secretly at night to go out with men for sex and return in the morning with money to buy food and it was difficult controlling such a behavior. The women also offered the underage girls for marriage thus negatively affecting the education of the girls who had to drop out of school on becoming wives. The marriage institution at the Camp suffered a blow especially during the early days of the Camp because many women denied their men conjugal rights who they accused of prostituting with commercial sex workers and other women whose husbands had been left behind at their original homes or had been killed during the fighting.

According to the Chief, efforts to bring to book the perpetrators of sexual violence were hampered by lack of evidence and unwillingness of people to volunteer evidence and/or information on the same acts of violence. Some victims could not recognize their attackers and it therefore became difficult to report the cases to the police because there was a problem of identification of suspects as the crime was conducted in darkness. Even where the criminals had been identified, the victims were too shocked and embarrassed to pursue the criminal case. Many cases went unreported and the few that were ever reported were only reported when the victim became pregnant or was infected with a Sexually Transmitted Infection.

To address the problem lacing the IDPs, the Chief was occasionally organizing public meetings in the Camp to enlighten the displaced persons of the government plans to relocate them to their original farms and other safer areas, lie was also assisting by helping in the distribution of relief food to the IDPs. Through his efforts, some of them had been accommodated by the locals in their homes as a temporary measure. The Chief thought that the problem of IDPs in Kenya had to be addressed by all political leaders through dialogue since it was the politicians who had failed in their part to strongly unite the different communities in their areas.
4.7.4 Inferences from key informants

The views of the key informants strongly corroborated those of the sample respondents on the problem of sexual violence against women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru. The views confirmed that:

1. Sexual violence against women and girls existed at the Kirathimo IDP Camp.

2. Women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp encountered a number of forms/types of sexual violence, the prominent ones being rape, battering/beating, sexual slavery and exploitation.

3. Sexual violence has a number of effects on the victims and these include; pain/injury, spread of HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, abandonment of abused women by their husbands, low self esteem, stigmatization or depression, abortions and/or miscarriages, trauma and broken marriages.

4. A number of intervention strategies were in place to address sexual violence against women and girls. These strategies included counseling victims, meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps, awareness campaigns on the problem of sexual violence, mobilizing financial and other resources to deal with the problem of IDPs and establishment of security systems.

5. Addressing sexual violence against women and girls faced challenges/constraints, the prominent ones being: disintegration of families, lack of resources among the victims of sexual violence, lack of reliable statistics on sexual violence, poorly planned and/or administered camps, poor reporting systems, presence of criminals in camp/hostility of locals and insufficient and unsatisfactory physical resource and/or services.

6. Constraints/challenges facing efforts aimed at curbing sexual violence could be addressed by both state and non-state agencies in ways such as relocating IDPs to their original farms and other safer areas, dealing with impunity in Kenya regardless of the status of the perpetrators, creating and raising the levels of awareness, proper reporting mechanisms and taking stock of the IDPs' needs and their required essential commodities.
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the major findings of this study and to draw conclusions based on the same results. It also provided some recommendations thought to be useful in policy formulation and implementation and proposed some areas of further research.

5.2 Summary of Findings
This study set out to establish the key aspects of post-election sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru. The specific objectives were: to identify the types/forms and effects of sexual violence faced by women and girls in the IDP Camps; to establish the coping mechanisms used by the victims of sexual violence; to establish the constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps and to establish intervention strategies that have been used to address sexual violence against women and girls in the IDP camps.

The findings of this study indicated that women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp faced a number of forms/types of sexual violence such as battery, rape, exploitation, female genital mutilation, early and/or forced marriages, torture, sexual slavery, trafficking, disappearances, illegal detention with or without the consent of family members, discrimination and abduction/kidnap and forced removal from families and homes. The same results showed that sexually violated women and girls at the Camp suffered effects of the vice which included contracting HIV/AIDS, bw self esteem, stigmatization or depression, unwanted pregnancies, abortions and/or miscarriages, pain/injury, trauma and death.

The findings of the study further showed that there were sexual violence coping mechanisms used by women and girls in the IDP Camp and these included seeking medical
attention/going for VCT services, keeping quiet, reporting to relevant authorities, running away from the attacker, seeking alternative housing, procuring abortion, flight from camp to safer areas, resisting their attackers, submitting to sex to gain favors and disregarding own wellbeing by intentionally venturing into risky behaviours. However, the study found out that there were intervention strategies employed to address sexual violence against women and girls in the Camp. These strategies included: provision of security, improvement of camp lighting, involving group leaders in problem solving, forcing abusers out of the Camp, assisting in repatriation and resettlement and meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps.

The findings of the study also showed that the efforts to address the problem faced a number of challenges/constraints which included inadequate finances, presence of criminals in camp, hostility of locals, lack of medical care, poor reporting systems, few technical personnel, lack of basic needs, poor coordination between government and IDPs, corruption, poor weather patterns, lack of normal policing and proper security, poorly planned and/or administered camp, insufficient and unsatisfactory human resource factors and insufficient/unsatisfactory physical resource and/or services. From the findings, these constraints/challenges could be addressed through proper planning at the camp, involving government security forces in the protection of IDPs at the camp, provision of family tents, establishment of recovery centres and involvement of IDPs in the resettlement process.

5.3 Discussion of Major Findings

This part of the research study discusses the major findings of the study based on the specific objectives and in line with the literature that was reviewed on the subject.

5.3.1 Types/forms and effects of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP Camps

One of the concerns of this study was to identify the types/forms and effects of sexual violence faced by women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp. Concerning the forms/types of sexual violence, most of the respondents and key informants said that woman and girl battering/beating was the highest ranked form/type of sexual violence faced by women and
girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp. Other forms/types of sexual violence in the order of highest to lowest rank were rape, exploitation, female genital mutilation, early and/or forced marriages, torture, sexual slavery, trafficking, disappearances, illegal detention with or without the consent of family members, discrimination and abduction/kidnap and forced removal from families and homes. These findings were found to be consistent with the findings by Vlachova and Biaso (2005) which showed that the same types/forms of sexual violence were found among displaced persons in war-torn countries. The implication of this finding is that women and girls at Kirathimo IDP Camp had been subjected to situations characteristic of war countries yet Kenya was not at any war. This finding supports earlier studies indicating that Kenya continued to face widespread incidents of violence in general and sexual violence in particular (even after the passage of the Sexual Offences Act in 2006) in the form of rape, child sexual abuse and domestic violence targeting women and girls in particular. As noted by Kenya IDP Agency (2008), an estimated 300 women (many of them women and girls who had travelled from Rift Valley Province to Nairobi) were treated for rape caused by post-election violence in the early months of year 2008.

This study went further to establish the effects of sexual violence faced by women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp. As was reported by the majority of the respondents, the highest ranked effects included; loss of or damaged self-esteem, spread of HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, abortions/miscarriages, complications associated with miscarriages, injuries such as vaginal destruction, trauma, abandonment of wives and broken marriages, separation from the rest of the family, dropping out of school among school going girls, anxiety, rejection of the victim by other members of the community, being maimed and disregard for one's own wellbeing. The lowest ranked effect was loss of property, followed by forced pregnancy and then, death (through suicide and murder). As observed by UNFPA et al. (2008), sexual violence has numerous side effects to women and girls ranging from physical, psychological and emotional effects. The vice is therefore a hindrance in the attainment of quality life among women and girls. As noted by IRIN (2004), sexual violation of women erodes the fabric of a community in a way that few weapons can. This implied that stakeholders needed to put in place programmes that would safeguard the dignity of women and girls in especially difficult living environments such as displacement camps.
5.3.2 Coping mechanisms

Another objective of this study was to establish the coping mechanisms used by the victims of sexual violence at the Kirathimo IDP Camp. According to the results of the study, victims of sexual violence used coping mechanisms such as seeking medical attention going for VCT services, reporting to relevant authorities, running away from the attacker, seeking alternative housing, flight from camp to safer areas and resisting their attackers. The implication of this study is that sexually violated women and girls in IDP camps should be encouraged to assess their prevailing circumstances and to try as much as possible to use these positive coping mechanisms when faced with threats of or actual situations of sexual violence. The findings of this study are in tandem with findings from studies conducted here in Kenya and in other countries. For instance, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, anmar and Somalia, refugee families seek refuge for fear of rape or after rape ordeals; and in Liberia, women who had been raped have sought safety in other camps for internally displaced persons (IDPs). In Kenya, for example, some internally displaced persons and some girls who had been raped during the post-election violence presented themselves for mental healthcare, psychological care and support and continuation with the HIV post exposure prophylaxis (PEP) programmes from Machakos District Hospital and the Nairobi Women's Hospital (PI IIR, 2002; UNFPA et al., 2008; Nairobi Women's Hospital, 2008; Machakos District Hospital, 2008).

A finding of the study indicated that some victims of sexual violence used negative mechanisms to cope with the problem. These coping mechanisms include keeping quiet, procuring abortion, submitting to sex to gain favors and disregarding own wellbeing by intentionally venturing into risky behaviours. There are numerous studies that help to show that the negative coping mechanisms at Kirathimo Camp are not unique from others in the world. For instance, in Burundi, displaced widows reportedly often had no choice but to resort to multiple sexual relations in order to support themselves and their children; in Nepal, some women without prospects for the future resort to prostitution as the only viable option; and in Sierra Leone, some women and girls who previously had been abducted by rebels voluntarily became prostitutes after they were released by their captors (Benton, 2004; UNFPA, 2005; UNI ICR, 2005). When such negative mechanisms are used, they become a minus to the successful elimination or reduction of sexual violence against internally
displaced women and girls in a country. The mechanisms worsen the situation in that other problems such as spread of HIV/AIDS and further moral degradation in IDP camps become more likely. These findings therefore emphasize the need to create more awareness among victims of sexual violence on the use of positive coping mechanisms as opposed to the negative ones.

5.3.3 Intervention strategies used

Another concern of this study was to establish intervention strategies that have been used to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps. When the respondents were asked to mention the strategies used to address sexual violence against women and girls at the Kirathimo Camp, the majority of them mentioned the provision of security and improvement of camp lighting as the key strategies. When a set of eleven strategies were read to the respondents to approve of or disapprove of the strategy in relation to use in the Camp, the two strategies that were approved by every respondent were; establishment of security systems and assisting in repatriation and resettlement. From the reports of respondents and key informants, most incidents of rape occurred in darkness and that was the reason victims could not easily identify their attackers. These findings helped to show that security in IDP camps was of utmost importance and that it was wanting in most of the camps. The findings were therefore a call to those involved in the IDP problem to ensure that all camps were secured. According to UNI ICR (2005), the UNHCR had to organize security patrols within refugee and IDP camps, fence the camps with thorn bushes and relocate the most vulnerable women to safer areas in the war-torn countries where the organization was operating. The strategy of repatriation and resettlement is deemed critical in addressing problems in IDP camps and that was why the Government of Kenya had set aside 1.3 billion and 2.2 billion Kenya Shillings during the 2007/08 and 2009/2010 fiscal years respectively for the resettlement of IDPs (APRM, 2008; OIICFIR, 2008; Daily Nation, September 11, 2009).

According to findings of the study, the other two strategies that were largely mentioned by the respondents included; criminalizing the various types of sexual violence and meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps. Other strategies in use at the Camp included;
mobilizing financial and other resources to deal with the problem of IDPs; awareness campaigns on the problem of sexual violence; creation of response centres and/or staffing them with skilled officers; ensuring that children are in school; providing legal services to victims; offering compensation to sexually abused women and/or girls and engaging in efforts aimed at eradicating political violence. These findings therefore imply that addressing sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps has to encompass more than one strategy especially due to the unique and diverse life circumstances in the camps. This has been the practice in other countries as clearly observed in studies by UNHCR (2005), UNICEF (2005), UNFPA et al. (2008), Kenya IDP Agency (2008), OHCHR (2008) and APRM (2008).

The findings of this study revealed further that the strategies to address sexual violence in IDP camps had been employed by a number of stakeholders. According to the majority of the respondents and key informants, the Government of Kenya was the number one stakeholder involved in solving the problem. This can be attributed to the lead role that the government assumed in the IDP situation and the fact that it was the sole provider of state security. The government was then followed by Red Cross and other NGOs and churches. According to the findings, the others who had made contributions included friends and relatives, camp leaders and well wishers. The implication of these findings is that the problem of sexual violence against women and girls in particular and the IDP problem in general have to enlist the support of both state and non-state agencies if it is to be addressed effectively. This explains the reason why organizations such as the Red Cross and Kenya IDP Agency had continued to provide humanitarian assistance in terms of relief food and medical aid (Kenya IDP Agency, 2008; UNFPA et al., 2008; OHCHR, 2008). Recently, 204 internally displaced families in Naivasha District benefited from building materials worth 30 thousand Kenya Shillings each from Goal Ireland International. Goal Ireland International, in collaboration with UNHCR and the government, has carried out a resettlement programme through the provision of shelter to hundreds of refugees across the country at a cost of 80 million Kenya Shillings towards resettlement of IDPs. The Chinese Government has donated iron sheets worth 200 million Kenya Shillings (Daily Nation, September 11, 2009; Daily Nation, September 18,
2009). The government was intervening for example by settling IDPs on the late Presidentkenyatta's family land in Nakuru District (Daily Nation, October 20, 2009).

5.3.4 Constraints/ challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps

The study went further to establish the constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps. The results showed that inadequate finances were the major stumbling block towards the realization of stoppage or reduction of sexual violence against women and girls. It was recently revealed that some con men were using IDPs as cash cows for they were diverting into their pockets funds meant to assist IDPs making the remaining funds inadequate for the intended purposes. The government has been distributing to each IDP family 35'thousand Kenya Shillings for resettlement but this amount has been termed as grossly inadequate (Daily Nation, October 6, 2009). The other major constraints were the existence of unplanned and/or overcrowded camps, the presence of criminals in camp/ hostility of locals and lack of medical care.

After further prompting of the respondents on constraints thought to affect efforts to address the problem of sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps, all the respondents mentioned raging wars and political disturbances as one of the constraints. This finding supports recent findings by UNHCR which showed that Kenya had 404,000 IDPs and that the rise in IDPs in East Africa was blamed on strife (Daily Nation, October 8, 2009). The UNHCR estimated the total number of people displaced by armed conflict in 2004 at 34 million, out of which 25 million were internally displaced in their home countries (UNHCR, 2005). This finding is therefore a caution to governments to ensure that incidents of political disturbances are minimized in order to guard against the emergence of IDPs and the resultant effect of sexual violence. Other constraints mentioned by all the respondents included; disintegration of families, lack of resources among the victims of sexual violence, lack of reliable statistics on sexual violence, lack of normal policing and proper security, poorly planned and/or administered camps, insufficient and unsatisfactory human resource factors and insufficient/ unsatisfactory physical resource and/or services. The lack of a properly functioning Criminal Justice System and absence of border controls was mentioned by a
arge majority of the respondents while conflict between cultures of different groups in the society and retrogressive cultural beliefs and practices were mentioned by a minority of the respondents.

All in all, the findings of this study on the constraints facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps are consistent with earlier findings from both within and outside Kenya as shown by the following examples: IASC (2005) found that the disintegration of families in Burundi in 2003 was a challenge in addressing sexual violence; Kenya IDP Agency (2008) and IJNFPA et al. (2008) reported that in the early stages of camp development at the Nakuru showgrounds in 2008, community members took girls from the camp to serve as domestic helps due to lack of basic needs and resources within IDP families, thereby increasing their risk of sexual exploitation; According to UNICpF (2005), poor or unequal access to resources all conspired to increase the likelihood of sexual violence against women and girls in seven IDP camps in Montserrado County in Liberia in 2004; UNICEF et al. (2004) observed that the absence of border controls and normal policing made conflict-affected countries prime routes for traffickers. This factor was worsened by delayed security provision and lack of regulations in the IDP camps allowing men from outside to enter unchecked by camp officials; Nduna and Goodyear (1997) and Ochieng (2005) partly blamed the sexual violation of refugee women and girls in Kenya on ill-considered camp design; Benton (2004) found a pattern of sexual exploitation by peacekeepers personnel in the DRC; Amnesty International (2004) observed that insufficient and unsatisfactory physical resources and/or services had been dedicated to addressing sexual violence in post-conflict East Timor and Kosovo, while among internally displaced women in Colombia, over two-thirds of women interviewed reported that reproductive-health services were difficult to access.

The study identified a number of ways of addressing constraints/challenges facing efforts to curb sexual violence against women and girls in IDP camps. Most of the respondents mentioned the provision of basic needs as the number one way of addressing the constraints. This was a pointer that the sexual violence and other criminal activities carried out at the Kirathimo Camp may have been as a result of lack of basic essentials like food, shelter and
money that may be a gateway to other essentials like socialization. This finding explains the reason why the government, through the Ministry of Special Programmes and other beholders have been distributing humanitarian assistance in form of food, blankets, tents, jilding materials, medicine and resettlement finances to IDP camps in different parts of the country (Daily Nation, October 6, 2009; Daily Nation, September 18, 2009).

The study found out that the other ways to address the constraints were; having proper planning at the camp, involving government security forces in the protection of IDPs at the camp, provision of family tents, establishment of recovery centres and involvement of IDPs in the resettlement process. Mass media reports have however indicated that IDP camps are not well secured and that was why criminals were able to enter the camps and commit crimes such as raping women and girls. There have been reports of IDPs protesting government plans to move them out of the camps claiming that adequate land had first to be identified for them before leaving the IDP camps. The IDPs also argue that they have not been fully involved in the process while others have been complaining that the 35 thousand Kenya Shillings given to them for resettlement was inadequate. For example, 2500 IDPs in Nandi Central skipped the 2009 Kenyatta Day Celebrations over non-payment of the cash and for what they termed being sidelined by the Provincial Administration in government arrangements to pay those who had returned to their farms (Daily Nation. October 8, 2009; Daily Nation, October 21, 2009). These findings therefore call for a comprehensive programme able to address the problem of IDPs if sexual violence occurring in the camps is to be curtailed.

5.4 Conclusions

The results of this study indicated that women and girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp encountered various forms/types of sexual violence. The types/forms of this violence were battery, rape, exploitation, female genital mutilation, early and/ or forced marriages, torture, sexual slavery, trafficking, disappearances, illegal detention with or without the consent of family members, discrimination and abduction/ kidnap and forced removal from families and homes. Further findings of the study showed that sexually violated women and girls in IDP camps suffered effects such as contracting HIV/AIDS, low self esteem, somatization or
j.-pression, unwanted pregnancies, abortions and/or miscarriages, pain/injury, trauma and death. Based on these findings, this study concludes that the post-election violence and its consequent sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls was dehumanizing and a hindrance in the attainment of quality life among the women and girls in particular and the entire population of in the country in general. The vice has therefore to be eliminated at the earliest.

The findings of this study showed that sexually violated women and girls in IDP camps employed positive coping mechanisms such as seeking medical attention/going for VCT services, reporting to relevant authorities, running away from the attacker, seeking alternative housing, flight from camp to safer areas and resisting their attackers. The same results showed that a significant proportion of the victims employed negative coping mechanisms such as keeping quiet, procuring abortion, submitting to sex to gain favors and disregarding own wellbeing by intentionally venturing into risky behaviours. Therefore, drawing from the above results, this study inevitably concludes that the war against the vice and its effects on women and girls in IDP camps can only be successfully won if the victims stop employing the negative coping mechanisms and concentrate with the positive ones.

An examination of the results of this study indicates that both state and non-state stakeholders attempting to address sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps were using intervention strategies such as provision of security, improvement of camp lighting, involving group leaders in problem solving, forcing abusers out of camps, assisting in repatriation and resettlement and meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP camps. The study therefore concludes that dealing with the problem requires concerted efforts of both state and non-state actors and that the stakeholders need to take the identified strategies a notch higher as they are in a position to assist in controlling the vice. Importantly, the study concludes that the single most important and comprehensive intervention strategy required to address the problem is to repatriate and resettle IDPs back to their original farms because the other interventions will no longer be necessary when IDPs have left the camps.
Generally, the findings of this study indicated that efforts were being made to address the problem of sexual violence against internally displaced women and girls. However, it was found that inadequate finances, presence of criminals in camp, hostility of locals, lack of medical care, poor reporting systems, few technical personnel, lack of basic needs, poor coordination between government and IDPs, corruption, poor weather patterns, lack of normal policing and proper security, poorly planned and/or administered camp, insufficient and unsatisfactory human resource factors and insufficient/unsatisfactory physical resource and/or services were the constraints/challenges hammering the successful tackling of the vice. From these findings, it is concluded that constraints/challenges from both within and without IDP camps affect the efforts aimed at addressing sexual violence against internally displaced women and girls.

This study found out that the constraints/challenges affecting efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls could be tackled through proper planning at the camp, involving government security forces in the protection of IDPs at the camp, provision of family tents, establishment of recovery centres and involvement of IDPs in the resettlement process. On the basis of these results, it is concluded that stakeholders in the sexual violence menace have a number of viable ways through which the constraints/challenges could be addressed.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, several recommendations and suggestions are made in the "attempt to address the problem of sexual violence against internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps.

5.5.1 Policy Recommendations

The study found out that internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps faced many forms/types of sexual violence. This vice was dehumanizing and degradation to quality life of the women and girls. This study therefore recommends that awareness be created on the violations the post-election violence internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps encounter because post-election violence and IDP camps are new phenomena in Kenya. The
Victims of the violence should also be made aware of the importance to employ only positive coping mechanisms such as seeking medication immediately after the acts of violence and to report the perpetrators of the violence to government authorities.

In order to address the plight of internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps, it is recommended that government and its partners take urgent measures to secure all IDP camps and provide the basic needs of the IDPs as a temporary and immediate measure in order to guard against further violations. As a long-term measure, it is recommended that adequate resources be sourced and all IDPs repatriated and resettled back in their original farms or other safer areas.

Most of the forms of sexual violence the internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps encounter are offences spelt out in the Sexual Offences Act of 2006. This therefore means that the Act has not been fully enforced by the players in the Criminal Justice System and especially the Police Department which is responsible for the arrest and prosecution of the crime’s perpetrators. It is therefore recommended that the government moves in to ensure that the Act is fully operational if perpetrators of sexual violence are to stop committing such offences.

5.5.2 Recommendations for further Research

Since this study was confined to the dwellers of Kirathimo IDP Camp who are now moving out to settle in other places in the ongoing resettlement programme, rapid assessment studies could be undertaken in other IDP camps in the country in order to establish the magnitude of sexual violence in the camps so that a comprehensive intervention strategy and policy is formulated for elimination of the problem.

This study was focused on sexual violence against the internally displaced women and girls in IDP camps. It would be of interest to researchers to try and establish if there exists sexual violence against the internally displaced men and boys in IDP and refugee camps in Kenya. This is on the understanding that when social disorganization occurs in a society, it affects all members of the affected society and not only the women and girls.
Sexual violence is just one type of crime in society which might be happening in IDP and refugee camps. Future studies could undertake to investigate the existence and extent of other crimes in such camps. Eliminating one form of crime and failing to address others will not be sufficient in making life in camps harmonious.
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LOW are you today? My name is Mary Wahome and I am a postgraduate student at the University of Nairobi. I am undertaking a research study on "Key Aspects of Post-Election Sexual Violence against the Internally Displaced Women and Girls at the Kirathimo IDP Camp in Limuru, Kenya." I would like to ask you some questions related to the subject. The information I will collect from you will enable me to compile an academic project towards my Masters degree. It could also be used to advise relevant stakeholders in tiling the problem of sexual violence especially against the internally displaced women and girls. All the information you give will be treated in utmost confidence and your identity will not be revealed in my report. I would highly appreciate if you can spare some time to spend to the following questions.
Appendix 2: Interview schedule for sample respondents

RESPONDENT'S BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Age of Respondent in years.
   1. 20-29
   2. 30-39
   3. 40-49
   4. 50-59
   5. 60-69
   6. 70-79
   7. 80-89
   8. 90+

2. (a) Respondent's Tribe:
   (b) Respondent's district of permanent residence

3. Marital Status:
   1. Single/Never Married
   2. Married
   3. Divorced/Separated
   4. Widowed

4. Level of Education:
   1. None
   2. Primary
   3. Secondary 1-4
   4. Secondary 5-6
   5. University/College (Specify)
   6. Adult Literacy
   7. Other (Specify)

5. (a) Size of household:
   (b) Number of dependants in the family
   1. 0-2
   2. 3-5
   3. 6-9
   4. 10-12
   5. 13+

QUESTIONS ON TYPES/FORMS OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN
AND GIRLS IN IDP CAMPS

6. (a) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, is there sexual violence against
women and girls in this IDP Camp? 1. Yes 2. No. 3. I don't know

(b) If Yes in Q 6 (a) above, please list down the types/forms of sexual violence available in this camp?

(c) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, are the following types/forms of sexual violence against women and girls available in this IDP Camp? Use the following codes and tick your one selected response for each type/form. 1. Yes 2. No 3. I don't know

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types/forms of sexual violence</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Rape</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Battery</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Trafficking</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Exploitation</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Early and/or forced marriages</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Sexual slavery</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Illegal detention with or without the consent of family members</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Abduction/kidnap and forced removal from families and homes</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Disappearances</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Torture</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Discrimination</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Female Genital Mutilation</td>
<td>••</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) Please rank the types/forms of sexual violence listed in Q 6 (c) above in terms of their prevalence in this camp starting with the most prevalent?

2.  
3.  
4.  
5.  
6.  
7.  
8.  
9.  
10.  
11.  
12.  

7. (a) Please list down some of the effects of sexual violence against women and/or girls in this camp?
(b) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, are the following effects of sexual violence against women and girls witnessed in this LDP Camp? Use the following codes and tick your one selected response for each effect. 1. Yes 2. No 3. I don't know

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Spread of HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Unwanted pregnancies</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Disregard for one's own wellbeing</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Miscarriages</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Complications associated with miscarriages</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Injuries such as vaginal destruction</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Forced pregnancy</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Death (through suicide and murder)</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Being maimed</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Trauma</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Abandonment of wives and broken marriages</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Separation from the rest of the family</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>13. Anxiety</strong></td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Dropping out of school among school-going girls</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Loss of property to the sexual abuser</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Rejection of the victims by other members of the community</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(such as a husband after a wife is sexually abused by a non-husband)</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Loss of or damaged self-esteem (e.g by loss of virginity)</td>
<td>2 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTIONS ON COPING MECHANISMS USED BY WOMEN AM) GIRLS IN IDP CAMPS

8. (a) Do the sexually violated women and/or girls in the camp have any mechanisms to cope with the problem during and after it happens? 1. Yes 2. No 3. I don't know

Please explain____

(b) If Yes in Q8 (a) above, please list down soi

(c) If Yes in Q8 (a) above, please rank the coping mechanisms in terms of their use starting with the most used?
(d) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, are the following sexual violence coping mechanisms used in this IDP Camp? Use the following codes and tick your one selected response for each coping mechanism.  

1. Yes  
2. No  
3. I don't know

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping Mechanism</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Flight from the camp to safer areas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Submitting to sex in return for safe passage, food, shelter or other resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Confining in the camp</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Post-exposure treatment and counseling</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Resisting (e.g. by fighting) their attackers to ward them off</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Disregarding own wellbeing by intentionally venturing into risky behaviors (such as prostitution, drug abuse)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(e) Please rank the coping mechanisms listed in Q 8 (d) above in terms of how used they are in this camp starting with the most used?

1.  
2.  
3.  
4.  
5.  
6.  

QUESTIONS ON INTERVENTION STRATEGIES USED TO ADDRESS SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS IN IDP CAMPS

9. (a) Are there any intervention strategies used to address sexual violence against women and girls in this IDP camp?  

1. Yes  
2. No  
3. I don't know  

Please explain

(b) If Yes in Q9 (a) above, please list down some of the intervention strategies used?
(c) If Yes in Q9 (a) above, please list down those who are behind the intervention strategies used?

(d) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, are the following intervention strategies used in this IDP Camp? Use the following codes and tick your one selected response for each strategy. 1. Yes 2. No 3. I don't know

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy used</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Establishment of security systems (e.g. by securing the IDP Camps by deploying security forces or fencing them)</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Providing legal services to victims</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Offering compensation to sexually abused women and/or girls</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Meeting basic needs of the persons in IDP Camps</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Assistance in repatriation and resettlement</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Criminalizing the various types of sexual violence</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Awareness campaigns on the problem of sexual violence</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Creation of Response Centres and/or staffing them with skilled officers</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Mobilizing financial and other resources to deal with the problem of IDPs</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Efforts aimed at eradicating political violence</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Ensuring that children are in school</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(e) Please rank the intervention strategies listed in Q 9 (d) above in terms of how used they are in this camp starting with the most used?

2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.

QUESTIONS ON CONSTRAINTS/CHALLENGES FACING EFFORTS TO ADDRESS SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS IN IDP CAMPS

10. (a) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, are there constraints/challenges
lacing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in this IDP Camp?
1. Yes  2. No.  3. I don’t know

(b) If Yes in QIO (a) above, please list down some of the constraints/challenges?

(c) If Yes in QIO (a) above, please rank the constraints/challenges in terms of their seriousness starting with the most serious? •

(d) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, are the following constraints/challenges affecting efforts to address sexual violence against women and/or girls in this IDP Camp? Use the following codes and tick your one selected response for each constraint/challenge. 1. Yes  2. No  3. I don’t know

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraints/challenges</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Raging wars and political disturbances</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Disintegration of families</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Lack of resources among the victims of sexual violence</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Absence of border controls</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lack of normal policing and proper security</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Poorly planned and/or administered camps</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Insufficient and unsatisfactory human resource factors</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Insufficient and unsatisfactory physical resources and/or services</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Lack of a properly functioning Criminal Justice System</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Retrogressive cultural beliefs and practices</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Conflict between the cultures of different groups in the society</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Lack of reliable statistics on sexual violence (against women and</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the girl child in countries undergoing internal displacement)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. How can constraints/challenges affecting efforts to address sexual violence against women and/or girls in this IDP Camp be addressed?

12. Give any other relevant comments

Thank you and stay well.
Appendix 3: Interview guide for Key Informants

1. (a) Based on your own knowledge, is there sexual violence against women and girls in this IDP Camp? 1. Yes 2. No. 3. I don't know

   (b) If Yes, please list down the types/forms of sexual violence available in this camp?

2. (a) Do the sexually violated women and/or girls in this camp have any mechanisms to cope with the problem during and after it happens? 1. Yes 2. No. 3. I don't know

   Please explain.

   (b) If Yes, please list down some of the coping mechanisms?

3. (a) Are there any intervention strategies used to address sexual violence against women and girls in this IDP camp? 1. Yes 2. No. 3. I don't know

   Please explain.

   (b) If Yes, please list down some of the intervention strategies used?

4. (a) Based on your own knowledge and/or experience, are there constraints/challenges facing efforts to address sexual violence against women and girls in this IDP Camp? 1. Yes 2. No. 3. I don't know

   (b) If Yes, please list down some of the constraints/challenges?

5. How can constraints/challenges affecting efforts to address sexual violence against women and/or girls in this IDP Camp be addressed?

6. Give any other relevant comments

Thank you and stay well.
## Vppcnś Í: Budget

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Total cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1</strong> Proposal development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>3,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>3,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photocopying</td>
<td>2,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2</strong> Data collection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>4,000.00</td>
</tr>
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<td>Research Assistant (s)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Photocopying</td>
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<td>Travelling costs</td>
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<td></td>
<td>54,000.00</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>3</strong> Data analysis</td>
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<td>Computer Analysis Costs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4</strong> Report compilation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>2,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photocopying</td>
<td>4,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binding</td>
<td>3,500.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19,000.00</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL COST</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>93,000.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>