

**CORRELATING FAMILY INCOME WITH SEXUAL VIOLENCE
AGAINST CHILDREN: A STUDY OF KASARANI SUB COUNTY,
NAIROBI COUNTY**

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**A thesis submitted to the Graduate School in partial fulfilment for the requirement of
the award of Master of Arts degree in gender women and development studies of
Egerton University**

EGERTON UNIVERSITY

NOVEMBER 2015

DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I declare that this thesis is my original work and it has not been presented to any other university for academic credit. Information from other sources has been duly acknowledged.

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DEDICATION

This Work is dedicated to my wife Janet and daughters Angella and Victoria.

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I take this opportunity to thank the Almighty God for guidance through this study. I also convey my acknowledgement to Egerton University for granting me the opportunity to undertake this study. The study marks the diversity of academics in the life of a budding scholar to understand the principles underpinning gender equality and the rights of children in its entirety. The research heavily benefitted from the support of my supervisors: Dr. Damaris Parsitau – Director, Institute of Gender Women and Development Studies at Egerton University and Prof. Wilson Ogola – Professor at the Technical University of Kenya. Both of them guided my work, shaped the methodology and enhanced the consistency of ideology expressed herein. I say thank you. The ideas of study were heavily learnt from the Action Aids’ “Stop Violence Against Girls Project”, with intellectual mentorship from Jenny Parkes and Jo Heslop both from the Institute of Education, University of London. I’m happy to pay gratitude to them. Special acknowledgements also go to Marygorety Akinyi – the course coordinator – Institute of Gender Women and Development Studies at Egerton University, City Campus. She made this dream to come true. I would wish to also acknowledge my family, colleagues at work at the Catholic University of Eastern Africa, for the enormous support they granted differently at each stage of this study. All individuals who supported the conceptualization and delivery of the research from the data collection to peer review, especially Dr. Paschal Wambiya and Christine Mwakima, I say thank you. Finally, this work is fully indebted to all the research participants who shared their experiences and lessons, and contributed their knowledge to make the study a success.

ABSTRACT

Over time, children are presented to have borne the brunt of offensive cultural practices and conditions that perpetuate sexual violence especially in Kenya. Research gap shows existing uncertainty on the determinants of sexual violence and how the challenge is manifested in the dynamics of the changing economic conditions. This study examines the correlation between incidents of sexual violence and family income as an indicator of socio-economic inequalities at micro level. The study therefore broadly aimed to explore the ultimate relationship between family income levels and prevalence of sexual violence. Specific objectives sought to explore the prevalence of sexual violence against children with respective family income differences; determined the correlation between sexual violence experienced by children to the associated family income factors; and assessed the outcomes of sexual violence based on children's family income backgrounds. The study is based on Resource theory of violence at family, which suggests a relationship between wealth and violence at community level. Descriptive survey design was used with a mixed paradigm approach to combine quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. Cluster sampling method was then used to select the study schools as the participants who were chosen randomly in each sampled school. Data was collected using questionnaire, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs), and Key informant interviews. Scope of the study targeted teenage children aged 13-17 years in six secondary schools. General findings show that there is an association between worse economic conditions exhibited by low family income levels and high levels of sexual violence against children. Results from regression analysis demonstrated that there is a correlation between violence and socio-economic inequality in terms of family income disparities which points to possible wider structural causes of violence. It is therefore concluded that the prevalence of violence against children have indirect relationship with the family income endowment, and direct relationship with income disparities.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	ii
COPY RIGHT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
ABSTRACT	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xi
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xiii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	4
1.3 Research Objectives	5
1.3.1 Specific objectives.....	5
1.4 Hypotheses.....	5
1.5 Justification of the study.....	5
1.6 Scope and limitations of the study.....	6
1.7 Definition of Terms	8
CHAPTER TWO	12
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	12
2.1 Introduction	12
2.2 Violence Against Children	12
2.2.1 Prevalence of sexual violence against children	14

2.2.2	The link between economics and sexual violence against children	18
2.2.3	Gender and Economics.....	20
2.2.4	Gender considerations and economic choices at family level	21
2.2.5	Legislation in Kenya on sexual violence against children	23
2.2.6	Critique of the literature on economic focus on violence.....	25
2.3	Theoretical Framework.....	26
2.3.1	Resource Theory.....	27
 CHAPTER THREE.....		32
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		32
3.1	Introduction	32
3.2	Study area	32
3.3	Research design	32
3.4	Population and Sampling Procedure.....	33
3.4.1	Target Population	33
3.4.2	Sampling Procedure and Sample size.....	34
(a)	Sampling procedure.....	34
(b)	Sample size	35
3.4.3	Unit of analysis.....	37
3.5	Data collection.....	37
3.5.1	Description of Research Instruments.....	37
3.6	Data Analysis.....	40
3.7	Verification for reliability.....	41
3.8	Research Ethics.....	42
3.9	Report presentation.....	43

CHAPTER FOUR	44
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	44
4.1 Introduction	44
4.2 Results	45
4.2.1 Levels of family income	45
4.2.2 Indicators for income disparities	47
4.2.3 Knowledge of different forms of violence	51
4.2.4 Prevalence levels of sexual violence	53
4.2.5 Types of violence considered by children as most serious.....	55
4.3 Correlation between family income and prevalence of sexual violence	56
4.3.1 Relationship between family expenditure on housing and prevalence of sexual violence.....	58
4.3.2 Relationship between family expenditure on food and prevalence of violence	59
4.3.3 Perpetrators of sexual violence against children	60
4.3.4 Location of sexual violence against children	63
4.3.4 Frequency in occurrence of sexual violence against children	66
4.4 Relationship between income levels and actions taken by children who experienced violence.....	68
4.4.1 Actions taken by victims of violence	68
4.4.2 Outcomes of Actions taken by victims.....	71
4.5 Discussion of Results.....	75
4.5.1 Status of family income disparities and the prevalence of sexual violence	75
(a) Income disparities.....	75
(b) Prevalence of Sexual violence against children	76
4.5.2 Correlation between family income and sexual violence against children	78
4.5.3 Relationship between family income and actions on sexual violence.....	81
CHAPTER FIVE	83
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	83

5.1	Summary of Findings	83
5.2	Conclusions	85
5.2.1	Theoretical Conclusions	85
5.2.2	Empirical Conclusions.....	85
5.3	Recommendations	87
5.3.1	General Recommendations.....	87
5.3.2	Policy Recommendations	87
5.3.3	Recommendation for further research	88
REFERENCES		89
APPENDICES.....		97
I. QUESTIONNAIRE.....		97
II. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION.....		101
III. KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE.....		104
IV. DOCUMENT ANALYSIS/REVIEW GUIDE		105
MAP OF STUDY AREA:		111

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Target Population	34
Table 3.2: Adjusted population for sampling	35
Table 3.3: Actual sample frame.....	36
Table 4.1 Family owned houses	49
Table 4.2 Percentage of who pays school fees	50
Table 4.3: Percentage of respondents with fee balance according to who pays fees	51
Table 4.4: Types of violence considered by respondents as most serious	55
Table 4.5: Comparing income category and prevalence level of violence.....	56
Table 4.6: Comparison (%) of levels of violence and type of housing	59
Table 4.7: Perpetrators of each type of violence	61
Table 4.8: Location of violence by type and gender of respondents.....	64
Table 4.9: Location of violence and levels of income.....	65
Table 4.10: Frequency of violence by type and gender of respondents	66
Table 4.11: Frequency of violence and levels of income	67
Table 4.12: Actions taken by respondents who experienced different types of violence.....	68
Table 4.13 Actions taken versus the level of household income.....	69
Table 4.14: Results of actions taken by gender of respondents.....	71
Table 4.15: Results of action taken and level of income	72
Table 4.16: Respondents level of satisfaction with outcomes.....	73

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Family income categories and disparities	45
Figure 2: Amount spent on meals by different families	47
Figure 3: Expenditure on rented housing	48
Figure 4: Percentage of respondents recognizing each type of violence.....	52
Figure 5: Respondents experiencing violence in the past 12 months by gender.....	54
Figure 6: Linear Relationship between Family Income and Prevalence of Violence	57
Figure 7: Comparison between family expenditure on food and prevalence of different forms of violence.....	60
Figure 8: Relationship between frequency of perpetrators and the levels of family income .	63
Figure 9: Actions taken by level of household income	70

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACORD	Agency for Cooperation and Research in Development
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AAIK,	ActionAid International Kenya
CDC	Centers for Disease Control
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FGM/C	Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting
GSHS	Global School-based Student Health Survey
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
KDHS	Kenya Demographic Health Survey
PCAR	Pennsylvania Coalition Against Rape
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
UNSG	United Nations Secretary-General
USA	United States of America
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Education Fund
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), division of Data, Research and Policy, underscores that measuring the breadth and depth of violence against children is complicated by the fact that violence can take many forms like physical, sexual and emotional. They also occur in any setting including the home, school, workplace and over the internet and be perpetrated by individuals such as parents and other caregivers, peers, intimate partners, authority figures and strangers or even groups (UNICEF, 2014).

An earlier study on the prevalence of violence by Day, McKenna and Bowlus, (2005) indicated that violence is an issue that permeates every corner of society, is widespread and costly. In their study, the scholars organized the economic costs of violence by placing them in categories based on the consequences of violence and the services utilized as a result of violence. The study further revealed that individuals affected by sexual violence pay out of pocket expenses, and their families experience a change in their consumption choices as a result. World Health Organization (2013) further emphasizes that sexual violence against children is particularly the most pressing issue.

Research by UNAIDS (2010) linked the causes of sexual violence against children to economic challenges, arising from the economic gap between the children and their older perpetrators. The children were reported to be engaging in transactional sex with less bargaining power than their clients with the purchasing power. Some cases of violation are even feared to expose children, especially girls, to unequal power dynamics through early marriages.

Currie and Widom (2010), conducting a study in the United States, confirmed the damaging economic consequences of child abuse, after conducting a prospective cohort study in which they matched children who had experienced court-substantiated cases of physical and sexual abuse before age eleven years with a non-abused control group. They followed both groups of children into middle adulthood (that is, into their thirties and forties), comparing their economic outcomes. They found that adults with documented histories of abuse were, on average, 14 per cent less likely than the control group to be employed and significantly less

likely to own assets (such as a home, vehicle, stock or bank account). Furthermore, the study estimated that childhood experiences of abuse reduced a person's earning potential by an average of about US\$5,000 per year. In economic terms at least, women appear to be more severely affected by childhood abuse than men. The study suggests the disproportionate long-term burden of childhood abuse on women's economic well-being. They recommend that further research is needed, to understand the social and economic impact of child abuse by sex.

In a study of six cities in Central America by World Bank (2011), between 3-10% of men between 19-30 years old reported to have been sexually abused as a child. Urban areas are also reported to provide a more fertile ground for various types of violence, especially when high rates of growth overwhelm government capacity to provide basic services, including security, to residents. Sexual violence was thus found to be facilitated by narrow paths, vacant fields and buildings, distant latrines, and poor street lighting.

Research on sexual violence of children in Africa (Arango *et al*, 2014) suggests the vice is highly prevalent for both girls and boys. Rates of victimization from a series of National Violence against Children Surveys estimate that, among women 18-24 years old, 38% in Swaziland, 27% in Tanzania and 32% in Zimbabwe had experienced sexual violence before they were 18 years old. Among men, about 1 in 9 in Tanzania and 1 in 10 in Zimbabwe had similar experiences (Contreras *et al*, 2010).

World Health Organization in a multi-country study (2009) provides comparative data from around the world, including three African countries showing the prevailing gaps. The findings of the study showed that, while 16-59% of women had ever experienced sexual violence in their childhood, the causes of sexual violence remain dynamic, complex and under-researched. The data by WHO (2009) report covers studies from Kenya, South Africa, Mozambique, Nigeria and Tanzania that also show a high prevalence and variation in types and impacts of sexual violence against children and further recommends for studies to articulate the causes of violence against children. Ndung'u *et al* (2009), further makes critical conclusion that sexual violence in sub-Saharan Africa remains an under-researched and under-resourced area, despite evidence of how pervasive it is.

In Kenya, it is estimated that by the age of 15 years, approximately 49% of the population of women and girls experience some form of violence (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) and ICF Macro (2010). One out of every four girls from that survey reported having lost their virginity through force, while Police statistics in Kenya showed a 35% increase in child rape cases within a year (KNBS, 2010).

Over time, children have borne the brunt of offensive cultural practices that perpetuate sexual violence in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010). A study by the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development in Kenya indicated recurrent trends of violence before and after general elections in Kenya, part of which include sexual violence against children. Comparing figures on sexual violence across several studies, (Ndung'u *et al*, 2009) concluded in their review that even data from Demographic and Health Surveys are limited by a tendency to underreport information on sexual violence against children. Even so they concur that existing data provide an imperative for developing legislation and related services. The present study therefore moves ahead to seek information on the relationship between sexual violence against children and their respective socioeconomic environments. Such pertinent information is sought through the children's own voice, to provide conclusive evidence based on personal experiences.

Zwi *et al.*, (2007) conducted a review of the preventive measures for sexual violence against children, which summarized the evidence for school-based interventions by different organizations. They found no evidence that any of the interventions reduced the victimization or perpetration of child sexual abuse or led to greater access to services for children who had been sexually assaulted. It was however revealed that the behavioural outcome measured was children's self-protective behaviour when faced with a situation that could lead to abuse that significantly depended on the economic environment of the child.

It is no doubt therefore that the economic factors are at play and highly intertwined with the issues of sexual violence against children. The family income can thus be used as an adequate measure of the children's economic environment. This study finds it necessary to investigate the role of economic challenges with respect to income disparity, in the vulnerability to sexual violence experienced by children and how it determines the children's capacity to make choices in their welfare. The context is taken from an urban set

up that would provide a national outlook of the problem for purposes of generalization and population representation.

This focus is in line with the UNICEF, (2010) study which declared that a full understanding of violence against children requires many types of information. Prevalence estimates are needed to draw the magnitude of the problem, while information on the family and the social environment in which children live can reveal factors that may increase or mitigate risk. Insights into perceptions, attitudes, beliefs and cultural practices pertaining to child abuse, perpetrators and victims can uncover the social norms that may explain the occurrence of violence and how people justify it. Solid evidence of what works in terms of prevention and response is also recommended in developing and implementing successful strategies to address the problem of sexual violence against children. It is in this background that sexual violence against children is measured to show the link with economic wellbeing at family level in Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

This study examined the extent of relationship between family income levels on sexual violence against children especially in urban setting with varied family economic status. Income factor was taken as the crucial measure of economic status of the household. It thus examined the existing gendered patterns in terms of differences in prevalence among girls and boys in relation to their respective family income. Sexual violence in its various forms remains endemic in communities around the world, cutting across class, race, age, religion and national boundaries. As much as studies on gender based violence presents tangible evidence in Kenya in the recent past, facts on sexual violence against children remains remote. The issue of violence against children has been a major gap since many studies on violence against children focus on physical violence and domestic violence. Sexual forms of violence are seen as taboo topics in many African communities, hence proving to be quite challenging to researchers. Different forms of sexual assault are occasionally reported to be happening in the home environment and perpetrated by close family members. In the process of bridging the gap herein, this study explores three specific objectives that link to the aspects of prevalence, correlation, and actions that point at prevention of sexual violence against children in relation to their respective family income levels.

1.3 Research Objectives

The broad objective aimed at exploring the ultimate relationship between sexual violence against children and the levels in the family income taking a gendered perspective.

1.3.1 Specific objectives

- (a) To establish the prevalence of sexual violence against children with respective family income differences.
- (b) To determine the correlation between sexual violence experienced by children to the associated family income factors.
- (c) To assess the actions taken against sexual violence by children based on their family income backgrounds.

1.4 Hypotheses

The study was based on two sets of hypotheses:

- (a) Null hypothesis H_0 : Family income factors have no correlation with the aspects of sexual violence against children, $H_0 = \mu = 0$
- (b) Alternative hypothesis, H_A : Family income factors correlates with sexual violence against children. $H_A = \alpha \neq 0$

Where: H_0 = the null hypothesis
 H_A = the alternative Hypothesis
 μ = group mean for the null hypothesis
 α = mean for the alternative hypothesis

1.5 Justification of the study

The rationale for this study was based on the universal fact that violence against children is a serious human rights issue. In fact, it has both social and public health implication in many parts of the world (Parkes and Chege, 2010). Its consequences can be devastating. Violence also erodes the strong foundation that children need for leading healthy and productive lives, and violates the fundamental right of children to a safe childhood. The economic picture needs to be analysed since no country, society or individual is immune, whether rich or poor. Parkes and Chege (2010) argue that violence against children is never justifiable, nor is it inevitable. However, if its underlying causes are identified and addressed, violence against children is entirely preventable.

The United Nations Secretary-General's (UNSG) (2006) *World Report on Violence Against Children* was the first and most comprehensive global study on all forms of violence against children. The report urges states to improve data collection and information systems in order to identify the most vulnerable children, inform policy and programming at all levels and track progress towards the goal of preventing violence against children. This study hoped to meet part of the recommendations by providing data that would be helpful, for public planning of children's affairs both at micro and macro levels.

1.6 Scope and limitations of the study

The study predicted several limitations that were seen as challenging with such a study on sexual violence, especially against children in terms of participant's ability to speak out their experiences and the related ethical considerations to be taken. Many of such limitations were in fact confirmed and overcome in the study methodology applied. One of the first experiences proved that maintaining privacy was a major challenge for encouraging open expression of views from children. It was both practically difficult especially with children below teenage and the target age groups.

Children, especially girls, were initially hesitant to participate in the research due to difficulty in ascertaining their personal consent. They were assured of their safety and voluntary participation in the informed consent agreement (see appendix VI), which they went through before agreeing to participate. They also expressed fear that teachers would be informed of their personal lives since consent was sought from the head teachers in each school. To overcome these limitations, the scope of this study was retained as designed to target teenage children within the age bracket of 13-17 years in secondary schools. This helped to reduce the communication challenge which would have been possible when researching with primary school children on sensitive issues related to sexuality.

The target group also made it easy to apply the outlined ethical considerations, like informed consent and confidentiality with limited power relations between the researcher and respondents. To ensure free participation of girls in FGDs, a female research assistant was hired to support the facilitation of the FGDs. The issues of confidentiality were further enhanced as explained in the methodology section in chapter three.

The teenage respondents were also targeted because they were at the sexual and physical maturation stage. This was presumed to be most likely to expose them to sexual violence, hence they were assumed to be in a position to provide the required data from personal experience with limited strain. The study area within Kasarani district, of Nairobi County was conveniently chosen to provide the expected family income variations among the respondents arising from the prevailing varied sources of livelihoods and living standards in the district.

1.7 Definition of Terms

While the study recognized that there are various definitions and forms and sources of violence, which not only affect children but also affect many adults, the study chooses to limit its scope to those forms of violence recognized by law (international and local) as amounting to sexual violence. It was recognized that violence hardly occurs in isolation or mutually exclusive, but due care was taken to define what amounts to causes and effects of violence against children. To help attain this, the study relied on a set of definitions for the purposes of limiting the scope of this study. A few key words and phrases used repeatedly in the study are defined as follows:

Attempted rape: this has been adopted from the Sexual Offences Act to mean attempted or forced or coerced sexual intercourse, but no penetration takes place. It includes forced sodomy known as anal rape.

Child: any person under the age of 18 years, according to the Constitution of Kenya 2010, and the Children's Act 2001.

Child sexual abuse: sexual exploitation of a child (before a person turns 18 years) by an adult or another child according to the Children's Act 2001.

Defilement: committing an act which causes penetration of one's genital organs with a child.

Forced prostitution: forced or coerced sex trade in exchange for material resources, services and assistance, usually targeting highly vulnerable women or girls unable to meet basic human needs for themselves and/or their children.

Gender: the socially constructed roles based on sex of a person. Gender roles are set by convention and other social, economic, political and cultural forces.

Incest: any act where a child is used for sexual gratification by a relative. This includes any sexual relations/interaction with a child by a close family member like father or mother, uncle, brother or sister.

Income: the money and monetary equivalents earned through employment (formal or informal) and investments.

Family: is treated to have same meaning as household and used in the study to refer to the basic social unit consisting of parents and their children, considered as a group, whether dwelling together or not - the traditional family.

Family income: also called household income, which is treated as a measure of the combined incomes of all people sharing a particular household or nuclear family or place of residence. It includes every form of income, e.g., salaries and wages, retirement income, and investment or gains.

Peeping: to infringe into someone's privacy by looking through a small opening or from a concealed location. It include acts like seeing through an opening, a person in the bathroom, toilet, changing room, or using a mirror to view someone in a compromised position.

Perpetrator: the person who commits the offense amounting to violation of any one's right.

Poverty: is relative in meaning but taken to mean lack of options in terms of economic choices. It is the state of having a need that one cannot fulfil at all due to absolute lack of entitlements.

Rape: is committed when a person intentionally and unlawfully commits an act which causes penetration with his or her genital organs when the other adult person does not consent to the penetration or when the consent is obtained by force or intimidation of any kind.

Marital rape: the invasion of any part of the body of a person in marriage with a sexual organ, or of the anal or genital opening of the victim with any object or any other part of the body by force, coercion, taking advantage of a coercive environment, or against a person incapable of giving genuine consent.

Sex: the distinction between women and men (or girls and boys) as a result of their biological, physical and genetic difference.

Sexual abuse: refers to actual or threatened physical intrusion of a sexual nature, including inappropriate touching, by force or under unequal or coercive conditions.

Sexual assault: is the act of unlawfully penetrating the genital organs of another person with any part of the body or an object unless such penetration is carried out for proper and professional hygienic or medical purposes as defined in the Sexual Offenses Act 2006.

Sexual exploitation: refers to any abuse of a position of vulnerability, differential power, or trust for sexual purposes. This includes profiting momentarily, socially or politically from the sexual exploitation of another.

Sexual harassment: any unwelcome, usually repeated and unreciprocated, sexual advance, unsolicited sexual attention, demand for sexual access or favours, sexual innuendo or other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature, display or pornographic material, when it interferes with work, is made a condition of employment or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive work environment.

Sexual violence: a prohibited sexually related act taken by a perpetrator against another person, according to the Sexual Offenses Act 2006.

Sodomy: also called anal rape, is forced or coerced anal intercourse, usually male-to-male or male-to-female.

Taboo: a forbidden act by cultural norms on moral context. It varies according to culture and community.

Violence: the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation.

1.8 Division of Chapters

This thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter one sets out the introduction that includes the problem under investigation, the objectives of the study, the hypothesis, and rationale for the study. Chapter two outlines discussions of previous research related to the problem under investigation and culminates into discussing the theory guiding the study. The next chapter displays the methodology used to collect and analyse the data. Findings of the study are then discussed in chapter four before concluding with summary, conclusion and recommendations in chapter five.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature and theoretical framework. It begins with the general review on violence against children, and then specifically focuses on sexual violence against children. The section also reviews the legislations that explain the concept of violence in terms of meanings and implications. It further examines the economic implications of violence. Finally resource theory of violence is discussed to shape the study design.

2.2 Violence Against Children

The United Nations Secretary-General's, UNSG (2006) report declared that violence against children is a global human rights issue, with significant negative social impact on children's development. The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) states that all children have the right to be protected against all forms of violence, exploitation and abuse, including sexual abuse and sexual exploitation (UNICEF and CDC, 2011). The short and long-term consequences of such forms of violence are believed to be severe not only for those who experience the violence, but also for families and communities hence they constitute a critical societal concern (UNICEF and CDC, 2011). Other research on violence shows an increased risk of current sexual violence among persons of younger age, especially those aged 15 to 19 years (Kishor and Johnson, 2004). The reports mainly focus on the consequences and the link to rights violation.

Zoneziwoh (2011) undertaking a study on sexual violence affecting the youth, with specific focus on university students, declared that sexual violence has gained over the past two decades. However, the study observed that much of the international attention to this problem focuses on situations of armed conflict and rarely on environments that are seen as peaceful. The study discusses case studies from the University of California, Santa Cruz; Makerere University, and University of Cape Town. It is found that sexual violence on campus has been dealt with at the highest level in government, particularly in the U.S.A and South Africa, but there is still very little to say about the successes of these mechanisms

adopted to address this crime, especially in Uganda and South Africa. The study gives a very rich foundation to the present study by granting comparisons with regard to the prevalence levels.

At international level, comparable data (UNICEF, 2014) from 40 low and middle income countries confirm that exposure to certain forms of sexual violence is not uncommon in the lives of many girls. The proportion of those aged between 15 and 19 years who have ever experienced forced sexual intercourse or other sexual acts in their lifetime varies widely across countries, ranging from reported experiences among adolescent girls in Kyrgyzstan to 22 per cent among such girls in Cameroon. The report further reveals that in 13 of the 18 countries in sub-Saharan Africa with available data, prevalence rates of 10 per cent or more are found (UNICEF, 2014). Moreover, one in eight adolescent girls in all West and Central African countries except two (Nigeria and Sao Tome) with available data, reported experiences of forced sexual intercourse or other sexual acts at some point during their lives. Prevalence rates of sexual violence are above 10 per cent in all countries of Eastern and Southern Africa with available data, except for Comoros and Mozambique (UNICEF, 2014).

In Kenya, the first national survey on violence against children (VACs), was undertaken in the year 2010 (and published in 2012), focusing on violence against both female and male children in Kenya. The survey is the most up to date National assessment of households covering 1,306 females and 1,622 males aged between 13 to 24 years (Republic of Kenya, 2012). The Kenya VACs was designed to yield lifetime and current experiences of emotional, physical and sexual violations for female and male children in cohorts of two age groups. The first group comprised of 18 to 24 year olds who experienced acts of violence prior to age 18. The second category examined the current experiences of 13 to 17 year olds who experienced acts of violence during the 12 months prior to the survey. The findings from the survey indicate that violence against children is a serious problem in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2012).

Levels of violence prior to age 18 as reported by 18 to 24 year olds (lifetime experiences) indicate that during childhood, 32% of females and 18% of males experience sexual violence. Likewise, 66% of females and 73% of males experienced physical violence and 26% of females and 32% of males experience any violence as a child (Republic of Kenya,

2012). This national survey limited its focus on prevalence levels, risk and protective factors, health consequences and access to service and support structures. It is thus more valuable to analyze the relationship between factors reported in the national survey and the consequent economic factors at household levels that would enhance prevention of the vice.

Drawing attention to the gendered dimensions of violence, it is inherent that increasing coherence in the ways violence is understood has facilitated identification across boundaries of multiple forms of violence, leading to revelations about widespread violence against children. Parkes *et al*, (2013) opines that acts of violence are often hidden, sometimes taken for granted and hence, unrecognised; and at other times violence is unreported for fear of repercussion or rejection. Parkes *et al*, (2013) however, throws a caution that focusing solely on the prevalence of violence can create problems. Firstly, an over-emphasis on acts of violence can downplay the workings of power that underpin these acts. All too often, the gendered dimensions of violence are ignored. Second, the study noted that quest for universal definitions can detract from the importance of subjective meanings. It is thus concluded that violence is inextricably related to power, serving to reinforce or change the social order.

Despite the concerns, different research studies concur that there is little accurate data on the prevalence of violence against children worldwide. Available information however indicates that violence against children is a major problem that exists across all countries of the world (Parkes, *et al*, 2013).

2.2.1 Prevalence of sexual violence against children

To enhance the quality and accuracy of data on the levels of prevalence of violence against children several studies have identified some crucial methodological issues (UNICEF, 2014). Although estimates can be found of the number of children who have experienced sexual violence, one of the biggest challenges in this field is underreporting, which stymies efforts to generate accurate statistics (UNICEF, 2014). United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) report (2011) suggested that boys are even less likely than girls to report incidents of sexual abuse. It can be particularly difficult for boys to report and seek help for fear of being viewed as vulnerable or helpless, notions that run contrary to a common cultural definition of men as being strong and self-reliant. In addition, boys may be

reluctant to admit they have been victims of sexual abuse, particularly if the offender is male, for fear of being labeled as homosexual (UNHCR, 2011).

A comprehensive meta-analysis conducted by Stoltenborgh *et al* (2011) showed the rates of sexual abuse reported to be more than thirty times higher in studies relying on self-reports than in official reports, such as those based on data from child protection services and the police. This implies that national surveys also face the risk of underreporting, depending on the approach used to gather data. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) report (2013) points out further that even when victims find the strength to accurately report what occurred other challenges may affect the availability of comprehensive and reliable statistics. Such challenges emanate from figures obtained from child protection services and agency reports, or data gathered during humanitarian emergencies in designated sentinel sites or through rapid assessment exercises. It is argued that such data rely mostly on selected samples of informants that are successfully reached or that are independently able to contact available services hence posing the limitations of inaccuracy.

Own and Associates (2011) study on the status of education and violence against girls in schools reported that getting reliable and comprehensive data on gender and violence against children remains to be a challenge in Kenya. Nevertheless, the report indicated that more than 51% of women in Kenya had experienced violence in one way or the other since they were fifteen years old. Without examining the costs associated with different forms of violence this survey further revealed that the national statistics compiled by Kenya Police crime statistics up to the year 2007 indicated that there were 876 cases of rape reported to the police 1,983 cases of defilement, 181 cases of incest, 198 cases of sodomy, 191 cases of indecent assault, and 173 cases of abduction reported to the police annually.

Further to the statistics, Kenya Wellbeing Survey (Republic of Kenya, 2008) provided a profile of sexual forms of violence. The report confirmed that 49% of the Kenyan women reported having experienced sexual violence in their lifetime, while 25% had experienced the same within the past twelve months before the survey. The survey shows that 60% of the women and children, who had experienced sexual violence, did not report the events to anyone. On the same note, only 12% of the victims who had been sexually abused reported

the incidents to someone in authority. This explains the gap in terms of how sexual violence is treated in less developed countries like Kenya.

Despite this level of silence and apathy by the victims of sexual violence, Nairobi Women's Hospital is reported to have been receiving eighteen cases of defilement, rape or incest each day (GVRC, 2009). They report that a majority of those reporting are girls. Overall, 60% of women who were survivors of violence in 2008, experienced their first abuse between the age of 6 and 12 years, while 24% experienced their sexual violence between the age of 13 and 19 years (Republic of Kenya, 2008). This implies that violence against children is quite high compared to adults.

Gallagher, *et al* (2002) observed in the previous decade that no one factor can adequately explain why children are at risk of sexual victimization, although it is clear they are more vulnerable to abuse due to their age. In general, children have less experience, knowledge, and maturity. In many cases, they have less physical strength than adults, which puts them at increased risk of being perceived as easy targets. Although children of every age are vulnerable, the specific risks they may be exposed to are likely to vary across developmental stages. According to this view (of Gallagher, *et al*, 2002) it would be argued that, younger children may be particularly vulnerable to abuse by adults or other caregivers they trust and on whom they depend at home or in other care settings where they are likely to spend most of their time. Adolescents, on the other hand, may be more prone to victimization outside the home through exposure to strangers and peers, the latter within the context of both friendship and intimate relationships.

Mudaly and Goddard (2006) observed that children's perceptions of what constitutes abuse and their ability to comprehend the experience are also likely to be influenced by their age and evolving capacities. For example, younger children may be especially susceptible to manipulation, coercion and 'grooming' by older peers and adults since they are probably unaware of perpetrators' motives or the nature of the acts experienced.

Rumbold (2008) asserted that there is growing awareness of the links between sexual violence, health, human rights and national development in East, Central and Southern Africa. However, there are few interventions that simultaneously address the determinants and consequences of sexual violence in an integrated and comprehensive manner, with

responses being implemented separately by the NGO and public sectors, and by separate line ministries within national governments. The review further outlines that there are, few guidelines or frameworks that exist to guide policymakers in developing and implementing the comprehensive response necessary to address the health and criminal justice consequences of violence, and to reduce the determinants of violent behaviour within communities. Moreover, it asserts that in most situations, organizations and ministries are undertaking activities without reference to or liaison with other key actors and networks within their country or more widely in the region.

Agency for Cooperation and Research in Development (ACORD), in the study of sexual violence in Kenya (2010) reports that violence does not only occur during war and conflict, but it is rampant even where legal systems and institutions are working. The report further indicates that the communities still uphold practise and normalise various forms of abuse against children that include female genital mutilation, early or forced marriage as well as virginity testing. The value attached to female chastity is so high that even where survivors suffer extreme sexual abuse, the typical community response is to isolate and stigmatise them. The shame and stigma attached to sexual violence, and the lenient penalties meted out on offenders in formal and traditional judicial systems, further silence survivors from speaking out (ACORD, 2010).

It has been thus argued that sexual violence continues to affect millions of children, destroying lives and damaging communities (UNICEF and CDC, 2011). Sexual violence can therefore result in negative long and short-term outcomes. Resulting psychological trauma for instance, has been proved to have a negative effect on sexual behaviour and relationships, the ability to negotiate safer sex, and increased potential for drug abuse (Krug *et al*, 2002).

Social, economic, and gender issues are increasingly recognized as significant factors in many countries (Mugawe and Powell, 2006). Violence against children of both sexes has gained international recognition as a serious social and human rights concern affecting all societies. Epidemiological evidence shows that violence is a major cause of ill health among children, as seen through death and disabilities due to injuries, and through increased vulnerability to a range of physical and mental health problems (Krug *et al*, 2002).

The consequences of sexual abuse during childhood are continuing to be widely recognised. Child sexual abuse has far-reaching emotional and physical implications, and people who themselves experienced abuse during childhood are reported to be more likely to perpetrate abuse against others. A study among adolescents found that 66% of males and 71% of females who admitted to forcing someone else to have sex had themselves been forced to have sex (Andersson, 2004). Moreover, a history of forced sex was a powerful determinant of high-risk views on sexual violence. The perpetrators of child sexual abuse are frequently either known to the family, or a family member (Kilonzo and Taegtmeier, 2005).

Despite the high levels of reported and unreported cases of sexual violence, the medical, psychological and legal needs of children are not adequately addressed and require serious attention. However, many Sub-Saharan African countries (Kenya included) are increasingly responding to sexual violence with a range of legislative and health care interventions. The aim of sexual violence legislation is to protect the fundamental rights of persons to bodily integrity through punishing and prosecuting perpetrators as an approach to preventing sexual violence and meting out justice, thus responding to the needs of survivors of such violence (ACORD, 2010).

There is no doubt that protection of children from all forms of violence is a fundamental right guaranteed by the Convention on the Rights of the Child and other international human rights treaties and standards. Yet violence remains an all-too-real part of life for children around the globe – regardless of their economic and social circumstances, culture, religion or ethnicity – with both immediate and long-term consequences (UNICEF, 2011).

The literature in this section powerfully dissects into the prevalence levels and factors with regards to sexual violence against children. They however shed very little light on the socioeconomic implications and more so the family income factors as provided for in this present study. The challenges identified in the general methodological aspects, were however quite instrumental in the design of the study.

2.2.2 The link between economics and sexual violence against children

The relationship between family incomes and sexual violence can be drawn from understanding of the socio-economic tendencies of households (Mukesh, 2014). Most socio-economic variables reveal the level of development of a country and thus on their own

reveal little in terms of absolute inequality unless of course they are ratios. Socio-economic inequality is described as the manifestation of an unequal distribution of resources socially, economically and politically, and *vice versa*. Unlike gender violence variables, there is a general agreement on the meanings of most socio-economic variables (Mukesh, 2014).

Among the different themes of socio-economic variables is a ‘Composite Index’ category which represents an array of indexes (or indices) composed of numerous separate variables feeding into one greater composite index. The United Nations Development Programme’s Gender Development Index (GDI) is one such example. The GDI captures a range of gender related socio-economic information from most ‘themes’ and summarises the data in one index figure for each country. These internationally comparable indexes are from highly accessible and credible secondary data sources. One other index is the household income, which captures a range of socio-economic information at household level (Ward *et al*, 2010).

Many scholars such as (Anderberg *et al*, 2013) have made tangible contributions to examine, theoretically and empirically, how changes in specific variables like unemployment (as source of income) affect the incidence of domestic abuse. The key theoretical prediction is that male and female unemployment have opposite-signed effects on domestic abuse. That means that an increase in male unemployment (loss of income) decreases the incidence of intimate partner violence, while an increase in female unemployment increases domestic abuse. Combining data on intimate partner violence with disaggregated labour market data, (Anderberg *et al*, 2013) concludes that there is strong evidence in support of the theoretical prediction. The theory is however does not explain violence commonly reported among the unemployed youth or family members.

Campbell and Self, (2004) connecting the impacts of sexual violence to economic output argued that female survivors of sexual violence not only sustain physical injuries. They are also more likely to have unintended pregnancies, report symptoms of reproductive tract infections, have multiple partners, and less likely to use condoms and other contraceptives. These effects of violence, and the fear of violence, severely limits the victim’s contribution to social and economic development, thereby hindering achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and other national and international development goals (IFPP, 2004; Campbell and Self, 2004).

Other international research shows that crime victimization costs the world population unmeasurable sums of money. Rape is the most costly of all crimes to its victims, with total estimated costs at billion dollars a year, excluding the cost of child sexual abuse. Sexual abuse has been also reported to bear a negative impact on children's educational attainment. Likewise, sexual violence survivors are shown to experience reduced income in adulthood as a result of victimization in adolescence, with a lifetime income loss (NAESV, 2011). Sub Saharan African countries are reported to be facing challenges to compile the data of such crimes based on costs due to lack of sufficient data capacity in the state facilities handling reported incidents (Dolezal *et al*, 2009).

The feminists tend to conclude that even though some women's organizations and networks work on economic issues, the overall engagement of their movements in this area of connecting the economic implications to sexual violence remains inadequate. It has been argued that often women's organizations are focused on survival, but remains isolated and with limited impact on broader macroeconomic questions until clear connections are drawn between core women's rights issues and the economy (Loya, 2012a).

Dolezal *et al*, (2009) studying the health implications of violence, sums up the connection between violence and economics arguing that violence and abuse occur in all age groups, at all socioeconomic levels, and throughout all of society's structure. They believe it is obvious that these experiences impose a direct economic burden on the healthcare system. What remain less obvious are the greater costs due to the long-term health consequences of such experiences and the cost of non-health related costs.

2.2.3 Gender and Economic variables

Kevane (2004) strongly linked the economic factors to gender issues arguing that gender requires analysis. The study points out that the analysis is necessary because a common outcome of the gendering of social activity is an unequal and inefficient distribution, between men and women, of the capabilities for realizing well-being. It is argued that many, if not most people would agree that women and girls are disadvantaged in life relative to men and boys, even though national statistics sometimes do a poor job of capturing the relevant inequalities (Bobonis, 2008). Kevane however, makes a strong assertion that the

pervasiveness of female disadvantage is one of the most interesting and least understood features of economic life.

Trying to justify the relation between Gender and economic indicators, (Gray and Kevane, 2006) first appreciates that the two have little to do with each other. But he makes a strong justification based on the World Bank's report arguing that African economies are poor because of high levels of corruption. Logically speaking, men are more corruptible than women, while men dominate African governments. Therefore, he believes that the solution is to encourage and campaign for more representation of women in African governments.

Bobonis (2008) takes another syllogism that relative to men, women prefer that social spending be higher and more oriented toward the well-being of children, more social spending on local infrastructure, schooling, and antipoverty programs is good for economic growth. Therefore, he concludes that empowering women in the political process leads to larger allocations toward growth-enhancing government expenditures. Gender in this context is used to refer to the constellation of rules and identities that prescribe and proscribe behaviour for persons, in their social roles as men and women.

2.2.4 Gender considerations and economic choices at family level

Mukesh (2014) in the contribution to connection between economic choices and gender considerations argued that many choices are made in the context of households. At the same time, the structures of households are constituted by the choices that the people within them make. One important household choice concerns investments in children. If those investment choices are themselves gendered, then right away there is a feedback mechanism between structure and choice (Mukesh, 2014). The author holds that parents make different investments in girls than they do in boys, which affects the skills, outlooks, and rights that girls take with them into adulthood. Because of this, young women will make choices that are different from those of young men (Gray and Kevane, 2006). The social patterns that emerge from these choices become viewed as part of the economic structure of a given society, which in turn shapes the choices of the next generation of parents.

This view faces a contradiction that economics is all about how people make choices, while gender roles are all about how people don't actually have any choices to make. It would be thus be important to take precaution against gross stereotypes, and focus on how specific

household support structures like family income levels, affect the gender issues such as sexual violence.

Macdonald, (2012) attempts to make a breakthrough by clarifying that Gender, which is a social ideology, is sometimes peripheral to concerns about how economies perform. In this opinion, the problem is further highlighted by noting that mainstream economic analysis never mentions gender. Instead, academic disciplines that analyse economic activity have small contingents of gender specialists. Therefore, much gender analysis often carried out under the rubric of feminist analysis, concerns gender relations in the wealthy, industrialized countries of the world.

Gender specialists in development studies also ask how gender is important in influencing the patterns and changes in economic activity, for men and women (Gray and Kevane, 2006). That gender may be important seems obvious until one considers that most textbooks in the field of development studies contain little discussion of gender, often relegating the topic to a lonely chapter tacked on to the 'regular' analysis.

UNIFEM (2008) report, in a comparative study on promoting the human rights of women in Kenya based on domestic laws reported that gender inequalities are intersected with other forms of socio-economic inequality, including class, ethnicity, and location, frequently exacerbating the injustices associated with them. The report postulates that the widely used distinction between women's practical gender needs and strategic gender interests partly helped to capture some of the differences and commonalities within a given context.

The practical gender needs are believed to reflect the roles and responsibilities associated with their position within the socio-economic hierarchy, and hence vary considerably across context, class, race and so on. Strategic gender interests, on the other hand, were based on a deductive analysis of the structures of women's subordination and held out the promise of a transformative feminist politics based on shared experiences of oppression. The UN report seems to contend that an economy has to solve a number of problems to overcome the aspects of gender inequality. But the basic cause behind all these problems is resource scarcity (UNIFEM, 2008).

Loya, (2012b) equally bring in the challenge in the reality connecting the economic problem and social factors. The argument here holds that some people who have experienced sexual violence and poverty do not necessarily consider themselves “victims” or “poor.” In this school of thought, language is considered to be extremely important. It is argued that even with the best intentions, as soon as a frame or definition is placed around a social problem, there is risk of losing sight of the whole person and only seeing “the problem” or “condition.” In this case, caution is given that there is a risk of examining the problem as it affects those with some degree of power or privilege in society, leaving out the experiences of many marginalized groups.

On the flip side, there is a tendency to portray gender issues only as they affect marginalized groups, skewing the real picture and perpetuating myths and harmful stereotypes. There is also a tendency to find the causes of the problem in individual behaviours or attributes rather than in the social conditions that perpetuate the problem (Loya, 2012b). It would be imperative therefore for a study on such a sensitive topic to solve the biasness in language and meanings, skewed focus and selective attributes of the problems associated with sexual violence against children. The clear meanings are discussed in the review of the legal instruments below to ensure consistency and objective understanding of the variables measured in sexual violence against children.

2.2.5 Legislation in Kenya on sexual violence against children

The problem of sexual violence has been tackled by several national and international legal instruments. In Kenya, the Constitution is the Supreme legislation through which all other laws emanate. Besides creating and safeguarding fundamental rights of citizens, it also determines and regulates the legal relationship between citizens and the State and between citizens themselves. The Kenyan constitution so far, provides for clear interpretation and definitions of a child or adult. In Article 260, the definitions are as follows: “... unless the context requires otherwise “an adult” means an individual who has attained the age of eighteen years; and a “child” means an individual who has not attained the age of eighteen years” The Constitution of Kenya - 2010, (Republic of Kenya, 2010).

The Children’s Act which was enacted in 2001 further enhances the main aim of domesticating the provisions contained in the UN Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. Under this Act, a

child is entitled to protection from any form of exploitation by any person. It assigns the responsibility on the government and the parent to protect the child from sexual exploitation and use in prostitution, inducement or coercion to engage in any sexual activity, and exposure to obscene materials (Republic of Kenya, 2001).

The Sexual Offences Act of 2006 (Republic of Kenya 2006) goes more specific to primarily make provisions about sexual offences. It highlights the definitions, prevention and the protection of all persons from harm from unlawful sexual acts. Previously, rape and defilement were only applicable to men (as perpetrators) but under the new Act women too can be charged for the offence.

In Section 8 (1) the Act states that “a person who commits an act which causes penetration with a child is guilty of an offence termed as defilement”, (Republic of Kenya, 2006). The Sexual Offences Act, of 2006, further goes beyond the definition to categorize penalties for defilement by age of the child. It provides that a person who commits an offence of defilement with a child aged eleven years or less shall upon conviction be sentenced to imprisonment for life. An offence of defilement with a child between the age of twelve and fifteen years is liable upon conviction to imprisonment for a term of not less than twenty years. And an offence of defilement with a child between the age of sixteen and eighteen years is liable upon conviction to imprisonment for a term of not less than fifteen years.

Rape on the other hand is defined in section 3 (1) stating that “a person commits the offence termed as rape if he or she intentionally and unlawfully commits an act which causes penetration with his or her genital organs; when the other person does not consent to the penetration; or the consent is obtained by force or by means of threats or intimidation of any kind” (Republic of Kenya, 2006): section 3(1). This Law brings into prospect the capacity of a person to give consent which applies only to adults. It further spell out a penalty that a person guilty of rape is liable upon conviction to imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than ten years but which may be enhanced to imprisonment for life.

The Sexual Offences Act created “new” offences which were not captured as offences under the Penal Code in Kenya. Such offences include gang rape, promotion of sexual offences with a child, child trafficking, child sex tourism, child prostitution, child pornography, trafficking for sexual exploitation, sexual harassment, deliberate transmission of HIV or life

threatening STDs, non-disclosure of conviction of sexual offences and sexual offences relating to position of authority and persons in position of trust (Republic of Kenya, 2006).

With the legal intervention in place, it would be helpful to examine further the socioeconomic implications of the problem. The economic problem is most simply explained by "scarcity" of resources – and the need to satisfy unlimited wants with limited resources. This would help determine the economic and gendered manifestation of sexual violence on children. The premise of the economic problem model is that wants are constant and infinite due to constantly changing demands, often closely related to changing demographics of the population. However, resources in the world to satisfy human wants especially available to children are ever limited. The economic problem, and methods to curb it, revolves around the idea of choice in prioritizing which wants can be fulfilled. This includes choices made in supporting children's livelihoods and safety.

2.2.6 Critique of the literature on economic focus on violence

The roots of violence are diverse and a discipline like economics, predicated on rational behavior, may be at something of a disadvantage in explaining a phenomenon largely viewed as irrational. The foray by economists into this area is relatively recent, and may have bias on economic ideologies (Macdonald, 2012).

The literature explaining the secular trend in sexual violence in many economies remains a difficult task. Many social scientists argue that violence is closely related to poverty and that youth unemployment and violence are by-products or even measures of social exclusion. These characteristics partly explain the poor employment records and low legitimate earnings of most perpetrators of violence. These sort of issues originally led economists to examine the relationship between wages and unemployment rates on crime (Kanzianga and Wahhaj, 2010). More recently economists have also considered the benefits and costs of educational programs to reduce crime. Much of the focus of literature is however based on analysis of physical violence or intimate partner violence. It is in this regard that sexual violence against children remains remote and less researched by economists or gender scholars.

Economists thus have tended to equate acts of violent to paid employment in that they require time and produce an income respectively. Clearly, the dichotomy between acts of

violence and legal activity is an oversimplification. A secondary problem with the economist's choice model is that young people are more likely to participate in acts of violence long before they participate in the labor market. This observation raises questions about the appropriateness of the economic model of crime in explaining violence against children (Eckel and Grossman, 2008).

Economic models of criminal behavior have focused on sanction effects and the relationship between work and crime. In the main, these models have not directly addressed the role of family incomes in violence at household level. It could be argued that unemployment is the conduit through which other factors influence the crime rate, and more specifically sexual violence. It is in this regard that Resource theory of violence becomes of great importance in analyzing the correlation between family incomes and sexual violence against children. The former is an economic variable used to explain the latter, a social (gender) variable.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the resource theory of violence at family level according to (Fergus, 2012) which suggests a relationship between wealth and violence at household level. The theory is fundamental in explaining the link between income levels and violence at the family level. This is especially relevant because adjustments at this (family) level often affect a large number of individuals especially children who still depend on their families for upkeep and protection. Factors of socio economic status also play an important role because families and communities are often segregated by socio economic status, race, age, gender, and ethnicity (Ward *et al*, 2010). Targeting the risk and protective factors of violence at the community level will likely engender the greatest change desired by society.

Community level risk factors for violence on the other hand include increased levels of unemployment, poverty, and transiency; decreased levels of economic opportunities and community participation; poor housing conditions; and a lack of access to services (Eberhardt and Teal, 2009). In contrast, protective factors buffer individuals and communities from these risks. In communities, these buffers include a stable economy, available resources, positive social norms, high levels of social cohesion, and rewards for pro-social community involvement (Bauer and Thant 2010). It was therefore important that the resource theory of violence is applied to inform the design of the study so as to bring out

the extent of relationship between family incomes and the prevalence levels of sexual violence against children.

2.3.1 Resource Theory

Resource theory suggests a relationship between wealth and violence. This theory proposes that force and violence are resources that can be used to resolve conflicts, although in modern society these resources are often used as a last resort. For example, men with high income and social standing have access to a wide variety of resources with which to control their wives' behavior (in addition to violence), whereas men with limited or no wealth and resources may resort to physical force or violence more quickly (Fergus, 2012).

The resource theory is based on the proposition that the one who controls resources, such as money, property, or prestige, is in the dominant position in a relationship (Bott *et al*, 2005). It holds that the use of violence within a relationship (in a family context) depends on the resources a family member controls. The more resources one commands, the more force or power s/he can muster. Because men traditionally hold higher-paying jobs with more prestige, they would have more power in relationships than women. It can be argued that the more resources available to the male, the more force he can use. With this abundance of power, however, there is less likelihood of him employing force. Those males who have no resources such as high-paying jobs or status tend to resort to violence more often as a way of controlling the spouse (Bott *et al*, 2005).

Flood and Fergus (2009) further looks at the resource theory as a source of freedom from isolation. They noted that family violence is most likely a private form of aggression. The concept of the privacy of the family in this study, coupled with isolation, diminishes outside social control, lessens input from others, and increases the opportunity for violence. Whether it is a child who is sexually abused or an adult who is battered, the assault occurs most likely in private, and the victims are isolated from the normal support systems in society. As the level of privacy in a family increases, the level of social control decreases. This view holds that what one person may do in private is different from what that same person will do in public. Isolation is therefore considered to be a common characteristic (Arango, *et al.*, 2014) of sexual violence against children or even intimate partner abuse. The abuser will curtail the victim's outside contacts, and, eventually, the victim will believe that s/he is alone and helpless to prevent any assaults.

Flood and Fergus (2009) confirm that child sexual abuse rarely occurs in a public environment, while children who are molested are told to keep the act secret, or they risk being punished. A support system in terms of resources available within the community and among other family members may, for some persons, act as a regulator or inhibitor of sexual violence (Arango, *et al.*, 2014). If the victims receive input from others outside the immediate family, they may have the courage to leave the abuser's isolated location and take preventive measure. Social interaction may also provide a means to defuse potentially hostile situations by allowing the parties to talk with others whom they respect and love.

Manjo (2013) provides insight between resources and power relations, by equating resources to power that determines some sources of violence. It is argued that the persons with the most power or resources have the ability to impose their will on other members of the family. This difference in power allows the spouse or parent to use force on the less powerful mate or child. This characteristic of power differentials is present in both intimate partner and child abuse. The report points out that abuse tend to gravitate toward relationships with the greatest power differential. This view elaborates more on the application of the resource theory in reducing violence against children. As a result of a number of forces in society, the power differential in relationships between adults and children is still vast but seem to be reducing. Children are taught that they have the right (power) to say "no" to sexual advances. Child victims of sexual violence are now represented in some court hearings by attorneys who must look out for the children's best interests. These accomplishments have not diminished the difference in power to any great degree, but they represent a trend that society must continue to encourage.

Santos (2012) brings the alternative dimension of powerlessness among the children that explains why children can also be perpetrators of violence. This occurs when a child perceives that he or she has a lack of power or control in the social environment but has power in relationship to other persons in his family or locality. The child has power over other less powerful individuals, most likely their peers. Power in this context is defined as the ability to control the behavior of others, with or without their consent. Applying these concepts to a family environment, it is easy to see that within the family a man usually has the most power. Many men, however, work in jobs outside the home where they perceive or

believe themselves to be powerless to control their environment (Santos, 2012). Therefore, after being powerless all day at work, a man can return home and dominate the family. This control and power may take the form of abuse. When a mother needlessly disciplines her child, she may be reacting to the fact that her spouse and others are controlling her. By disciplining the child, she can exert power or control over another person. Children can also do the same, to fellow children if they are oppressed in one environment by transferring their control to the less powerful peers. This might be in the form of sexual or physical abuse.

According to the resource theory, the parents, if they feel deprived, they will tend to compensate such gap by asserting authority through violence. If there are more resources, such as money, property, and others available at the disposal of a person, there is less need to use violence. These resources can actually be used to enforce the authority of the person. The problem, however, is when both parents lack the resources to enforce their will on the members of their family. If this occurs violence may become the last resort in enforcing their will. If the husband, the wife, or both parents have low income, low level of education, or if they do not have good negotiation and interpersonal skills, they tend to use violence more. They will use violence or physical force to compensate for what the lack of resources that they feel. Their main goal is to maintain the dominance that they have in the family. In this study it would be important to see if the trend for sexual violence at family level corresponds to the physical violence due to socioeconomic differences (Arango, *et al.*, 2014).

This study provides a critical perspective on violence by exploring the most prominent scientific or academic theories of sexual violence in particular rather than those of violence in general. Over the course of examination of general theories of violence, a satisfactory picture of both the individual and collective pathways to violence requires nothing less than a theoretical framework that incorporates a reciprocal integration of interpersonal, institutional, and structural violence (Manjo, 2013).

Accordingly, most conventional explanations of violence remain partial and incomplete as they separately emphasize different yet related phenomena of violence, without ever trying to provide for a comprehensive explanation or framework that encompasses the full range of interpersonal, institutional, and structural violence (Taylor *et al.*, 2011). In fact, most of

these one dimensional explanations of violence underscore the behavioral expressions of persons to the relative exclusion of the institutional and structural expressions. Traditionally, these explanations of general violence are associated with theories that locate the origins of violence within the person or within the social environment.

Such epistemological approaches when applied to violence assume a complexity of human interaction that cuts across both the behavioral motivations and cultural constraints existing inside or outside the person. When compared to the earlier and more traditional, *ad hoc*, and one-dimensional explanations of violence, life-course and integrative explanations of violence constitute models that are conceptually more dynamic, developmental, and multi-dimensional in nature (Stoltenborgh *et al*, 2011).

These explanations of general violence break down into those theories that explain violence in one of two fundamental ways: First, in terms of properties or processes that are either external to individuals which are externally motivated or inside people internally motivated. In either circumstance, people are stimulated to act violently. Second, in terms of the failure, absence, or lack of internally or externally grounded constraints to inhibit or prohibit people from acting on their violent impulses. These constraints are typically represented as self-control and social control (WHO, 2010).

What these explanations of violence all have in common is the tendency to reduce violence to one primary variable or set of variables. These explanations of violence often acknowledge the importance of other variables, but rarely do they factor them into their examinations and analyses (UNICEF, 2011). For example, several explanatory frameworks have been advanced to make sense out of violence in general. Some of these include exchange theory, sub cultural theory, resource theory, patriarchal theory, social learning theory, pathological conflict theory, and inequality theory.

McMurtry and Curling, (2008), contributed to the social disorganization theory of violence which posits that the aggregate characteristics of areas influence the likelihood of violent crime and victimization. Disorganization theorists investigate how aspects of neighbourhood structure influence rates of crime and violence.

Eisler and Schissel, (2004) clarify further the idea that economic deprivation may be an important influence on social disorganization, which in turn, is an important influence on youth violence or violence against them. This proposes that economic deprivation could lead to social disorganization, which in turn leads to violence and crime. Other researchers like (Baron, 2004) in contrast, have argued that poverty provides condition for the effects of social disorganization on youth related violence. That is, social disorganization in conjunction with poverty results in higher rates of youth violence than either social disorganization or poverty alone.

Bellair, *et al*, (2003) share the opinion that the economic well-being of a community is a major determinant of variation in rates of delinquency. In particular, poor communities are given as lacking adequate resources to defend their interests collectively. The author in this case argues that in poor communities, institutions lack adequate money and knowledge. Also, the intermediate structures created in communities with populations that are more affluent and knowledgeable fail to emerge in the less resourceful neighbourhoods.

The review of different perspectives on the resource theory indicated that economic deprivation is a strong predictor of violence, independent of other influences. Eamon (2001) examined the influence of parenting practices, environmental influences and poverty on anti-social behaviour. Using data from a sample of 10 to 12 year old children the author concluded that deviant peer pressure and neighbourhood problems partially mediate the relation between poverty and young adolescent anti-social behaviour. This supportive of the idea that economic deprivation could lead to social disorganization, which in turn leads to violence.

The studies cited in this section indicate that economic deprivation is an important factor to consider when examining the influence of social disorganization on crime. Two relationships between these constructs have been suggested by the existing research. Firstly, poverty may increase social disorganization, which in turn may lead to youth violence. Secondly, poverty may moderate or condition the relationship between social disorganization and youth violence. Specifically, the influence of social disorganization on crime may be more pronounced in poorer areas and attenuated in more affluent areas.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the study area, research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures. It also provides the description of data collection instruments, as well as the data collection and analysis procedures. Finally, the chapter clarifies the ethical considerations made in the study and an overview of how data are presented in the next chapter.

3.2 Study area

This study was conducted in an urban set up of Kasarani District in Nairobi County. Its geographical coordinates are 1° 18' 0" South, 36° 46' 0" East and its original name is Kasarani. The district was chosen to provide the best distinction in economic diversity among the respondents, which is commonly found in cities than in rural areas. The district is in the capital city combining both slums and up market residential areas, which exhibit poor and wealthy neighborhoods. Nairobi County was founded as a result of devolution as recommended by the Constitution of Kenya 2010. It covers the same boundaries as former Nairobi Province, after Kenya's 8 provinces were subdivided into 47 counties. Kasarani, is therefore one of the eight sub-counties of Nairobi County.

According to Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) and ICF Macro (2010), the prevalence rate for GBV in Nairobi was about 29% computed on a population of 15 to 49 years. The Kenyan National Census results indicate that there are 333,401 people aged 15 to 49 years in Kasarani sub-county. The district had 8 public secondary schools with an estimated student population of 13,540. The vulnerable population was estimated by (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) and ICF Macro (2010) at 29% which is about 96,686 individuals with a margin of error of 6%.

3.3 Research design

Researching with children to provide evidence for factual knowledge and policy contribution requires a study design that gives accurate, reliable and transferable findings, and at the same time that are able to tap into subjective experience and meanings (Parkes,

2010; Parkes and Heslop, 2013). A descriptive survey design was used in this study using a mixed paradigm approach.

This study was thus designed to combine quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to provide in-depth data, and to generate findings which were comparable. It also aimed at determining how and why relationships exist between economic variables and variable of sexual violence. The quantitative methods used questionnaires to gather cross-sectional data, while the qualitative approach relied on Focus Group Discussion and Key informant interviews to capture the narratives and explanations behind any findings.

The methodologies selected were underpinned by the resource theory used as the theoretical framework. The survey design offered numerous advantages when conducting this research. For one, it helped to capture data about incidents that had not been reported to the police or other government authorities as captured by national statistics.

Moreover, the design included detailed and targeted information about the identity of the survivors and/or perpetrators such as socio-demographic characteristics, attitudes, behaviors and potential involvement in violence in the past. The survey also captured details relevant to specific incidents that may not be covered in administrative records (secondary data) (Krug *et al*, 2002). The quality of survey data was, however, highly dependent on the rigour of the sampling method and the size of the sample.

3.4 Population and Sampling Procedure

3.4.1 Target Population

The target study population comprised of both girls and boys within the age bracket of 13-17 years irrespective of their class levels. The focus was on students in secondary schools in Kasarani sub-county of Nairobi County. The target secondary schools comprised of both mixed and single sex schools. Only the children were targeted in order to capture their personal experiences and gauge the potential disparities at family level.

Children at secondary school level were of importance because they were presumed to have better language and confidence level to speak out to the researchers. It was aimed at capturing their free will to participate in the study which might not be possible with younger children. While the family income levels, would have better come from the parents, the

students were best placed to share the same information without exaggeration. Likewise it would be challenging tracking the parents of the students without jeopardizing the principle of confidentiality. A sample was thus drawn from the district school population as follows:

Table 3.1 Target Population

School in the district	No of Girls	No. of Boys	Total Enrolment
Excellent Secondary school	27	36	63
Mercy care Academy	30	42	72
Kariobangi North Girls secondary school	420	N/A	420
Precious Star High school	98	150	248
Ruaraka High School	250	320	570
Vintage Progressive center	30	40	70
Kahawa Garrison Secondary school	280	320	600
Starehe girls school	570	N/A	570
Babadogo Secondary school	115	225	340
Garden estate secondary school	200	245	445
Our Lady of Fatima Secondary School	256	312	568
Kamiti high school	292	312	604
Total	2,568	2,002	4,570

Source: MoE - District records, Kasarani 2014 (unpublished)

3.4.2 Sampling Procedure and Sample size

(a) Sampling procedure

The respondents for quantitative and qualitative data were carefully selected, taking into account the respective target groups' location and characteristics, and any other determinant factors to the expected findings. In particular, context profiling was done to enable careful selection of schools and the respondents from each location/cluster.

Cluster sampling was used to select schools based on the cluster profiles by dividing the district into different economic regions (characteristics) such as low income and high income estates using the government economic survey data. This was based on the review of the most current development profile for Nairobi County, based on the National

Economic Survey report for 2014 (Republic of Kenya, 2014). The subdivisions were then clustered and schools selected randomly from a list of all schools at the District Education office irrespective of type of schools. Cluster sampling was preferred because it avoids having to compile exhaustive list of every individual in the population since the sampling frame are only required for the clusters that have been picked. The adjusted population by cluster for sampling were as follows:

Table 3.2: Adjusted population for sampling

Cluster	Location	Name of School	No. of Girls	No. of Boys	Total Enrolment
Cluster one: Low income areas	Mathare	Mercy Care Academy	30	42	72
	Kariobangi	Kariobangi North Girls Secondary School	420	N/A	420
	Korogocho	Our Lady of Fatima Secondary School	256	312	568
Cluster two: High income areas	Ruaraka	Ruaraka High School	250	320	570
	Kahawa	Kahawa Garrison Secondary School	280	320	600
	Kasarani	Garden Estate Secondary School	200	245	445
Total Enrolment			1,436	1,239	2,675

Source: MoE District records, Kasarani 2014

The optimal sample size was agreed on depending on a range of factors including the national survey indicators on the prevalence of violence in the district, the acceptable margin of error, and the design effect which in this case is the cluster sampling, and the likelihood of no-response rate.

(b) Sample size

Since the research design for this study was based on a random sample at the cluster level, the sample size required was calculated as follows:

$$n = \left[\frac{z^2 xp(1-p)}{m^2} \right]$$

Where: The vulnerable population in Kasarani (29%); the desired level of confidence of 95%; and the scientifically acceptable margin of error of 6% for a small heterogeneous population. In this case;

z =confidence level at 95% (standard value of 1.96)

p =the vulnerable population in Kasarani (29%)

m =margin of error at 6% (standard value of 0.06)

The calculations of actual sample size therefore come as follows:

$$n = \left[\frac{1.96^2 \times 0.29(1 - 0.29)}{0.06^2} \right]$$

$$n = \left[\frac{3.8416 \times 0.29(0.71)}{0.0036} \right]$$

$$n = \left[\frac{0.7909854}{0.0036} \right]$$

$$n = 219.72$$

$$n = 220$$

The actual sample size of 220 participants was found sufficient to allow detection of difference between clusters within the population at reasonable cost. The sample size was distributed as follows:

Table 3.3: Actual sample frame

Instrument	No. of Girls per school	No. of Boys per school	No. of Schools	Total sample
Questionnaire	10	10	6	120
Focus Group discussions	1x 8 participants	1x 8 participants	6	96
Key informant interviews	2	2	4	4

Total Sample		220
Document analysis	Sourcing secondary data *	1*

3.4.3 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis was based on the girls and boys in their teens but below the age of majority (18 years) in Kasarani district. While they responded on family based information, the school was used as the point of sampling. This was meant to reduce the limitations with regard to accessing children of the age bracket in their households besides taking care of any possible bias experienced with interviewing children in the presence of their parents. The assumption here is that every child comes from some family setting that forms the basis for all households.

3.5 Data collection

The study involved collection of both primary and secondary data. Whereas primary data refers to data being collected or obtained from a first-hand experience, secondary data refers to data gathered in the past or obtained from other party. In this study primary data was collected first hand using questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion and Key Informant Interviews. Secondary data was obtained through document analysis of existing records like government surveys such as Kenya Demographic Health Survey and Annual reports from Gender Violence Recovery Centre amongst others.

3.5.1 Description of Research Instruments for primary data

The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative instruments using three types of tools targeting the children only. These included structured questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion guide and Key Informant Interview guide.

(a) Questionnaire

Closed ended questionnaire is generally recommended for community surveys because, as much as it is restrictive, in the sense that respondents do not have the freedom to answer in their own words, it eases the quantitative data processing and facilitates the coding of variables (UNCRD, 2004). The questionnaire (appendix I) was administered personally by the researcher to avoid errors related to comprehension of language and meanings of

concepts. This enabled the study to ensure 100% administration to the target respondents. The questionnaire was personally administered to 120 respondents (60 boys and 60 girls). The face to face administration of the questionnaire enabled replacement of any respondent who was unwilling to voluntarily participate in the process. Hence the planned sample size was sufficiently met.

In using questionnaire, the researcher relied totally on the honesty and accuracy of participants' responses. Although this limits the usefulness of questionnaires (Nichols and Childs 2009) for delving into tacit beliefs and deeply held values, this study was one of the many occasions when surveying remains to be the only option and proved to be very useful. The questionnaire typically entailed several questions that had structured response categories according to the three study objectives. The questions were examined for bias, sequence, clarity, and face-validity. The questionnaire was first pre-tested on small groups of respondents in the same district to determine its usefulness and reliability. Since the study was designed to be a descriptive survey, questionnaire proved to be the most appropriate mode of inquiry for making inferences about a large population based on data drawn from a relatively small number of sampled individuals.

As a quantitative tool, the basic aim of the questionnaire was to help capture data to describe and explain statistically the variability of specific features of the income variables and the sexual violence variables. The general logic of survey research in this case provided a distinctive style to the research process. The type of survey instrument was also determined by the information needed as observed by (Parkes, 2010; Parkes *et al*, 2013). This particular survey involved cross-sectional measurements made at a single point in time.

The strengths drawn from this survey included the accuracy of data, generalizability, and convenience. Accuracy in measurement is enhanced by quantification, replicability, and control over observer effects. Results can be generalized to a larger population within known limits of error. Likewise, the survey method was amenable to rapid statistical analysis and was comparatively easy to administer and manage (Parkes *et al*, 2013).

(b) Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

The qualitative data were partially gathered through the focus group discussions (FGDs) (see appendix II). The focus group discussions were conducted with twelve different groups

in six schools. These groups were segregated by gender to comprise of six separate groups of girls and six groups of boys. Each group composed of eight participants selected randomly from form one to three, since form four classes were busy with examination preparations during the data collection period. The focus discussion guides were open ended and brief, with lots of probing to elicit as much explanations as possible on the variables studied. This enabled the researcher to explain the trends in the perceptions and opinions expressed by asking 'how' and 'why' questions to every answer given by the respondents. Data were captured through careful and systematic analysis of both verbal and non verbal responses.

The tool was found to be very useful as observed by (Krueger and Casey, 2000) as it proved to be socially oriented, and enabled the researcher to study the participants in an atmosphere that was more natural and more relaxed than a one-to-one interview. The focus groups proved to be very useful for the sampling process, gaining access to the respondents, site selection for interview, and even for checking tentative conclusions. The method of engaging with participants in focus groups was widely interactive and enabled the participants to fully open up to share their personal experiences. The researcher created a supportive environment, by asking focused questions to encourage discussion, and expression of differing opinions or points of view.

This method however assumed that an individual's attitudes and beliefs do not form in a vacuum. People at times often need to listen to others' opinions and understandings to form their own. It could be possible that some participants contributed to opinions raised by others than they raised their own points. This was however an advantage over one-to-one interviews which may be impoverished if the participant had not reflected on the topic or feels unprepared to respond. The format of the FGD also allowed the facilitator (researcher) to have flexibility to explore unanticipated issues as they arise in the discussion. Furthermore, the cost of focus groups was relatively low besides providing quick results.

(c) Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews were administered to capture a more detailed qualitative data in the form of case stories (see appendix III). The tool was only administered in four schools where respondents raised some personal experience as a case story. Those who were willing to share their stories in details were therefore the key informants. In each school one

participant was selected from a set of focus groups if they would volunteer to share their personal experiences of any form of sexual violence. A total of four respondents were selected, one in each of the schools. Two of the informants were girls while the other two were boys. A key informant guide was used to reveal the personal stories by capturing what happened, when it happened, where it occurred, how it happened and how it was resolved. The tool enabled for further probing into what actions were taken and why or why not. It also helped to bring into attention some particular key issues surrounding sexual violence and the connection with family incomes. Case stories were selected on the basis of how they were seen to be highly effective, typical, or of special interest in line with the hypothesis. A case story is a story about something unique, special, or interesting (Yin, 2003).

3.5.2 Instrument for collecting secondary data

- **Document analysis guide**

Document analysis guide (appendix IV) was used to collect secondary data from official government data set. These included national economic surveys, Kenya Demographic Health Survey, and other topical surveys on violence. Other documents targeted were data from the Gender Violence Recovery Centres' (GVRC) annual reports. The documents were analysed and examined for secondary data which was used to supplement and compare information obtained from the primary sources. Document analysis is a form of data collection method used to capture secondary data, in which case the past documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic as discussed in chapter four and five of this thesis.

3.6 Data Analysis

Systematic and rigorous methods of data analysis were developed to provide an accurate and credible representation of data. To ensure data accuracy for quantitative findings, data analysis template was prepared for data entry and cleaning using SPSS version 20.1. Once data had been entered into the programme they were checked and cleaned to identifying incomplete or incorrect parts of the findings and then replacing, modifying or deleting any 'unwanted' parts. As it might never be possible to eradicate all bias at analysis stage, reporting was organized to include critical reflection on limitations and possible alternative interpretations.

Descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages were used to summarize and describe the variables. The analysis also involved the estimation of correlations using trend lines. Reporting also avoided negative stereotypes, for example by highlighting how inequality and conditions could contribute towards differences in experiencing sexual violence by children. The correlation between each two variables represents the degree to which variables are related or associated – a quantitative functional relationship that measures the strength of association between two variables. “The more the x, the more the y” represents a positive correlation and “the more of x and the less of y”, is a negative correlation.

It should however be noted that this study is not deterministic in any way since neither regression nor correlation analyses can be interpreted as establishing cause-and-effect relationships. They indicate only how or to what extent variables are associated with each other. The correlation coefficient measures only the degree of linear association between two variables. Any conclusions about a cause-and-effect relationship must be based on the judgment of the analyst.

Qualitative data from focus groups and key informant interviews were typed in MS Word document and cleaned for consistency and relevance. The data were then transferred into an excel template before being analysed through thematic coding and triangulation. All the narratives were displayed in excel spreadsheets thematically for sorting and corroboration purposes. Such narratives were expressed as direct quotes in the report with concealed identity of the participants for confidentiality purposes.

3.7 Verification for reliability and Validity of the results

The study maximised the chances for accuracy, reliability and validity through detailed analysis of the context before commencing the data collection, and during analysis. This was taken care of in designing and piloting instruments, observing sensitivity to environmental and economic conditions. A female research assistant was involved in the facilitation of FGDs and key informant interviews with girls to boost their level of confidence to speak out. She was however chosen after screening to determine her suitability for the assignment before undergoing intensive training on all the ethical considerations. Four sets of data sources were used to increase reliability through comparing information from more than one source, which enhanced triangulation.

3.8 Research Ethics

Informed consent: All the research participants were given clear information about the study, so they were able to choose whether to participate or not, and to withdraw at will. The researcher undertook due care to prepare the necessary ground work before the actual data collection. This included getting the research permit, informing sampled target groups and mobilizing them to participate in the study. The researcher then sought permissions from all the relevant authorities at district level including the District Education office and the head teachers in each school. To carry out the research according to existing procedures the researcher managed to secure booking of official appointments by the respective authorities in data collection locations.

Power in the research process: At all stages of the research, the researcher managed to show all due respect to all participants, to treat them fairly, and to safeguard their welfare, minimizing any risks and ensuring that any benefits outweigh risks. The study fully adopted methods and approaches that helped to minimize power imbalances. The process also encouraged all the participants to express themselves. This was achieved through participatory group activities and organizing questions that could help every respondent feel at ease in answering to the questionnaire and focus group discussion guides.

Confidentiality: Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained throughout the research, including during data collection, analysis, data storage and reporting. The researcher managed to ensure privacy during interviews. Data were also coded so as not to identify individuals' responses. All the questionnaires were coded using questionnaire identification codes, and participants assigned unique numbers rather than using names. Data was also secured using password so that only those who need to access the data for examination purposes and study purpose could do so.

Disclosure and safety of participants: The research process ensured support and reporting mechanisms were in place just in case any form of human rights violation was disclosed during the research. At each point of data collection it was important to map out local support available and reporting mechanisms, including exploring the possible role of voluntary and official government or school intervention in providing ongoing support to researcher and the participants.

Honesty and integrity in research: The researcher was dedicated to the highest standards of honesty and integrity. The researcher acknowledged all the sources of information reviewed as required by Egerton University guidelines and standards of the graduate school.

Moreover, the researcher conformed to all quality standards based on the Institute of Women Gender and Development Studies procedures for all members of staff and students who are conducting research, and expectations to observe the highest standards in the conduct of their research. The guidance and comments from the supervisors were fully followed, as the observations of examination panels were fully taken into account to improve the quality of this thesis. The research process complied fully with the relevant University policies, guidelines and procedures which are intended to promote the responsible conduct of research at graduate level.

3.9 Report presentation

After data analysis, all the quantitative findings were presented in charts and tables in terms of ratios, and percentages, while the qualitative findings were presented as narratives with direct quotes from the participants. A preliminary report was submitted as per requirement and according to the work-plan for review and comments by the supervisors. The final report was then presented as agreed with the supervisors and examiners in compliance with the requirements of Egerton University.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This section provides the actual findings from the field. It commences by giving an overview of the economic principles underlining the measurement of inequality, before stating the actual disparities at household level. The preview gives how inequality is measured at household level and the challenges of economic measurements at national level. The chapter further highlights the prevalence levels of violence in the study area. This is further mainstreamed and compared to the available national and international data. The three objectives that guided the findings were: to explore the prevalence of sexual violence against children with respective family income differences; to determine the correlation between sexual violence experienced by children to the associated family income factors; and to assess the actions taken against sexual violence by children based on their family income backgrounds. In order to capture the three objectives, the chapter presents the findings from the analysis undertaken under each objective. This is further broken down into specific variables that are subjected to regression.

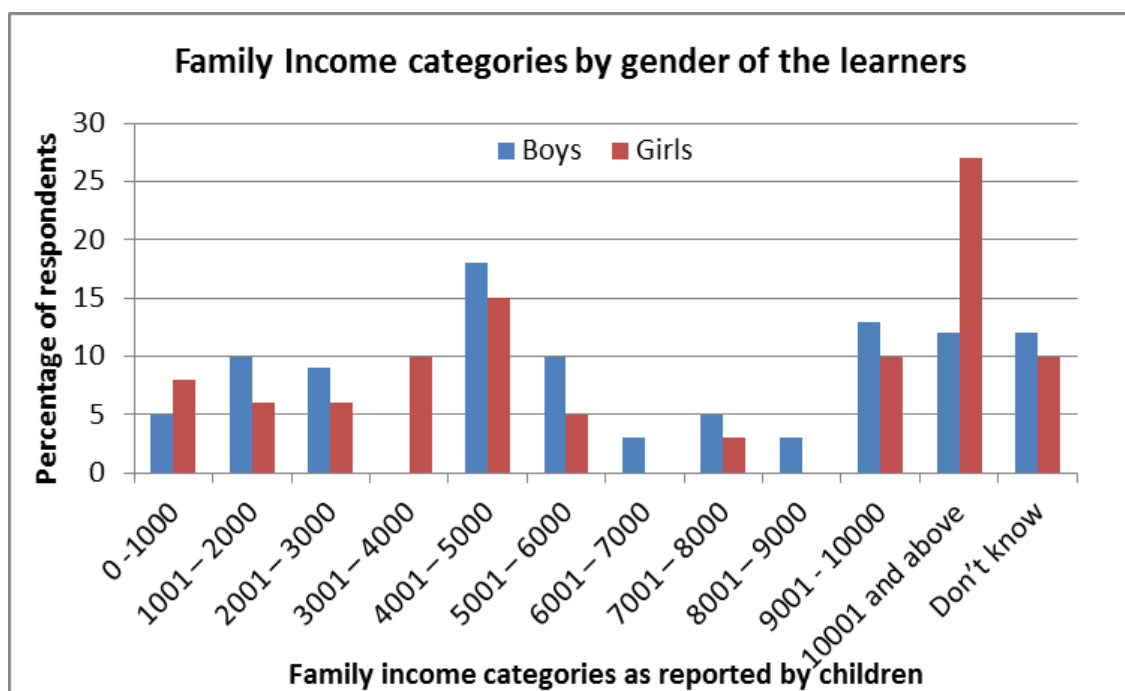
The concept of ‘correlation’ is used in this study as a statistical tool which examines the relationship between two variables (income and violence). The correlation Analysis involves various methods and techniques used for studying and measuring the extent of the relationship between the two variables. The two variables are said to be in correlation if the change in one of the variables (income levels) results in a change in the other variable (prevalence of violence). If the values of the two variables deviate in the same direction i.e. if an increase (or decrease) in the values of one variable results, on an average, in a corresponding increase (or decrease) in the values of the other variable the correlation is said to be positive. On the other hand Correlation between two variables is said to be negative or inverse if the variables deviate in opposite direction. That is, if the increase in the variables deviate in opposite direction. That is, if increase (or decrease) in the values of one variable results on an average, in corresponding decrease (or increase) in the values of other variable.

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Levels of family income

Income inequality generally refers to the disparity in income level among individuals/households in an economy. Income inequality is thus a narrow way of looking at overall inequality in a given community, but it is the most direct way to assess disparities in consumption levels among various economic groups. The most common approach used to measure inequality is the *Gini* coefficient based on the Lorenz curve. The *Gini* coefficient is mainly used to assess inequality in income and consumption. It ranges between zero and one, with the values closer to one indicating greater inequality (Gakuru and Mathenge, 2012).

In Kenya, document analysis reveals that inequality manifests itself in various dimensions including unequal access to basic social amenities and inequalities in income levels, as well as inequalities arising from gender bias (Wambugu and Munga, 2009). Instead of the specific ratios, frequency charts have been used to express the income disparities in this study since the ratio would lead to overgeneralization. Figure 1 below shows the variation in income levels as reported by boys and girls.



N= Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

Figure 1: Family income categories and disparities

This study focuses on income variations in relation to the prevalence of sexual violence against children, as this is the most direct way to assess disparities in consumption levels in various economic groups. The findings from the study confirm this level of disparity showing that a vast majority of families earned less than Kenya shillings five thousand (equivalent to USD 59) a month, with another set of families earning much above Kenya shillings ten thousands (equivalent to USD 118) per month. It is evident that more girls than boys were likely to report that their families earn higher incomes. It is also significant to note that at least 10% of the girls and boys were unable to tell the levels of their family incomes.

Household income reported in this case refers to income received either in cash (monetary income) or in kind (non-monetary income) by all the residents in a household. This includes not only wages and salaries but also all the income generated by other sources such as agricultural and business activities, other monetary receipts (social protection transfers) such as pension, disability and relief payments. Family incomes could also include regular rental and remittance receipts and returns from businesses or investments and any other irregular gains such as compensations, lotteries among others.

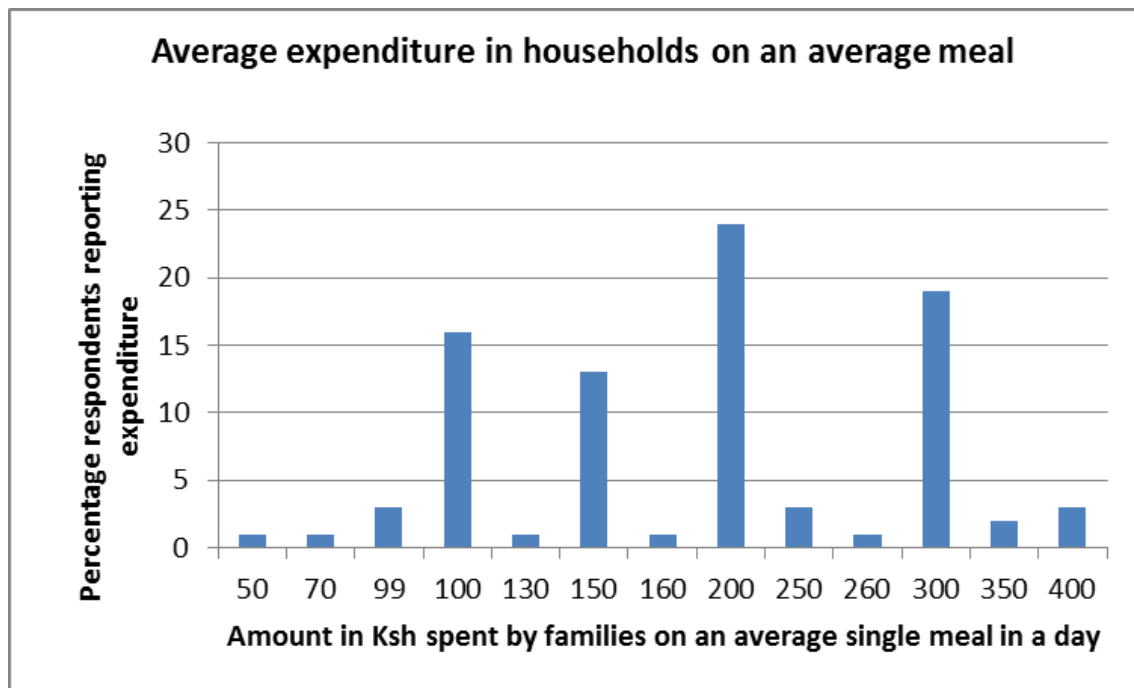
It is worth noting in advance that this disparity in family income levels is not a measure of poverty. According to Thurlow *et al* (2007), accurate comparison of poverty over time is difficult in Kenya because household surveys use different designs and implementation methods. Gakuru and Mathenge (2012) further clarifies that absolute poverty refers to the inability of individuals or households to attain a predetermined minimum level of consumption at which the basic needs of a society are assumed to be satisfied. On the other hand available estimates of the Gini coefficient for Kenya show that inequality has been increasing in the country. According to the available household surveys, the country's Gini based on general household income was estimated at 0.419 in 1997, compared to 0.459 in 2005-06. Gakuru and Mathenge (2012) also point out that although widely used to measure inequality, Gini coefficients should be interpreted with caution because of the variation in the size and type of the data used for their calculation.

4.2.2 Indicators for income disparities

In order to obtain the family Income disparities further, the study explored the household income and expenditure which records the household income that is received from all the sources, at personal level. Household expenditure was collected under three main sections: expenditure on food items; expenditure on school fees; and expenditure incurred by the families on housing.

(a) *Average expenditure by families on an average meal*

Income levels can be gauged by the levels of consumption if there are no savings since income is a function of consumption and savings. One way to study how the consumption patterns change is to examine and compare the per-capita consumption quantities and share of expenditure on different components of spending like food over time. This study therefore confirms the variations in family consumption which is a gradient of the income. Figure 2 below shows the variations in consumption indicators.



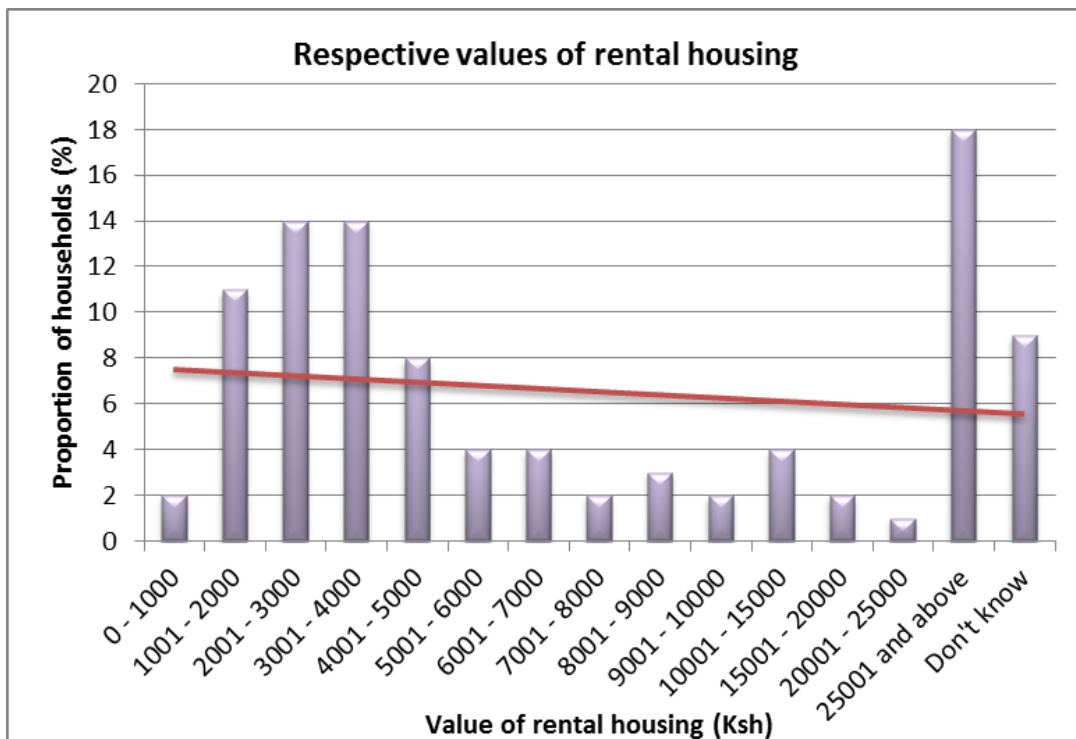
N= Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

Figure 2: Amount spent on meals by different families

The average expenditure by every family on a single meal (irrespective of time) is estimated at Ksh. 255 (\$ 3) only. This expenditure is however distributed differently in different households as reported by the respondents. A good majority of the respondents' families spent an average of Ksh 200/= (\$ 2.4) on a single meal followed by those who spend Ksh. 300/= (\$3.5) and Ksh. 100/= (\$1.4) on a single meal respectively. It is worth noting that besides this range of expenditures, there are families who spend extremes of as little as Ksh. 50 (<\$1) and as high as Ksh. 400/= (\$ 5) and above. This makes the income disparities between the families to be very clear in terms of the ability to spend on food. While almost 25% of the families spend Ksh. 200/= (\$ 2.4) in a meal, less than 20% other families spent more than Ksh. 300/= (\$ 3.5) in a day.

(b) Expenditure by families on Housing

As housing income expenditure reveals in the analysis, the expenditure on housing is the highest single expenditure group among all the non-food expenditure groups. The estimated rental values of owner occupied housing units and housing units occupied without paying any rent are also included in the group of housing expenditure. The findings in figure 3 below show that there are two distinct sets of family expenditures on rental houses.



N= Total104: Male= 54; Female=50

Figure 3: Expenditure on rented housing

The first set indicate a concentrated expenditure on values of houses costing between Ksh. 2000/= (\$ 23.5) and 4000/= (\$ 47) per month. Another set is spectacularly spending more than Ksh.25,000/= (\$ 294) per month on housing. This shows that the families exhibit the anticipated disparity in income levels that eventually determines the purchasing power parity of each family. More than 40% of the families spend at most Ksh. 4000/= (\$ 47) on rent while about 18% spend Ksh. 25,000/= (\$ 294) or more on rent per month. The trend line indicates further that the proportion of families who are willing to spend more on rental houses reduces as the cost of housing increases.

A very small proportion of respondents comprising of 12% reported that they lived in family owned houses. Almost half comprising of 4 out of ten of this proportion could not tell the rental value of their homes. This might be understandable since the homes in urban regions are usually market driven. Such market information may not be necessarily available to the children. Table 4.1 below further indicates that for those who know the rental value of their homes, two out of ten live in comparably different set of values.

Table 4.1 Family owned houses

Rent value in Ksh	Respondent by sex (%)		Total (%)
	Male	Female	
1001 - 2000	0	7	7
2001 - 4000	6	0	6
4001 - 5000	13	7	20
9001 – 10,000	0	7	7
25,000 and above	7	13	20
Don't know the value	7	33	40
Total	52	48	100

Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

One set of families have houses costing averagely less than Ksh. 5,000/= (\$ 59) a month, while the other set have five times this rental value of Ksh. 25,000/= (\$ 294) and above. These figures further explain the income disparities among families in different neighbourhoods. From the findings, boys are slightly more informed about the value of their family houses than girls as 52% of the respondents who confirm that they own houses are boys as girls comprise of 48% only. A small percentage of families comprising of 20 percent live in low cost houses costing a rental value of less than Ksh. 5,000/= (\$ 59). Clear

disparity is manifested by another set of families comprising of 20 percent paying up to Ksh. 25,000/= (\$ 294) or more on rent.

(c) Expenditure on school fees

The expenditure on non-food expenditure also captured the family incomes spent on the education of the respondent. This focus first examined whether it is the families who are fully responsible for paying their school fees to avoid assumption that all fees expenditure are made by families from their regular income.

Table 4.2 Percentage of who pays school fees

Source of school fees	Family (Any of Parents) %	Guardian (Well-wisher) %	Sponsored (Scholarship/ bursary) %	Total
Male	34	13	2	49
Female	34	11	6	51
Total	68	24	8	100

Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

The findings reveal that 68% of the respondents have their fees paid by their parents from family incomes while 24% had their fees paid by well-wishers or guardians. Only 8% had ever benefitted from bursaries and local sponsorship programmes.

In determining those who still had fees balance for the term, it was established that 80% of the children had at least some fees balance at the beginning of the year. A majority 54% of those with balances had their fees paid by the parents. Only nine percent of the respondents did not know whether they have any balance in their schools since their fees are paid directly by the parents. The minority who didn't have information on their fees balances are students in high cost schools which represents the second cluster of high income community. Another 1% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

Table 4.3: Percentage of respondents with fee balance according to who pays fees

	Family (Parents) %	Guardian (Well-wisher) %	Sponsored (Scholarship/ bursary) %	Total %
Have fees balance	54	21	5	80
Don't know	7	1	1	9

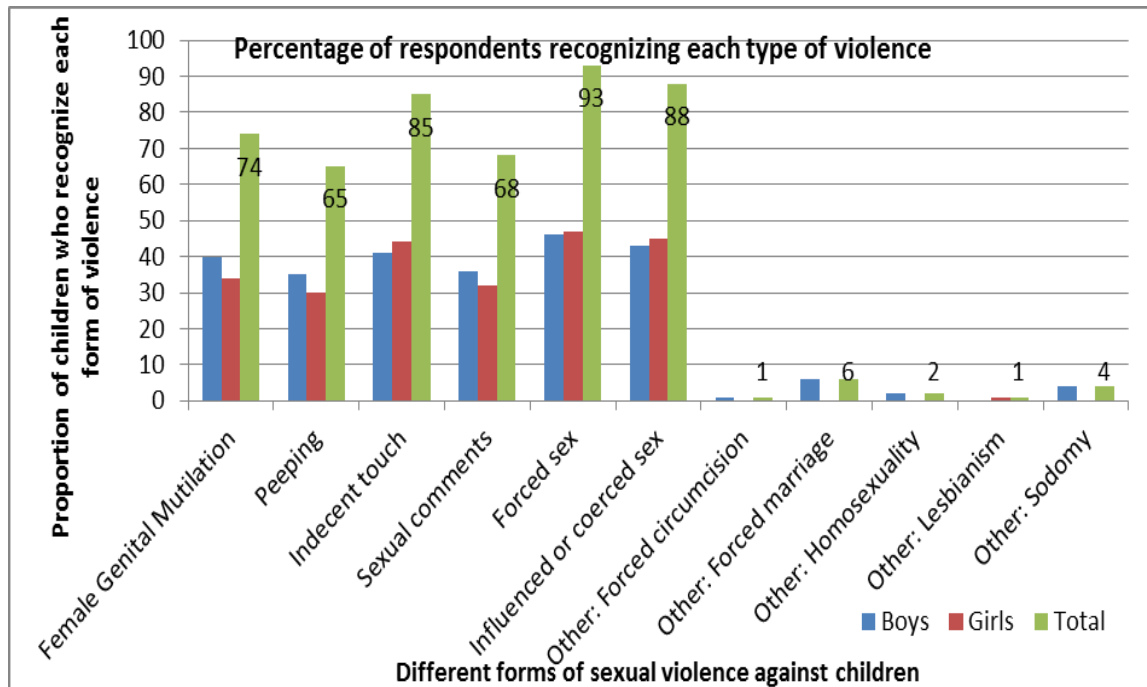
Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

Pansini (2008) looked at income distribution in different households in Vietnam. The paper showed how to assess both direct and indirect effects of an exogenous income injection on mean incomes of different household groups. Using the decomposition of SAM-based multipliers technique, Pansini (2008) highlighted the linkages between each household endowment in terms of factors and the features of the productive system and shed light on the links among different components of the economic system affecting the distribution of income. In this study the income disparities and the associated income and expenditure factors were established to make it possible in comparing the respective variations in violence against children. The overall prevalence levels of violence are therefore established before the correlation is made possible.

4.2.3 Knowledge of different forms of violence

The full range and scale of all forms of violence against children are only now becoming visible as is the evidence of the harm it does (UN-SG, 2006). This study also documents the outcomes and recommendations of the process of the United Nations Secretary-General's Study on Violence against Children. It shows that the recognition of human rights obligations to eliminate violence against children has intensified with the adoption and almost universal ratification of the Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC). The latter underlines children's status as rights holders. Children themselves are speaking out on this issue. Children are reported to have testified about the routine violence they experience, in their homes and families and also in schools, in other institutions like the penal systems and in their communities. Before establishing the prevalence levels of violence, the study sought to establish the respondents understanding and knowledge of different forms of violence, base on what was recognized as an act of violation.

Despite the variations in recognizing different forms of violence, both girls and boys relatively showed stronger knowledge on defilement and indecent touch than they do for peeping and sexual comments. There were other forms of sexual violence mentioned by very few respondents. These included forced marriages, sodomy and forced circumcision, all mentioned by boys only in that order. A few girls also mentioned lesbianism as form of sexual violence.



N= Total 121; Male=59; Female=62

Figure 4: Percentage of respondents recognizing each type of violence

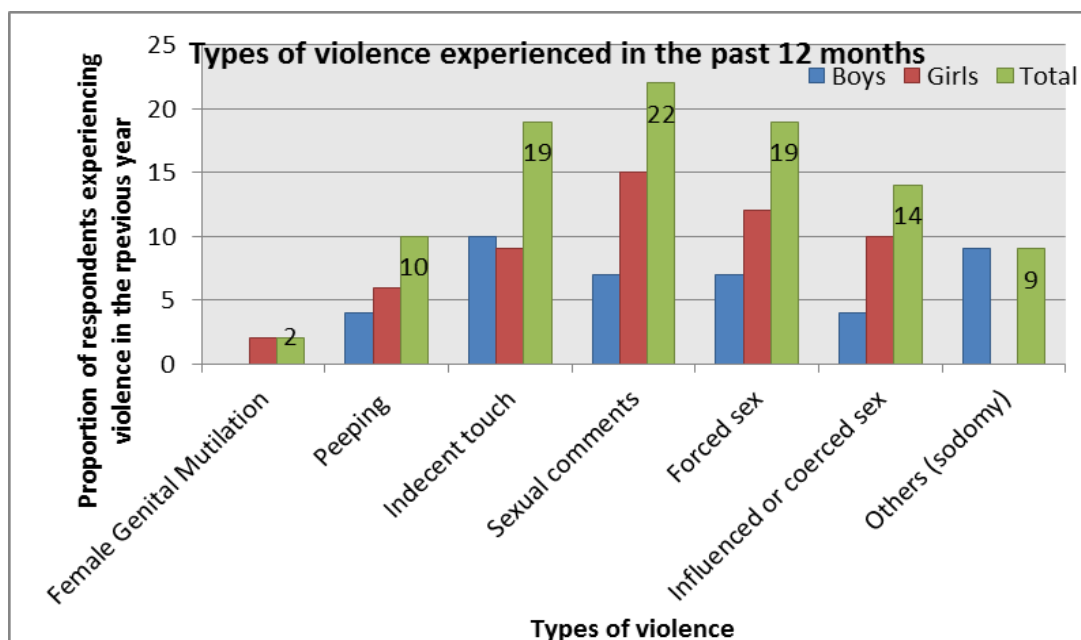
The findings in this study reveal in figure 4 that majority of the children could recognize several forms of sexual violence. Those who identified different forms of violence range to more than 90% for forced sex, followed by influenced sex and indecent touch recognized by more than 80% of the respondents respectively. Boys were more likely to reason that female genital mutilation (FGM), peeping and sexual comments are forms of violence than girls. On the other hand more girls than boys recognized indecent touch, forced sex and influenced sex as forms of violation. This was a sign of gender based tolerance to some acts of violence as much as they are not necessarily approved of by the children. For instance some girls are likely to see FGM as a normal rite of passage, while they are strongly opposed to defilement - forced or influenced sex.

The level of recognition was necessary to be established before determining the prevalence level of different forms of violence. This was done to reduce the error which was likely to arise from assumption that all children have the same understanding of what constitutes sexual violence. In this context the children were asked to indicate whether they had experienced any form of violence they had identified. The level of personal experience of any form of violence amounted to the prevalence rate. In each case only those who suffered personally from any form of violence, and reported to have experienced the same were taken as contributing to the prevalence level. Some respondents who recognized the various forms of violence did not experience any.

4.2.4 Prevalence levels of sexual violence

Republic of Kenya (2012) in the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics report, documenting the findings from the national survey indicated that violence against children was a serious problem in Kenya. Levels of violence prior to age 18 years as reported by 18 to 24 year olds (lifetime experiences) indicated that during childhood: 32% of females and 18% of males experience sexual violence; and 32% of males experienced any violence as a child. It is worth noting that the national survey was conducted among adults who were asked to state whether they experienced violence in their childhood. The adults are more likely to have high confidence levels to share their experiences or lead to a margin of error arising to their levels of knowledge.

This research focused primarily on the teenage children strictly below the age of 18 years. The findings confirm high prevalence levels of different forms of sexual violence experienced by children. The different forms of sexual violence have been broken into specific acts that amount to sexual violence for clarity of what actually took place. When asked whether they had experienced any form of sexual violence within the past one year, almost all children comprising of 95% of those interviewed were on the affirmative. However, each of them seemed to report only what they thought was the most serious form of violence they had ever experienced.



N= Total 121; Male=59; Female=62

Figure 5: Respondents experiencing violence in the past 12 months by gender

The most prevalent forms of violence experienced by all children were sexual comments, forced sex and indecent touch. If the forms of sexual violence were defined according to the Sexual Offences Act 2006, then defilement (combining both forced sex 19% and influenced or coerced sexual intercourse 14%) was the most serious being reported by 33% of the children interviewed (see figure 5). The least reported form of violence was Female Genital Mutilation, which was only experienced by 2% comprising of girls only.

The gendered dimension in the children’s experience of violence was exhibited by the patterns of each form of violence experienced by girls and boys differently. More girls than boys experience peeping, sexual comments, forced sex, and sex influenced by different favors like gifts, money, food or coerced by threats. Boys on the other hand experienced more indecent touch than that reported by girls. On the same note, Female Genital mutilation is reported by girls only as the boys report to have experienced sodomy.

While the female respondents (girls) experienced the most forms of sexual violence compared to their male counterparts (boys), it was significant that the male respondents were equally affected, as opposed to the general belief that it is only the girls who are in danger of sexual violence. Noting that over 10% of the boys had been defiled either through forced sex or influenced sex through gifts, food and money by female perpetrators it is a

point of concern that 9% of boys also experienced sodomy by male perpetrators. It was however quite evident that girls are the major victims of all forms of sexual violence.

4.2.5 Types of violence considered by children as most serious

The respondents were also asked which form of violence they perceived as the most serious in their views in terms of the effects and frequency. Very few respondents (only female) stated that FGM was a serious issue. Many respondents were either ignorant of its effects or believed that it was not frequent enough to warrant being considered serious as shown in table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Types of violence considered by respondents as most serious

Type of violence	% Male	% Female	% Total
Female Genital Mutilation	0	1	1
Peeping in toilets, mirrors or under the desk	5	5	10
Indecent touch	9	7	16
Undesired Sexual comments	6	10	16
Forced/unwanted sexual intercourse	5	7	12
Influenced or coerced sexual intercourse (with money/threats)	2	7	9
Sodomy	6	0	6
Refused to answer	11	7	18
Don't know	5	7	12
Total	49	51	100

N= Total 120; Male=60; Female=60

A good majority considered indecent touch and sexual comments as the most serious believing that such actions were the precedence to actual defilement. Forced sex was the second most serious followed by influenced sex because of their effects. They were rated as serious due to possible pregnancy or the likelihood of causing sexually transmitted diseases. However, some respondents countered this view of seriousness by suggesting that many people who are involved have themselves to blame because they could be responsible for the acts. This category of respondents believed that girls or boys who engage into sex, whether forced or influenced by any other means, have some 'consent' given by the victim to the perpetrator. Indecent touch and sexual comments were however seen to happen without the victims' 'consent'.

It is however surprising that very few respondents comprising of only boys, suggested that sodomy is not very serious because they believed it was a rare occurrence. Likewise, a very large proportion of respondents declined to respond to this question by opting to skip the question. Those who responded that they could not tell which form of violence was the most serious were equally significant. There was also a very big margin 18% of those who did not answer this question by opting to skip, while another 12% indicated that they didn't know which form of violence could be the most serious. This indicates the extent of silence exhibited in discussing sexual violence in communities. In many scenarios in African cultural context, and more so discussing issues of sexuality with children is at times difficult as the topic of sexuality is considered a taboo or shameful to discuss.

4.3 Correlation between family income and prevalence of sexual violence

Table 4.5: Comparing income category and prevalence level of violence

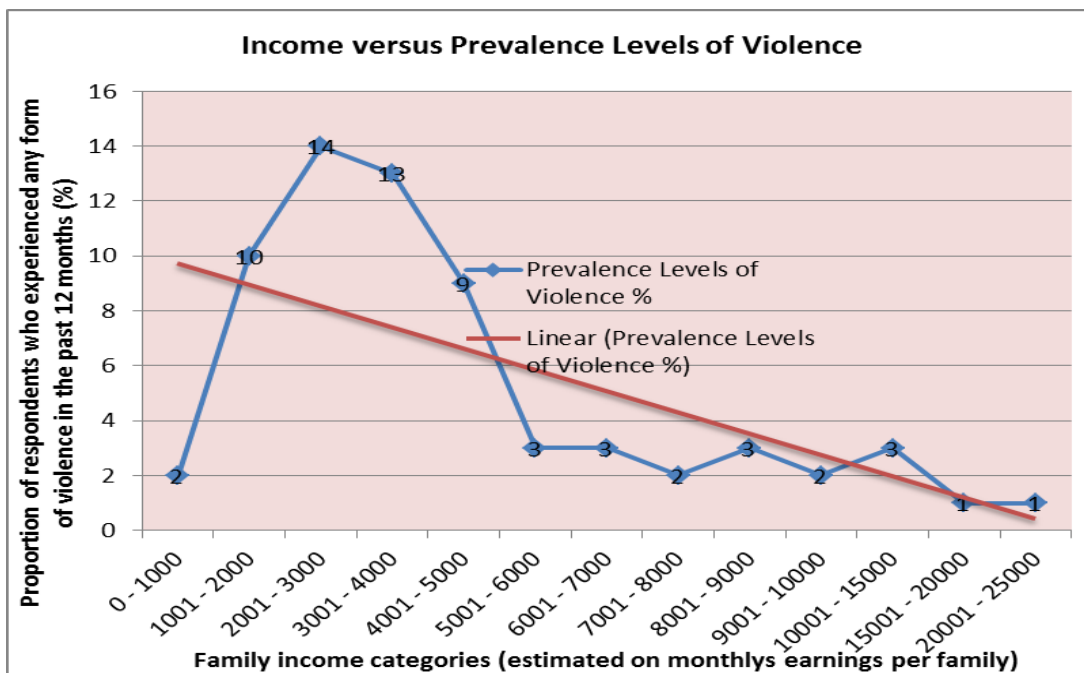
Family income category	Female Genital Mutilation		Peeping		Indecent touch		Sexual comments		Forced sex		Influenced or coerced sex		Other (Sodomy)		No answer	Total
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M		
0 - 3000	0	-	2	0	2	3	2	2	2	1	2	1	-	-	3	20
3001 - 6000	0	-	0	3	1	3	5	3	4	2	0	2	-	5	2	29
6001 - 9000	0	-	3	-	1	2	2	0	2	0	2	0	-	2	0	14
9001 - 10000	3	-	1	1	2	1	5	2	3	3	4	0	-	-		25
10001 and above	0	-	0	0	3	1	1	0	1	1	2	1	-	2	0	11
Total	3	0	6	4	9	10	15	7	12	7	10	4	0	9	4	100
Grand Total	3		10		19		22		19		14		9		4	100

N= Total 121; Male=59; Female=62

A regression of income levels and the prevalence levels of violence demonstrated that very high levels of violence were experienced by low income earners of below Ksh. 6000/= (\$ 71) per month. However, prevalence levels were high but relatively lower at the middle and higher income categories from the reported family income levels. As much as this category was not the lowest income category, it proved to be the most challenging group with the highest percentage of girls who experienced forced sex and influenced/coerced sex (defilement). Those falling within the family income category of Ksh. 10,000/= (\$118) and above exhibit prevalence level of 11%. This shows that one in every ten children in such families have experienced at least some form of violence. In this income category, indecent

touch against girls is the most common followed by influenced sex against girls and sodomy affecting boys at relatively equal rates. The highest level of sodomy was experienced by boys from the lowest income category of at most Ksh.3000/= (\$35) a month. The low income categories also exhibited the highest levels of sexual violence against both girls and boys, which was an indicator that low income levels perpetuate the levels of vulnerability to violence.

A linear trend line from the quantitative data as shown below in figure 6 provides the clear picture on the type of relationship that exists between family income levels and the prevalence level of sexual violence against children.



N=Male-59; Female-62; Total-121; Correlation Coefficient r= 6.38

Figure 6: Linear Relationship between Family Income and Prevalence of Violence

The linear relationship between the family income levels and the prevalence rate of sexual violence gives a clear correlation between the two variables. Holding the income variables as the independent variable while the acts of violence reported as the dependent variable, the association exhibits an inverse relation. This means that the prevalence of violence is high at lower income levels, and decreases as the family income increases. Figure 6 above shows that the highest peak of violence levels was reached when the family income levels in the district were between Ksh. 2,001 and Ksh. 3,000 (\$24-35) per month. The families falling in this income category were most likely to stay in very low cost houses especially in the

informal settlement areas in cluster one, which also exhibited very high population concentration.

Qualitative data from girls reinforces the high prevalence levels of violence as a consequence of low incomes. Girls in a focus group discussion reported that;

“If a girl comes from a poor family and she gets a boyfriend who promises to provide everything she needs, then she is likely to ‘move’ (start a sexual relationship) with him. This relationship would finally expose the two of them to sexual intercourse. Even if it were you,!... you cannot say no to him because if you say no then you may lose everything he is providing and then you go back to your poor life” (FGD with girls aged 13-17 years).

The discussion not only attached the possibility of girls from families in the low income categories to high prevalence, but also connects the findings to possible causes of influenced sex among peers or between children with adults who are more endowed with material resources.

The girls in FGD further clarify that sexual violence do not just occur as a result of poverty, but can also be induced by wealth. It is thus imperative that both poor and rich families can be possible victims of sexual violence but in different contexts. The FGDs indicate that;

“If parents have so much money they don’t care or look after their children, because they don’t have time. It is therefore easy for someone to ‘do drugs’ (get into drugs and get addicted) and even go to unsafe places and get raped. If parents give you a lot of money and freedom, you will obviously go out to drink and find yourself in such a situation” (FGD with girls 13-17 years).

4.3.1 Relationship between family expenditure on housing and prevalence of sexual violence

To show how expenditure on housing is connected to low income levels and by extension the high propensity to experience different forms of violence, table 4.6 below confirmed that

higher levels of violence were experienced by children from rented homes compared to family owned homes.

Table 4.6: Comparison (%) of levels of violence and type of housing

Type of violence	% from rented houses	% from family owned house	% No answer	Total %
Female Genital Mutilation	-	-	-	-
Peeping in toilets, mirrors or under the desk	56	7	37	100
Indecent touch	74	11	15	100
Undesired Sexual comments	59	10	31	100
Forced/unwanted sexual intercourse	81	11	8	100
Influenced or coerced sexual intercourse (with money/threats)	76	12	13	100

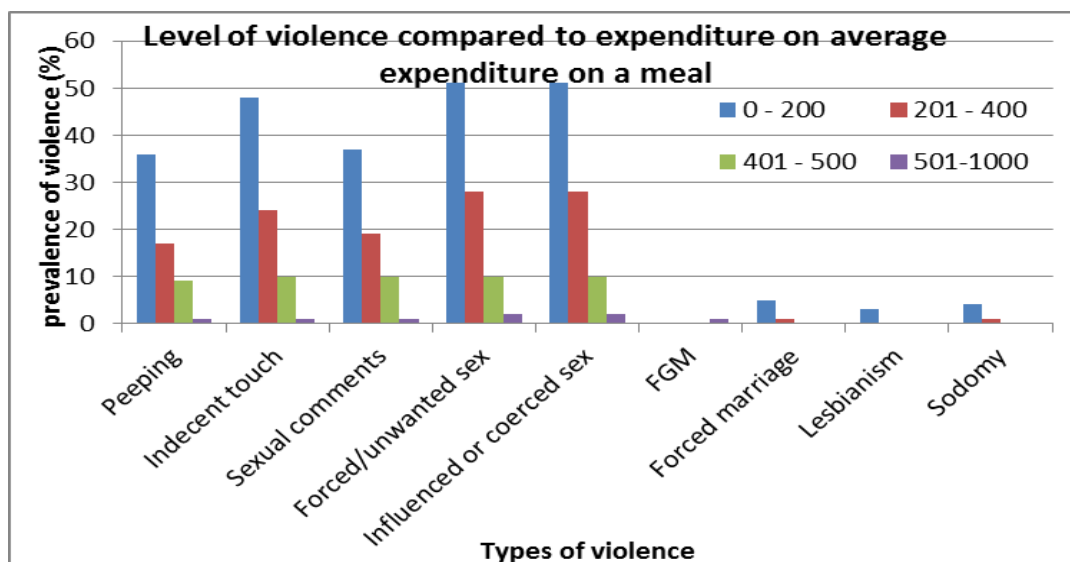
NB: Percentages calculated from the total who experienced each form of violence (n=f=120)

The cost of buying or constructing a house has high market values, such that only those families with relatively very incomes can afford. It is therefore imperative that those families that have low income are more likely to stay in low cost rental houses, which are also prone to high level of vulnerability to sexual violence. The income disparities can thus be correctly measured from the cost and type of housing by the family members.

The most commonly mentioned form of violence associated by respondents from rented houses is defilement in the form of forced sex rated at 81% of all those who experienced this form of violence. This is followed at 76% and 74% for influenced sex and indecent touch respectively. The strict correlation coefficient has not been established due to different unmatched variables used in the table, but the comparison still provides a clear picture to indicate the link between the frequencies of violence and the family income spent on housing.

4.3.2 Relationship between family expenditure on food and prevalence of violence

The income disparities can as well be captured in the family expenditure on food. It is on the same premise that the study examined the average amount of money spent on a single meal by the respondent's family.



Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

Figure 7: Comparison between family expenditure on food and prevalence of different forms of violence

Those who have higher amount allocated to a single meal would be most likely to have equivalent level of income to spend on food. The findings in figure 8 below show that lower expenditures on food, exhibit quite high levels of prevalence in terms of the respondents who experienced each form of violence. The highest expenditure category seems to continuously exhibit low levels of violence experienced by the respondents.

The assumption in this analysis is that food is a basic need hence every family must spend on food in each day. As much as they spend, each family will only pay for what they can afford from part of their income, unless the family is living on a relief program. It is therefore imperative that the relationship between the levels of disposable income used on food by the family, and the consequent prevalence levels of violence serves as an indicator of disparity at family levels.

4.3.3 Perpetrators of sexual violence against children

Families, defined widely, hold the greatest potential for protecting children from all forms of violence. Families can also empower children to protect themselves. A basic assumption of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) is that the family is the natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members – particularly for children –

while the Universal Declaration on Human Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights proclaim the family as being the fundamental group unit of society. The CRC requires the State to fully respect and support families (UN-SG 2006). This explains why using the family income as the point of measurement in establishing the trend of violence against children was necessary for this study.

Relatives and close family members

The analyses from descriptive statistics reveal that the highest perpetrators of sexual violence are male family members. The data shows that male family members are the mains crusaders for FGM for the few cases reported. Likewise they are mentioned relatively high as perpetrators of sexual comments, influenced sex and sodomy. It is worth noting that 18% of the respondents report that male family members are solely responsible for different forms of sexual violence.

Table 4.7: Perpetrators of each type of violence

Who did this to you?	FGM	Peeping	Indecent touch	Sexual Comment	Forced sex	Influenced sex	Sodomy	Total
Female peers	0	2	7	5	1	0	1	16
Male peers	0	4	3	3	3	2	1	16
Female teacher	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Male teacher	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	4
Female family member	0	0	1	3	2	0	0	6
Male family member	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	18
Girlfriend/Boyfriend	0	1	3	1	2	1	0	8
Female community member	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
Male community member	0	0	2	1	1	2	0	6

Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

This prevalence of violence against children committed by parents and other close family members – physical, sexual and psychological violence, as well as deliberate neglect – has only begun to be acknowledged and documented. Everywhere that sexual violence has been

studied, it is increasingly acknowledged that a substantial proportion of children are sexually harassed and violated by the people closest to them. Document review show that despite legislation and advocacy efforts, female genital mutilation (FGM) remains widespread in parts of North and Eastern Africa, over 90% of girls undergo this operation (UN Habitat, 2006).

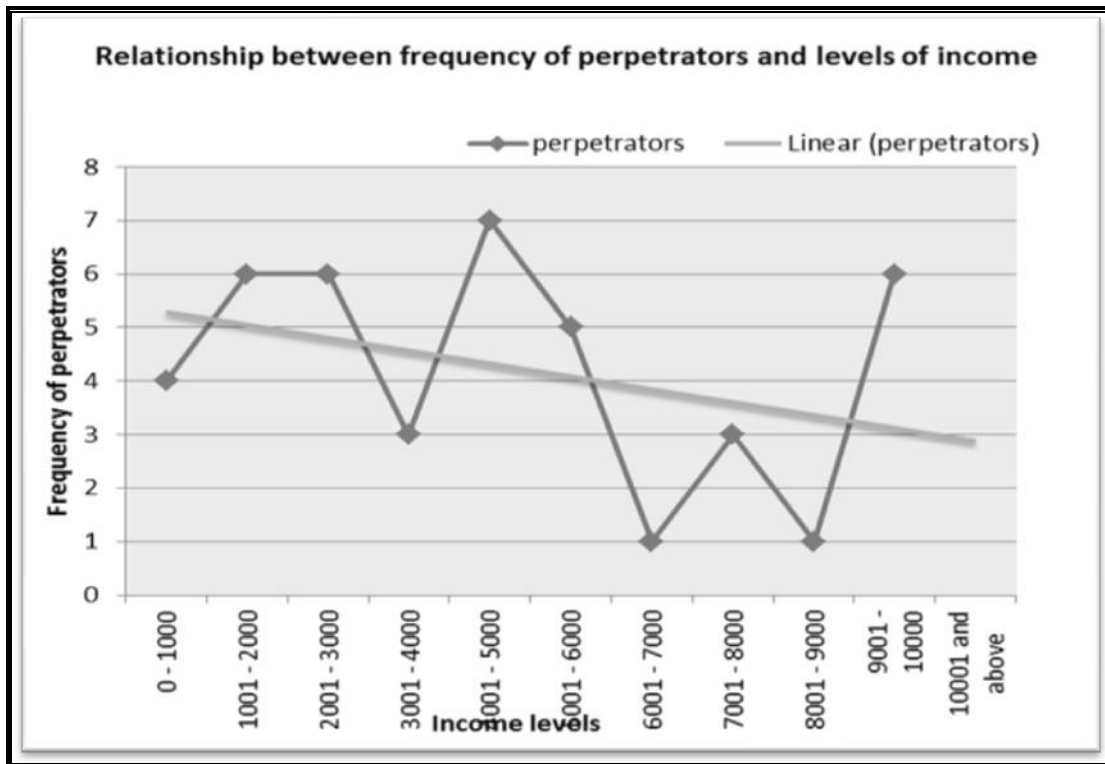
Fellow children

The second significant categories of perpetrators of sexual violence reported were the male and female peers. Accounting for 16% respectively of the violence experienced, shows that fellow children are themselves responsible for some forms of sexual violence against their own colleagues. Peeping, indecent touch and sexual comments are mostly committed by the peers. However, male peers are more responsible for the incidents of forced sex and peeping on girls, while the female peers are reported to be more responsible for indecent touch and sexual comments on both boys and girls.

Female adults

Female teachers and female community members are the least harmful to children in terms of sexual violation of children's rights. However, the home environment hosts the largest proportion of perpetrators as discussed in the next section with regard to location of violence.

Since the perpetrators would take advantage of the levels of vulnerability of children to sexual violence, a relationship with family income levels was established. The income levels were taken as the main determinant of vulnerability to security hence, the relationship with the prevalence levels of violence, though having weak correlation coefficient, gives an important indicator to the existing levels of disparity.



N=Male-59; Female-62; Total-121; Correlation Coefficient r= -0.21

Figure 8: Relationship between frequency of perpetrators and the levels of family income

The frequency of violence was very irregular but still showed that majority of perpetrators are reported where the income levels were less than Ksh. 5000/= (\$ 59). There is another sharp increase in the frequency of perpetrators from the income levels of Ksh. 8000/= (\$ 94) to Ksh. 10,000/= (\$ 118). While there is no explanation for the peak differences, the linear trend line establishes a weak correlation which indicates that the lower the family income levels, the higher the frequency of perpetrators of sexual violence against children. This means that the higher the family income, the lower the opportunity available for perpetrators, and so the lower the probability of sexual violence against children to occur.

4.3.4 Location of sexual violence against children

Majority of the incidents of sexual violence against children are reported to be taking place at the home environment or in the residential areas. Cases against boys were 40%, while 52% were against girls. Indecent touch on boys 17% and sexual comments to girls 18% lead the pack of different forms of violence that occur at home or in the residential area. Forced

and influenced sex against girls is more likely to occur at home than at any other locations reported, with influenced sex reported by a higher proportion of respondents.

Table 4.8: Location of violence by type and gender of respondents

Sexual Violence	Location of violence (%)											
	Home/ Residential area		Journey to/from school		In school compound		Other places		Refuse to answer		Don't know	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Female Genital Mutilation	-	5	-	0	-	0	-	-	-	0	-	-
Peeping	9	7	0	0	3	5	0	-	0	2	0	-
Indecent touch	17	10	2	3	3	3	0	-	0	0	2	-
Sexual comments	3	18	5	5	2	2	0	-	0	0	0	-
Forced/unwanted sex	3	5	0	2	0	2	0	-	0	0	0	-
Influenced or coerced sex	3	7	0	2	2	0	0	-	0	1	0	-
Others (sodomy)	5	-	0	-	0	-	2	-	2	0	0	-

Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

In comparing the location of violence to the levels of family income, the patterns remain the same as majority of all respondents (48%) reporting that they experienced the form of sexual violence at home. The respondents from lower income categories of less than Ksh. 5000/= (\$ 59) were more like to experience violence at home, school and on the way to school. The forms of sexual violence that happened in school environment were more likely to be experienced by respondents from families in the middle and income categories.

Table 4.9: Location of violence and levels of income

Family income levels	In the home %	To and from school %	In school %	Refuse to answer %	Don't know %	Total %
0 - 1000	1	0	1	1	0	3
1001 - 2000	3	2	0	1	0	6
2001 - 3000	2	1	1	1	1	6
3001 - 4000	3	1	0	0	0	4
4001 - 5000	6	0	3	2	0	11
5001 - 6000	1	0	0	1	0	2
6001 - 7000	1	0	0	0	0	1
7001 - 8000	2	1	0	0	0	3
8001 - 9000	0	0	0	1	0	1
9001 - 10000	2	1	0	3	1	7
10001 and above	10	1	5	3	1	20
Don't know	17	3	3	6	7	36
Total	48	9	12	19	11	100

Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

The qualitative data from FGDS confirmed why sexual violence could be happening more at home as girls in focus group indicated that parents were responsible for violence against children in one way or the other. They argued that:

“Some of our parents bring different sexual partners at home. And sometime the house is a single or double room. This will force the child to do the same acts. Such parents also do not love their children and so the children may run away from home to seek for love. This makes some of us to be very vulnerable, naive and desperate. A child in this circumstance cannot be safe from exposure to early sexual abuse even by the men brought in by their own mothers” (FGD with girls 13-17 years).

Their male counterparts support this view by showing liability on both parents arguing that parents were likely to be perpetrators by omission or commission in different instances. However, they seemed to point at instances where the male parents have been the perpetrators of defilement. The boys report that:

“Think of a case where the mother goes abroad or works very far and does not come back home and leaves her daughter behind with the father. What do you expect? Incest as the father will rape her and she can’t tell anybody” (FGD with boys aged 13-17 years).

4.3.5 Frequency in occurrence of sexual violence against children

The frequency of sexual violence focuses on accounting for the actual scenario with respect to how often the different forms of violence take place. This gives some insight on the likelihood of violence to occur in a given scenario. The findings showed that FGM was the least frequent as the few respondents indicated that it is something that is done once in a lifetime for an individual. It was not possible to determine when the next victim would go through the practice, but most likely in a year such practices were believed to happen. The most frequent forms of violence reported by girls and boys were influenced or coerced sex and sodomy respectively. These forms of violence were reported to happen on a weekly basis or less, and were likely to be experienced repeatedly by the same victim.

Table 4.10: Frequency of violence by type and gender of respondents

Sexual Violation	How often does the violence happen								Total
	Rarely		Often		Very often		All the time		
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	
Female Genital Mutilation	3	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	3
Peeping	10	6	2	2	0	0	0	0	20
Indecent touch	8	10	5	2	0	0	0	2	27
Sexual comments	12	4	3	2	2	0	0	0	23
Forced/unwanted sex	8	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
Influenced or coerced sex	3	0	3	0	3	0	2	0	11
Others (sodomy)	-	-	-	2	-	0	-	3	5
Total	44	23	13	8	5	0	2	5	100

Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

More girls (13%) than boys (8%) experienced different types of violence reported to be often. The forms of violence which were reported to be experienced by girls often were indecent touch, sexual comments and influenced sex. Majority of girls (44%) and a

significant proportion of boys (23%) however, reported that they rarely experienced the different forms of violence.

In comparing the frequency of violence and the family income levels, only 51% of the respondents stated their opinion. From this small sample as shown in table 4.11, the respondents from families with lower incomes of less than Ksh. 5000/= (\$ 59) experienced sexual violence relatively most frequently. A larger proportion of respondents from higher income levels experienced the different forms of violence less frequently.

Table 4.11: Frequency of violence and levels of income

Family Income level	Frequency of violence %				Total %
	Rarely (yearly) %	Often (quarterly) %	Very often (monthly) %	All the time (weekly) %	
0 - 1000	2	2	1	0	5
1001 - 2000	3	1	1	1	6
2001 - 3000	3	1	1	1	6
3001 - 4000	3	0	0	0	3
4001 - 5000	4	4	2	2	12
5001 - 6000	3	0	0	1	4
6001 - 7000	1	0	0	0	1
7001 - 8000	2	1	0	0	3
8001 - 9000	1	0	0	0	1
9001 - 10000	4	2	2	0	8
10001 and above	7	3	2	1	13
Sub total	33	14	9	7	51
No answer	2	6	4	7	19
Don't know	11	4	2	2	30
Sub Total	13	10	6	9	49
Grand Total	46	24	15	16	100

Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

The family income disparities reported by respondents and the consequent factors on prevalence of violence indicated persistent gender disparities in all spheres. In the World Bank (2012) report it was argued that areas that have seen good progress, change has come slowly or not at all for many families in many other dimensions of gender equality. So do other persistent gender disparities, including segregation in economic activity, gender gaps

in earnings, male-female differences in responsibility for house and care work, and gaps in asset ownership, in both the private and public spheres. And these gaps tend to be reproduced across generations.

4.4 Relationship between income levels and actions taken by children who experienced violence

4.4.1 Actions taken by victims of violence

The levels of income disparities were found to be closely linked to the conditions of violence against children. This was taken by considering the level of family income as a determinant of empowerment capacity of both children and their families to take substantive actions to prevent the occurrence of violence or to seek remedy for the victims.

Table 4.12: Actions taken by respondents who experienced different types of violence

Action taken by Respondent	Sex of respondent		Total %
	Male %	Female %	
Did nothing	13	12	25
Fought back/Told them to stop/Threatened to report	7	7	14
Reported to mother	4	7	11
Reported to father	3	3	6
Shared with peers/ a friend	3	7	10
Reported to school authorities	2	2	4
Reported to Police	1	0	1
Refuse to answer	11	7	18
Don't know	4	7	11

Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

The findings show that a quarter of those who experienced sexual violence did not take any action. However, slightly more boys (13%) than girls (12%) did nothing when they experienced violence. It was also notable that more than one in every ten girls would fight back the perpetrator or they threatened to report. This was most likely to happen in cases where the perpetrators were their peers. With regard to whether children would inform their parents about their experiences, the findings reveal that mothers (11%) are more likely than

fathers (6%) to receive reports from their children, though with a very low level of reporting. It is interesting to note that more children are likely to share their predicament with peers (10%) than report to their fathers either. In this case boys (7%) do share more with their peers than girls (3%). The surprise is that very few children are likely to reach the police (1%) to make reports when they are violated. A key informant who was a survivor of defilement attribute her failure to report her case to police on lack of confidentiality. She narrates that:

“...it is difficult reporting to the police because everyone will come to know what happened to you. The police cannot help much as they will make the case public and cause more embarrassment, so I could not report my case” (Interview with a girl in form two).

Table 4.13 shows the likelihood of children from families with different income levels and where they reported their cases when violated. It is worth noting that 35% Of the children did not respond to the two questions together by not stating their income levels.

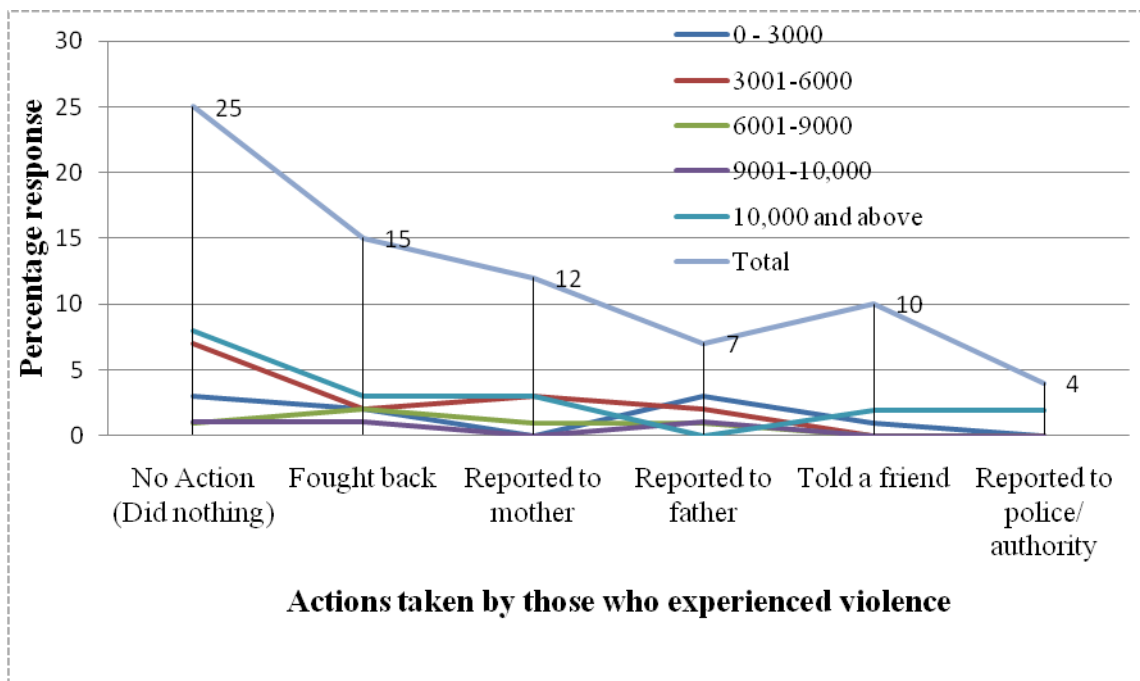
Table 4.13 Actions taken versus the level of household income

Income Category	No Action (Did nothing)	Fought back	Reported to mother	Reported to father	Told a friend	Reported to police/ authority	Total
0 - 3000	3	2	0	3	1	0	16
3001-6000	7	2	3	2	0	0	14
6001-9000	1	2	1	1	0	0	6
9001-10,000	1	1	0	1	0	0	5
10,000 and above	8	3	3	0	2	2	24
Don't know	5	5	5	0	7	2	35
Total	25	15	12	7	10	4	100

N=Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

However, those who were likely to report to the police (2%) were only from the families earning more than Ksh. 10,000/= (\$ 118) per month. Large numbers still did not take any action.

Expressed in a chart (figure 9) below, the top-most line represents the total response and the variations in actions taken. The second line represents, the high income category who took any action as expressed in both table 4.13 and figure 9.



N=Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

Figure 9: Actions taken by level of household income

It shows that majority of the children rarely take any action, a few fight back, some share with their mothers and peers, but they hardly report to their fathers and least to the police. On establishing the relationship between family income levels and the actions taken by respondents, the findings show that children from lower income categories are less likely to take any action than their well off counterparts. This indicates that higher income levels give the families better security against violence. Alternatively, it can be argued that resources provide buffer zone for child protection at family level, hence the more endowments the family is the less likely the children will be empowered to take action against the perpetrators.

4.4.2 Outcomes of Actions taken by victims

The result from any possible actions taken by the respondents who experienced sexual violence show that since they did not take any action, it was most likely that nothing happened after (24%). It is however very significant to note that the proportion of respondents falling within this category of helplessness are quite high accounting for one in every four participants. In a few cases where the perpetrator was a student, the result from those who reported to the school authorities showed that the perpetrator was punished at school (3%). Likewise, 3% of the cases that reached the community members had the perpetrator disciplined. While sexual violence is acknowledged globally as posing major health risk in the victim's life, only 5% of such cases were ever referred to a health facility for care and support. The police also managed to take some 3% of the cases to prosecution level.

Table 4.14: Results of actions taken by gender of respondents

Result of action taken	Sex of respondent %		Total %
	Male	Female	
Nothing happened after	12	12	24
Incident reported to family member or community leader	3	4	7
Incident reported to school management/someone in Ministry of Education	3	1	4
The pupil was punished by the school	3	0	3
The person(s) were disciplined by community leaders	1	2	3
I was taken to the clinic or received health care/support	1	4	5
Police investigated the case and prosecuted the perpetrator	1	2	3

N=Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

When the outcomes are compared to the family income categories, it manifests wide helplessness for almost all income categories. Relatively all respondents who experienced any form of sexual violence were indifferent on actions taken the consequent outcomes of such actions. This scenario cuts across all income groups. Only 3% of the cases were

investigated by the police and the perpetrator prosecuted. It was however not possible during the study to verify with the police whether any of the cases reported were actually prosecuted. In terms of healthcare and psychosocial support, only 5 percent of the respondents managed to receive some services from the local health facilities. Despite the small proportions of positive outcomes, girls reported relatively higher support than boys in terms of actions taken by community leaders, police and access to health care services.

Table 4.15: Results of action taken and level of income

Results of action taken %	Family income categories per month						Total %
	0 - 3000	3001 - 6000	6001 - 9000	9001 - 10000	10001 and above	Don't know	
I don't know/don't remember	0	0	0	0	2	2	4
Nothing happened	5	2	2	0	4	7	20
Reported community leader	1	2	0	1	1	3	8
Reported to school authorities	1	0	0	0	0	3	4
Reported to police	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
The person(s) were punished by community leaders	2	3	1	1	1	0	8
Victim received healthcare support	1	1	0	0	1	3	6
No answer	5	9	2	5	11	17	49
Total	15	17	5	7	21	35	100

N=Male-60; Female-60; Total-120

Table 4.15 reveals that very few cases were successfully prosecuted. It is however indicative that a few in the low income category were likely to have their cases reported to the community leaders like chiefs with relatively significant actions taken by the community leaders to punish the perpetrator (8%). On the other hand, it is only in the limited occasions (1%) that even respondents from the high income categories managed to have their cases handled by the police. Those from low income categories had no access to the police at all. Health care services remained equally inaccessible to all respondents from different income categories.

From the qualitative data it becomes clearer why some victims of violence hardly take action against the perpetrators and why even if one takes action, still nothing happens;

“It is quiet common that children get defiled and it’s never reported, because perpetrators bribe their way out. The perpetrators will always compromise the survivors’ parents. Sometimes, even older men and women take advantage of young girls or boys. They influence them with money and gifts. Girls are even more unlucky because they are lured into sexual acts or forced into sex but no action is taken against the perpetrators. The victims hardly report to anyone because of lack of knowledge of what to do” (FGD with boys 13-17 years).

This view shows that there exists a serious case of power imbalance between the perpetrators and the victims. Some perpetrators were more likely to be financially stable than the survivors. In some circumstances the perpetrators were more knowledgeable than the victims so there was the possibility of obstructing justice. This could be more possible for children from poor families. However, since the perpetrators were possibly very close family members, even high income families were likely to experience compromise in the occurrence of violence against children.

4.4.3 Respondents’ satisfaction with how cases are handled

The respondents’ satisfaction with the way their issues were handled after reporting show a very high level of dissatisfaction.

Table 4.17: Respondents level of satisfaction with outcomes

Handling of cases	Sex of respondent		Total
	Male	Female	
Very badly	14	14	28
Not very well	7	9	16
Quite well	6	3	9
Very well	4	3	7
Not sure	11	10	21
Don't know	7	12	19
Total	49	51	100

N=Male-59; Female-62; Total-121

It was quite evident, that a vast majority 28% of the respondents reported that their cases were handled very badly. However, many of them accounting for 21% were not sure of what happened there after. Only 7% of the respondents who also reported their cases reported satisfaction that their cases were handled very well. Another 19% of the respondents confessed ignorance of what ought to have been done or what could have happened later. They responded that they didn't know anything with regards to action that needed to be taken as well as the possible outcome if they ever reported. This study therefore shows that there is a clear correlation between the different indicators of income used and the prevalence levels of sexual violence against children.

4.5 Discussion of Results

This section provides the discussions of the findings and putting them into prospect according to other findings at national and international levels. The section also discusses the findings in line with the theoretical framework. The study broadly aims at establishing the relationships between income disparities and the prevalence of violence at family level. Designed as a descriptive survey, the study fulfilled its objectives in ascertaining tendencies between incidents of violence and socio-economic inequalities in terms of family income disparities in the hope of informing the scholars and policy makers with the specific situation of human rights violations in terms of sexual violence against children and the socio-economic context within which they occur. The findings are also useful in the design of any preventive measure to address sexual violence against children at any level. The study therefore brings together the ‘who’, ‘why’, ‘what’, ‘where’ and ‘how’ elements of the ‘Analysis of Correlations’ exercise.

In the analysis context, ‘*who*’ refer to the total sample of 220 teenage boys and girls from Kasarani subcounty in Nairobi County. The ‘*why*’ sections uses the quantitative and qualitative findings to justify the examination of the relationship between socio-economic inequalities and different forms of sexual violence from an empirical perspective, and providing arguments in favour and against a statistical approach to the analysis of largely qualitative subject matter. In the description, ‘*what*’ question refers to the concepts undergoing measurement, the relevance, explanations and sources of specific forms of violence and socio-economic variables and composite indexes employed for the correlation exercise. The ‘*where*’ element concerns the locations of both the socioeconomic disparities and respective forms of sexual violence from the ‘analysis of correlations’, that is, the income disparities at family level and prevalence of violence in different locations.

4.5.1 Status of family income disparities and the prevalence of sexual violence

(a) Income disparities

The analysis commences by ascertaining the existence of disparities in family income categories and establishing the actual prevalence levels of sexual violence against children at a given point of time. The findings from the analysis show that economic disparities exist among different families in the study area. Such disparities are further manifested in the skewed disposable income available for the families to spend on housing food and school

fees. Evidence shows that 27% of the girls come from families with at least Ksh. 10,000/=, (\$118) while boys reported that only 12% had such level of incomes. It follows that a good majority of the families comprising at most 73% from the population sample earn less than Ksh. 10,000/= (\$118). The Republic of Kenya (2012) National Survey report on the other hand estimated that in Kenya, the household monthly income of Ksh 9,372 (\$110) constitute the urban poverty line. Given this reckoning, it is estimated that a household comprising six members would require Ksh. 5,928 per month to purchase its basic minimum food needs (adult equivalent of 2,250 calories) in a balanced diet. When non-food essentials were accounted for the overall poverty line rises to Ksh. 9,882 (\$ 116) per average household. Comparing the Government estimates to the findings, 73% of the populations in Kasarani District live below the urban poverty line. On the other hand, the estimates on food requirements per month shows that almost 70% of the population who spend less at most Ksh. 200/= (\$2) on an average meal per day are likely to be subjected to food poverty. This finding on income disparities provides evidence that the study area and other urban areas with similar features, share a common problem of income inequalities, which still affects our entire society.

(b) Prevalence of Sexual violence against children

Violence on the other hand is a fluid and dynamic concept that does not render a definitional consensus *per se*. Generic definitions used in this study reduce violence to the acts of force, which causes harm to others. One doesn't need to enter an in-depth discussion of terminology to recognize the importance of disaggregating violence as a concept and as a precursor to the following analysis of correlations exercise. What really constitutes violence is based on one's interpretation, yet the infliction of harm on others remains crucial. The study narrowed further such acts to a few types of violence conventionally described as 'sexual forms of violence', according to the definitions by the Sexual Offenses Act (2006) (Republic of Kenya 2006), subject to the Constitution of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010). At its broadest sense, linking the 'harmful acts' to the economic environment, 'violence' has been understood to include harm caused by structural inequalities in society. The study reveals that the most prevalent forms of violence experienced by all children are sexual comments, forced sex and indecent touch. In this regard defilement which combines both forced sex and influenced or coerced sexual intercourse is the most serious being reported by 33% of the children interviewed. The least reported form of violence is Female Genital

Mutilation which is experienced by 2% comprising of girls only and sodomy experienced by 9% of children affecting boys only.

The experience of sexual violence by children takes a gender perspective as the higher proportions of the female respondents (girls) experience the most forms of sexual violence compared to their male counterparts (boys) in all cases except of indecent touch. It is however significant to note that the male respondents are equally affected as opposed to the general belief that it is only the girls who are in danger of sexual violence. Noting that over 10% of the boys are defiled either in forced sex or influenced sex through gifts, food and money by female perpetrators, it is a point of concern that 9% of boys also experience sodomy by male perpetrators. The findings are in line with the findings from the latest National Survey (Republic of Kenya, 2012) on violence against children, which also indicate that violence against children is a serious problem in Kenya. The survey found out that the levels of violence prior to age 18 years as reported by 18 to 24 year olds (giving lifetime experiences) indicate that during childhood: 32% of females and 18% of males experienced sexual violence.

Gender Violence Recovery Centre (GVRC), annual report (2012) also showed that sexual violence remained the most commonly reported form of abuse through the year 2011-2012, following a pattern since GVRC began their work. In their report sexual violence accounted for 86% of all cases reported since 2010-2012. According to GVRC (2012) report, women accounted for 38% while men 3% constituted 10% of the total number of GBV cases reported in 2011-2012. Girls accounted for 36% and boys 5% of sexual violence reported indicating the prevailing higher risk and exposure for girls. While the current study focused on the teenage children aged between 13-17 years, GVRC (2012) reports that from all the reported cases of sexual violence that they received in one year (2012), 21% were affecting students in secondary schools. Further, almost three quarters of all the GBV cases reported to the GVRC were from Nairobi County accounting for 73% of the total 2954 cases. This provides justification for the focus on Kasarani District, for a correlation analysis with the skewed income disparities. The prevailing gender patterns however show that girls are the major victims of all forms of sexual violence.

4.5.2 Correlation between family income and sexual violence against children

After having carefully selected and correlated variables that represent different forms of sexual violence against socio-economic inequality, certain trends in the impact of socio-economic factors on the incidence of violence were observed. Some findings are affirming obvious global phenomena while others do not. Measures of defilement in terms of forced sex and influenced sex with gifts money or favours are highly correlated with measures of income inequality. In other words, income inequality is a strong indicator on the probability of occurrence and the level of sexual forms of violence, especially in terms of defilement cases. It is imperative that the level of sexual violence (with regard to defilement) is higher among families which are economically deprived and much less likely among the families which are well endowed. This evidence can be used in policies linked poverty reduction and, more specifically, to household income redistribution. The levels of disparity in family income levels are actually useful to explain how the inequality can lead to other constraints in society.

The gendered patterns in the levels of violence experienced by both boys and girls is in fact in line with a study by Kevane (2004) which linked the economic factors to gender issues arguing that a common outcome of the gendering of social activity is an unequal and inefficient distribution, between men and women. World Bank report (2012) further complements the idea that gender equality is a core development objective in its own right. The report declares that greater gender equality is also smart economics, enhancing productivity and improving other development outcomes, including prospects for the next generation (children) and for the quality of societal policies and institutions.

Mukesh (2014) observed that as a single powerful explanatory socio-economic variable, income alone has a great influence on state violence as well as non-state violence. According to Mukesh (2014) gender-based measures are strong correlates of state violence measures like female literacy rates, female labour force participation, and gender development index (GDI) influence rates of violence (Mudlay and Goddard, 2006). In other words the greater the levels of economic equality, the lower the levels of violence among men and women, or girls and boys.

In the study findings it was evident that the levels of income and the consequent disparities have nothing to do with demographic characteristics of the respondents. The absence of a

relationship between income disparities and demographic variables can also be revealing that population density, composition and structures are not significant and not strong predictors of sexual violence since much of the incidents occur in the home environment.

The use of findings from this study to indicate the existence, strength or absence of relationships contributes to the dissemination of information regarding human rights abuses. In many societies, gender disparities remain large only for those who are poor. Beyond the poor, gender gaps remain particularly large for groups for whom conflict and other factors such as disability or sexual orientation and violation of human rights compound gender inequality (World Bank, 2012). So, the growth in aggregate income may not be broad-based enough to benefit poor households. Market signals are muted because economic opportunities do not expand much or because other barriers such as exclusion caused by gender based violence which gets in the way of accessing those opportunities like education.

For example, investing in education measured by literacy rates can influence female labour force participation, which in turn influences gender equality. Policy implications here point to the need to address inequalities in income and gender as a possible avenue for addressing levels of sexual violence against children. While there is no critical level by which socio-economic situation creates an ideal environment for specific forms of violence, there is evidence demonstrating higher probability for such forms of violence in case of higher income inequality.

However, it is recognized that economic indicators are not exclusively enough to shrink all gender disparities. Corrective policies that focus on persisting gender gaps are essential in each specific issue that affects the society. It is on this premise that linking family income disparities to the prevailing levels of sexual violence becomes important. For poor populations and for populations in urban areas, sizable gender gaps remain. These gaps are even worse where poverty combines with other factors of exclusion such as gender based violence, disability, or sexual orientation. The research focuses on sexual violence against children as one of such factors of exclusion. To establish the location and possibility of exclusion, analysis was made on the Location of violence and the frequencies.

Different parameters derived from violence and socio-economic variables were selected carefully and their selection based on theoretical reasons rather than convenience or taste.

No attempt was made to provide an exhaustive measure of both, yet the variables under each heading covers the meaning and underlying theoretical concepts of income disparity and forms of sexual violence. Mudlay and Goddard, (2006) argue that datasets of this nature share numerous criticisms. It is argued that there are concerns over differences in definition, interpretation errors, aggregation errors, sampling errors, double counting etc. which pose enormous difficulties for comparative measurement purposes.

However the sources used for this study analysis are highly credible since all attempts were made to provide accurate and comprehensive data enabling consistent comparisons of findings for both income variables and levels of violence. GVRC (2012) outlines that gender based violence arises out of the imbalances in power relations that exist in the Kenyan society. A majority (64%) of survivors in the cases they handled in 2012 alone reported that the perpetrators were known to them while about 11% declined to name their perpetrators. However, neighbours, acquaintances, fathers, friends, and relatives constituted the majority of the perpetrators of sexual violence.

The analysis in this study also confirms that the highest perpetrators of sexual violence are male family members. Majority of the incidents of sexual violence against children are reported to be taking place at the home environment or in the residential areas. Forced and influenced sex against girls is more likely to occur at home than at any other locations reported. Influenced sex was reported by the highest proportion of respondents. In comparing the location of violence to the levels of family income, the patterns that majority of respondents from families in low income categories experienced most forms of sexual violence at home.

With regards to the frequency of violence and the family income levels, majority of the respondents from families with lower incomes still experienced sexual violence relatively most frequently. A larger proportion of respondents from higher income levels experienced the different forms of violence less frequently. The findings however show that some acts such as FGM is the least frequent as the few respondents indicate that it is something that is done once in a lifetime for an individual. The most frequent forms of violence reported by girls and boys are influenced or coerced sex and sodomy respectively.

4.5.3 Relationship between family income and actions on sexual violence

The vast majority of respondents who experienced violence did not take any action. However, slightly more boys than girls did nothing. On establishing the relationship between income levels and the actions taken by respondents on the respective forms of violence, table 4.12 shows that those from lower income categories are less likely to take any action than their well off counterparts.

Parkes and Heslop (2013) in their cross country analysis for the endline survey for *stop violence against girls in school project* implemented in Kenya, Ghana and Mozambique established that girls from peri-urban set up (in Mozambique) were more likely to take action on sexual violence by reporting incidents of violence against them to someone, than their counterparts more rural areas (like was the case in Kenya and Ghana). While the finding was not fully linked to the economic variables, it would be possible to infer that children from more well off families are more likely to take appropriate action if they ever experienced sexual violence than their less endowed counterparts.

Gender Violence Recovery Center (GVRC) (2012) on making an assessment of the backgrounds of the children who reported incidents of sexual violence against them in Kenya, confirmed further that the majority 44% of the cases came from low income areas in the city of Nairobi, while middle level regions accounted for only 22% and up market regions accounted for only 7%. However in terms of access to services, relatively very low proportions from the low income regions could afford for the basic provisions for justice and healthcare support. The correlation conducted in this study gives a better confirmation of this fact.

It is worth stating that all the indicators of violence against the income disparities at family levels show a very strong correlation between the income factor and violence. Children from low income families are more likely to experience sexual violence than their counterparts from high income families. Likewise, it is proved that the higher the income disparities, the higher the levels of vulnerability to sexual violence against children at family level.

Moreover, prevalence levels of sexual violence indicate that girls are more at risk than boys, while both girls and boys from low income families are more likely to do nothing when they experience violation. The study therefore conforms to previous studies in line with the

Social disorganization theory which posits that the aggregate characteristics of areas influence the likelihood of violent crime and victimization. Mcmurtry and Curling, (2008) concludes that neighbourhoods that suffer from low socioeconomic status, high rates of residential mobility, high levels of ethnic heterogeneity, and high population density tend to be plagued by high levels of street crime and interpersonal violence.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary of Findings

This study focused on correlating family income and the prevalence levels of sexual violence against children in order to draw inferences that have conventional applicability. The broad objective aimed at exploring the relationship between sexual violence against children and the levels in the family income taking a gendered perspective. The sample size comprised of 220 teenage children, below the age of eighteen years, including 110 girls and 110 boys surveyed respectively. Respondents were randomly sampled for the quantitative data and conveniently selected for the case studies.

The general finding confirms a strong association between worse economic conditions and high levels of violence. Broad range of socio-economic and violence variables were used to capture the relationships to avoid being too categorical and to be more inclusive. Analysing specific intervening variables also provided strong evidence that inequalities in income, explain the close association with the prevalence of different types of sexual violence against children at family level especially in urban setting.

The findings were organized under three objectives as follows:

The first objective was to explore the prevalence of sexual violence against children with respective family income differences. The cross tabulation results show that boys are slightly more informed about the value of their family houses than girls with 52% of the respondents who confirm that they own houses are boys as girls comprise of 48% only. It was evident that more girls than boys were likely to report that their families earn higher incomes. It is also significant to note that at least 10% of the girls and boy were unable to tell their family incomes because they don't know. Only small proportion of families comprising of 20 percent lived in low cost houses costing a rental value of less than Ksh. 5000/= (\$ 59). Clear disparity is manifested by another set of families comprising of 20 percent paying up to Ksh. 25,000/= (\$294) or more on rent.

The analysis also confirmed high prevalence levels of different forms of sexual violence experienced by children. Examination of the different forms of sexual violence experienced

within the past one year showed that almost all children comprising of 95% of those interviewed were on the affirmative.

Female respondents (girls) experienced the most forms of sexual violence compared to their male counterparts (boys). It was also significant that the male respondents were equally affected as opposed to the general belief that it is only the girls who are in danger of sexual violence. Noting that over 10% of the boys are defiled either through forced sex or influenced sex through gifts, food and money by female perpetrators, it is a point of concern that 9% of boys also experienced sodomy by male perpetrators.

The second objective was to determine the correlation between sexual violence experienced by children to the associated family income factors. A regression of income levels and the prevalence levels of violence demonstrate that very high levels of violence are experienced by low income earners. Figure 7 shows that the highest peak of violence levels is reached when the family income levels in the district are between Ksh. 2000/= (\$ 24) and 3000/= (\$35) per month. Majority of this income category are most likely to stay in very low cost houses especially in the informal settlement areas, which also exhibit very high population concentration.

Finally the third objective sought to assess the actions taken on sexual violence based on the children's family income backgrounds. Regression on the relationship between income levels and the actions taken by respondents on the respective forms of violence, table 4.13 showed that those children from lower income categories are less likely to take any action than their well off counterparts.

The result from any possible actions taken by the respondents who experienced sexual violence also showed that even for both girls and boys who took any action, it was most likely that nothing happened after. It is however very significant to note that the proportion of respondents falling within this category of helplessness are quite high accounting for one in every four participants.

5.2 Conclusions

5.2.1 Theoretical Conclusions

This study was designed on the basis of the resource theory of family violence to explain the occurrence of violence at family level. According to the resource theory, the parents, if they feel deprived, they will try to compensate such lack by asserting authority through violence especially of physical force. If there are more resources, such as money, property, and others available at the disposal of a person, there is less need to use physical force. These resources can also be used to enforce the authority of the person or seek remedy. It would be valid to conclude from this study that the amount of resources available at the disposal of the family has close association with sexual violence. As much as the family may want to protect and provide for the children, the latter remain exposed to different forms of sexual violence as their family incomes decline and vice versa.

The resource theory therefore explains the realisation of human rights for children and everyone else is likely to become increasingly difficult at lower income levels. Violence can also undermine people's material well-being hence bears a tangible gradient on the people's livelihoods including children. It can compromise human dignity and create a climate of fear that endangers personal security and erodes the quality of life. Therefore living conditions that would permit people to lead peaceful and secure lives require good governance with economic enhancement, whereby the government national or devolved provides a political and socio-economic 'enabling environment'. Conversely, 'bad governance' can worsen social conditions that contribute to a rise in violence where the fruits of political and socio-economic development are not equitably distributed among the people.

5.2.2 Empirical Conclusions

This research considered the relationship between socio-economic inequalities and violence in a restricted form, and not in a comprehensive form. Neither regression nor correlation analyses can be interpreted as establishing cause-and-effect relationships. They indicate only how or to what extent variables are associated with each other. The correlation coefficient measures only the degree of linear association between two variables. Any conclusions about a cause-and-effect relationship must be based on the judgment of the analyst. While the relevant variable for the scope have been analysed, there are of course many interesting variables that have not been examined and further analysis may require

greater systematic analysis of existing data, enabling us to better understand the context of violence and socio-economic development and inequality that affects all citizens directly or indirectly. A more exhaustive analysis could strengthen causal inferences but this would require more data and multivariate analysis. Even so, this study has been generally theory affirming, that is, in accordance to what a large body of existing literature suggests that inequality lies at the root of sexual violence against children.

Measuring the effect of specific socio-economic variables on sexual violence against children is an imperfect exercise, however using trend data, what has been achieved is to highlight the relationships between key explanatory socio-economic variables that account for variations in sexual forms of violence affecting children. There are inferential limitations to the analyses based on the extent of causality of the correlation analysis, yet the consistency of the relationships between socio-economic and violence variables enable the study to concur that minor inaccuracies in data are unlikely to have much effect on general inferences drawn from the analysis.

It is therefore worth concluding that the prevalence levels of violence against children have indirect relationship with the family income endowment, and direct relationship with income levels and disparities in society. The proportions of sexual violence incidents against children therefore reduce as the families income increase. The different forms of sexual violence also decreases as families increasingly get higher disposable incomes on food and improved housing conditions. Many forms of sexual violence against children occur in the homes with girls bearing the greatest suffering, while male family members are the most frequent perpetrators. It is imperative that any focus to protect the rights of children by eradicating sexual violence against them must focus on the family and should tackle the subject of entitlements.

These socio-economic inequalities reinforce the observations made at the macro level regarding income inequalities, economic development and differences in gender empowerment as explanatory in analysing variations in the level and type of violence.

5.3 Recommendations

This study shows that there is clearly a need for more and better sex-disaggregated data on sexual violence in each county to help in making regional and national structures to prevent sexual violence against children. Data on sexual violence can be obtained through multiple channels and instruments at present, including: continuous National surveys of sexual violence; Health Management Information Systems data; Demographic and Health Survey data and other large scale household surveys; National surveys on violence against children; Survey of media reports; Targeted school-based surveys; and police crime surveys. However, not all of these sources capture all forms or manifestations of sexual violence affecting children, nor do they address specific age ranges and gender identities or expressions, as demonstrated in this study. Obviously any push for more data on sexual violence must also be accompanied by attention to ethical principles that minimise the risk of potential harm resulting from data collection, and ensure that any remaining risks are outweighed by the potential benefits.

5.3.1 General Recommendations

Addressing sexual violence against children in society requires a policy approach. The findings will play critical role in the intervention programmes related to gender-based violence by the decision makers, at macro level while the community stakeholders can intervene on the home based violence. This requires efforts at multiple levels within the society. This study therefore recommends dissemination of various studies on gender based violence and violence against children at all levels.

5.3.2 Policy Recommendations

Sharing of finding in this study alongside other studies that capture the challenges faced by children would be very useful for policy interventions. Since this study was conducted with children in school it shows that children pursue their education with so many challenges most of which emanate from their family background. The study therefore makes policy recommendations such as:

- Establishment of protection policies by the state that ensure safe and secure environments for all children, and mechanisms to hold perpetrators accountable for incidents of violence.

- Establishment of redress mechanisms for those that have experienced violence like access to counsellors, nurses or social workers, peer support mechanisms, and the promotion of confidential referrals to services like health, legal, and child protection where they are most necessary.

5.3.3 Recommendation for further research

Sexual violence against children was confirmed to be strongly linked to the family economic status. Since both boys and girls reported full recognition of homosexuality through lesbianism and sodomy, the study recommends a further research on the prevalence of gay relations and sexual violence against children living with different forms of disabilities. This would help in highlighting the real issues surrounding children with specific cases in the least expected scenarios. The goal of such research should focus to offer decision makers, parents, and others with timely, accurate information and useful tools and resources to foster safe and healthy young people. It can also help in taking action by learning more about ways to protect children and more so, those living with disabilities from violence, and thus lowering the health and societal costs of violence against children.

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APPENDICES

I. QUESTIONNAIRE

i. Quantitative Instrument (13 years to 17 years) Q.ID _____

Introduction

My name is a student at Egerton University undertaking research for the programme of Master of Arts Gender Women and Development Studies. The study is seeking to find out girls' and boys' experiences (of sexual violence) with respect to their household/ family economic backgrounds. All information will be confidential and so feel free to answer in your own words. Ask if there is anything you don't understand, and let me know if you need to stop for any reason. Can we proceed?

Name of School _____

Sex of respondent 1. Male 2. Female

Preliminary questions:

- a. How old are you?
- b. What do you like most at school?
- c. What do you like most while at home?

A. ECONOMIC STATUS AND PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE

i. *Economic background:* I'd like to start by asking a bit about you, your home and family.

1. **How old are you?**

2. **Who pays your school fees?** 1. Family (parents), 2. Guardian (well-wisher), 3. Sponsored (scholarship/bursary).

3. **Do you have any fees balance?** 0. No 1. Yes 99. don't know 98. Refuse to answer;

4. **How much is the total fees payable in a year?** |_____| (*state total for the current study year*)
5. **Could you tell me the type of house where you reside in Nairobi?** |__| (*enter appropriate code below in this box*)
1. Rented house 2. Family owned house 3. Other (specify)_____,
99.don't know 98.Refuse to answer
6. **Could you tell me the estimated value of your house/home?** |_____| (*state absolute amount expressed in terms of rent per month or land market value*)
7. **How much would you spend on an average meal at home in a day?** |_____| (*take the highest estimated value for one meal in a day for the entire household*).
8. **How much is your family income from mother/father in a month?** |__| state the estimate in monthly terms.

ii. Violence variables:

9. **What kind of experience would you consider as being sexual violation of a person?**
(*List all answers as mentioned. Don't probe at all*)

1.	Female Genital Mutilation	0. No 1. Yes
2.	Peeping (in toilets, mirrors, under desk)	0. No 1. Yes
3.	Indecent touch (Touching/pinching breasts, buttocks, or private parts)	0. No 1. Yes
4.	Sexual comments	0. No 1. Yes
5.	Forced/unwanted sex	0. No 1. Yes
6.	Influenced or coerced sex in exchange for food, gifts, grades or money	0. No 1. Yes
7.	Other (specify).....	0. No 1. Yes

10. **From the above list of different forms of violence in Q9, which one happened to you most recently?** |__| *Please enter code of the numbers on the first column in the table*

above. Add more options if answers are more than one. Do not leave blank. 99.

Don't know 98. Refuse to answer

11. (If respondent mentioned experiencing any cases above ask) **Which of these incidents do you think was the most serious?** Check if this has been mentioned in the previous section, and if not, prompt for an alternative response. Use 98/99 for no response). If no response skip to question 6.

12. With reference to question 11 above, select which option applies from the table below.

B: PATTERNS OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST CHILDREN

a.	Has it happened in the past 12 months?	0. No 1. Yes	99. Don't know 98. Refuse to answer
b.	How often does it happen/has it happened to you?	1. Rarely (less than once a year) 2. Often (every 3-4 months) 3. Very often (1-4 times a month)	4. All the time (3+ times a week) 99. Don't know 98. Refuse to answer
c.	Where did the most recent event occur?	1. In the home/ village 2. To and from school 3. In school (anywhere in school grounds)	4. Other (specify) _____ 99. Don't know 98. Refuse to answer
d.	Who did this?	1. Girl pupil 2. Boy pupil 3. Female teacher 4. Male teacher 5. Female family member 6. Male family member 7. Girlfriend or boyfriend	8. Female community member 9. Male community member 10. Other (specify) _____ 99. Don't know 98. Refuse to answer

C: OUTCOMES OF VIOLENCE AGAINST CHILDREN

a.	<p>What did you do? (include all that apply)</p>	<p>1. Did nothing 2. Fought back/Threatened to report 3. Told female adult family member 4. Told male adult family member 5. Told friend/fellow student 6. reported to school authority 7. Other (specify) _____ 99. Don't know 98. Refuse to answer</p>
b.	<p>What happened as a result of your action? (e.g. Was it reported to anyone else? Was anyone punished? What happened to you?) (include all that apply)</p>	<p>1. I don't know/don't remember. 2. Nothing 3. Reported to family member or community leader 4. Reported to school authority 5. Reported to police 6. The colleague was punished by the school. 7. The person(s) were contacted by the police. 8. The person(s) were disciplined by community leaders. 9. I was taken to the clinic or received care/support/counselling 10. Other specify _____ 99. Don't know 98. Refuse to answer</p>

13. How well do you think the school or people involved handled the case? |_|_|

1. Very badly 2. Not very well 3. Quite well 4. Very well
99. Don't know
98. Refuse to answer

.....

That's the end of my questions. Thank you very much for spending time to answer them. Is there anything else you'd like to tell me about? Do you have any questions?

Date of interview: dd/mm/yy |_|_|/|_|_|/|_|_|

Interviewer comments (e.g. please note anything from this interview that needs to be followed up, anything that was unclear or important observations).

II. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

2 focus groups in each school – one with each sex. If possible, FGD to take place in location selected by the respondents.

Names of all respondents: _____

Ages (of group members)

Possible forms of violations

Encourage the group to discuss each of the following, using the questions below as prompts. Each question covers three objectives:

a. Teenage Pregnancy/ Early marriage

- What happens? Why does it happen? Tell me any story of someone you know has experienced this.
- Has anything been done to address this problem? By the victim, any particular individual, people, groups or organisations that help? What happened in the case you talked about?)
- How does family income level affect this problem? Why do you think so? (prompt: lack of, or availability enough incomes?)

b. Defilement

- What happens? Why does it happen? Tell me any story of someone you know has experienced this.
- Has anything been done to address this problem? By the victim, any particular individual, people, groups or organisations that help? What happened in the case you talked about?)
- How does family income level affect this problem? Why do you think so? (prompt: lack of, or availability enough incomes?)

c. Sexual comments

- What happens? Why does it happen? Tell me any story of someone you know has experienced this.
- Has anything been done to address this problem? By the victim, any particular individual, people, groups or organisations that help? What happened in the case you talked about?)
- How does family income level affect this problem? Why do you think so? (prompt: lack of, or availability enough incomes?)

d. Indecent touch

- What happens? Why does it happen? Tell me any story of someone you know has experienced this.
- Has anything been done to address this problem? By the victim, any particular individual, people, groups or organisations that help? What happened in the case you talked about?)
- How does family income level affect this problem? Why do you think so? (prompt: lack of, or availability enough incomes?)

e. Coerced/ influenced sex with money or gifts

- What happens? Why does it happen? Tell me any story of someone you know has experienced this.
- Has anything been done to address this problem? By the victim, any particular individual, people, groups or organisations that help? What happened in the case you talked about?)
- How does family income level affect this problem? Why do you think so? (prompt: lack of, or availability enough incomes?)

Any other sexual forms of violence:

For each of the above, discuss:

- What happens? Why does it happen? Tell me any story of someone you know has experienced this.
- Has anything been done to address this problem? By the victim, any particular individual, people, groups or organisations that help? What happened in the case you talked about?)

- How does family income level affect this problem? Why do you think so? (prompt: lack of, or availability enough incomes?)

Is there anything else you would like to ask about your thoughts or feelings about the issues discussed in the research?

My hope is that you all meet your dreams and have a very happy future.

Thank you

END

III. KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE

Introduction

My name is a student at Egerton University undertaking research for the programme of Master of Arts Gender Women and Development Studies. The study is seeking to find out girls' and boys' experiences (of sexual violence) with respect to their household/ family economic backgrounds. All information will be confidential and so feel free to answer in your own words. Ask if there is anything you don't understand, and let me know if you need to stop for any reason. Can we proceed?

Following our discussion during the focus group discussion with your peers/friends, you indicated that you had some personal experience of violence. We would like to understand deeper what happened to you and how it was finally resolved. Would you mind sharing what happened?

1. Can you start by sharing with us briefly about yourself and family background?
Where do you stay?
2. Kindly share with us what (forms of sexual violence) you have witnessed happen to others!
 - a. What personal experience can you share, if it ever happened to you?
 - b. Where did this happen?
 - c. Why do you think it happened?
 - d. Tell me the full story of this experience – how it started and ended?
3. Has anything been done to address this problem?
 - a. Who in particular helped you out? (prompt: individual, people, groups or organisations that helped?)
 - b. What happened in the case you talked about?
4. How does family income level affect this problem?
 - a. Why do you think so? (prompt: lack of, or availability of income?)
 - b. What other view can you share with respect to the situation based on your family income? Is it the same for others?

IV. DOCUMENT ANALYSIS/REVIEW GUIDE

Target sources:

1. Text books
2. E-book platforms
3. Journals
4. Conference proceedings (*published*)
5. Academic papers (*published*)
6. Government reports (*published*)
7. United Nations annual reports (*published*)
8. Reports from development partners (e.g. NGOs) (*published*)

Instruction:

- a. *From each title, extract literature, methodology, findings and conclusions.*
- b. *Extract tables, and any statistics with specific page reference.*
- c. *Include limitations if any*

Topical issues:

1. Data and literature on family socio-economic status in Kenya
2. Data and literature on prevalence levels of sexual violence against children in Kenya
3. Information on relationship between family incomes and prevalence levels of violence
4. Information on the patterns of sexual violence against children in Kenya and beyond
5. Official reports on outcomes of violence against children in Kenya and beyond

END

V. PARTICIPANT INFORMATION AND INFORMED CONSENT:

HEAD TEACHER ON BEHALF OF PUPILS

Introduction: My name is a student at Egerton University undertaking research for the programme of Master of Arts Gender Women and Development Studies. The study seeks to find out girls' and boys' experiences (of sexual violence) with respect to their household/ family economic backgrounds. All information will be confidential.

Research Procedures: Your school has been selected at random for Focus Group Discussion in this study, and pupils from your school have been selected with your input. I'm going to ask them some questions about their personal experiences with respect to their family incomes. We will conduct the interview in a private place without other people present. However, if the pupils prefer to have a member of staff present, it will be okay. We can ask them to come in at any time that the pupils wish to have them to come in. The interview will take about one hour.

Risk/Benefits: You or the pupils will not be given any monetary or material benefits neither will you/they undergo any monetary or material costs for participating in this study. The benefit of participating in this activity is that the dissemination of this report may influence policy changes because this study will provide evidence for the government and other stakeholders that may use it to provide interventions aimed at improving lives of children in your school and community.

Participant's Rights: The pupils' participation in this interview/FGD is absolutely voluntary. They do not have to answer any questions that they do not feel comfortable with, and may end this talk at any time they want to. However, their honest answers to these questions will help us better understand the life experiences of children in this school and community.

Confidentiality: We will make every effort to protect the pupils' identity and to keep the information they give us confidential. The children's names will not be used in any report in connection with any of the information they tell me. As I had indicated earlier, we will conduct the Focus Group Discussion in a private place but if the pupils prefers to have you/a member of staff attend the interview this will be okay.

Consent for head teacher/designated teacher

The above details about the study and the basis of participation have been explained to me and I agree to let pupils from my school take part in the study. I understand that they are free to choose to participate in this study or withdraw at any time. I also understand that if I do not want them to continue with the study, I can withdraw them from participating in the study at any time.

Do you agree for the selected pupils to participate in the study?

Yes No

Name.....

School Name

Signature & School Stamp----- Date -----

Signature of Interviewer

(Certifying that informed consent has been given by the head teacher/designated teacher)

Name.....

Signature ----- Date -----

VI: ORAL INFORMED CONSENT FOR FOCUS GROUPS

Reason for the Research:

My name is a student at Egerton University undertaking research for the programme of Master of Arts Gender Women and Development Studies. The study seeks to find out girls' and boys' experiences (of sexual violence) with respect to their household/ family economic backgrounds. All information will be confidential.

Your part in the research:

About 6-8 girls and boys will separately take part in this research (*at a place and time of your choice within the school*). If you agree to take part in this research, you will be in two group(s) lasting one hour(s) each in the school. Your participation is voluntary and there is no penalty for refusing to take part. Also, you may quit being in the groups at any time.

How you were identified

We are asking you to participate because we are talking children of your age group some of whom may have had personal experiences on the subject matter.

Possible risks and benefits

There is a small chance that what people talk about in the group will make you feel uncomfortable. There is also a small chance that others in the group may tell someone you were taking part or report what you said.

Confidentiality

No one except the group leaders and other members will know that you took part in the research. We will write down opinions and what the group thinks during the sessions. We will not record your name or any other personal things about you during the groups. We ask that participants not reveal outside the group information they may have heard in the group. Even though we will ask people in the group not to reveal anything to others, we cannot guarantee this. We will protect information about you and your taking part in this research to the best of our availability. If the results of the research are published, your name will not be shown.

Consent Form Signed by Moderator

1. Read and review the Oral Consent for Focus Groups with each participant in a private setting.
2. Ask the following: “Are you willing to be in a focus group? YES ___ NO ___
3. Read the Oral Consent for Focus Groups to the group before the first session begins.

I have reviewed the Fact Sheet with the research participants, and they have fully agreed to be in this focus group research. I further agree to keep confidential anything that is said in the discussion group.

Please print clearly:

(Moderator’s Name)

(Signature of Moderator)

Date

VII: RESEARCH PERMIT

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: "SCIENCETECH", Nairobi
Telephone: 254-020-241349, 2213102
254-020-310571, 2213123.
Fax: 254-020-2213215, 318245, 318249
When replying please quote

P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA
Website: www.ncst.go.ke

ATT:

Date: 10th September, 2014

Samwel Oando,
C/O Egerton University,
P.O Box 536-20115,
Egerton, Njoro-Kenya.

Dear sir/madam,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for research permit to carry out research on "*Correlating family income with sexual violence against children, a study of kasarani Sub-county Nairobi County*". I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research for your Masters thesis at the Institute of Women, Gender and Development of Egerton University. You are advised to observe all the required ethical standards as required in the area. You are advised to report to the county director of education and the respective head teachers of specific schools to be visited.

Upon completion of your research project you are expected to submit two copies of your research report/thesis to our office.

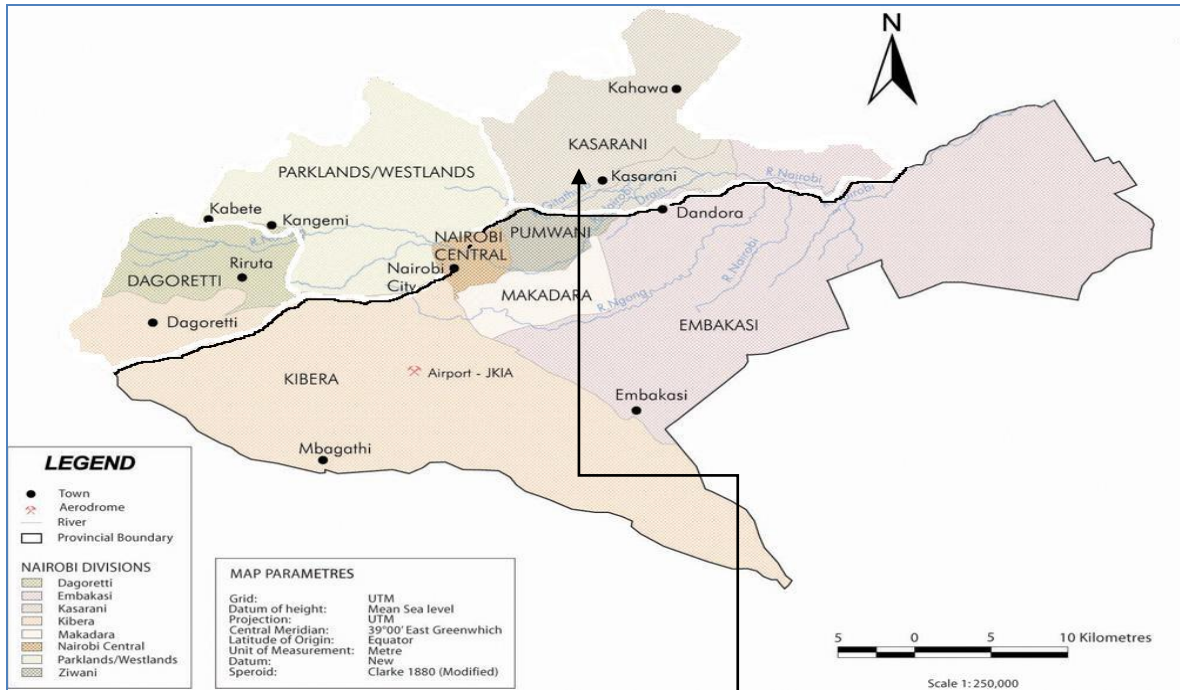
P.N. NYAKUNDI

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'P.N. Nyakundi'.

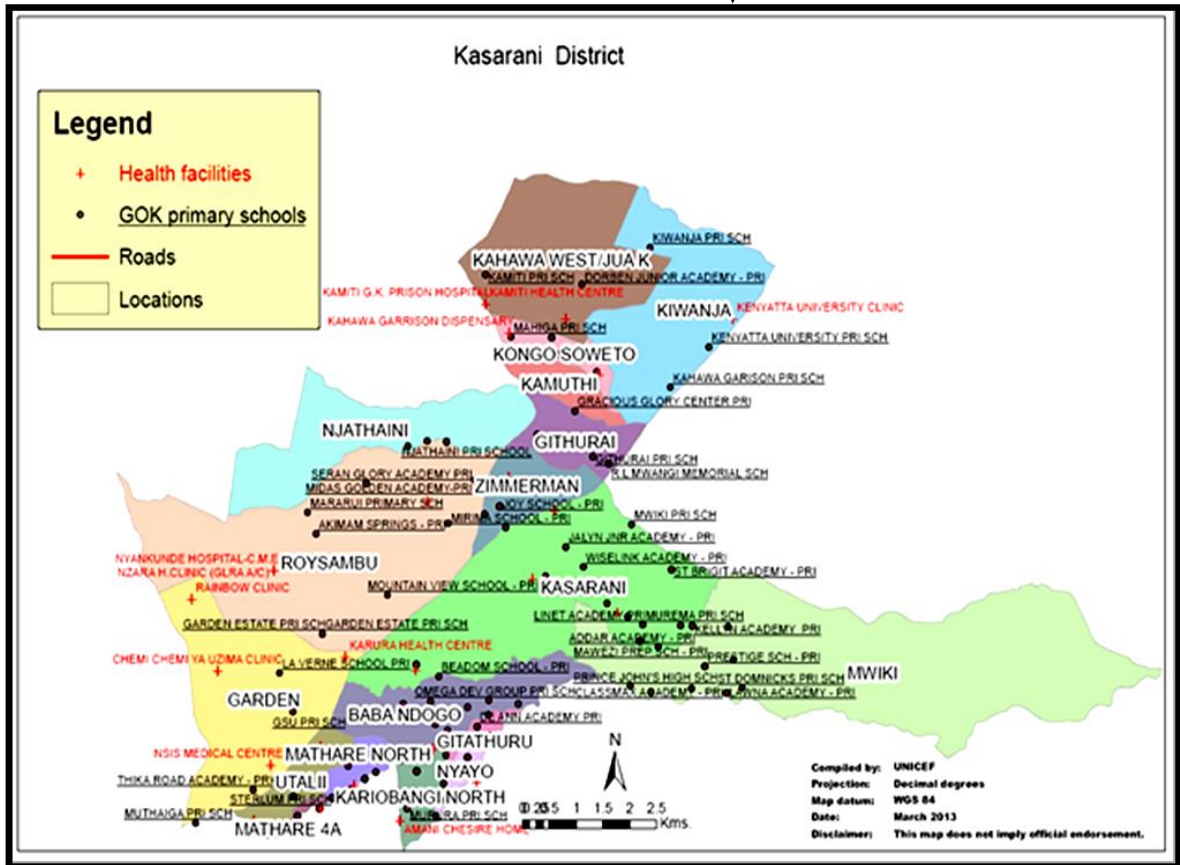
For SECRETARY.

CC County Director of Education Nairobi.

MAP OF STUDY AREA



Map 1: Map of Nairobi County



Map 2: Map of Kasarani District