

**EFFECTS OF REFUGEES' ENCAMPMENT POLICY ON LIVELIHOODS OF
REFUGEE YOUTHS IN KAKUMA REFUGEE CAMP, KENYA**

BY

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has never been presented for any award or degree in any other university.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother, Magdaline Apondi for her support, my wife, Judith Akinyi for her patience, and my children Fidel Castro and Sidney Happer for their inspiration.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome.
HRW	Human Rights Watch
ILO	International Labour Organization
INEE	Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies
NGOs	Non Governmental Organisation
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
PRRO	Protracted Relief and Recovery Operations
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
RSD	Refugee Status Determination
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
USCRI	United States Committee for Refugees and Immigrants
USD	United States Dollars
WFP	World Food Programme

ABSTRACT

Human displacement is a product of conflict the world over. Some people who are displaced as a result of conflicts seek asylum in foreign countries. Some countries such as Kenya, Djibouti, Democratic Republic of Congo, Jordan etc who accept to host asylum seekers, place them in camps under a policy of encampment entered into with the approval of the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) ostensibly to make provision of emergency humanitarian assistance to the affected population easy. Often times such camps are conceived and perceived as temporary transit points for the refugees and would be in existence for no more than five years (emergency period). Experience has, however, shown that refugee camps can be in existence for more than twenty years and due to failure to anticipate this, generations of refugees lead dependent, frustrated, stressful and hopeless lives. This study was intended to assess the effects of encampment on refugee youths' livelihood in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya. It was guided by the following objectives: To determine the level at which encampment policy affects refugee youths' economic self-reliance; to establish the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' (formal) education; and to assess the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' health in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya. Causal-comparative research design was adopted for the study and a combination of multi-stage cluster and stratified sampling was used to pick a sample totaling 380 respondents. Quantitative data was collected by research aided questionnaires. Factorial comparative analysis of effects of encampment on refugee youths' livelihood was done on descriptive statistics such as mean, frequencies, percentages and variance. Rank analysis was done on effects of various nature. The quantitative data was transcribed, organized into the various thematic areas of the study and reported in a narrative format. Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for Social Science were used as tools for data analysis. The study found that encampment policy has composite effects on refugee youths' livelihoods and more specifically on their ability to achieve economic self-reliance, acquisition of not only basic but also quality formal education and their mental and preventive health. The study recommended measures that can be undertaken to mitigate encampment's effects on the youths including construction of more schools and provision of more material resources and trained teachers; prioritization of secondary and tertiary education to alleviate effects on youths' education; investing more on the economic empowerment of refugees by facilitating them to establish income-generating activities; recruiting more counselors to provide counseling to refugees and initiating 'accelerated' education programme to provide education to 'mature' learners and to engage more children and youth in the arts, music, sports and cultural activities. Suggestions for further research were given to establish effects of encampment on socio-cultural fabric of the refugee population living in Kakuma, study policies applied by other states and how they impact different segments of the refugee population and also to conduct a similar study in Daadab, Kenya.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Displacement is a global problem. Due to conflicts ó especially armed conflicts, - people get uprooted from their homelands and move away in search of asylum for safety and security as well as livelihood support. They become refugees in foreign countries and given that many states ó especially developing ones - fear to integrate asylum seekers among their populations, they, in conjunction with United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) set up camps where the displaced people are received, provided with shelter and food. Thus encampment has become a de facto policy and refugees are confined to camps for long periods of time ó even over twenty years.

However, states like the USA and Canada do not partake in the policy of encampment. They practice a policy of resettlement whereby refugees especially from the developing world are taken and settled to lead normal lives in their adoptive countries. Refugees populations settled in the USA have exhibited high rates of mental health concerns occasioned by circumstances of displacement from their homelands such as rape, brutality, witnessing traumatic death of loved ones etc. Brundtland & Scandinavica (2010).

In Europe, Kosovo and Chechnya are a few examples of prolonged human destabilization and psychosocial dysfunction caused by traumatic events while in Asia; Afghanistan presents a clear picture of long-term conflict and displacement Mghir et al. (1995). The

consequences of such remain in the personal and collective memory even long after peace agreements and repatriation have been accomplished.

In Africa, Hunter (2009) presents Uganda as an example of a country that with a policy that allows refugees to stay in settlements as opposed to camps where they can practice agriculture. However, she says that the physical characteristics of organized refugee settlements are also incompatible with the needs of refugees and hinder any attempts on their part to engage in sustainable livelihoods.

Kenya has set up two camps to cater for the huge refugee population that has been residing in its territory for decades. One of the camps - Kakuma camp is located in a remote and semi-arid area populated by poor nomadic pastoralists (Adelekan, 2006). The terrain is flat, barren and dry (Barolomei and Pittway, 2002). Given this harsh environment, the ability of refugees to use the land to their advantage and to develop self-sustainability initiatives, such as agriculture or farming, is made impossible. Moreover, in order to decrease the likelihood of conflict between refugees and the local population, refugees are prohibited from keeping farm animals (Horn, 2010).

Kenyan refugee policy makes it difficult for refugees to leave the camp and prohibits them from taking up formal employment (Horn, 2010). These factors leave encamped refugees largely dependent on humanitarian aid.

According to the 2006 Refugees Act (2006), in practice Kenya adopted an encampment policy since the early 1990s which requires the authorities to formally designate all refugee camps, and although the Act does not state that camps are the only place in Kenya where refugees may live, the authorities and UNHCR use a number of disincentives-including

unlawfully restricting their freedom of movement-to limit the number of refugees choosing to live and move outside of camps. The first disincentive for Somali refugees to live outside Dadaab's camps is the absence of humanitarian assistance. Indeed Human Rights Watch, (2002) affirms that refugees are given ration cards which state that the refugee has no right to receive humanitarian assistance outside a refugee camp. In practice this curtails a lot of the refugees' freedoms and right to choose what to do with their lives.

Freedom of movement is enshrined in Article 13 of the UDHR, Article 12 of the ICCPR and in Article 12 of the ACHPR (UNHCR Standing Committee, 2003). It is a recognized fact that the very act of encampment denies this fundamental human right. In Kakuma camp, refugees are confined to the camp unless they are able to retrieve a temporary permit to leave. Verdirame and Harrell-Bond (2005) assert that freedom of movement is perhaps the most instrumental right to the enjoyment of any other rights, including the right to employment or to a secure livelihood. Without the ability to move freely within a country, the ability to lead a life of dignity is lost.

Sytnik (2012) says that refugees confined by policies of long-term encampment are isolated from society at large. They are prohibited from integrating with the host state on any level, and in many ways become invisible. The fact that Kakuma camp, or its larger counterpart the Daadab compound, do not appear on current maps of Kenya is a case in point (Agier, 2002). Sytnik (2012) further adds that since refugees are confined to camps, and lack the ability to move freely within Kenya, they also lack the ability to lead independent lives. Essentially, by seeking refuge in host countries that promote (long-term) encampment, refugees are granted the right to life, but at the expense of other fundamental human rights to which they are entitled. In Kenya as well as in other countries that endorse (long-term) encampment, refugees benefit from the principle of non-refoulement. They are allowed to

remain on Kenyan soil without the threat of being returned to a place where they will face persecution. Beyond this point, however, Jamal (2000) says, refugees are unable to enjoy even the most basic rights available to nationals. Refugees are viewed as passive victims, and as such, are reduced to recipients of aid within the camp. While possessing this label is acceptable for a short time, being associated with such passive victimization in the long-term presents a more critical problem.

The treatment of vulnerable groups within the camp is another testament to the lack of security. Individuals who face particular danger because of their minority status, gender, or other immutable characteristic are kept safe by confining them to a "protection area". While inside, refugees lack access to educational facilities and to other basic amenities. On average, individuals stay confined to this space for four to five years at a time (Barlomei and Pittway, 2002). Moreover, armed robbery and other forms of violence between refugees and the local population are common (Napier-Moore, 2005).

Generally speaking, refugees in Kakuma camp are at least provided with services necessary for survival. However, this is inadequate when dealing with situations of long-term encampment. Quoting one aid worker Jamal (2000) says he observed in 2000, that "the most apparent and prevalent mood in Kakuma camp today is a sense of despair and low self-worth".

1.2. Statement of the problem

Prolonged conflicts in the horn of Africa and the Great Lakes region have uprooted hundreds of thousands of people. Most of the refugees have settled in Kenya where they are accommodated in Kakuma and Daadab. By December 2012, Kakuma alone was hosting 105,668 refugees, 77.7% of whom were children and youth UNHCR Report (2013).

One of the problems of conflicts is its precipitation of displacement of huge populations. To assist the displaced, UNHCR in collaboration with governments set up temporary camps to receive, house and provide security to fleeing populations. They are also provided with food and water. However, players in the field of humanitarian assistance seldom think about the camps and their occupants in the long term and hope refugees would go back home within two to five years after peaceful resolution of the conflicts. It is noteworthy that majority of the displaced happen to be children and young people yet their long term needs in form of education, economic self-reliance and sustainable health are never a priority. This is bound to promote illiteracy, poverty, dependency, idleness, disorientation and despair among them. Indeed, Hunter, (2009) emphasizes that encampment is not meant to promote self-reliance but to stifle such potential in order to protect the local people and resources.

While encampment is meant to provide basic needs in a sustainable manner, it denies people opportunity to earn a living and be self-reliant thus posing a challenge to the youth who resort to unorthodox means to make ends meet. Indeed a report "Sex is the only viable trade here", in Society: The People, says, "Sex for food is rampant at the refugee camps especially among the size one family who get what cannot sustain them for the whole two weeks based on economies of scale".

The problem is compounded further in the area of access to and quality of education. Jamal (2000) assert that despite the fact that children and youth carry the hopes of their parents and countries, encampment denies them opportunities to pursue the kind of education that would help them to cultivate the skills, knowledge, attitudes and the critical thinking capacities to live up to these expectations.

The health of the refugees in the camp is also of critical concern. While food is critical for survival, a balanced diet is essential for health yet given the nature of emergencies, donor food aid does not include fruits and fresh vegetables. WFP agrees and reports that their rations do not include fresh foods, so refugees have little choice but to make do with what little they can produce with scarce resources (WFP 2009). It is equally worth noting that huge populations of refugees put pressure on the few existing health facilities in the camp.

During conflicts people and especially children and youth experience a lot of atrocities including physical violence, rape, murder of loved ones and destruction of property. Thus encamped youth carry the burden of trauma, stress and depression. Indeed, Mghir, et al (1995), affirm that, studies among refugee populations in the USA have identified a majority of refugees as suffering from Post-Traumatic Stress Disorders (PTSD) as a result of their experiences in conflict environments.

However, little is known about the extent to which encampment affects the youth livelihood in terms of achieving education, the level to which it affects them economically and also health-wise. The study therefore sought to fill this gap.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect that refugee encampment policy has on livelihoods of refugee youths in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To determine the level at which encampment policy affects refugee youths' economic self-reliance in Kakuma Refugee Camp.
- ii. To establish the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' (formal) education in Kakuma Refugee Camp.
- iii. To assess the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' health in Kakuma Refugee Camp.

1.5 Research Questions

The study sought answers to the following questions:

- i. To what level does refugee encampment policy affect refugee youths' economic self-reliance in Kakuma Refugee Camp?
- ii. To what extent does refugee encampment policy affect refugee youths' education in Kakuma Refugee Camp?
- iii. To what extent does refugee encampment policy affect refugee youths' health in Kakuma Refugee Camp?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study was critical since it was hoped it would improve public understanding with regard to encampment of refugees and generate a healthy debate among stakeholders on the refugee question and force a re-look of the whole issue of displacement (that puts them in a state of de facto confinement/imprisonment within a state that champions human rights and with a tacit complicity of the United Nations High Commission for Refugees UNHCR ó an organization whose mandate is uphold the rights of refugees and all humanity in general). It brought out the real effects that encampment has on refugees as opposed to its intended purpose of offering humanitarian assistance to the displaced. Findings of the study may prompt both governments and UNHCR to review their policies especially those oriented towards refugees. It is also hoped that it will nudge other humanitarian organisations and other NGOs concerned with human rights to put pressure on governments and UNHCR to review encampment policies. The study will also improve the literature that exists on the policy of encampment with regard to refugees. The study will finally help the student fulfill his course requirement in Masters of Arts in Project Planning and Management.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The study was hindered by language barrier between the researcher and the respondents, and the possibility of losing key respondents due to resettlement programs affecting scheduled interviews with respondents (refugees who have applied for resettlement may suddenly receive positive results making them leave the camp without prior warning). Equally, some identified respondents feared interacting with a stranger because of cultural and /or religious restrictions. The age group (youth) that the researcher sought to work with is also a challenge given their rebellious nature and òl know it allö attitude.

The researcher however, sought to circumvent the above limitations by using a translator to intercede with respondents with language barriers, determine from a respondent at the time of identification whether he/she had a resettlement case pending and if that was the case, made arrangements to prioritize information gathering from them. Finally, the researcher endeavoured to employ the services of persons who could be easily accepted by respondents with cultural and/or religious inhibitions as well as with the ability to work with youth.

1.8 Delimitations of the study

In terms of conceptualization, this study was intended to address the population of youthful refugees who have been confined to camps. Kenya has two refugee camps ó Kakuma and Daadab. However, the vast diversity of this population in terms of location, distance and insecurity would make such a study, a monumental undertaking. It was thus necessary to delimit the study. The setting for the proposed study was Kakuma Refugee Camp and involved 35,200 youth residing in the refugee camp. A multi-stage cluster sampling was used to obtain the sample that would be used in the study. The study targeted a sample size of 380 of the 35,200 youth. Kakuma is also an appropriate study area since it is cosmopolitan with inhabitants from different nationalities, religious, ethnic as well as cultural backgrounds thus creating a higher degree of tolerance thus improving security of people who are not of Somali in origin or Muslim by religion.

1.9 Basic Assumptions:

The results of the data collected was interpreted on the assumption that: the respondents gave correct information that was unbiased in regard to effects of encampment policy on livelihoods of refugee youth in the camp; all the sampled people took part in the study

voluntarily and that none of the sampled respondents left the camp due to repatriation, resettlement or integration before information was extracted from them.

1.1.0 Definition of Significant terms used in the study

Refugee: A person who, owing to well founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.

Economic Self-Reliance: The social and economic ability of an individual, a household or a community to meet essential needs such as food, water and shelter in a sustainable manner and with dignity.

Refugee Youth: Young people (either male or female) between the ages of 18 and 35 years and who due to displacement are staying in refugee camps.

Livelihoods of Refugee Youth: Aspects of peoples' needs which include education, economic self-reliance and health.

Refugee Health: Refugees' psychological, mental, nutritional, physical and reproductive well being.

Refugee Encampment Policy: Regulations put in place by the government with support of UNHCR to ensure all refugees reside in designated camps.

Refugee Education: Refugees' access to schools/institutions that enable acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes to help them cope with the challenges of a rapidly changing world.

1.1.1 Organisation of the study

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one introduces the study under the following topics: background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations to the study, basic assumptions, definition of significant terms and organisation of the study.

Chapter two includes relevant literature review. This was arranged into various subtopics: introduction, the concept of encampment policy, encampment policy and economic self-reliance among refugee youth, encampment policy and education of refugee youth and encampment policy and health of refugee youths.

Chapter three contains: research methodology under the following sub-topics: introduction, research design, area of study, target population, sample size and sample selection, research instruments ó validity of the instrument, reliability of the instrument, data collection procedure, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations.

Chapter four on the other hand contains: data analysis, presentation, interpretation and discussion while chapter five presents a summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations, contribution to the body of knowledge and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This section discusses literature that is related to the subject of study. Literature was reviewed from books, journals, the internet and other materials deemed relevant to the area under study. The literature has been thematically reviewed under the following titles: the concept of encampment; encampment policy and economic self-reliance among refugee youth; encampment policy and education of refugee youth and encampment policy and health of refugee youth.

The literature reviewed what other experts and researchers have already done along the subject of refugees and encampment. The main objective of literature review was to identify gaps in what has been done in the area of study and then extract essential information from empirical studies that have already been undertaken.

2.2 The Concept of Encampment Policy

Prior to 1991, the Kenyan government was in charge of refugee status determination procedures as well as of refugee policy (Verdirame 1999). The Kenyan government also supported policies of local integration and self-sufficiency for incoming refugees. During this time, the UNHCR played a subsidiary role. Verdirame (1999) asserts that in 1991, a significant change occurred to Kenya's policy towards refugees that encouraged (long-term) encampment. Due to changes in global politics that also affected Kenya's economy, the Kenyan government no longer had the capacity to look outward and support foreigners

entering the country, and thus refugees had to be recognized as aliens and were kept off from local integration, a departure from the earlier practice.

Sytnik (2009) adds that due to declining resources and increasing refugee numbers, the Kenyan government could no longer accommodate asylum seekers on an individual basis. Instead, refugees became accepted under the 1969 OAU Convention on Refugee Problems in Africa, which allowed for the admittance of refugees on a prima facie basis. According to Article 1(2), refugee status is based solely on the objective criteria of persons leaving their country because of war, or other violent disturbances (OAU Convention 1969).

The strain in capacity made the Kenyan government to transfer responsibilities of refugee management and the Refugee Status Determination (RSD) process to UNHCR. Verdirame (1999) agrees saying that as the Kenyan government continued to be overwhelmed by protracted refugee situations it turned to the international community for assistance and the international assistance and external resources came in the form of the UNHCR's all too familiar policy of placing refugees in camps (Verdirame 2000). By asking for international assistance, Kenya lost control of its refugee policy. Subsequently, it came up with a policy of encampment whereby the refugees are confined to designated camps. Indeed Provost and Hamaz (2011) agree that with the number of refugees increasing alarmingly, the policies towards refugees changed from ones of local integration to an informal encampment one. They note that even though Kenya has not adopted an official policy that requires refugees to remain in camps, a number of incentives are used to achieve this goal.

Perhaps the biggest deterrent to self-settlement is that only encamped refugees can receive humanitarian assistance (Hertz 2007). In addition, the Kenyan government developed

policies that limit the movement of refugees outside of camps. For example, encamped refugees must obtain a permit, known as a "movement pass", to leave the camp's enclosure, even if for short periods. Passes are difficult to obtain and only twenty percent of refugees in Kenya have documents of any kind (Turton, 2005). Another important deterrent is the time that is required to lodge an application for asylum outside of a refugee camp. In 2009, refugees had to wait an average of nine months until their asylum application was reviewed in Nairobi, compared to a significantly quicker procedure administered by the UNHCR within Kakuma camp (HRW 2009).

It is worth noting that in 1973 Alien Restriction Act was enacted and it authorized the Government to "require aliens to reside and remain within certain places or districts," but permitted the exercise of this power only in times of war or "imminent danger or great emergency" (USCRI 2005). In practice, however, all refugees have been confined to camps and reports as far back as the early 1990s describe instances where the homes of refugees living amongst the local population were demolished in order to force their removal to camps (Montclos and Kagwanja 2000). The Alien Restriction Act was replaced in May 2006 by the Refugee Act which continues to require refugees to reside in camps and those refugees who violate the residency restrictions of the new law face heavy penalties including "fines up to 20,000 shillings (about \$310), six months in prison, or both (USCRI 2009). With this shift in policy the camps set up are used to receive refugees and from where they are accommodated and provided with livelihood support. The camps have become long-term settlements for the refugees. There is growing concern that refugee status is being determined by a requirement to reside in camps and organized settlements and, as a result, those deserving of protection but determined to avoid confinement are denied refugee status.

Sytnik (2009) says that the human rights of encamped refugees in Kenya are restricted for a number of reasons. First, refugee camps in Kenya operate outside of the state legal system. Second, the administration of camps is generally ignored by the Kenyan government and left to humanitarian organisations yet the promotion of human rights stretches beyond the mandate of a humanitarian organization like the UNHCR. Third, subpar treatment is justified on the basis that refugees will only remain in camps for a short while. However, Hunter, (2009) says that despite the common perception that refugee situations are a temporary phenomenon, lengthy protracted refugee situations are quickly becoming the norm. Quoting UNHCR (2004) and UNHCR (2005) reports, she says that since 1993, the length of time spent in asylum countries has risen from an average of nine years to 21 years. In this regard, it is worth noting that, "seven out of ten refugees in sub-Saharan Africa reside in camps" (UNHCR 2009). The policy restricts their freedom of movement and association to within the camps. Special permission must be given to a refugee seeking to leave the camps.

Furuta (2010) acknowledges that while it is hard to question the outright humanitarian necessity of setting up emergency transit camps, what is worrying are the numbers of refugee camps which house protracted refugee situations "which exist for years on end. This means that refugees who came to Kenya as children more than 20 years ago have led nearly the whole of their lives in the camps. Those born in the camps at that time are now either adolescents or well in their teens. In Kenya the camps set up are Kakuma in Turkana County to the Northwest and Daadab in the Northeastern part near the border with Somalia. He however, attempts to absolve both the host countries and the UNHCR from blame over

the refugee camps noting that rather it is important to look into the complexities of the phenomenon whereby on one hand there are protracted refugee situations in which the repatriation of refugees to their home countries is not an option due to protracted conflict in their countries while on the other hand there are host states many of whom are developing countries and whose own people are lacking in resources. With regard to UNHCR, Furuta (2010) says that the organisation does not have the influence to shape host government policies such as encampment.

2.3 Refugee encampment policy and economic Self-sufficiency among refugee youth

“Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment” UNHCR Standing Committee (2003).

As at December 2012, Kakuma Refugee Camp hosted 105,668 refugees from 13 different nations ó Cong, Rwanda, Burundi, Central African Republic, Zimbabwe, Iran, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Sudan, South Sudan, Tanzania, Somalia and Uganda. The age group between 6-25years accounted for 60.2% of the total (UNHCR Report 2012).

Kenya is the most frequently cited example of encampment policies in sub-Saharan Africa, and it is widely believed to be the most restrictive of refugee rights. The encampment policy restricts freedom of movement of refugees to the camps as well as their interaction with citizens of the host country and bars them from engaging in economic activities (including agriculture) that promote self-reliance outside the camps. In any case, the camps are put up in semi-arid and agriculturally unproductive areas. Hunter (2009) says current responses to refugee crises confine refugees to organized settlements where they are stripped of their

rights and dignity. It is worth noting that international human rights law enshrines the freedom of movement and residence within states.

Statistics indicate that a majority of refugees are young people below the age of 40 years. Within Kakuma refugee camp, this age bracket constitutes 77.7% percentage of the 105,668 refugees (UNHCR Report 2012). Confinement within the camp denies the youth a lot of opportunities in life. They lack opportunities for interaction with fellow youth in the country, access to quality education, access to quality health care and opportunities and resources for income generation. In such a situation, the refugee youth are boxed into a state of hopelessness and idleness that exposes them to drug & substance abuse, HIV/AIDS, violence and criminal activities.

Part of the justification for the encampment policy by the government is a perceived economic burden posed by the refugees. However, Furuta (2010) notes that several studies have dismissed the host states fears about the economic burden of refugees by showing that they bring positive economic benefit to the state in many ways. He cites cases where refugees have self-settled in urban areas or decided to settle away from camps so they can work and provide for themselves. The problem with such cases is that police round up such refugees and take them back to the camps when they come across conflicts with the locals ó showing the arbitrariness of such freedom.

The right to pursue economic activities and the right to work are addressed both within the 1951 Convention and the ICESCR. Article 17(1) of the 1951 Convention states that refugees should be given access to wage-earning employment on par with nationals of most-favoured nation status residing in the same country (UNHCR 1951, Article 17.1). Despite being acknowledged as a crucial component of human and refugee rights, the right of refugees to

pursue economic activities remains highly contentious and refugee host states often take refuge in Article 6(1) of the ICESCR which is not as contentious as the articles of the 1951 Convention, but this is likely due to a unique provision within the ICESCR which explicitly permits developing nations to restrict the economic rights of non-nationals within their borders. Goodwin-Gill puts it thus, "Developing countries, with due regard to human rights and their national economy, may determine to what extent they would guarantee the economic rights recognized in the present Covenant to non-nationals" (Goodwin-Gill & McAdam (2007)). It is not clear whether this exception was intended to include the refugees. However, Hunter (2009) feels that the ease with which refugee hosting states can and do restrict the economic rights of refugees has an enormous effect on refugees' abilities to achieve self-reliance. The UNHCR's current self-reliance policies advocate for the extension of full rights and freedoms to refugees but do little to ensure that the barest minimum of rights protection necessary for the exercise of livelihoods exists. The Kenyan refugee policy makes it difficult for refugees to leave the camp and prohibits them from taking up formal employment (Horn 2010). These factors leave encamped refugees largely dependent on humanitarian aid. Hunter (2009) postulates that though the Kenyan government has made every effort to prevent refugees from achieving self-reliance, the manner in which refugee assistance is provided demands that refugees exercise economic activities to fulfill their needs. This contradiction is present in all situations where refugees are required to live in organized settlements but is particularly evident here where encampment heavily restricts refugees' freedom of movement and right to pursue economic activities.

Host countries tend to be happy with the refugees' state of helplessness and dependence on humanitarian support. Indeed Hunter (2009) agrees with this assertion when he postulates

that UNHCR's approach to self-reliance reflects perhaps the single most important obstacle to achieving self-reliance, host states' fears that refugees who are more independent will wish to remain permanently in the asylum country. A majority of scholars and even UNHCR itself would argue that there is no basis for this fear. UNHCR argues thus, "People who have benefited from education, skills training and livelihood opportunities during their time as refugees, and who have been able to attain a degree of self-reliance while living in a country of asylum, retain their hope in the future and are better placed to create and take advantage of new economic opportunities after their return" (UNHCR 2008). It further argues that indeed repatriation may actually be made easier in cases where refugees have been able to maintain and build upon their skills and assets. Hunter (2009) says that in contrast to host state fears, it is more likely that those who have remained destitute and dependent on relief in camps or settlements for extended periods of time will most struggle to find the resources to repatriate. Thus, promoting self-reliance in asylum countries may help refugees to acquire the skills which will not only help them to achieve a successful return but will also be beneficial in their own right.

There is no official employment market in refugee camps and any employment refugees partake in outside of formal refugee camps is restricted. That being said, NGOs operating in both Daadab and Kakuma camps employ some 1,500 refugees, thereby allowing these individuals to earn enough money to supplement their food rations (Agier 2000). Nonetheless, these activities benefit a minute portion of the population with entrepreneurial skills. In 2003, it was estimated that less than 6% of refugees in Kenya had an income (Refugees International 2003). These dismal conditions are exacerbated by the camp's large population. Kakuma refugee camp houses more than 105,668 refugees, which is five times

greater than the size recommended by the UNHCR Handbook for Emergencies (Jamal 2000).

The Kenyan government also put in place work permit fees and laws which prohibit refugees from undertaking permanent employment within the camps, also effectively preventing refugees from legally entering the labour market. Chanji (2013) says that in July 2012 the ministry of immigration issued a special gazette notice barring the issuance of work permits to foreigners under the age of 35 years or who earn less than \$ 24,000 a year (about Sh. 168,000 a month). Indeed, Hunter (2009), agrees, and laments that in contrast to the policies of most states, Kenya also restricts employment of refugees within camps; refugees cannot enter into an employment contract or earn salaries (USCRI 2009). Refugees may be hired temporarily by the UNHCR and other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) but they receive only incentives a dramatically lower wage compared to that received by Kenyans employed in similar positions. For example, the Head Teacher of a Secondary School in one of the camps, being a refugee, receives an incentive of 8,000 KSh/month while Kenyan teachers working under him with a regular work contract receive a monthly salary of 36,000 KSh (UNHCR and ILO 2005). Montclos and Kagwanja (2000) appear to suggest that NGOs are inclined to employ refugees as much as possible as they can be paid lower incentive wages; however, precise figures on refugee and Kenyan employment in the camps are not available.

The policy has created a high level of dependency among refugees who rely almost entirely on food assistance from donors. A World Food Programme report says a direct consequence of the Kenyan government's highly restrictive refugee policy is that refugee well-being is compromised and populations have remained dependent on WFP food assistance since 1991. (WFP 2009).

Hunter (2009) emphasizes that refugees in camps are not intended to become self-reliant; rather camps are intended to stifle such potential ostensibly with the aim of protecting the local people and resources. Nevertheless, despite the imposition of restrictions intended to restrict refugees' actions, refugees are still expected to provide for many of their non-food needs which are not met in basic rations. According to Sex Is the Only, (2013), young girls are not spared in this as they are pushed by their relatives to have sex with well to do men in exchange of food and other commodities that they need to use in the family. The inability of refugees in camps to become self-reliant and their reluctance to relinquish assistance have led many to accuse them of laziness and a willing dependence on the international community to provide for their needs. However, dismissing such accusation, Hunter (2009) says that few have reflected on the idea that the restriction of refugee rights, which subsequently demands the institutionalization of organized settlements, is responsible for limiting access to economic opportunities, increasing competition for scarce resources, and creating an artificial environment where normal or customary livelihood strategies are not possible. The location and structure of refugee camps ensure that reliance on assistance is an essential coping strategy as refugees in camps are fundamentally not able to provide for all of their needs. A lot needs to be done and in an area where there is nil job opportunity, people tend to look for other means of survival and some find opportunity but others opt for other ways of survival including giving out their bodies to have food. (Sex Is the Only, 2013).

Hunter (2009) avers that self-reliance is not possible if asylum states continue to confine refugees to camps and settlements where their rights are restricted and the settlement structure limits their opportunities to engage in economic activities. She adds that self-

reliance cannot occur in all situations but can definitely only be achieved if there is an enabling environment. This includes a viable economic situation, viability of affordable housing or access to land, as well as receptive attitudes within the host community (UNHCR 2002). Self-reliance requires respect for refugee rights and it is, therefore, incompatible with contexts where refugees are confined to camps without freedom of movement and where their economic activities are circumscribed.

The UNHCR has developed self-reliance policies in an attempt to address the long term needs and economic security of refugee settlements. However, Hunter (2009) criticizes these as being self-serving and unambiguously focused on the reduction of material assistance in line with falling UNHCR budgets rather than addressing the real needs of refugees. She insists that refugee self-reliance is not possible within the current framework of UNHCR responses to refugee situations.

Sytnik (2011) however, observes that long-term confinement in Kakuma camp leaves the vast majority of refugees without the ability to earn a living. Not only are employment opportunities within the camp severely limited, but the ability to obtain employment is hindered by the remote location of the camp, as well as by the numerous incentives used by the Kenyan government to keep refugees confined to camps. Restrictions on employment deprive refugees of the ability to rebuild their lives and become constructive members of society (UNHCR 2006). Sytnik (2011) avers that within Kakuma refugee camp, the right to work is violated by long-term encampment.

Furuta (2012) underscores the fact that freedom of movement is necessary to fulfill a host of fundamental civil, political, social and economic human rights. This right is being denied in long-term camps where the host state either in law or in practice arbitrarily denies such

freedom by, for example, using the system of exit passes and leaving some refugees for decades in a de facto state of aid dependency and physical confinement.

2.4 Refugee encampment policy and education of refugee youth

The human right to education can be found in Article 26 of the UDHR, Article 13 of the ICESCR and in Article 17 of the ACHPR. Moreover, UNHCR policy guidelines recognise that 'access to education is a fundamental human right of all refugee children' (UNHCR Standing Committee 2003). Compared to other refugee camps, the enrolment figures in Kakuma camp are above average (UNHCR Global Report, 2002). Nonetheless, access and quality of education is limited and significantly below the national average (Jamal 2000). Generally, refugee children are provided with elementary education, but very few have access to the camp's secondary school facilities (Crisp 2000). This is especially true when you consider that there are 14 primary schools catering for refugee children while there are only 2 secondary schools to which pupils should transit upon completion of primary school. The two secondary schools are not only inadequate to absorb the huge population transiting from primary schools but are also grossly under-resourced and understaffed with trained and skilled teaching staff [more than 60% of the teaching staff in these schools are incentive staff (refugee staff) 98% of whom are not trained teachers]. More over there are inadequate desks and chairs for the learners with students forced to share desks and sometimes even chairs.

Jamal (2000) adds that secondary school facilities in Kakuma camp are sparse, fail to cover all years, and reach a mere 1,800 out of 36,500 students. For refugees, education is rarely a smooth continuum from one level of schooling to another, and opportunities narrow at each step of the way (Dryden-Peterson and Giles 2011). They further add that access drops dramatically at secondary level compounded by great gender disparities between regions

such that, for example only five girls are enrolled for every ten boys among refugees in Eastern Africa and the Horn of Africa. The huge demand for education necessitates this leading to dilapidated classes that should accommodate 45 students each holding up to 100 and more. It is noteworthy that the 14 primary schools graduated 848 candidates in 2012 while the 2 secondary schools can only admit a total of 225 form one students. This is explained by Dryden-Peterson and Giles (2011) when they assert that education is not often included in humanitarian responses despite a normative framework for the provision of education in emergencies since 2004, in the form of the Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE).

Compounding the lack of emergency response in education is the reality that displacement is not a short-term situation: conflicts between 1999 and 2007 lasted on average twelve years in low-income countries and twenty-two years in middle-income countries, (Dryden-Peterson and Giles 2011). Likewise, the harsh conditions in Kakuma camp affect the ability of refugees to go to school and to study (Verdirame and Harrell-Bond 2005). The windy and dusty conditions as well as the high temperatures and hunger make concentration in class difficult, especially in the afternoons. Moreover, restrictions on their right to work limit the benefits that refugees are able to derive from their education thus acting as a demotivator to learners.

One of the problems associated with protracted refugee situations is that donors often divert their funds to new, high-profile emergencies, which results in funding cuts for services in camps accommodating refugees for extended periods of time. Kakuma camp is no exception. Here, services that go beyond the basic guarantees for survival have been

jeopardized, including provisions for education and cultural activities including sporting activities (Jamal 2000). The extended nature of displacement and the lack of possibilities for education in exile, Drydeno-Peterson and Lucy (2011) assert, mean that most refugees miss out on their one chance for school-based learning. Yet given the uncertainty of the future for refugees, the increasingly globalized realities that most of them face, and the promise of knowledge-based economies, education (that is adaptable and portable) is critical. Regarding education, Jamal further says that UNHCR guidelines suggest that education levels should be roughly equivalent to the national level. However, in 1999, per capita expenditure on education in Kenya's refugee camps was 25 USD, while the national figure was 200 USD.

There is little question that post-secondary education has the potential of giving greater voice to displaced populations. It can create an educated segment of society that can return and rebuild local, regional, and national institutions should refugees have the chance to repatriate. And education can contribute to personal growth, social development, and knowledge creation, application and dissemination. Drydeno-Peterson and Lucy (2011) add that access to higher forms of education enables young adults to make the types of inspired, creative and resourceful decisions that will not only improve their personal livelihoods but, when linked to a broader educated community, can reverse the negative effects of militarized violence and activate community reconstruction from within.

UNHCR's Education Policy Commitments affirm that UNHCR will safeguard the right of refugees to education which includes equitable access to appropriate learning for youth and adults, (UNHCR, 2009). However, Dryden-Peterson and Lucy (2011) argue that higher education remains a low priority for most donors, often perceived as a "luxury" for an elite few, especially in refugee situations where access to primary and secondary education is far

from universal. They say there is a clear conflict between the lack of provision of opportunities for higher education for refugees and the aspirations of refugee young people specifically in terms of how the future is imagined.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) states that recognizing the right to education includes "making higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means." Drydeno-Peterson and Lucy (2011) say the realization of this right for refugees requires an approach that conceives of education as a long-term investment for society and the lack of access to quality education at all levels as stunting development potential but this is not generally reflected in policies and practices of donors and UN agencies. They add that while many unaddressed issues related to the provision of quality education for refugees at primary and secondary levels remain, the issue of higher education for refugees is virtually unexplored in both scholarship and policy. This is despite the fact that higher education forms part of a continuum beginning with early childhood, continuing through primary and secondary school. All these levels are linked as the idea of a continuum implies and without successful completion of primary and secondary school, higher education is not an option. Conversely, in situations where access to higher education is limited or non-existent, children and young people are less motivated to persist in primary and secondary school.

Among refugees who are in secondary and also who have completed secondary, there is a great desire to attend university. Yet access to higher education for refugees is even more limited than at primary and secondary levels (Drydeno-Peterson and Lucy 2011). Even when refugees have met all academic prerequisites for higher education, there are other barriers to accessing opportunities, including cost; documentation, such as birth certificates or examination results; recognition of learning certifications obtained in another country;

and institutions' nationality requirements either for enrolment or the availability of low fees. This greatly affects the youth who are at the prime age to acquire higher education. There are a few routes to higher education however, for refugees that attempt to circumvent these barriers, which Drydeno-Peterson and Lucy (2011) enumerate as most commonly self- sponsorship' in the form of savings or remittances' for enrolment in host country institutions or distance and open learning programs; scholarships to host country or to Northern institutions and free or low-fee services through collaborations between non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and universities. In refugee camp setting such as Kakuma, NGOs that collaborate with universities to provide scholarship, peg sponsorship on cut off grades/points which very few students meet given the poor quality of education as well as the harshness of the learning environment.

2.5 Refugee encampment policy and health of refugee youths

Refugees' confinement into camps virtually means that they have to rely on donor support in almost everything since they can hardly provide for themselves under the camp conditions. Yet donors cannot provide everything that they need. Until recently, traditional emergency response was limited to food, water and shelter. Health and other priority needs are often delayed. It is established that an average of more than 50 per cent of refugees present mental health problems ranging from chronic mental disorders to trauma, distress and a great deal of suffering. Kinzie et al. (1989).

High rates of mental health concerns have been documented in various refugee populations ranging from high rates of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, depression, and somatization. Prevalence of PTSD and depression among refugees may be ascribed to factors such as prior life in their homeland, the experience of flight from that homeland, life

in refugee camps and stressors during and after resettlement in a third country. More specifically, socio-economic status, educational background and gender all affect levels of mental illness.

Brundtland & Scandinavica (2010) agree and assert that some 5 million people worldwide constitute a group presenting chronic mental disorders (prior to the war) and of seriously traumatized, who would require specialized mental health care had it been available. Another 5 million people suffer from psychosocial dysfunction affecting their own lives and their community. The remainder majority of the total 50 million world refugees are faced with distress and suffering. They acknowledge that recognition of the mental health needs of refugees is emerging but remain poorly addressed as allocation of resources does not follow.

Despite scientific evidence to the fact that conflict has a devastating impact on health and on mental health in particular, the latter is not seen as a priority by many decision-makers. Brundtland & Scandinavica (2010) further cite Angola, Afghanistan, Cambodia, Somalia, Burundi, Rwanda, Sierra-Leone, Kosovo, Chechnya as a few examples of prolonged human destabilization and psychosocial dysfunction caused by traumatic events.

Refugees who find themselves in overcrowded camps, occasioned with deprivations, uncertainty over the future, disruption of community and social support networks become psychosocially dysfunctional and merely survive awaiting conditions to improve back home and then repatriate to pick up the pieces. This has far reaching consequences on their health. Evidence to the fact that refugees are merely surviving is found in the poor health of many of them which is directly linked to an insufficient diet. The WFP report (2009) found that anaemia was exceptionally high and that over 72 per cent of children are anaemic while the percentages of women with anaemia range from 31(for non pregnant women to 65 for

pregnant women in Kakuma. It further adds that causes of anaemia in refugees and other immigrants include iron deficiency, malaria, tuberculosis, parasitic infection, HIV and anemia of chronic diseases.

Donor food aid has never included fresh foodstuff which are essential for health of people. In Sex is the only (2013), an interviewee says, "The food and firewood we get cannot last you to the next ration. Where is balanced diet, clothes or even cosmetics?" She adds: "Other refugees working with NGOs can buy these commodities. Our bodies too need these foods that are not distributed by WFP and our children are suffering". WFP concurs and reports that their rations do not include fresh foods, so refugees have little choice but to make do with what little they can produce with scarce resources (WFP 2009). It is worth noting that land for cultivation is not available for the refugees either within or outside the camps and this means that production of fresh food is done on the few open spaces between shelters or on the verges of the main roads" (UNHCR and ILO 2005).

Lack of opportunities and resources for income generation put refugee youth into a state of hopelessness and idleness that exposes them to drug & substance abuse, sex, violence and criminal activities. Subsequently, they are at a high risk of contracting sexually transmitted infections including HIV/AIDS due to their predisposition to engage in transactional sex for income. In an article a woman says, "Women here depend on men to supplement their food ration and even money to buy other things, no woman is attached to one man and our affair is that we can always seek help from them in exchange of sex, the only thing we have," she says as she stacks firewood to her boiling food in Kakuma III Camp (Sex is the only, 2013).

Refugees can also be at a higher risk of contracting sexually transmitted infections because of a lack of access to protection and/or treatment, as well as the circumstances of war and flight, making them subject to higher incidences of rape and sexual abuse.

According to Sex is the only, (2013), UNHCR has started income generating activities to alleviate women's vulnerability in the camp. It says that the alternative livelihood programmes are meant to assist behaviour change among vulnerable women, including those who exchange food for sex, women living with HIV, illicit brewers and single mothers with large families.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

The study will be anchored on conflict theory. This is the theory generally given to sociological writings of the dominance of structural functionalism after the Second World War. Its proponents drew on Max Weber and Karl Marx (to a lesser extent) to construct their arguments, giving differing emphasis to economic conflict (Karl Marx) and conflicts relating to power (Max Weber). Conflict theorists emphasized the importance of interest over norm and values, and the ways in which the pursuit of interests generate various types of conflicts as normal aspects of social life, rather than abnormal occurrences. According to C. Wright Mills (1916-1962), one of the results of conflict between people with competing interests and resources is the creation of a social structure - the relatively fixed institutions and norms of society - that heavily influence, consciously or not, peoples' everyday behavior (e.g. with regard to refugee question social structure dictates who gets to grant refugee status how, when, and to whom and who can be allowed to integrate into the society or gets resettlement into a third country). However, control over the social structure is largely in the hands of the elite (leaders), who generally oppose the interests of the non-elite. Dahrendorf (1959) argued

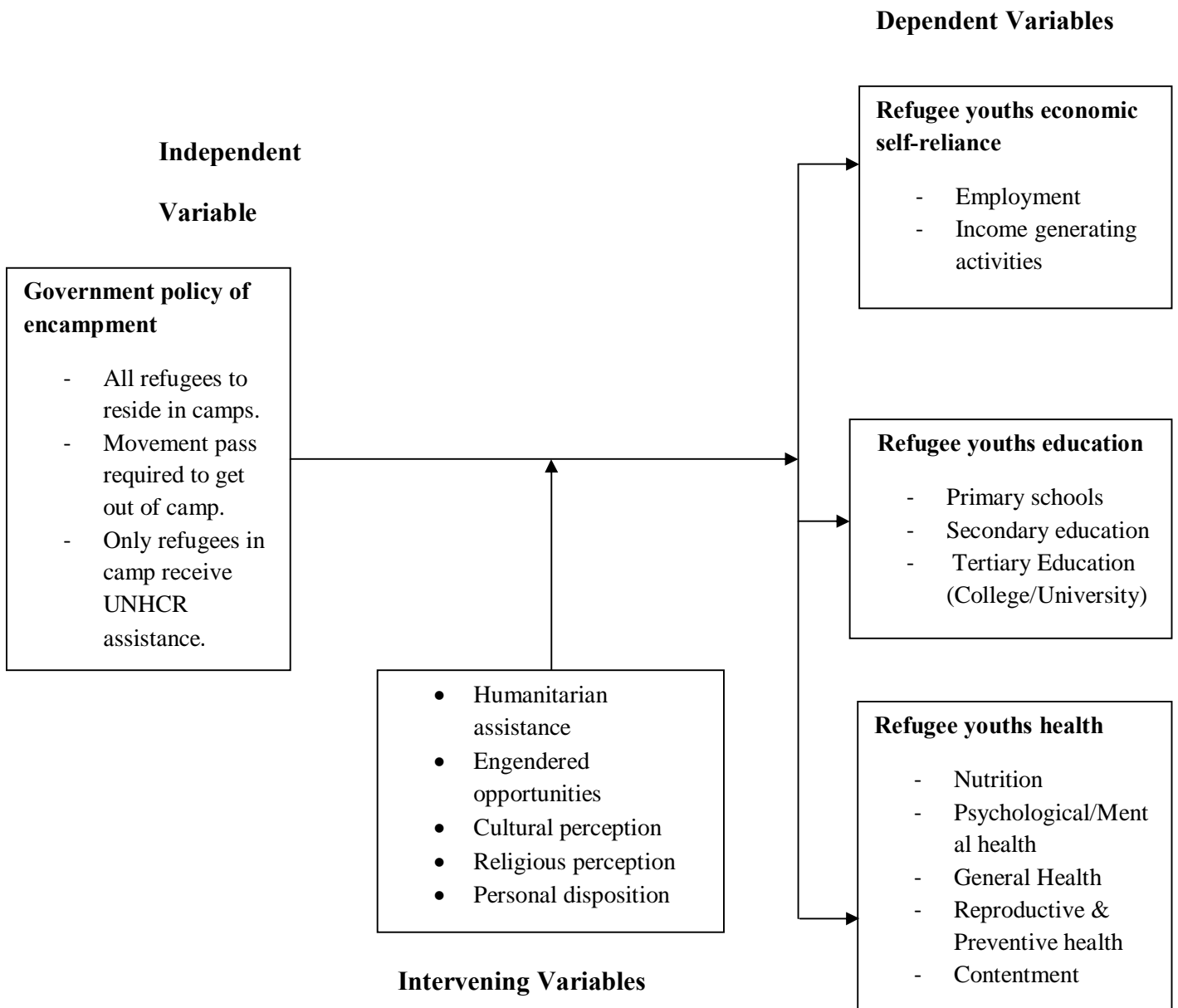
that power or authority within a social system was not simply integrative (something that emerges from the system in order to keep it together) but also divisive, something which has to be imposed over conflicting interests. He further argued against Marx, that social conflict was multi-faceted and does not congeal around one central issue.

Conflict theorists did not claim to present any general theory of society but emphasized coercion rather than consensus as the cause of social order. These can help in understanding the reason why the Kenyan government with tacit complicity of the UNHCR came up with encampment policy ó resources. The government does not want to let into its economy huge numbers of refugees since it is wary of sharing the few resources it has between its citizens and the aliens, while the UNHCR has limited resources acquired from donors that it can only provide to refugees but not to nationals of the host country. This further explains the conflict existing between refugees and the local host community (Turkana) and which further gives credence to confining refugees into camps ó to avoid replication of such conflicts in the rest of the country with refugees if they were let to integrate into the country.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

This study was guided by the following conceptual framework.

Figure 2.1 Perceived conceptual framework showing a relationship among variables in the study.



The schematic diagram (Figure 2.1) reflects the concept of effects of encampment policy on livelihoods of refugee youths. Components conceptualized as independent variables include: government policy of encampment which consists of the requirement that all refugees reside in designated camps, requirement that all refugees getting out of the camp have a movement pass and regulation that only refugees in camps receive UNHCR humanitarian assistance. These variables interplay with other variables (intervening variables) in order to influence the rate at which encampment affects the livelihoods of refugee youth. These variables include: humanitarian assistance offered by UNHCR and other donors and implementing agencies and how far these touch the livelihoods of refugees, engendered opportunities, cultural perception of livelihood aspects (education, economic self-reliance and health), religious perception of livelihood aspects and personal disposition/attitude of the beneficiary towards education, economic self-reliance and health.

2.8 Summary of Literature Review

The foregoing literature clearly brings to the fore the state of the camps that the refugees find themselves in. It clearly emerges that the camps are designed to be emergency reception centres for refugees from where they are given humanitarian assistance in form of shelter, basic food stuffs and security. After reception, they are never permitted to leave the camps and integrate into the host state. Other needs such as education, economic self-reliance and health are considered luxuries and are paid lip service even when it is obvious that a refugee situation is taking longer than initially envisaged and would continue to be protracted.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section describes the methodology that was used in carrying out the proposed study. Included in the section is a discussion of the proposed research design, the targeted population, sample size & sampling techniques, research instruments, validity and reliability of instruments to be used, data collection procedure, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

The proposed study adopted a descriptive survey design which focuses on formulation of objectives; designing the data collection instruments; selection of the sample; collection of data, processing and analyzing it and reporting the findings. Due to the nature of this study, descriptive survey design was the most appropriate since it not only determines but also reports the way things are and also attempts to describe issues like possible behaviour, attitudes, feelings, values and characteristics (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). Descriptive survey design was appropriate in this regard in collecting data regarding opinion, perception and experiences of youth (both male and female) on influence of encampment on their livelihoods.

3.3 Target Population

Kakuma Refugee camp is a camp hosting people who have been displaced from their homelands due to political or inter-communal conflicts. According to UNHCR report (2013), as at the end of December 2012, the camp hosted a total of 105,668 individuals of various age categories. The study targeted an estimated 35,200 youth between 18 ó 35 years residing within Kakuma refugee camp which is divided into three regions (Kakuma 1, Kakuma 2 and Kakuma 3). These regions are further divided into 9 zones and the zones into 95 blocks. The setting provided a sample of youths within a confined geographical area thereby facilitating the collection of data.

3.4 Sample Size & Sample Selection

This section covers the sample size and sample selection.

3.4.1 Sample Size

The sample size was 380 respondents. According to Mugenda & Mugenda (1999), a good sample size should be large enough to represent the salient characteristics of the accessible population. With an estimated population of 35,200 youth, sample size was determined by the use of the following formula:

$$n = \frac{NZ^2 \times 0.25}{d^2 \times (N + 1) + (Z^2 \times 0.25)} \quad \text{where}$$

n = sample size required

N = total population size (known/estimated)

d = precision level (usually 0.05 or 0.10)

Z = number of standard deviation units of sampling distribution corresponding to the desired confidence level.

Substitution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 N &= 35,200; & Z &= 1.96; & d &= 0.05 \\
 n &= \frac{(35,200 \times 1.96^2) \times 0.25}{[0.05^2 \times (35,200 + 1) + (1.96^2 \times 0.25)]} \\
 n &= \frac{33806.075}{87.9975 + 0.9604} \\
 n &= \frac{33806.075}{88.9579} \\
 n &= 380
 \end{aligned}$$

3.4.2 Sample Selection

The whole targeted population was given an equal chance of selection to participate in the survey. However, since there is no sampling frame and the population is too large and scattered over a large geographical area, a multi-stage cluster/area sampling coupled with stratified sampling was used to obtain the sample that was used in this study. This sampling was done in the following manner: The camp has three Regions namely: Kakuma 1; Kakuma 2 and Kakuma 3. The regions are in turn divided into nine (9) Zones which are further split into 95 Blocks. Subsequently, five (5) zones were randomly sampled from the nine (9) zones of the camp. All the Blocks (38) that make up the five zones were included in the survey. Using stratified sampling the 380 respondents were picked from the blocks falling within the sampled zones. 190 Female respondents were first picked and this in equal numbers (5) randomly from each block from block registers. 190 male respondents were

then picked from the blocks to add up to the required 380. The ratio of male: female respondents was equal to ensure a fair and unbiased representation of both gender.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

The research study employed the use of questionnaire as the main tools for data collection. The selection of these tools was influenced by the type of data to be collected as well as the objective of the study.

Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) emphasize that a questionnaire is a written set of questions that the subjects respond to in writing. Onen and Oso (2005) observe that a questionnaire is an instrument of research to be used because it gives respondents adequate time to provide well thought out responses in the questionnaire items and enables large samples to be covered within a short time. The researcher collected data from the respondents through questionnaires which were divided into two broad sections, section A containing personal data while section B was divided into themes with questions addressing specific objectives of research. The questionnaire was developed to measure: the extent of effects of encampment on refugee youths' economic self-reliance, the level at which encampment affects their education as well as health. The questionnaire was developed with closed-ended questions comprising a list of all possible alternatives from which respondents were asked to choose the answer that best suited them.

The selection of these tools was guided by the nature and the objective of the study. The study was mainly concerned with views, opinions, perceptions, feelings and attitudes of the targeted group. The use of questionnaire was picked since the study is concerned with variables that are difficult to directly observe such as views, opinions and feelings of

respondents. Questionnaires were also preferred because they ensure anonymity of the respondents and were readily available.

3.5.1 Pilot Testing

According to Nachmias & Nachmias (1996), pilot testing is an important step in the research process since it helps reveal vague questions and unclear instructions in the instruments. Pilot testing also helps capture important comments and suggestions from respondents and these enable the researcher to improve the efficacy of instruments, adjust strategies and approaches to maximize response rate. Pre-testing was carried out by the researcher together with research assistants. 38 questionnaires of the total sample size of the target population were filled. These were then collected and checked if well answered and any necessary correction was done. The sampled people were given the corrected questionnaires to fill again after two weeks. The data from pilot testing was not to be included in the final analysis but was only to be used to improve the efficacy of the research instrument.

3.5.2 Validity of the Instrument

Validity refers to the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences which are based on the research results (Orodho, 2004). It involves the degree to which results obtained from the data analysis, accurately represents the phenomenon that is being studied, i.e. the research truly measuring what it is designed to measure. It is measured by the representativeness of the target population and by consensual judgments by experts (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999).

The questions were phrased using very simple language. This is because a majority of the respondents have come from countries where English is not a lingua franca. Test and re-test assisted in revealing vague questions and unclear instructions and corrections were made bearing in mind suggestions of respondents. This helped improve the effectiveness of the

instrument. Contents of the questionnaires were also shared with the study's supervisors for verification and correction to ensure the objectives under study were addressed and thus ensured that valid data was collected from the respondents.

3.5.3 Reliability of the instrument

Reliability is the consistency of measurements or the degree to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is used under the same condition with the same subject (Cohen, 1990). It is influenced by random error and the more the random error increases the more reliability decreases. Random error is the deviation from a true measurement due to factors that have not been addressed by the researcher. Such errors may also arise due to inaccurate coding, fatigue and bias (Mugenda and Mugenda 1999).

A test-retest method was used to measure reliability. The test-retest strategy involved selecting 38 youth respondents from Kakuma Refugee Camp. Keeping all the initial conditions constant, the participants were given the questionnaire a second time after two weeks. The results were analyzed. The questions were also designed and put across in very simple language. Side notes accompanied these to enable respondents understand the requirements thus providing reliable data. Similarity of results generated would show that the instrument was reliable for data collection.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The focus of the study was on the effects of encampment policy on the livelihoods of youth in Kakuma refugee camp. Subsequently, the importance of primary data cannot be over-emphasized. However, secondary data was also collected to augment the study. Before the actual data collection, the researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the University of Nairobi to the National Council for Science and Technology to obtain a research permit and

to the management of Kakuma refugee camp to carry out the study in their area of jurisdiction. A visit was thereafter made to the camp administrators for purposes of introduction as well as to seek their consent for the study.

3.7 Data Analysis Methods

Data analysis involves closely related operations which are performed with the purpose of summarizing collected data and organizing these in a manner that they answer research questions (Kothari, 2009). The primary data collected were edited for completeness and consistency, coded and classified before feeding into computer for analysis. Frequency, Means and Percentages were used in comparing and analyzing descriptive statistics of effects of encampment on refugee youths. Microsoft Excel in combination with Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) 6th version, were used as tools for analysis of quantitative data. Data analysis outputs were then presented in form of tables.

The responses to the close-ended structured questions were rated in percentages. The percentage of respondents for each alternative was given and analyzed.

Qualitative data collected through observation and discussions were analyzed under various thematic approaches with headings such as: Effects of encampment on economic self-reliance, encampment and refugee youths' education and effect of encampment on health of refugee youths. The presentation was then done in form of tables.

3.8 Ethical considerations

During the study, participants were required to give only verbal consent for participation since the study does not pose any risk to them nor were the questions asked personal to warrant discomfort, or anxiety when responding to them. There was also no direct benefit to the respondents but it was hoped the results would bring better tide to them through review of the encampment policy or at least aspects of it. Equally, all participants were assured of total confidentiality and reassured that the information they gave would not be used for anything else other than for research purposes nor would their names appear anywhere. The importance of maintenance of confidentiality was also impressed upon research assistants.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents research findings of the study which have been discussed under thematic sub-sections in line with the study objectives. The thematic areas include: questionnaire return rate; demographic characteristics of respondents, the level to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' economic self-reliance; the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' (formal) education and the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' health.

4.2 Questionnaire Response rate

A total of 380 questionnaires were administered to respondents. All the questionnaires were returned for analysis forming a return rate of 100%. This high response rate was possible since the respondents had been sensitized prior to the administration of questionnaire, questionnaires were administered personally by research assistants and also due to the fact that the research assistants were selected from among the youth leaders working in the community and who were also from the blocks that were sampled and thus the respondents were familiar with and trusted them. According to Mugenda & Mugenda (1999) a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting, a response rate of 60% is good and that of 70% and above is very good.

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Two categories of respondents were identified ó female youth and male youth between the ages of 18 years and 35 years. The demographic characteristics considered in this section thus included the age and gender of participants. This gave a deeper insight in understanding the relationship between the variables under study.

4.3.1 Distribution of Respondents by Gender

During the data collection exercise, the research assistants noted down the gender of the respondents. The study sought to establish whether there was any linkage between gender and livelihood effects. For this reason, interviewers were asked to state the gender of the respondents and to strive to ensure gender equity among the respondents.

Table 4.1: Distribution of the respondents by gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	190	50
Female	190	50
Total	380	100

Out of the 380 respondents who participated in the study, 190 (50%) were male and 190 (50%) female as indicated on table 4.1 above. The findings would

4.3.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age

The respondents were asked to respond to their ages. This is because the researcher sought to ascertain whether age of respondents had influence on the level of effects of encampment on livelihoods of the youth in the camp. The results were as reflected on table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Distribution of the respondents by age

Age Bracket	Frequency	Percentage
18 ó 20	104	27.37
21 ó 30	214	56.32
31 ó 35	65	16.31
Total	380	100

The findings in table 4.2 show that a majority of the respondents, 214 (56.32%) were between the ages category of 21 ó 30. They were followed by the respondents between the ages 18 ó 20 who were 104 (27.37 %). Respondents between the ages 31 ó 35 constituted 62 (16.31 %). This reflected that a majority of the youth in the population fell in the age category of 21-30.

4.4.0 Effect of encampment on refugee youth’s economic self-reliance

Before displacement, asylum seekers were leading economically self-reliant lifestyles back in their mother countries. With displacement they lose almost all their properties if they manage to escape. Once received into refugee camps, refugees are provided with all the basics of life (food, shelter and water) to make life in foreign countries bearable anticipating a return home after resolution of the conflict. Rosenberg (2011) affirms that indeed hundreds of thousands of Somalis who stream into the camps in Dadaab, Kenya, are getting lifesaving food, medical care and shelter.

4.4.1: Effect of encampment on refugee youth's employment

Employment is an important undertaking for all humans as it enables them to earn a living, be useful to the society and feel a sense of respect and dignity. The study sought to determine the number of youth engaged in gainful employment in the camp. Employment would help in determining the youths' level of economic self-sufficiency while residing in the refugee camp. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked to state whether they were employed or not; how much they earn and whether they can subsist on their earning. They were also asked whether they were running a business of their own or not. The results of the analysis were summarized and presented in table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Distribution of the youths by employment status

No. of Yrs In camp	No. of Respondents	HAVE EMPLOYMENT			
		Yes	percent	No	Percent
0-3	134	15	11%	119	89%
4-5	105	22	21%	83	79%
6-7	69	9	13%	60	87%
8-9	30	8	27%	22	73%
10-11	16	2	13%	14	88%
12-13	15	7	47%	8	53%
14-15	5	1	20%	4	80%
16-17	0	0	-	0	-
18-19	2	0	0%	2	100%
20-21	4	0	0%	4	100%
TOTAL	380	64	17%	316	83%

Table 4.3 shows that out of the 380 youth who participated in the research, 64 (17%) were found to be employed while 316(83%) were unemployed. Compared to the number of years

the youth had stayed in the camp, for those who have stayed in the camp between 0 to 9 years, the unemployment rate averages 82% while those who had been in the camp for a decade up to 21 years, the rate of unemployment averages 84%. This demonstrates that the youths who have been in the camp the longest are hardest hit by lack of economic self-sufficiency. The finding is thus in line with the objective of the project. The average 83% of the youth who have no jobs have to rely on UNHCR for all their basic needs. This finding is in tandem with Rosenberg's (2011) assertion that camps condemn refugees to many years of dependency. The 83% are jobless mostly because the policy prohibits refugees from both moving freely (and thus seek employment) and also getting employment in the country or earning a salary. The finding is in agreement with Horn (2010) and also Rosenberg (2011) who assert that the refugee policy of encampment not only makes it difficult for refugees to leave the camp but also prohibits them from getting formal employment. As long as the policy is in force, there is little prospect of economic emancipation for refugee youths that comes through employment.

Since the policy on encampment prohibits refugees from legally acquiring employment in the country and thus from earning a salary, they can only be engaged by organisations operating in Kakuma as incentive staff and are thus only paid 'incentive' wages. This is usually a small amount of money which does not amount to a salary but a mere token for the work done. Agier (2000) agrees that NGOs operating the camps employ a small percentage of refugees thus allowing them to earn enough money to supplement their food rations. The survey sought to find out whether the respondents who earn incentive wages can live out of what they are paid without the food rations distributed by WFP. The results of the findings are shown on table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Distribution of employed respondents on their ability to live on wages

Amount Earned	No. of Respondents	CAN SURVIVE ON WAGES EARNED				
		Percent	Yes	Percent	No	Percent
1000 ó 1999	2	3%	0	0%	2	100%
2000 ó 3999	11	19%	0	0%	11	100%
4000 ó 5999	44	76%	7	16%	37	84%
6000 ó 7999	1	2%	1	100%	0	0%
TOTAL	58	100%	8	14%	50	86%

The table shows that among the employed youth, 2(3%) earn between Kshs.1000 ó 1999; 11(19%) earn between Kshs. 2000 ó 3999; 44(76%) earn between Kshs. 4000 ó 5999 and only 1(1%) earn between Kshs. 6000 ó 7999. These are wages far below the national minimum wage of Kshs. 7000. Therefore, almost 100% of the refugee youths earn below the national minimum wage of Kshs. 7000. Asked whether they could live/survive entirely on the wages earned, only 8 (14%) said they could subsist on the wages while 50(86%) said they could not subsist on the wages without support of the UNHCR. This is in line with Agierø (2000) assertion that 1,500 refugees are employed by organisations both in Daadab and Kakuma allowing these individuals to earn enough money to supplement their food rations. It is worth noting that given the nature of displacement, some youths stay alone while some stay with and also take care of their siblings or relatives as heads of households. Even though 14% of the youth wage earners said they could subsist on the wages, they still receive food distribution from the UNHCR/WFP to supplement their income. It is doubtful whether they can indeed survive on the wages left on their own. However, this is a speculated assertion.

This state of affairs could be attributed to the encampment policy that not only restricts refugees' movement out of the camp but also do not allow them to work in the local economy and hence the wages they earn (Rosenberg, 2011). Encampment affects youths such that because of it, organisations engage the services of refugee workers and to pay them very little wages. This state of affairs was aptly captured by a UNHCR and ILO report (2005) which says that refugee workers are paid disproportionately less wages compared to their national counterparts. The report cites an example of the Head Teacher of a Secondary School in one of the camps who being a refugee, receives an incentive of 8,000 KSh/month while Kenyan teachers working under him with a regular work contract receive a monthly salary of KSh 36,000. The finding is thus in support of the study objective looking into the effect of encampment on refugees' economic self-reliance.

4.4.2: Effect of encampment on the ability of youths to engage in income generating activities.

The study also wanted to find out the number of refugee youths carrying out economic activities that could serve to not only keep them occupied but to also earn an income to supplement the food assistance they get from the aid agencies. The result of the finding is presented on table 4.5 below

Table 4.5: Distribution of youth according to those engaged in business and those not.

No. of Yrs In camp	No. of Youth not engaged in business	Youth engaged in business	Source of capital for youth in Engaged in business		
			Family	NGO	Personal Savings
0-3	113	21	18	2	1
4 ó 6	117	26	24	1	0
7 ó 9	54	6	6	0	0
10 - 12	22	1	1	0	0
13 - 15	13	0	0	0	0
16 ó 18	1	1	1	0	0
19 ó 21	4	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	324	55	50	3	1
Percentage	85	15	13	1	0

The table shows that, 55 (15%) of the refugee youth are engaged in running a business of their own. Out of this number, 47 (85%) were youths who had been in the camp for only a short time 0 ó 3 years [21 (45%)] and 4 ó 6 year [26 (55%)]. Only 8 (15%) of the youth who had been in the camp for long (7 ó 21 years) had income generating activities. This finding shows that the recent arrivals into the camp either had not yet been stripped of entrepreneurial spirit out of despair/hopelessness or that they could still secure some resources through family networks [42 (89%)] they left behind to invest in such activities.

The finding is thus in agreement with Hunterø (2009) postulation that though the Kenyan government has made every effort to prevent refugees from achieving self-reliance, the manner in which refugee assistance is provided demands that refugees exercise economic

activities to fulfill their needs. The youths who had been in the camp for long were either born there or came to the camp at a very tender age and hence lacked either entrepreneurial spirit, skills and/or networks to get financial resources to invest in income generating activities. However, this is just a speculated assumption since it is outside the scope of the study. The study also found that 324 (85%) of the respondents were not engaged in any income generating activity. This finding revealed that a majority of the respondents did not have any source of livelihood and were therefore not self-reliant and are thus wholly dependent on UNHCR for all aspects of their lives, a fact that Refugees International (2003) agrees with in its asserting that in 2003, less than 6% of refugees in Kenya had an income. The youth who have stayed in the camp longest 10 years to 21 years are the most hopeless in terms of earning any income since the table shows that 40 (95%) of them don't run a business. Only 2 (5%) got capital from family to start a business. The study did not however establish whether those doing business earn sufficient profits that can sustain them in the absence of food handouts from the UNHCR.

Table 4.6: Factors preventing Youth from engaging in business

REASONS FOR NOT HAVING A BUSINESS			
No. of Yrs in the camp	Lack of Capital	Not interested	Not allowed by Parents/religion
0-3	93	11	7
4 ó 6	88	13	10
7 ó 9	52	1	0
10 - 12	20	1	0
13 - 15	12	0	0
16 ó 18	1	0	0
19 ó 21	4	0	0
TOTAL	270	26	17
Percentage	86	8	5

Probed further to determine the reasons behind them not having an income generating activity, the youth (who were not engaged in any form of business) gave the reasons presented on table 4.6 above. 270 (86%) of the respondents cited lack of seed capital as the major reason why they did not have an income generating project of their own, 26(8%) stated lack of interest in business while only 17(5%) cited not being permitted by parents, spouse or culture. It is noteworthy that 88 (98%) of the youth who had been in the camp for more than 7 years cited lack of capital as the reason behind their not engaging in business while 181(82%) of the youth who had been in the camp for between 0 to 6 years cited lack of capital. 41(18%) of this later group cited either lack of interest in business or inhibition of some sort from starting a business. This finding is in line with the estimate that in 2003, less than 6% of refugees in Kenya had an income (Refugees International 2003).

From the foregoing we notice that overall unemployment among refugee youths stands at 85% compared to the national average of 40% among the country's youth (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2012). This huge difference of more than double between the refugee youths and the Kenyan youth can best be explained by the status the refugees find themselves in ó confinement in a camp without opportunities to exploit their potential and skills to earn a living. In this regard they cannot look for jobs outside the camp nor can they easily acquire technical skills and knowledge to enable them start their own income generating activities or get employment with the various NGOs operating in the area. This assertion is born by the finding that the youth who have been in the camp the longest (5-21yrs) are the ones hardest hit by unemployment/lack of business and its subsequent inability to be self-reliant.

- Unemployment and its attendant lack of income among refugee youths, predisposes them to engage in prostitution, survival sex, robbery, theft and drug peddling to survive. Others resort to alcohol and drug abuse to drown the state of hopelessness and despair they find themselves in.

4.5 Extent of Encampment Policy Effect on Refugee Youth's Education

Another objective of the survey was to establish the effect of encampment policy on acquisition of formal education among refugee youth in Kakuma refugee camp. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked to state: their current education status; the highest level of education they had achieved and where they acquired their education from.

4.5.1: Encampment and youths' achievement in education

To assess the effect of encampment on education of youths in the camp, the study sought to determine from the respondents the highest level of education they had achieved. To achieve

this objective, respondents were also requested to state their nationality since it was felt that this would have a bearing on the findings given that different states/nations started experiencing conflicts in different periods in history and thus some nationalities experienced displacement earlier than others. Subsequently, they would be affected in varying degrees in different facets of livelihood. The results of the analysis are presented on table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Distribution of respondents according to the levels of education attained

<i>Nationality</i>	Highest Level of Education									
	None	%	Below	%	Class 8	%	Secondary/ Form4	%	College	%
	Class 8			Form4						
Somali	69	44%	33	21%	37	24%	11	7%	6	4%
Burundian	0	0%	1	20%	0	0%	2	40%	2	40%
Congolese	13	28%	8	17%	8	17%	13	28%	4	9%
S. Sudanese	15	21%	18	25%	19	27%	17	24%	2	3%
Sudanese	8	14%	20	35%	10	17%	17	30%	2	4%
Ugandan	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	100%	1	0%
Tanzanian	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	1	50%	1	50%
Ethiopian	7	7%	4	18%	7	32%	2	9%	2	9%
Rwandese	0	0%	1	10%	3	30%	6	60%	0	0%
TOTAL	112	30	85	23	84	23	70	19	19	5

The table shows that out of the 370 who responded to the question, 112 (30%) were not having any formal education at all, while 85 (23%) were barely literate ó having education below standard 8 (Kenyan curriculum) and thus not having any academic certificate. This confirms Jamalø (2000) assertion that access and quality of education is limited. 84 (23%)

reached standard eight and thus have KCPE certificate while 70(19%) stated that they had secondary education or had completed form four. Only 19 (5%) had college certificate. This demonstrates that over half of the refugee youth 195 (53%) were either completely illiterate or semi-literate and were thus denied their basic right to education. It is worth noting that considered from the perspective of nationality of the refugees, the Somalis carry the burden of the refugee population with the highest percentage of youths who are either illiterate 69(44%) or semi-literate 33(21%) ó having education below class 8 or only completed class 8 at 37 (24%).

The Somalis are followed by the S. Sudanese with 15 (21%) illiterate youth; 18 (25%) with education below class 8 and 19 (27%) having only class 8 education. Youths of Sudanese origin closely follow S. Sudanese at 8(14%) illiterate; 20(35%) below class 8; and 10(17%) having class 8 certificate. Next are the Congolese at 13 (28%) illiterate, 8(17%) below class 8 and 8 (17%) class 8. This finding seems consistent with the phenomenon of conflict and displacement around the horn of Africa. Somali and Sudan have been at war since 1991 and large segments of the population sought asylum in the neighbouring countries including Kenya. Due to instability brought about by war, education system in the said countries collapsed and the displaced populations could only access education in the countries where they sought refuge. The little education or none at all (89%) among the youth of Somali descent; (73%) among the S. Sudanese and (66%) among Sudanese can thus be attributed to their stay in the refugee camp occasioned by encampment spanning over 2 decades. This is in agreement with Jamalø (2000) assertion that access and quality of education is limited and significantly below the national average. This state of affairs can also be attributed to inadequate facilities in terms of schools and classrooms even when the camp has become a protracted situation and the numbers of refugees coming to the camp keep increasing every

year. Drydeno-Peterson and Giles (2011) agree saying the extended nature of displacement and the lack of possibilities for education in exile, mean that most refugees miss out on their one chance for school-based learning. Equally, the quality of education provided in the camp is wanting (Jamal 2000) since most of the teachers in the schools are incentive staff who either lack training or are not motivated but are recruited to cover for the shortfall of trained staff because they are paid wages eight times lower than their national trained counterparts. These findings underscored the seriousness of the impact of encampment on education of youths in Kakuma camp and thus relevance of the choice of the study.

Encampment has also affected youths in the camp since schools are not provided with human and material resources by the Kenyan government because camp schools fall outside the jurisdiction of government support. And although UNHCR guidelines suggest that education levels between refugee camps and the national should be level, this is far from the case. This is best captured by Jamal (2000) comparison of per capita expenditure in refugee camps which in 1999 stood at 25USD against the Kenyan national average of 200 USD.

Everything is left to UNHCR and donors who are overwhelmed by refugee situations across the world. Given the emergency nature of refugee situations little attention is paid to protracted refugee situations, education within the same included. Attention is often shifted to new areas of conflict and emergencies.

This violation of the right to education was happening right within the jurisdiction of the United Nations itself - the refugee camps. It is worth noting that the United Nations regards education ó especially primary education as a basic human right and seeks to ensure that universal primary education is accessible to every child irrespective of whether the child is a refugee or not.

4.5.2 Encampment and current educational status

The survey also sought to find out among the youth who were still attending school and who were not. Further, it attempted to determine from among the youth who were not attending school the reason why they were not in school. For those not attending school, viable options provided included: completed school/college; no vacancy in schools; no interest in schooling; curriculum offered different from home country curriculum and not allowed by parents/culture/religion. The result of the analysis of the survey is presented table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Distribution of respondents by schooling status

No. of Yrs in the camp	Attending School				REASONS FOR NOT SCHOOLING				
	Yes	%	No	%	Completed school/college	No Vacancy	No Interest	Curriculum Different	Not Allowed
0-3	35	11	78	24	3	28	4	4	2
4 ó 6	50	15	67	21	9	16	5	7	0
7 ó 9	23	7	31	10	2	13	1	0	0
10 - 12	07	2	15	5	1	6	0	0	0
13 - 15	12	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
16 ó 18	00	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
19 ó 21	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	130	40%	194	60%	15	63	10	11	2

The table shows that at the time of the study, close to two thirds of the respondents 194(60%) were not attending school, while only 130 (40%) were still learning.

The survey further probed the respondents who had stated that they were not schooling to establish the reason behind their response.

The result of the analysis in the above table shows that a majority 77(56.6%), of those who were not schooling or had no education at all cited lack of vacancy in schools in the camp as the major reason behind their predicament. This agrees with Jamalø (2000) statement that secondary schooling facilities in Kakuma camp are sparse, fail to cover all years, and reach a mere 1,800 out of 36,500 students. 11 (13%) cited difference in the teaching curriculum between their home countries and Kenya. Differences in language as medium of learning would be the major factor in this regard. On the other hand, 2 (1%) of the respondents stated that they were not allowed to get an education by parents due to either cultural or religious reasons. This means that cultural/religious considerations are not a factor when it comes to getting an education in the camp. 10 (13%) cited lack of interest on their part in education. Verdirame and Harrell-Bond (2005) explanations that òí the harsh conditions in Kakuma camp affect the ability of refugees to go to school and to studyö further explains this disinterest especially among the Somali. The windy and dusty conditions as well as the high temperatures and hunger make concentration in class difficult, especially in the afternoons. Moreover, restrictions on their right to work limit the benefits that refugees are able to derive from their education thus acting as a demotivator to learners.

This observation thus reveals that refugee camp education reaches only slightly more than one third of all the youth within the refugee camp and that inadequacy of educational facilities (schools and classrooms) resources and quality staff is the major hindrance to acquisition of education.

4.5.3: Encampment and acquisition point of education

The study further sought to find out among the youth who had reported having education where they had acquired their education. The viable options provided- where education could be received included; schools in the camp, public school /outside the camp and home countries. The result of the analysis is presented on table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Distribution of respondents according to places education was acquired.

WHERE EDUCATION WAS RECEIVED							
No. of Yrs in the camp	Total	In Camp		Public		Home	
		Schools	Percent	Schools	Percent	country	Percent
0-3	89	31	35%	7	8%	51	57%
4 ó 6	105	56	53%	16	15%	33	31%
7 ó 9	44	32	73%	3	7%	9	20%
10 - 12	15	13	87%	2	13%	0	0%
13 - 15	13	9	69%	4	31%	0	0%
16 ó 18	1	1	100%	0	0%	0	0%
19 ó 21	4	4	100%	0	0%	0	0%
TOTAL	271	146		32		93	
Percent	100	54		12		34	

The table shows that of the 271 respondents who reported having some form of education, 146 (54%) stated that they had received their education in the refugee camp schools. This represents just over half of all youth with an education. 32 (12%) said they had received their education in schools outside the camp while 93 (34%) had gone through schooling in their home countries before fleeing to Kenya. Further analysis reveals that 57% of youth who had been in the country for between 0 ó 3 years got their education in home countries, while 31% of the youth who had been in Kenya for between 4 ó 6 years got their education in their home countries. Only 20% of youth who had been in Kenya for between 7 ó 9 years

had acquired their education in their home countries. All youths who had been in Kenya for between 10 ó 21 years got their education either in the refugee camp (89%) or (11%) in Kenyan public schools.

This finding that about half of youths with an education had got it in camp schools confirms one of the problems associated with protracted refugee situations being that donors often divert their funds to new, high-profile emergencies, which results in funding cuts for services in camps accommodating refugees for extended periods of time. Not being an exception, services (in Kakuma camp) that go beyond the basic guarantees for survival have been jeopardized, including provisions for education and cultural activities including sporting activities (Jamal 2000). Agreeing, Drydeno-Peterson and Giles (2011) assert that the extended nature of displacement and the lack of possibilities for education in exile mean that most refugees miss out on their one chance for school-based learning. From the study, the 54% of youths with none or inadequate education are disadvantaged since they lack the knowledge, skills and attitudes to make them productive members both to themselves and the society. They are thus not employable nor can they run their own businesses and will continue being a burden to the society even when repatriated.

4.6 Effect of encampment on the health of refugee youth

UNHCR is tasked with looking into the general welfare of refugees. Within the context of Kenya, it has designated particular camps including Kakuma to ease its provision of food and healthcare to them in a safe and secure environment. In this regard the study sought to assess the effect of refugee encampment on the health of refugee youth in Kakuma refugee camp. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked whether they got fruits in their diet or not; whether they had sought services of a counselor or not and also to state whether they

were receiving satisfactory medical care or not in the camp's health facilities and also whether they had received information with regard to reproductive health and/or preventive health.

4.6.1 Effect of encampment on nutrition

UNHCR through WFP provides food assistance to refugees who are residing within the camp. Such food assistance comes in the form of dry foodstuff such as wheat flour, maize flour, rice, sorghum, beans and cooking oil. Respondents were asked whether they got fruits to supplement their diet. The results of the analysis are shown on table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Distribution of respondents according to whether or not they got fruits in their diet

Got fruits in diet	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	71	18
No	309	82
Total	380	100

Table 4.7 shows that the majority of the respondents 309 (82%) did not get fruits in their diet and only 71 (18%) said they were able to get fruits in their diet. The effect of encampment is such that over three quarters of refugee youths lead unhealthy lifestyles with weakened immunity since they are never provided with fresh foodstuff nor vegetables or fruits. Nor are they provided with income to enable them purchase fruits and vegetables to supplement their diet. A balanced diet is essential for the improved immunity and general good health of humanity. Lancet report (1992) "Misconceptions on Nutrition of Refugees," says that trading of food rations may be encouraged if refugees are not to become undernourished and

deficient in micro-nutrients. Vegetables and fruits provide vitamins that are essential for overall health of a person.

This observation showed that the effect of encampment is such that more than three quarters of the youth were leading unhealthy lifestyles in the camp due to poor nutrition, a factor that has ripple effect on the general health of the population. It follows that a vast majority of the youth had low immunity and were thus prone to attacks by infectious diseases. In such a situation, a significant amount of money would be spent on the treatment of diseases that would otherwise be prevented through sound nutrition that incorporates fruits.

4.6.2 Effect of Encampment on Psychological wellbeing

The study also attempted to assess the extent to which the youth in the refugee camp suffered mental trauma/stress. To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked whether they had ever received counseling in the camp. The result of the data analysis is shown on table 4.11 below:

Table 4.11: Distribution of respondents according to their need for counseling

No. of Yrs In camp	Ever Received counseling				Reason for not being Counseled	
	YES	%	NO	%	Never been Mentally disturbed	No Got a Counselor
0-3	29	21	105	79	72	29
4 ó 6	43	30	99	70	78	21
7 ó 9	13	20	53	80	46	7
10 - 12	5	22	18	78	14	4
13 - 15	1	20	4	80	3	1
16 ó 18	0	0	2	100	2	0
19 ó 21	2	50	2	50	2	0
TOTAL	93		283		217	62

Table 4.11 shows that 155 (42%) admitted to having received counseling or stated that even though they needed, there were very few counselors. This observation is in tandem with sentiments echoed by Brundtland & Scandinavica (2010) which assert that most studies reveal high rates of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, depression and somatization among refugees. 217 (58%) respondents on the other hand stated that they had not received counseling because they had never been mentally disturbed.

The above observation reveals that close to half of the entire refugee youth population in Kakuma refugee camp suffered from PTSD and depression occasioned by factors such as prior life in their homeland, the experience of flight from that homeland and life in the refugee camp in general. So many youth suffering from PTSD are predisposed to anti-social behaviours including violence, theft, truancy, rebelliousness and alcohol & drug abuse. Socio-economic status, educational background and gender all also affect levels of mental illness.

4.6.3 Encampment and Medical wellbeing of refugee youth

UNHCR and its partners have also put in place mechanisms to ensure refugees are provided with good health care. The study sought to determine the feelings of the youth on the extent to which their medical wellbeing was handled in the refugee camp. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked whether they received satisfactory medical care from the medical facilities provided in the refugee camp. The result of the analysis is shown on table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Distribution of respondents and their level of satisfaction with medical care provided.

Satisfied with medical care	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	239	63.4
No	138	36.6
Total	378	100

Table 4.12 shows that 239 (63%) of the respondents felt satisfied with the medical care they received in the refugee camp. 138 (37%) on the other hand expressed dissatisfaction with the medical care provided. The over one third of respondents who expressed dissatisfaction with the medical care provided to refugees cited either inadequate health facilities in the expansive camp or inadequacy of drugs in the health facilities. Subsequently, they felt that they would receive better health care outside the camp. This feeling could be due to the notion of ògrass being green on the other sideö and the fact that complicated medical cases were often referred to hospitals in Nairobi.

The survey further sought to find out how the population met their medical needs. The result of the analysis is shown on table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Distribution of respondents according to how they met their medical needs

Mode of Treatment	Frequency	Percentage
Get treatment in hospital	248	66
Buy own drugs	97	25.8
Use traditional medicine	31	8.2
Total	376	100

The table shows that 97 (25.8%) who were dissatisfied with medical care provided opted to self-medicate when sick through purchasing drugs over the counter or visiting private clinics while 31 (8.2%) went for services of traditional healers or traditional medicine when they fell sick. The remaining 248 (66%) got treatment in the health facilities provided in the camp. Complications are brought by reliance on over the counter drugs, traditional medicine, or delayed consultation of health providers.

4.6.4 Encampment and Reproductive & Preventive health information

The study also sought to establish the extent to which refugee youth were equipped with reproductive health information as well as preventive health information. Being knowledgeable in reproductive and preventive health puts people in a good stead to lead healthier lives as it empowers them to manage their own health and also to make informed choices. To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked whether they had received reproductive health information and also whether they had received preventive health information. Result of the data analysis is shown on tables 4.14 and 4.15.

Table 4.14: Distribution of respondent by knowledge level in reproductive health

No. of Yrs	REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH INFORMATION RECEIVED				
	TOTAL	YES	<i>PERCENT</i>	NO	<i>PERCENT</i>
In camp					
0-3	137	96	70	41	30
4 ó 6	142	106	75	36	25
7 ó 9	58	51	88	7	12
10 - 12	23	23	100	0	0
13 - 15	13	11	85	2	15
16 ó 18	2	2	100	0	0
19 ó 21	4	4	100	0	0
TOTAL	379	293	77	86	23

The table shows that 293 (77%) had received reproductive health information while 86(23%) had not. In the same breadth, those who had stayed in the camp longer were more equipped with information on matters reproductive than those who had not stayed for very long. For instance, those who had been in the camp for between 0-3yrs, 70% of them had information; 4-6 year, 106(75%) had received the information; 7-9 year, 51(88%); 10-12 years, 23 (100%), 13-15 year, 11(88%), 16-18 years, 2(100%) and 19-21 years, 4(100%). This reflects that the awareness campaigns and outreach programs targeting the youth on matters reproductive are effective. Hence, over three quarters of refugee youths are equipped with knowledge/information that enables them to understand reproductive health issues and are thus in a position to make informed choices on matters reproductive. Subsequently, this is a pointer that STIs, HIV/AIDS and early pregnancies are low even though this was not within the scope of the study.

Table 4.15: Distribution of respondents by knowledge level in preventive health.

No. of Yrs	PREVENTIVE HEALTH INFORMATION RECEIVED				
	TOTAL	YES	PERCENT	NO	PERCENT
In camp					
0-3	130	93	72	37	28
4 ó 6	143	108	76	35	24
7 ó 9	60	50	83	10	17
10 - 12	23	23	100	0	0
13 - 15	13	9	69	4	31
16 ó 18	2	2	100	0	0
19 ó 21	4	4	100	0	0
TOTAL	375	288	77	87	23

Provision of preventive health information to refugees is a sole responsibility of the UNHCR and its partners working with refugees in Kakuma refugee camp. To ensure such information reaches the target population, appropriate awareness and outreach campaign must be executed. As a sub-theme of the third objective of the study, the research sought to determine the number of youths equipped with information on the same. The study's findings are presented on table 5.4 which shows that 288 (77%) had received preventive health information while 88 (23%) said they had never received preventive health information. The highest number of old refugees i.e. those who had stayed in the camp the longest: (16-18 yrs 2(100%) and 19-21 years 4 (100%)) were equipped with the right information to take appropriate preventive health precautions. Information had also reached a large segment of more recent arrivals i.e. 0 ó 3 year 93(72%) and 4-6years, 108 (76%). Even though the number is far less than the old inhabitants of the camp, it is nevertheless

still good enough. Hence, overall the effect of encampment on the health of refugee youths is such that over three quarters of the youths are equipped with information that enables them take precautionary measures to safeguard their health especially with regard to infectious diseases or vector borne diseases. With such a high percentage of youths being informed, few of them are predisposed to opportunistic or preventable diseases. They thus lead safer lifestyles.

4.6.5: Encampment and contentment with refugee camps

Putting asylum seekers in designated camps is intended to provide them with food and other basic needs in an environment free of conflicts and insecurity. This is intended to make displaced persons lead safer, more peaceful and happier lifestyles. To verify whether encamped refugees are happy with their conditions in asylum, the study also attempted to determine the level of refugee youths' satisfaction with being in the refugee camp. The result of the data analysis is shown on table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Distribution of respondents according to their satisfaction with camp life and the options they would take if given any

<i>YRS IN CAMP</i>	LIKE BEING IN THE CAMP					OPTION YOUTHS WOULD TAKE IF AVAILABLE				
	YES	%	NO	%	TOTAL	RESET- LMENT	REPAR- IATION	SETLE IN KENYA	STAY IN CAMP	MOVE FREELY
0 ó 3	49	37	85	63	134	96	10	4	21	3
4 ó 6	36	25	107	75	143	113	16	3	5	6
7 ó 9	15	25	45	75	60	49	8	1	2	0
10 ó 12	8	35	15	65	23	14	0	0	0	0
13 ó 15	4	27	11	73	15	10	0	1	2	0
16 ó 18	0	0	4	100	4	3	0	0	0	1
TOTAL	112		267		379	285	34	9	30	11

The table shows that 267 (70%) of all respondents did not like being in the refugee camp. This contrasts with 112 (30%) who stated that they liked being in the refugee camp. The table further shows that the level of resentment of the camp to some extent correlated with the length of stay in the facility. For instance, those who had stayed for 4 ó 6 yrs registered a dissatisfaction index of 75%; 7-9 yrs, 75%; 10-12 yrs, 65%; 13-15 yrs, 73%; while 19-21 yrs, 100%. Against this trend, those who had been in the camp for between 0-3 years registered a dissatisfaction index of 63%. This is the lowest compared to those of higher duration. Those who had been in the camp for the longest period also registered the highest rate of dissatisfaction at 100%. The finding shows that those recently arrived were still enjoying a new environment free from conflict prone homelands and were happy with

security provided. However, those who had stayed longer or were born in the camp experienced disillusionment with hopelessness and despair.

Refugees are provided all their basic needs such as food, security, water, shelter, medical care and education by the UNHCR and its partners. They are therefore expected to be happy staying in the camp. This shows that freedom is more important to human beings than a secure but confined life - even with provision of basic needs. Such confinement breeds stress, resentment and hopelessness. Subsequently, the 70% of the youth were in the camp against their will.

Against the same background, the study sought to determine what the respondents would want were they given choices. The result of analysis of their responses in this regard is presented on the same table. It also shows that 283 (77.1%) of respondents preferred resettlement in a third country as an option, a percentage that underscores their overall unhappiness and hopelessness in the camp. 37 (9.7%) would prefer repatriation (back to their home country even though the countries are still in turmoil) while a paltry 9 (2.4%) would consider settling in Kenya. This is a reflection of the resentment that refugees harbor towards Kenya even though they are hosted and their security assured by the same country. This resentment could be a product of the encampment policy that the country has imposed and enforced towards the refugee population. However, 30 (8%) of the respondents would prefer to remain in the refugee camp and only 11 (3%) would choose to be allowed to move freely in the country.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations, suggestions for further research and contributions to the body of knowledge.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The first objective of the study was to assess the extent to which encampment affects refugee youths' economic self-reliance. The study established that encampment and economic dependency were related. It found out that 83% of the refugee youth in Kakuma refugee camp did not have employment. The study further discovered that 84% of the youth were not engaged in any business/income generating activity. Subsequently, this shows that the vast majority of refugee youths (83.5%) were not economically self-reliant and depended on the good will of donors to meet all their basic needs. This state of affairs was attributable to the encampment policy that has ensured that the refugees are confined into Kakuma refugee camp. It is worth noting that freedom of movement and association as well as the right to work and earn a living are both essential in achieving economic self-reliance, nurturing hope and raising one's self-esteem.

The second objective of the study was to determine the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youths' acquisition of education. The study discovered that 30% of refugee youth were completely illiterate, 23% went to school but dropped out before sitting for their Kenya Certificate of Primary Education, while 23% managed to reach class 8. Thus while

30% are completely illiterate, the study also reveals that close to 46% of all refugee youth in the camp are barely semi-literate. Only 19% had secondary education/ certificate. The finding was reflective of the current state of affairs where there are 14 primary schools compared to only 2 secondary schools meaning a huge number of primary school leavers being churned out by the primary schools are not finding their way into the next level of schooling ó secondary. This is in agreement with Jamalø (2000) assertion that secondary school facilities in Kakuma camp are few and reach only 1,800 out of 36,500 students. On the other hand only 5% of the refugee youthsøpopulation had tertiary education.

Encampment of a large population of refugees without a commensurate provision of educational facilities ultimately impacts negatively on generations of refugees. Such high levels of illiteracy would affect the youthsø lives for the rest of their lives whether they continued to live in the refugee camp or choose to repatriate or whether they will be fortunate to get resettlement into a third country.

The study thus established that almost 84% of the youth have no employment of any kind while 53% of the same youth have no access to any form of education. This means that more than three quarters of the youth were basically idle since they had nothing to occupy them. This idleness was likely to tempt them to engage in risky social behaviours such as crime, drug and substance abuse, indiscriminate sexual activity etc which predispose them to early parenthood, contracting HIV/AIDS & other sexually transmitted infections, imprisonment and outright deviance.

The third objective of the study was to assess the extent to which encampment affected refugee youth's health. The study established that 82% of the youth never got fruits to supplement their diet while 42% had either received counseling or been in need on counseling but never got the service due to trained counselors being very few in the camp. The fact that close to half of the youth had been in need of counseling services is indicative of the stress levels and trauma that they go through due to prior life in their homeland, the experience of flight from that homeland and life in the refugee camp in general that does not offer them any hope in life. Socio-economic status, educational background and gender all also could have had effects on levels of mental illness.

The study also established that 37% of refugee youth were not satisfied with the medical care offered in the refugee camp. They attributed this dissatisfaction to either inadequate number of health facilities in the expansive camp or to inadequate drug supply in the available health facilities. Subsequently, this group chose to self-medicate through purchasing drugs over the counter (obviously a dangerous choice - medically) or to rely on traditional medicine for their medical needs.

A further assessment discovered that a vast majority of the youth were quite unhappy in the camp. In this regard 70% of the respondents stated that they were unhappy while 30% said they were happy. Given an option 77% of the respondents stated that they would opt to go for resettlement into a third country, while 10% of the respondents would rather go back home i.e. get repatriated. 2% preferred to settle in Kenya while only 8% would choose to continue staying in the refugee camp.

5.3 Conclusions

The main purpose of this study was to establish the effects of refugees encampment policy on refugee youth's livelihood in Kakuma refugee camp in terms of the stated research objectives, the following findings emerged from the study:

The study established that the encampment policy affected the youth negatively both economically and socially. This hampered any hope of achieving economic self-reliance among them. This state of affairs had left the vast majority (70%) of the refugee youth a very dissatisfied lot. Subsequently, refugees will continue to be a huge burden on well-wishers who donate resources to cater for their upkeep. An economically empowered refugee population would on the other hand lessen their over-reliance on donations.

The study also revealed that encampment negatively impacted on children's and youth's education. It denied them not only the opportunity to get an education but also compromised the quality of the education that those who were lucky to access it got. This fact was due to a preference for refugee labour (since it is cheap and also to keep them occupied) to the national staff that are well trained and thus more qualified to deliver better services especially in education.

The study further found out that while conflict negatively affected youth's health, encampment exacerbated it. The fact that close to half of the youth's population was in need of counseling is an indictment to the policy of encampment as currently enforced by both the UNHCR and the Kenyan government.

5.4 Recommendations

Most refugee camps and Kakuma Refugee camp in particular are no longer emergency transit points/centres. Kakuma refugee camp has been in existence for over 22 years. Some youth were born in the camp and have spent all their lives there while some (going by the above data) have resided in the camp for more than 20 years. The average length of stay in the camp (among the youth) is 6 years. Subsequently, drawing on the findings of the study and the conclusions, the following recommendations were made:

- i. Stakeholders including the Kenyan government should invest more in education in the camp through construction of more schools to cater for the high number of children and youth already in the camp as well as those who keep arriving daily and also through employment of competent staff. This recommendation takes cognisance of the fact that the refugee camp is a protracted situation since it is no longer an emergency transit point and the refugees already accommodated were there to stay pending resolution of conflicts in their home countries. History has proved that resolution of such conflicts is not an easy matter.
- ii. Stakeholders need to prioritize provision of secondary education to the youth. Even though secondary and tertiary education has not been defined as a basic right, the reality is that it is a necessity if the future of refugee children and youth is to be safeguarded ó whether they continue to stay in the host states, get resettled in a third country or whether peace returns to their home countries and they get repatriated. Such education and training will equip them with the necessary knowledge and skills

to contribute towards not only their personal development but also the development of the host nations as well as their own countries when they get repatriated.

- iii. The international community should invest more in the economic empowerment of refugees especially the youth. It is sad that over 84% of refugee youth absolutely no source of income at all. This puts them at absolute poverty level. Subsequently, donors and more specifically, the lead refugee agency, UNHCR, need to redirect their priorities to incorporate economic empowerment of the youth by encouraging them to come up with small and micro-enterprises. Such ventures can be facilitated through support with small grants.
- iv. The refugee youth should be taken through short trainings/courses on business management to equip them with basic business management skills to enable them start and run small & micro enterprises successfully. In the long run, this will lift from the donors' shoulders the burden of refugees' complete reliance on food rations and other basic needs on them.
- v. The organisations working with refugees should consider employing more counselors to help in handling psychosocial needs of the youth. This is borne out by the evidence that almost half of the youth were in need of such services due to trauma and stress they have gone through due to atrocities that accompany conflict as well as sexual and gender based violence that is so prevalent in the camp.

- vi. As the camp continues to expand, medical facilities become overstretched. Hence there is need to expand, equip, staff and stock them with drugs to improve provision of medical services and restore beneficiaries' confidence in the care provided. This will eliminate unnecessary deaths or health complications brought by reliance on over the counter drugs, traditional medicine, or delayed consultation of health providers.

- vii. The organisation running education in the camp should consider introducing "accelerated learning" in the camp's education system so that youth who are interested in learning but who are rather "too mature" for primary education do not go through the whole 8-year curriculum cycle with much younger children (some of whom are their siblings or neighbours), a fact that discourages them. This will encourage not only improvement of literacy levels among the refugee population but also acquisition of livelihood skills provided to them by different organisations through various trainings.

5.5 Contribution to the body of knowledge

The findings of this study have led to several contributions towards the body of knowledge as outlined on table 5.1 below. It highlights the gains realized from the study which will add knowledge to the present situation.

Table 5.1 contributions of the study to the body of knowledge

Objectives	Contributions to knowledge
i. To assess the extent to which encampment affects refugee youth's economic self-reliance.	The study showed that refugee encampment policy has profound negative effect on refugee youth as it enhances poverty, kills initiative, breeds hopelessness and promotes the culture of over reliance on handouts.
ii. To determine the level at which encampment affects refugee youth's acquisition of education	The study showed that refugee encampment policy denies children and youth their right to access basic education and encourages illiteracy among refugee population. It also compromised the quality of education provided
iii. To establish the extent to which encampment policy affects refugee youth's health.	The study showed that refugee encampment policy leads to enhanced post-traumatic stress disorder, depression and somatization among refugee youth due to prior life at home, experiences of flight from homeland and life in refugee camps and inadequate structures (traditional families or professional) to provide psychosocial support.

5.6 Suggestions for further research

Despite the findings of the study, there are still areas which may need further research to be able to understand the problem better. Studies are required of the different policies applied by different states with respect to refugees and to establish how these affect different segments of the refugee population. It is also recognized that every situation has its own uniqueness and for this reason it is suggested that the same study be replicated in the Daadab refugee camps in North Eastern Kenya. Apart from other intrinsic value, such studies can come in handy for comparison purposes. It is equally suggested that a study be carried out to evaluate the effect of encampment on the socio-cultural fabric/practices of the different ethnic groups and nationalities living in Kakuma refugee camp.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

P.O. BOX

NAIROBI.

12TH APRIL 2013.

Dear Respondent,

RE: REQUEST FOR QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION

This questionnaire is intended to collect data regarding effects of refugees' encampment policy on livelihoods of refugee youths in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya. It is absolutely designed for academic purposes and no information out of it will be accessible to any quarter without prior consent from the University of Nairobi. You are therefore requested to read and complete all the questions so as to assist in accurate formation of generalizations regarding livelihoods of refugee youths in Kakuma Refugee Camp.

Thank in advance for your contribution.

Yours faithfully,

Tom M. Aduwa.
(Student of UON)

APPENDIX II:

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESPONDENTS

S/NO-----

INTRODUCTION

I am a student at the University of Nairobi. In partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Masters of Arts degree in Project Planning and Management, I am conducting a survey entitled: Effects of refugees' encampment policy on livelihoods of refugee youths in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya. For this purpose, I have selected you as part of the sample of the population that I intend to study. I will avail the findings of my survey to you upon request. You stand to benefit through policy reviews if these can be undertaken by the Kenyan government and the UNHCR as a result of this work. Your recommendations and suggestions will be highly appreciated.

The nature of my study is academic and I assure you of utmost confidentiality. This is because the information you provide will only be published as anonymous statistical data and no personal information is requested. I will greatly appreciate your response in filling the questionnaire attached, which will take only a few minutes.

Thanking you and wishing you well.

Tom M. Aduwa.

APPENDIX III

TITLE: EFFECT OF REFUGEES' ENCAMPMENT POLICY ON THE LIVELIHOODS OF REFUGEE YOUTHS IN KAKUMA REFUGEE CAMP, KENYA.

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR REFUGEE YOUTHS

SECTION A			
<i>GENERAL INFORMATION</i>			
<i>1.0</i>	<i>Introduction</i>	<i>Response/Answer</i> ↓	<i>Instructions</i> ↓
1.1	Date of interview	-----/-----/2013	
1.2	Name of the Block	_____	
<i>DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION</i>			
1.3	What is your age?	<input type="checkbox"/> 18 ó 20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21 ó 30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31 ó 35	<i>Please</i> <i>Tick the most</i> <i>appropriate.</i>
1.4	What is your nationality?	<input type="checkbox"/> South Sudanese <input type="checkbox"/> Somali <input type="checkbox"/> Ethiopian <input type="checkbox"/> Rwandese <input type="checkbox"/> Congolese <input type="checkbox"/> Other -----(Please state)	
1.5	Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female	

	SECTION B		
2.0	ECONOMIC SELF-RELIANCE		
2.1	When did you come to Kenya?	_____	<i>Please write the year</i>
2.2	How long have you lived in Kakuma Refugee Camp?	_____	<i>Please write the No. of years</i>
2.3	Do you have employment?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
2.4	If YES, how much are you paid per month?	<input type="checkbox"/> 1,000 ó 1,999 Kshs <input type="checkbox"/> 2,000 ó 3,999 Kshs. <input type="checkbox"/> 4,000 ó 5,999 Kshs <input type="checkbox"/> 6,000 ó 7,999 Kshs. <input type="checkbox"/> 8,000 ó 10,000 Kshs <input type="checkbox"/> Above 10,000 kshs	
2.5	Can you live on what you are paid without relying on food rations that are given every two weeks?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
2.6	Do you have a business of your own?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
2.7	If ðNOö, why?	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't have money to start a business. <input type="checkbox"/> We are not allowed to start a business.	

		<input type="checkbox"/> I am not interested in starting a business.	
2.8	If you have a business where did you get capital?	<input type="checkbox"/> From family members. <input type="checkbox"/> From an NGO. <input type="checkbox"/> From UNHCR. <input type="checkbox"/> Others-----	<i>(Please explain)</i>
2.9	How do you get food?	<input type="checkbox"/> I buy my own food. <input type="checkbox"/> From WFP (Food Rations)	
2.9.1	Are you happy with being in the camp?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
2.9.2	If given an option, what would you choose?	<input type="checkbox"/> Resettlement <input type="checkbox"/> Settling in Kenya <input type="checkbox"/> Repatriation <input type="checkbox"/> Remain in the camp.	
3.0	ENCAMPMENT & REFUGEE YOUTHS' EDUCATION		
3.1	Do you attend school/college	YES NO	
3.3	What is the highest certificate of education are holding?	<input type="checkbox"/> None <input type="checkbox"/> Below Class 8 <input type="checkbox"/> Class 8 <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary <input type="checkbox"/> Form 4	

		<input type="checkbox"/> College	
3.4	Where did you receive your education from?	<input type="checkbox"/> In the camp schools <input type="checkbox"/> Public schools (out of the camp) <input type="checkbox"/> In my home country.	
3.5	Does the camp offer good opportunities for education?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
3.6	Are you happy with the education provided in the camp?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
4.0	ENCAMPMENT & REFUGEE YOUTHS' HEALTH		
4.1	Do you buy food to supplement food rations provided by WFP?	Yes No	
4.2	Do you get fruits to supplement your diet?	Yes No	
4.2	Have you ever received counseling for stress?	Yes No	
4.3	If -NOö, why not?	I have never been mentally disturbed There is no counseling for youth There are very few counselors	
4.4	Do you get good medical care when you fall sick?	Yes No	
	If -NOö, why not?	There are no enough health facilities /hospitals There are not enough doctors	

	Do you get information about reproductive health?	Yes No	
	Do you receive information about preventive health care?	Yes No	
	How often do you fall sick?	i) rarely ii) often iii) twice a year.	
	When sick, how do you get treatment?	i) I buy drugs from the shop ii) I am treated in hospital iii) I recover without treatment	
	Do you like living in the camp?	Yes No	
	If not what would you like to be done?	i) Allowed to move freely in the country ii) Allowed to get employment outside the camp iii) get resettlement iv) integration into the country v) Repatriation back to my country	

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION