EVOLUTION AND COPING MECHANISMS OF CONGOLESE REFUGEES IN KITENGELA, KAJIADO COUNTY- KENYA: 1960- 2015

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A THESIS PRESENTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN PEACE AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

OCTOBER, 2018
DECLARATION

I confirm that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented to any other university for certification. The thesis has been complemented by referenced works duly acknowledged. Where text, data, graphics, pictures or tables have been borrowed from other works including the internet; such sources have been accurately referred in accordance with anti-plagiarism regulations.

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I dedicate this work to my wife Ann Wamutira and my sons Joseph Kamau and Moses Muchoki Njoroge.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

For this work to have reached this far, I am indebted to many. First and foremost, I thank God for the life, energies and perseverance during the time that this study was undertaken. I’m indebted to my supervisors: Dr. Edwin Gimode, Department of History and Archeology, Kenyatta University, Dr. Susan Mwangi Owino, Department of History and Archeology, Kenyatta University and Prof. Elishiba Kimani, Department of Gender and Development Studies, Kenyatta University for their wisdom, patience and unreserved guidance.

I sincerely acknowledge all those who participated in this study as respondents for their honest and for freely giving their time during the data collection process. In particular, I acknowledge the household heads for their cooperation and patience during the interviews. I am also grateful to the religious organizations and NGOs in Kitengela that participated in this study for providing the necessary support and cooperation during data collection. Equally acknowledged are the religious leaders, and local administrators for their cooperation, support and time. In addition, I would like to appreciate the interpreters Titus and Felix without whom the interaction with the study’s respondents would have been impossible.

I cannot forget members of my nucleus family, my wife and sons Joseph and Moses for their patience and tolerance even when the study seemed to take time that I could have spent with them. To my wife, thank you for your moral and emotional support.

To all of you, may God bless you mightily.
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ABSTRACT

The refugee phenomenon is a global crisis and as such has been a challenge to the Kenyan Government as much as it has been to the international community. UNHCR (2000) confirms that globally there are more than 60 million people forcefully displaced from their homes worldwide. The problem of the study was pegged on the need to investigate the refugee phenomenon with a focus on the Congolese refugees in Kitengela, Kajiado County, Kenya 1960 to 2015. The objectives of the study were to interrogate the conflicts and the emergence of refugee phenomenon in Congo 1960-1990; investigate the evolution and settlement of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela 1990-2002 and examine the challenges and coping mechanisms of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela 2003-2015. The study was guided by African and resilience theories and utilized exploratory descriptive survey design. The study targeted 100 household heads that formed a 20% sample of the total number of Congolese refugees in the area at the time of study. In addition, the study collected data from local administrators as key informants. Also targeted as key informants were the leaders of 4 NGOs and religious organizations operating in the area of study. For primary data collection, the study utilized interview guides for household heads and guided questionnaire for key informants. On the other hand, secondary data was generated from documents mainly books, journal articles and reports. The analysis of the generated data revealed that Congo has been hit by series of conflicts and civil wars since independence in 1960. Since then there has been internal warfare and conflicts fueled by internal struggles for political power and sequential overthrow of the governments which have caused many Congolese to free the country and seek asylum from the neighboring countries. The conflicts culminated with the outbreak of the first and second Congo wars of 1996 and 1998, respectively. Additionally, tensions in the neighboring countries, including genocide in Rwanda caused civil wars in Congo. Unfortunately, the official end of the wars in 2003 did not end internal conflicts and the influx of Congolese refugees in culminated into conflicts and tensions between Congo and the neighboring countries especially Rwanda and Uganda caused much tension in Congo that caused many Congolese to free the country. These were the refugees that sought asylum in Kenya and eventually settled in Kitengela. The study further revealed that refugees in Kitengela have had many challenges ranging from economic hardships to cultural shock, problem of communication and harassment by local law enforcement agents. As coping mechanisms, the study established that Congolese refugees were engaged in small trade, casual and self-employment. They also received social support from religious organizations, relatives in Diaspora and social support groups in Kitengela. The study recommends that religious organizations do more to reach out to the refugees and offer essential skills training so that they can secure gainful employment. The local NGOs should also implement programs to help refugees engage in income generating activities such as teaching them marketable skills. The government should also fast track the issuance of documentation for incoming refugees to avoid harassment by the police and also to enable them get gainful employment.
**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFDL</td>
<td>Alliance of Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Congo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIA</td>
<td>Central Intelligent Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPZ</td>
<td>Export Processing Zone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NACOSTI</td>
<td>National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGOs</td>
<td>None Governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPF</td>
<td>Rwandan Patriotic Front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commission for Refugees</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Program</td>
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DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Refugee
“A person who owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it” (UNHCR 2015).

Asylum Seeker:
A person who has left their country of origin and formally applied for asylum in another country but whose application has not yet been concluded (UNHCR, 2016).

Resilience
This is the power or ability to return to the original form, position, after being bent, compressed, or stretched; elasticity. It is the ability to recover readily from illness, depression, adversity, or the like or calamity (Werner, 1973).

Emergence
This is the process of becoming visible after being concealed. It is also the process of coming into existence or prominence. (Oxford dictionary, 2000).

Coping Mechanism
Coping mechanisms are ways to which external or internal stress is managed, adapted to or acted upon. It is a constantly changing cognitive and behavioral effort to manage specific external and/ or internal demands that are appraised as taxing (Sara, 2012)
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

The concept of refugees takes on legal, political, sociological and cultural concerns (Kuper 1987). In line with this thinking, refugees are defined as individuals who leave their native country due to social, political, or religious reasons. Refugees are individuals who have been forced to leave their country of origin as a result of disasters which include war, political upheaval, and famine (UNHCR, 2012). According to MacClancy (2002), the widespread and global acknowledgement of refugees came after the effects of the two World Wars. The first international attempt to address the issue of refugees was made by the High Commissioner for Russian Refugees, which was created by the League of Nations in 1921 after the First World War. Much earlier, the term refugee had been used in 1571 to describe foreigners fleeing to France to escape Spanish persecution in Mexico. Thereafter, the term was adapted from French to English with reference to the Calvinist Huguenots fleeing to England following their persecution by King Louis XIV. However in the light of contemporary practices no one is a refugee in the full sense without legal recognition.

Refugee phenomenon has been a matter of concern to the international community as well as the Government of Kenya. By 2006, there were more than 60 million refugees who were forcefully displaced from their homes worldwide (Hilton, Ella E, 2006). Among these refugees were approximately 21.3 million refugees were below 18 years of age. Given that nearly 34,000 people are forcibly displaced from their homes
through persecution or conflict on a daily basis, the international community and host nations continue to face a refugee crisis (UNHCR, 2014).

An instance of this crisis is equated to what European nations faced in 2015 when more than one million migrants crossed into Europe. The event led to the straining of affected nations’ infrastructure which was over-stretched as a result of a burst in their population (BBC, 2016). Although the Syrian conflict contributed significantly to this immigration of refugees into Europe, the majority of these refugees came from Africa and Asia. Additionally; while European Nations accommodates a considerable number of refugees, most refugees seek asylum in African countries, the Middle East and South Asian countries, as developed nations closed their doors to asylum seekers for fear of being “flooded” (Amnesty International Charity Limited, 2015).

Majority of the refugees are vulnerable in the sense that they have myriad social-economic challenges as a result of their refugee status. Often the asylum countries are unable to offer the necessary amenities, especially the least developed nations, which do not have adequate infrastructure to cater for the needs of the refugees due to lack of amenities to support the ever increasing refugee population. In particular, the Second World War resulted into displacement of people such that by 1945, there were 40.5 million refugees across Europe (DanièleJoly, 1999, Loescher, G. 2001). In response, the United Nations spearheaded the formation of the first international institute for refugee affairs, namely the International Refugee Organization (IRO) specifically to deal with the refugee crisis resulting from the Second World War. Eventually, the organization dealt with all matters connected to the refugee status (DanièleJoly, 1999, Loescher, G. 2001).
In 1950, the UN General Assembly established the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) with its mandate of taking a lead role in coordinating protection, shelter and camp management of the refugees (Loescher, G. 2001). The UNHCR (1951) gives refugee status to a person fleeing political or any other forms of persecution from their country of origin. The Convention defines a refugee as “the person unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion.” Initially, the 1951 UNHCR Convention was limited in its scope in that it was only applicable to persons fleeing events occurring before 1st January 1951, and within Europe.

Eventually, the protocol was revised in 1967 to cover refugees and their protection across the world. The protocol is applicable under the International Humanitarian Law Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees (Zimmerman, 2011). The protocol explains Refugee Status Determination (RSD) as the legal or administrative process by which governments or UNHCR determine whether a person seeking international protection should be considered as a refugee in the international, regional or national law. The UNHCR has a legal mandate to determine whether an individual qualifies as a refugee. It further determines possible solution for each refugee and whether to accord safe return to the home country, local integration, or third-country resettlement (UNHCR, 2014).

UNHCR (2013) reports an increase in refugee numbers in that 203,200 individuals registered asylum applications in 2013 compared to 125,500 in the previous year. Consequently, there were more than 19.5 million refugees around the world UNHCR
(2014), Developing regions, including Africa, accounted for 86 per cent of the world refugees. At any one given time, only a small number of refugees are eventually allowed to become citizens in the country to which they fled (According to Pavanello et.al, 2010). UNHCR (2012) noted that less than one percent of the refugees’ population settles in third world countries while the United States welcomes over half of these refugees, more than all other resettlement countries combined (UNHCR 2012). In Africa, the number of refugees continues to increase due to various factors which include violent conflicts caused mainly by civil wars, political differences, ethnic hostilities, failed governments and religious factors, Africa Development Report, (2013). Kenya has hosted a large population of refugees mainly from the neighboring countries, Somalia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Uganda, Sudan, Burundi, Rwanda and Ethiopia (Vlassenroot, Koen 2006).

In Kenya, the Kakuma Refugee Camp hosts most of the refugee population. The Dadaab Refugee camp hosts mostly refugees of Somali origin. The increase in the number of refugees poses a set of challenges to the Kenyan government. According to the UNHCR (2015) report, Kakuma refugee camp has received significant numbers of refugees in 2014, there were more than 42,000 new arrivals in Kakuma, and by August of the same year, the camp was unable to accommodate any more new arrivals. The implications were that resources were required to sustain the additional population of refugees in the camp. Mazrui (2008) observed that in so doing, groups of interest get the required attention, especially unaccompanied and separated children, pregnant and lactating mothers as well as the elderly. Further, Brumat (2010) observed that in the process of protecting the refugees, opportunities can arise that would favor their return and reintegration back into countries of origin.
In host countries, there are categories of refugees residing outside the designated camps in rural and urban areas. In the case of Kenya for example, majority of the Congolese refugees live in the city of Nairobi and its suburbs including Kitengela town in Kajiado County. Preliminary survey of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela showed that the Congolese refugees faced challenges in their daily lives. However, in spite of the supportive systems in the host community, the challenges that refugees encounter are complex, given that as observed by Williams (2008), they come from different social, economic and political backgrounds and status in their home countries. Bernstein & Moses (2007), report that regardless of the social status in their countries of origin, all the refugees are expected to adopt coping mechanisms to fit and survive in their host countries, whether the settlement is in the urban or rural setting. This is what was expected of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela. Confirming the same, Ainsworth (2007) observes that the challenges and coping strategies for refugees are usually pertinent to the culture and expectations of individuals and groups of refugees, which in turn depends on the countries of origin. It is these observations that formed the basis of this study which focused on an investigation into the evolution and coping mechanisms of the Congolese refugees living in Kitengela, Kajiado County Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Globally, refugee phenomenon arises as a result of many factors key of which are conflicts, wars, social and political turmoil. From as early as 1960s, Kenya has hosted refugees from neighboring countries namely; Uganda, DRC, Southern Sudan, Somali and Ethiopia. The refugees in Kenya have largely been hosted in established camps a case in point being Kakuma, Turkana County and Daadab in North Eastern Kenya which forms the largest refugee camps in the world. There are also some refugees
housed in urban setup under the Parliament Act of Kenya 2006 and who include the Congolese refugees in Kitengela, who are the focal point for this study. The act provides an opportunity for urban refugee to engage in a meaningful income generating activities. However the job market is already flooded hence making refugees to develop unique coping mechanisms for survival.

The problem that informed this study touches on the evolution and survival tactics of Congolese refugees living in Kitengela, who falls under urban refugee. However, the study began by analyzing conflict and the emergence of refugee phenomenon in Congo starting from 1960-1990; investigated the evolution and settlement of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela 1991-2002 and examined the challenges and coping mechanisms of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela 2003-2015. The study therefore focuses on the historical as well as contemporary issues of the Congolese refugees in the area of study.

1.3 Research Objectives

The study sought to address the following objectives:

i) To analyze the conflicts and emergence of refugee phenomenon in Congo 1960-1990


iii) To examine the challenges and coping mechanisms of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela 2003-2015.
1.4 Research Questions

In line with the set objectives, the study sought answers to the following questions:

i) What was the nature of conflicts and emergency of refugees in Congo 1960-1990?

ii) How has the settlement of the Congolese refugee community in Kitengela area of Kajiado County developed from 1991-2002?

iii) What challenges have the Congolese refugee community encountered and what the coping mechanisms have they have for survival in the period between 2003-2015?

1.5 Premises of the Study

The study was based on the premises that:

i) The Kitengela Congolese refugee community in the 1990’s was a product of the historical ethnic conflict in Congo.

ii) The settlement and development of Congolese refugees in Kitengela entailed a unique characteristic that is different from encamped refugees in Kenya.

iii) Despite the challenges of the refugee status, the Congolese refugee have acted innovatively to cope with the demands of life and to fit in the Kitengela’s socio-economic setup.

1.6 Justification and Significance of the Study

The study focused on Congolese refugee in Kitengela from 1960 to 2015. Refugees are among vulnerable groups of people often subjected to human rights violations. There are several studies focusing on the refugees’ status, livelihood, and existing support systems. For example UNHCR (2012) and Ajygin (2010) studies focused on retail
opportunities in the sale of groceries and clothes for refugees and Livelihood and family formation among Eritrean refugees in Cairo schools, respectively. Ainsworth (2007) and Azorbo (2011), studied on refugees’ diets and engagement in microfinance, respectively. However this study is unique as it focused on a specific community of refugees, namely the Congolese refugees in Kitengela, specifically focusing on evolution and coping mechanisms of Congolese refugees in a particular setting, namely Kitengela.

Although Kitengela has its own unique social economic settings, forming the very basic environment that the Congolese refugees have interacted with, the findings, conclusions as well as the recommendation emanating from this study could be generalized to refugees from other countries and in other parts of Kenya. It is however worthy noting that the application should be done with caution because Congolese refugees have specific culture and other social-economic characteristic that may influence their evolution, settlement from 1960 to 2003 and the challenges as well as the coping strategies in the period of 2003 and 2015. Democratic Republic of Congo gained independence in 30th June 1960. Despite declaration of freedom from colonial government, the internal leadership wrangles began immediately that led to assassination of Patrice Lumumba in January 1961. (Baker, Aryn 2015).

Kitengela town has experienced rapid growth over the last ten years. Kitengela hosts over 700 refugees from DRC Congo (UNHCR 2014). There are NGO’s that offer services to refugees in Kitengela. Majority of refugees from DRC Congo are Christians and they therefore attend Sunday services in a number of churches in Kitengela.
Refugees in Kitengela town mainly seek services from government administrative offices and security agencies.

In particular, the findings, conclusion, and recommendations may be useful to Kenyan government as the host country for these refugees and UNHCR who offer refugees support and also formulate policies aimed at improving the support mechanisms and lives of the refugees in globally. Furthermore, the findings are likely to serve as a learning point for other people living in Kitengela as they interact with Congolese refugees. Most importantly, the findings and conclusions of the study may serve as a reference point for other researchers and scholars interested in this area. It is also anticipated that this thesis may form a significant corpus of knowledge on issues related to all refugees but particularly the Congolese refugees living in Kitengela.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study was conducted among the Congolese refugees living in Kitengela, Kajiado County-Kenya. The study focused on the time period between 1960 when Congo gained independence and the year 2015 as an arbitrary date owing to the fact this is the year that research data was collected. Thus the study focus being on the Congolese refugees in Kitengela between 1960 to 2015, issues related to other refugees in Kenya within the same period is out of scope of this study. The study concentrated on the evolution and coping mechanisms for the Congolese refugees living in Kitengela. In this respect any other aspect related to this category of refugees was not studied. Key limitation to this study is on the time frame in that the phenomenon of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela outside 1960-2015 is not considered. The same is also true of the other refugees living in Kitengela.
1.8 Literature Review

1.8.1 Introduction
This section presents reviewed literature that is related to refugees’ situation in Africa Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) included. The literature is presented under the following thematic areas, based on the study objectives as follows:

- The Causes and Nature of Conflicts in Africa and how They Contribute to The Refugee Phenomenon (1960-1990)
- Evolution and Settlement of Refugees in Africa 1991-2002

1.8.2 The Causes and Nature of Conflicts in Africa and how They Contribute to the Refugee Phenomenon (1960-1990)

Mazrui, a renowned African scholar, traces the root causes of conflicts on the African continent to the colonial legacy (Mazrui, 2008). To Mazrui, while inter-state conflicts in Africa are partly caused by border disputes, the crux of the conflicts is not the borders. Prior to colonialism in Africa, people lived in loose groupings under traditional set-ups. Colonialism forced Africans into political entities disrupting their unity of purpose. The Hausas, Igbos, and Yoruba in Nigeria are examples of forced political grouping resulting from colonialism. The Somalis living in Kenya, Ethiopia, and Djibouti are an example of Africans who were separated as a result of colonialism.

The nature of the Somalis conflict was ethnically fueled during the initial phase. Similarly, the conflict between the Igbo and the Yoruba in Nigeria takes on an ethnic nature. The conflict, which later became the Nigerian Civil War, was fought between
the Igbo and the Yoruba mainly for ethnic reasons. The Igbo, just like in the case of Somali, felt that they could not tolerate the leadership of the Yoruba. Keller (2014) noted that ethnic identity is a major cause of intra-state conflicts. The authors note that modernization theory’s assumption that tribalism, ethnicity, and religious associations would be substituted by allegiance to the nation-state failed to hold up. The experience in Africa, after most nations gained independence in the 1960s to the early 1990s saw the coexistence between communal identities and national citizenship. These two synthetic identities had significant implications on the political and economic environments on the continent and contributed to a majority of the conflicts.

Keller (2014) used comparative historical perspectives to trace the politicization of citizenship rights in Kenya, Rwanda and Cote d'Ivoire. They demonstrate the nature of citizenship in light of African civil societies, the mobilization of supporters by the political elite in regards to citizenship and ethnicity, and the perception of unequal distribution of resources. Through the narrative, the authors demonstrate that identity served as a strong driver for conflicts in African post-independence state. The nature of the conflict, according to this line of thought, saw tribal and ethnic groups in an African nation compete for dominance, and in extreme cases, result to armed conflict to assert their dominance.

Another facet of conflicts in Africa is poverty. The unequal distribution of resources in a community or a nation state has often led to armed conflicts. Annan (2014) notes poverty as a major setback for most countries on the African continent. The UNDP (2014) report indicates that half of sub-Saharan Africans live in poverty, which also escalates into conflicts. The civil unrest and grievances occasioned by a large
population living in poverty has been a recipe for violent conflicts. Annan (2014) supports this point by noting that a third of the Liberian population indicated poverty as the root causes of the Liberian civil war that plagued the country between 1989 and 1997. The same observations have been made in the Bissau-Guinean conflicts. Poverty often led to food insecurity, poor infrastructure to support access to basic amenities, and hunger and starvation.

These resultant conflicts contributed significantly to the refugee crisis on the African continent between the 1960s, when most African states gained their independence from their colonial masters, and the 1990s. It is then not a wonder that there was an increase in the number of African refugees from 79,000 to 6.4 million in Africa between 1960s and 1980s. The Algerian Independence war, fought between 1960 and 1964, for instance, displaced approximately 1.2 Algerians to neighbouring countries such as Morocco and Tunisia. In 1964, a Belgian supported Coup in Rwanda saw the displacement of Tutsis in the same period. The Biafran war in Nigeria led to the displacement of 2 million civilians in the country in 1967. This was followed by the Mozambique civil war fought between 1976 and 1992. Approximately 5.7 million Mozambicans were displaced internally as a result. The Somali Invasion of Ethiopia and the rebellion of white rule in Rhodesia, and the Ethiopian invasion of Eritrea contributed to more than 1 million refugees between the 1970s and the 1980s. These conflicts were caused primarily by the root causes identified in the preceding section.

1.8.3 Emergency and Settlement of Refugees in Africa 1991-2002

The decade between 1991 and 2002 saw more than six million African refugees seek asylum in different regions. These refugees fled their home countries that had been
overrun by violence and the ravages of famine. The majority of these refugees came from West Africa and the Horn of Africa as documented in the preceding section. Most of these refugees, who find asylum in other African countries, have evolved to settling in refugee camps where they are generally unwanted. The continent of Africa has the dubious reputation of almost every country has either been a producer of refugees or a destination for refugees. In other cases, countries have acted as both (Getahun, 2007).

What remains apparent is the fact that refugee migration has predominantly been a complex phenomenon since the 1990s and 2002. There were complex interactions of socio-economic factors that led to refugee migrations, with each migration being affected in different ways. Thus, the refugee migration in the decade is as complex as the factors that contributed to the situation. In some countries, rumours suffice to create instability and a deposition for citizens to flee. In other states, people have failed to flee until the country was engulfed in a violent conflict. Additionally, in the decade between 1991 and 2002, the distinction between the African refugee and the economic migrant was almost blurred.

Thus, it appears that the typical refugee from the continent during that period either evolved as a result of forced migration or impelled migration. The difference between the two groups of refugees emanates from the degree of choice each had to leave their home country (Ali, 2014). Consequently, forced migrants or refugees were expelled from their homeland as a result of external forces. A good example is the Hutu refugees, who following the Rwandan genocide and the Rwandese Patriotic Front (RPF) victory, fled to nearby countries such as Uganda. The 2 million Hutu refugees had no choice but to flee the pogroms that followed the Rwandese genocide in 1994. Before leaving
their homelands, impelled refugees had the luxury of weighing their decision in light of the external threat they were facing. An example of impelled refugees during the decade under consideration would be Mozambican refugees in 2000 who vacated their homeland in search of better economic futures. Thus, it is apparent that the motivation of refugees to leave their home country has impacted on the evolution of refugees.

The above factors have also impacted on the settlement of refugees during the decade. According to Verwimp & Maystadt (2015), a majority of African refugees settled on the continent. That indicates that asylum seekers from conflict zones in Africa usually sought asylum in neighbouring countries. That would be indicative of the fact that a predominant number of African refugees in the decade between 1990 and 2001 were forced to flee from their homelands under the most solemn circumstances. The conflict or external force that caused them to flee crippled their homeland’s infrastructure such that the refugees had no means of fleeing to other continents. Additionally, the fact that most Africa refugees were hosted by neighbouring countries is indicative of the fact that the economic status of the refugees was sufficiently incapable of allowing them to leave the continent. Indeed these assumptions are supported by the evidence of large groups of refugees who walked from Rwanda to nearby Uganda during the Rwandan genocide. The refugees were forced to walk for hundreds of kilometers, carrying their belongings with them because they had no economic power to procure other forms of transport.

The settlement patterns of African refugees during this period largely displayed the relationship between different African countries, the economic desires of the refugees, and the degree of hospitality of the host communities. Most refugees during the decade
tended to settle in countries that had cordial relationships with their homeland. The Somalis who fled the civil war in their country settled in nearby countries that were politically stable and the host communities would welcome them. As such, the majority of these refugees settled in nearby East African nations, including Kenya and Ethiopia. Refugees from West Africa, countries like Sierra Leon and Angola, fled to Zambia, Namibia, and South Africa (James, 2011).

In conclusion, the majority of refugees on the African continent settled in neighbouring continent between 1990 and 2001. The evolution and settlement of African refugees during this period was largely the result of the nature of their departure from their homeland. Refugees who were forcibly removed from their countries evolved into asylum seekers. These refugees were economically handicapped to find asylum on other continents. They settled in host nations that were economically and politically stable for reasons of ensuring their safety as well as their economic well-being. Forced refugees formed the majority of refugees during the decade. Those who were impelled to leave their home countries mainly sought economic prosperity in neighbouring countries. Consequently, the reasons for fleeing their home countries largely defined the evolution and settlement of African refugees.

1.8.4 Refugees Challenges and Coping Mechanisms in Africa 2003-2015

The challenges and coping mechanisms adopted by refugees in Africa between 2003 and 2015 have a universal theme, and can therefore be discussed universally. African countries, on account of their similar economic, political, and historical context, offer almost similar environments to refugees. Therefore, the experiences of refugees in one African state are bound to be similar to that of another refugee in another African state.
It is imperative to note that most African refugees who seek asylum in neighbouring countries have traditionally been hosted in refugee camps. African states set aside territory within their borders where these refugees can settle.

Proceeding with the above assumption, the attempt at documenting the challenges and coping mechanisms of African refugees are drawn from the experiences of refugee camps established between 2003 and 2015. Consequently, the paper uses the Dolo Odo refugee camp in Ethiopia, Kakuma camp in Kenya, and Kouankan camp in Guinea as the baseline for establishing the challenges and coping mechanisms adopted by refugees. The three refugee camps are representative of conflicted regions that contribute to refugees in Africa.

Starting off with the challenges, Liwanga (2010) presents a considerable challenge facing refugees on the African continent. The author notes that despite the aspirations of host nations to eliminate refugees’ suffering and offer them protection, African refugees still face persecution in their host countries. The author cites the example of the attack on Sudanese refugees in Chad in 2006 as an example. In light of this challenge, the Dolo Odo refugee camp in Ethiopia faced similar threats in 2014. The U.S issued a security warning on the potential attack by Al-Shabaab militants on the camp. In the same year, the conflict was reported in the Kakuma camp. The conflict involved Burundian and Sudanese refugees resulting in 6 fatalities (Warutumo, 2014).

To cope with persecution and other forms of conflicts in host countries, refugees in African have appealed to the governments in these host countries to provide them with security. A majority of these governments have responded positively by deploying security personnel to refugee camps as well as asking for assistance from the
international community to safeguard the refugees. The governments have also facilitated the peaceful coexistence between refugees and host communities through various outreach and sensitization programs. However, these cases are far in between, and refugees in most camps have to make do with their immediate circumstances. Some of them have opted to take matters into their own hands and protect themselves from persecution in the host countries.

The second challenge that African refugees faced in their host communities during the period under consideration is economic oppression. They are viewed as foreigners by the host communities. Consequently, it becomes increasingly difficult for refugees to engage in meaningful economic activities. Additionally, refugees are settled in remote areas in most host countries. These areas offer little in the way of economic activities, and as such, refugees are unable to meet their economic needs. A vast majority of refugees in Kouankan, for instance, are forced to rely on well-wishers for basic amenities. The refugees in this camp are first faced with a language barrier that makes it impossible for them to communicate with the host communities. Therefore, they cannot express themselves or offer the services to the host community in exchange for money. Economic challenges are prevalent in almost all African refugee camps. However, some refugees have managed to turn things around. Through considerable efforts, they have taught themselves the local language and consequently developed relations with the local communities. The relations have facilitated the refugees to engage in economic activities, albeit in small scale.

The other challenge that faced African refugees between 2003 and 2015 is inadequate assurance of their human rights. The host governments, in most circumstances, are
unable to provide the refugees with basic human rights. For instance, the liberty of refugees in Kakuma is heavily curtailed by the Kenyan government. Refugees are not allowed to venture outside the camp. The lack of freedom of movement implies that Kakuma residents cannot engage the local community in a variety of activities that would otherwise sustain their residence in the camp. Additionally, refugees in most camps are denied the freedom of expression. Their views are hardly the concern of their host government or the host community. In that respect, the refugees are predominantly oppressed. To cope with this situation, refugees have resulted in appealing to international bodies such as the United Nations with the hope of gaining international support for their plight. Additionally, refugees have opted to live in close-knit groups, ignoring the limitations imposed on them by their host nation.

1.9 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework that guided this study was grounded on two theories namely the African refugee and resilient theories. The two theories complemented each other in the sense that while the former focuses on emergence and settlement of African refugees, the latter postulates on the ability of refugees to adapt to new environments in their host countries. The relevance of the two theories is explained as follows:

a) African Refugee Theory

African refugee theory classifies refugees into several categories which include: involuntary immigrants who are forced or impelled out of their home countries and who have no chance of returning back to their countries of origin (Petersen 1958, Rogge 1985); refugees who flee out of their home countries because of active or latent discrimination against the group to which they belong; and Self-alienated refugees who
feel alienated from their society not by any active policy of that country, but rather by some personal philosophy (Kunz 2004). In the case of Congolese refugees in the period of study, majority fled as a result of ethnic conflict and both internal and external instigated conflict. After becoming refugees, the desire to return to the home country can only be aroused by substantial changes that address the original conditions that impelled them to flee.

The theory therefore underscores the fact that in Africa, Congo included, ethnic related conflicts have led to the rise of refugees. Examples outside Congo include migrations of Burundians and Rwandans to Tanzania, Uganda and Zaire in early 1990s. The majority of these refugees were displaced by the ethnic conflicts between Hutu and Tutsi. On the other hand, in Africa, self-alienated refugees have played only a minor role in the larger-scale refugee picture. However there have been some cases where individuals or groups of people have been displaced because of philosophical differences between them and the governments (Coles, 1985).

In southern Africa, many of the refugees who fled to participate in the fight against Apartheid can be classified as self-alienated. However political changes in South Africa especially in early and mid 1990s allowed most of the country’s refugees to return home. Many Ethiopian intellectuals who fled the tyranny of the Mengistu regime could also be classified as self-alienated refugees, as could white Mozambicans and Angolans who returned to Portugal in 1970s.

The theory is also applicable in that the refugee situation in Congo and other parts of Africa resulted from colonialism and related resistance from Africans (Kibreab, 1985). Kibreab also observes that the colonial boundaries that were superimposed on Africa
by European colonial powers were artificial and therefore separated ethnic and linguistic areas that were formerly closely linked. This applies to Congo, during the colonial period although little attempt was made to develop a sense of nationalism among the many ethnic groups in the colony. In some instances, colonial governments would use inter-ethnic rivalries to their advantage. As a result, at the end of the colonial era, old rivalries and conflicts between ethnic groups, which had been suppressed during the colonial era, often came to the surface during the fight for control of the emerging nations, a situation that fueled refugee crises.

Additionally, evolution of refugees in Africa including Congo as observed by Kibreab (1985; 1991) lies in the lack of respect for fundamental human rights, including the right of Africans to determine their own destiny. It is therefore not easy as suggested by the refugee theory to exonerate one factor as the major cause of refugee phenomenon with certainty. While the African refugee theory is applicable to the situation of the Congolese refugees, the factors that generate refugees are usually inextricably intertwined with each other. Thus in addition to colonialism, the observation is that each refugee migration, whether large or small, long or short-term may have its origin in unique socio-economic and political settings that may not have occurred anywhere in the same form. In Congo, the major causes were both internal and external conflicts, mainly instigated by politics, colonialism and struggle for power.

b) Resilience Theory

Werner E, (1973), was one of the early scientists to use the term resilience. She studied a cohort of children from a poor setting in Kauai, Hawaii. Many of the children in her study grew up with alcoholic or mentally ill parents. Since one-third of these children
did not exhibit destructive behaviors, she referred them as 'resilient group'. The resilience theory therefore defines an individual’s aptitude to adapt to life’s routines while faced by social disadvantages and/or highly adverse living conditions. Southwick et.al (2014) agreed that resilience is a complex construct and acquires different definitions according to the context of individuals, families, social structures, and cultural biases. The authors further defined resilience as a stable trajectory of healthy functioning after a highly adverse event (Southwick et.al 2014).

Of essence in this situation is the role of the inner person, hence the need for psychological resilience, defined as an individual's ability to successfully adapt to life tasks in the face of social disadvantages or highly adverse conditions. On the other hand, adversity can be in the form of insecurity family or relationship problems, health problems, or workplace and financial worries, among others. Thus, resilience is one's ability to bounce back from a negative experience with "competent functioning". This means that resilience is not a rare ability. In reality, it is found in the average individual and it can be learned and developed by virtually anyone. Resilience therefore should be considered as a process, rather than a trait to be had. It is a process of individuation through a structured system with gradual discovery of personal and unique abilities (Block, J. H., & Block, J. (1980).

A widely held view that is a misapprehension is that resilient people are free from negative emotions or thoughts and that they remaining optimistic in many situations. Far from that, resilience in time may develop coping techniques that enable an individual to navigate through crises and relatively easily navigate around or through crises. Thus resilience people demonstrate optimistic attitude and positive emotionality
while at the same time they are able to balance negative emotions with positive ones. Within this line of thought, it is anticipated that in spite of the social-economic and political challenges in hosting countries, refugees have a degree of resilience to enable them to continue with life. In this context, the relevance of resilience theory is that it offers a positive adaptation for the refugees after having gone through a stressful situation. However, though not always, with reasonable support systems, resiliency allows a person to rebound from adversity as a strengthened and more resourceful person (Rynearson, Edward. 2006).

The theory offers an explanation that brings out people’s adaptation to adverse conditions, such as maltreatment, catastrophic life events, or poverty which are typical among refugees. Key in this endeavor is how the factors, among which are the social-economic and policy structures may contribute to positive outcomes. In all these instances, resilience is best understood as a process and need not be assumed to be a trait of the individuals. This study note that although resilience may result with individual’s ability to interact with their environments faced with adverse conditions the immediate reaction may be an eruption of anger, negative emotions or disruptive reactions. This means that ultimately there is need for processes to bring about coping strategies, or protective environment to make resilience more likely to occur. In this sense the protective environment is meant to help the refugees to move on with life in their host countries in spite of the adversities (Evans, Brad; Reid, Julian, 2014).

It is then not a wonder that the preliminary investigation that was done prior to the actual study revealed that the refugees in Kenya have shown resilience in that they continue with their day-to-day activities in a foreign land even in spite of day-to-day
challenges. Evidently in Kitengela, Congolese refugees who were the subject of this study have managed to find a means of earning a living on foreign soil.

1.10. Research Methodology
This sub-section presents the study methodology that guided the generation of the information that informed the study findings. The areas presented include research design, study site, population, sample size and sampling procedure, tools and data collection procedure. Also presented is the data analysis as well as ethical considerations.

a) Research Design
The study adopted an exploratory descriptive survey. The design was preferred because it allowed the inclusion of a wide range of participants. Hence made it possible to generate qualitative data, through use of interview schedule and guided questionnaires.

b) Study Site
The study was done in Kitengela town, which is in Kajiado County in Kenya. As shown in the figure 1. , Kitengela town is located about 40 Kilometers south of Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya. Kajiado County is bordered by Machakoes, Nairobi.
Kitengela area begun as ranch covering an area of 18282 hectares of land, owned by 214 registered members. After the subdivision of the land among members, it has since been fragmented through sales and sub-divisions. This has also seen a rapid population increase from 6548 in 1989 to 58,167 in 2009 (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2010). Since 2000, Kitengela has experience a rapid grown with a cosmopolitan
composition of her population. This among other factors has encouraged settlement of
refugees who find it easy to intermingle with other settlers.

Between 2,000 and 2015, Kitengela developed rapidly as evidenced mushrooming
manufacturing industries, learning institutions, quarrying and construction works. The
vibrancy of the area has increased by the existence of the busy Nairobi –Mombasa road
and the Standard Railway Gauge whose one of its station is a neighboring town, Athi
River.

c) Target Population

The participants for this study were the Household heads among the Congolese
refugee’s families, living in Kitengela, Kajiado County in Kenya. According to
UNHCR (2014), the total population of Congolese Refugees households in Kitengela
was 700. Additionally, key informants were targeted for participation in the study.
These included leaders of four religious organizations where the refugees attended
religious activities, leaders of four NGOs in Kitengela which were offering refugee
services as well as area chiefs.

d) Inclusion and exclusion criteria

i) Inclusion

- Congolese refugee families living in Kitengela
- Household Congolese family heads
- Institutions supporting refugees and operating in Kitengela town.

ii) Exclusion

- Refugees in Kitengela whose country of origin is not Congo.
• NGOs and religious organizations that were not supporting Congolese refugees.

e) Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

The sample for this study comprised 100 household heads of the Congolese refugee families living in Kitengela that formed 20% of the total number of Congolese refugee in the area. In order to obtain 20% sample of refugee’s void of bias as well as ensure all the Congolese refugees in Kitengela had an equal chance of being included, stratified sampling technique was employed. In this procedure, a list of all households obtained from UNHCR formed the sampling frame from which every \( \text{nth} \) name of Congolese household head was picked until the desired number of 100 refugee families’ household heads was reached.

Given that these were integrated refugees, it was anticipated that some of those sampled to participate as study respondents could not be traced due to morbidity. As such, purposive and snowballing techniques were also employed to trace those that were selected. Since there were four (four) churches and four (four) NGO’s dealing with issues of refugees in the area, all the leaders in these institutions were purposively included as study respondents. As such, the NGO’s gave information on the services they offered to refugees in order to make life easier for the refugees. The church leaders provided information which helped us understand the level at which the refugees interact with the host community hence understood their social wellbeing. Also targeted as key respondent were the area chief and Sub-chief as local leaders, mainly to confirm on the extent to which refugee’s access government services in the community and the coping strategies they adopt in their day to day lives.
f) **Study Instruments**

The study generated both primary and secondary data. For primary data, the study used interview schedule for refugee’s household heads (**Appendix III**) and guided questionnaires for key informants (**Appendix IV**) as discussed below:

g) **Interview guides:** These were preferred because they allowed probing on personal issues on livelihood and related challenges for the Congolese refugees.

h) **Guided questionnaires:** these were used to generate information from key informants and were preferred because they allowed the coverage of wide range of issues affecting refugees captured during other forums. They were also preferred since some of the key informants were not literate enough to fill the questionnaires. Another advantage was that the guided questionnaire used open-ended questions, which allowed generation of information based on personal opinion and perceptions.

i) **Validity and Reliability of the Study**

A pilot study was conducted in order to establish the validity and reliability of the research instruments. This was carried out among Congolese refugees in Mlolongo, Mavoko sub-county in Machakos County. The area was selected because it has refugees from DRC-Congo engaged in similar livelihoods as those in Kitengela. The exercise was also used as an opportunity to train two (2) research assistants. The purpose of piloting the research was to establish whether the prepared instrument were trustworthy and that they would provide the data needed to address all research objectives, asses and identify any ambiguity as well as any omissions. Thus the interview guides were piloted on 5 household heads of the Congolese refugees. The guided questionnaires were piloted on church leaders, chiefs, NGOs and security agencies. The data generated
from the pilot study was collated and analyzed in order to identify the gaps, omissions and vague statements. This led to the revision of the instruments to ensure their validity and reliability in generating the required data. The instruments were further shared with the University supervisors for final guidance.

j) Data Collection Procedure

This study depended to a large extent on secondary data to address objectives one and two. These data was collected through a desk study from the books, legal frameworks, journals and unpublished papers and reports. Primary data was collected through field work and was used to address objective three of the study and also to confirm some of the information generated from secondary sources. Two research assistants were identified and trained for the purpose of primary data collection and collation. Interviews were conducted among the sampled household heads that were either male or female heads. Three Congolese interpreters were engaged to interpolate during the data correction and assist in locating the homes of the identified household heads. During the interviews, the researcher asked questions while the research assistants recorded the responses. With the permission of participant audio taping was done to ensure that no information was lost. Where we could not find household heads, a second visit was done and where necessary snowballing was used to trace refugee’s homes, especially those who had relocated from their homes. Guided questionnaires were used to collect data from the key informants who included chiefs, church leaders, and NGOs program coordinators specifically those that deal with refugee issues.
k) Data Analysis and Presentation

This study yielded mainly qualitative data. The primary data was sorted and coded based on the themes generated by the study objectives. The sorted data was farther subjected to SPSS analysis for the purpose of generating table and frequency responses for objective three of the study. This is the data that was largely used to present the findings of objective three which was to examine challenges and coping mechanisms of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela 2003-2015.

On the other hand, secondary data was utilized to inform the background information to the study, literature review and objectives one and two of the study, on the basis of which the information was sorted accordingly.

l) Ethical Considerations

Since this study targeted the refugees who are vulnerable due to their special socio-economic and political circumstances, ethical issues were strictly observed. Ethical clearance was sought from Kenyatta University Ethical Clearance immediately after the proposal was approved Graduate School. Permission was also sought from NACOSTI, the area administration, refugee cell group leaders, religious leaders and NGOs Coordinators in the area of study. During the fieldwork, informed consent to participants in the study was sought from all the respondents in line with the guidelines of the Kenyatta University Ethical Clearance as shown in appendix II. The researcher also availed a copy of transmittal letter to participants in addition to explanation on the purpose of the research. Everything was therefore done in the best interest of the participants respect, privacy and confidentiality.
CHAPTER TWO

CONFLICTS AND EMERGENCE OF REFUGEES PHENOMENON IN CONGO: 1960-1990s

2.1 Introduction

This chapter in response to objective one of the study presents historical conflicts in different periods of time in Congo between 1960 and early 1990s. The findings are informed mainly by secondary data, generated from books, journals and reports. Majority of conflicts were both internally and externally instigated. As such, conflict among neighboring countries that contributed towards Congo conflict within the period is discussed. The same applies to internal conflicts that led to political instability.

Geographically, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) boarders the Central African Republic, and South Sudan to the north; Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi and Tanzania to the east; Zambia and Angola to the south; and the Atlantic Ocean to the west and southwest.

It is the second largest country in Africa by area, the largest in Sub-Saharan Africa, and the eleventh largest in the world; with a population of over 80 million, the Democratic Republic of the Congo is the most populated, officially francophone country, the fourth most populated nation in Africa and the eighteenth most populated country in the world (Young and Turner 1985).

Congo experienced an atrocious colonial history which started in the 1880s when King Leopold II of Belgium took personal control of the territory, ruthlessly exploiting Congo’s vast natural resources through harsh autocratic rule which included widespread slave labor. Thus by the time the Belgians took control of the Congo in 1908, almost 10 million Congolese had perished as a direct result of Leopold’s policies.
(Hochschild, 1998). The era of King Leopold II was marked with a ruthlessness that was resented by other European imperialists. At the same time, local people were robbed, enslaved, and forced to work in the mines.

Although the conditions improved when the country changed the status from being a domain of the King to an official colony in 1908, the Congolese were treated as second-class citizens compared to the Belgians in the Congo. For example accessing most educational opportunities and government positions remained a preserve for the Belgians only. Farther, the Congolese were prohibited from voting and forming political parties until 1957, while prohibitions on free speech, travel, and assembly were maintained until independence in 1960. Development of mining, agricultural, and other commercial interests across the country, was unevenly developed by the Belgians which resulted with the creation discrepancies between the economic capabilities of different areas in Congo (Collins, 1993)

2.2 Conflicts and emergence of refugees in Congo 1960-1990s

With the growing demands for independence, Belgium accepted Congo's independence in June 1960. During this period, the country was politically unstable since the regional tribal leaders held more power than the central government. The departure of Belgian administrators left the country without killed bureaucrats. The post colonial political instability was witnessed in Congo only a few days after it formally received its independence from Belgium. At the same time, the return of Belgian troops to the Congo in the days after independence created tensions within the Congolese government. Additionally, there was the growing threat of the cold War in the Third
World since newly colonized nations were viewed as possible allies in the conflict between the US and the Soviet Union.

In the post-independence era, there were at three identifiable periods of warfare in modern Africa. These included the period of modern liberation wars, from 1960 to the mid-1970s; the period of interstate wars and large scale civil wars, from the mid-70s to early 1990s; and the period of proxy border wars and economic insurgencies in the 1990s. Nevertheless, the types of conflicts identified with each period in Congo represent the most significant wars in scope or political impact (Thom, 1999). The periods witnessed a lot of tensions in the Congo which were fuelled by ethnicity.

Internal conflicts fostered by years of Belgian policy and by the corruption endemic in the administration created a fractured, suspicious polity. Congolese political parties were thus almost entirely based on ethnic and regional loyalties. There were hundreds of tribal and cultural associations led by native and ambitious local leaders. Kasavubu's ABAKO for example drew its support entirely from the Ba-Kongo ethnic group. It worked not for a united modern republic, but for a revival of the sixteenth-century Kingdom of Kongo that had once stretched across lower Congo and northern Angola, where many Ba-Kongos still lived. CONAKAT, founded by Moise Tshombe, was the party of the "true Katangans," southerners who opposed incursions by other ethnic groups into northern Katanga province. BALUBAKAT represented the interests of the rival Baluba ethnic group in south Kasai and north Katanga. Only Patrice Lamumba’s Movement Nationale Congolaise (MNC) made any serious effort at recruiting members without regard to tribal affiliation. Even so, it drew most of its support from the tribal groups of eastern Orientale and Kivu provinces. Lacking any experience of government
and any real sense of nationhood, the leaders of these associations saw political power as a way of advancing tribal interests and personal prestige (Hobbs, 2014).

Thus the Congo Crisis translated into a complex political tumult which caused the Prime Minister Lumumba to turn to the USSR for assistance. In response, Nikita Khrushchev offered advanced weaponry and technical advisors. On the other hand the United States viewed the Soviet presence as an attempt to take advantage of the situation geared to acquire a proxy state in sub-Saharan Africa. Thus the UN forces were ordered to block any shipments of arms into the country, while at the same time the United States explored for a way to replace Lumumba as leader in Congo. While this was taking place, President Kasavubu had clashed with Prime Minister Lumumba and advocated an alliance with the West rather than the Soviets. The U.S.A took the advantage and sent weapons and CIA personnel to aid forces allied with Kasavubu and combat the Soviet presence. On 14 September 1960, with U.S.A and CIA support, Colonel Joseph Mobutu overthrew the government and arrested Lumumba (Vantheimsche, 2012).

On 17th January, 1961 Mobutu sent Lumumba to Elisabeth Ville (now Lubumbashi), capital of Katanga; where he was beaten and forced to eat copies of his own speeches in full view of the press. He was murdered while in custody. A new crisis erupted in the Simba Rebellion of 1964-1965 which saw half the country taken by the rebels. European mercenaries, U.S.A and Belgian troops were called in by the Congolese government to defeat the rebellion. Unrest and rebellion plagued the government until November 1965, when Lieutenant General Mobutu, by then commander in chief of the national army, seized control of the country and declared himself the president for five
Mobutu SeseSeko began his 32-year rule in 1965 when he ousted President Kasavubu in a coup with support from both the United States and Belgium. Mobutu brutally quelled new rebellions and took possession of Congo. In 1971, he changed the name of the country to Zaire (Zeilig, Leo, 2008). Peace and stability prevailed in Congo until 1977 and 1978 when Katangan rebels, based in Angola, launched a series of invasions. The rebels were driven out with the aid of Belgian paratroopers as Zaire remained a one-party state until 1980s (Vanthemsche, 2012).

On the other hand, internal and external pressures on Mobutu increased as the Cold War came to an end. However, in late 1989 and early 1990, a series of domestic protests weakened Mobutu which was heightened international criticism on his violation human rights practices, weak economy, corruption demonstrated by his massive misappropriation of government funds. In April 1990, Mobutu declared the Third Republic, giving way to a multi-party system with elections and a constitution. In September 1991, his soldiers in Congo went in the rampage protesting their unpaid wages. As a result, two thousand French and Belgian troops were flown in on U.S. Air Force planes, arrived to evacuate the 20,000 endangered foreign nationals in Kinshasa (Towle, Philip, 2000). Mobutu systematically used the country’s mineral wealth to co-opt potential rivals, and to enrich himself and his allies through a corrupt patronage system. Although Mobutu acquired a lot of wealth through corrupt means, by the end of the Cold War his wealth had failed, as a result of which he lost his grip on power.
Following the Rwandan genocide in 1994, Mobutu provided shelter and protection to as well as the Rwandan refugees who had fled to eastern Congo, but also to the Rwandan Hutu army and militias that directed the genocide (Towel, 2000). This provoked Rwanda and Uganda to invade Congo in July 1996 in pursuit of Hutu military forces. As a result, the force was too much and ailing Mobutu was finally ousted from Kinshasa in May 1997 while Congolese rebel leader Laurent-Désiré Kabila took over the country (Raghavan, 2013).

Mobutu's rule attracted considerable internal resistance in the country. The weakened state of the central government meant that rebel factions could find refuge in Congo, and especially in the eastern Congolese provinces that provided a safe distance from the capital, Kinshasa. The opposition was a mixture of Leftists as well as supporters of Patrice Lumumba, a vocal opponent of the Mobutu’s era. It also consisted of ethnic minorities who were opposed to the majority dominating Kinshasa. Laurent-Desire Kabila was an ethnic Luba, who occupied most of the Katanga province, who had fought Mobutu's government since its establishment. Mobutu's government was ineffective in monitor and regulating rebel factions within the country which made him lose control eastern provinces which then acted as command zones for the anti-Mobutu rebels, including Kabila (Gribbin, 2005).

Evidently, conflicts in Congo did not seem to ease after independence. As some respondents of this study confirmed during data collection, “crisis and political instability had developed in Congo only a few days after it formally received its independence from Belgium”. This confirmed earlier statements that the situation worsened with the return of Belgian troops to the Congo in the days after independence.
to try and restore peace. For example, in the words of one female Congolese Household head respondent, “the return by Belgium fueled more tension and possible conflicts as this created a lot of tensions within the Congolese government” (F.H.H, 10/9/ 2015).

It was further reported that many Congolese experienced serious deprivation of basic necessities of life and especially food and health services. As the state of uncertainty ensued, more and more people either died in poverty or were killed by those in support of the government of the day. Study respondents narrated and confirmed that the period of interstate wars and large scale civil wars, settled from the mid-70s to early 1990s.

The period between 1970s and 1990s was reported to have been marked by border wars and increased poverty. Provision of essential social amenities and public services-education, health and infrastructures were totally absent. As one male Household head Congolese respondent reported Mobutu Sese Seko 32-year rule from 1965 did not make things any better. He added, “Many expected liberation when he (Mobutu) ousted President Kasavubu in a coup with support from both the United States and Belgium. Unfortunately Congo turned into a battlefield as Mobutu brutally quelled any new rebellions and literary ruled the country with a gun, and managed the country as his own property” (M.H.H, 2/9/ 2015).

The study therefore submits that investigating the nature of the conflicts in DRC requires the understanding of the events leading to the first war and the resulting deaths, displacement of hundreds of thousands of Congolese nationals since then.
3.1 Introduction
The presentation in this chapter is in response to objective two of the study which was to investigate the evolution and settlement of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela (1991-2002). The study findings in this section are informed by both secondary and primary data. Secondary data was derived from historical documentation, particularly, related studies, history books and articles in referred journals. Primary data was generated from information’s and testimonies from the household heads who participated in the study, as explained in methodology section in chapter one of this thesis. The presentation is in two sub-sections focusing on the evolution and settlement of Congolese refugees in Kitengela 1990-2002.

3.2 Emergence of Congolese refugees in Kitengela, Kenya 1991-2002
The emergence of refugee phenomenon has been a global crisis and therefore not a reserve for African continent. This sub-section presents the progression within which the refugee phenomenon has with time become almost a permanent feature in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Since the major trigger of refugee phenomenon in any space and time has been always, wars and conflicts whether internal or external, the section focuses on historical events within and outside Congo that resulted in the evolution of the Congolese refugees. It is worth noting that although the section is specific to the evolution of Congolese refugee who eventually settled in Kitengela, it makes sense to bring out the events responsible for the evolution back home during the
period of time under reference. The observation is not unique to Congo because as noted elsewhere in this document, the decade between 1991 and 2002 saw more than six million African refugees seek asylum in different regions. These refugees fled their home countries that had been overrun by internal and external wars and conflicts. With time, most of these refugees, found asylum in other African countries, mostly in refugee camps. What remains apparent is the fact that evolution of refugees in Congo including those who eventually settled in Kitengela town, Kajiado county Kenya has been a complex process between 1990s and 2002. The complexity is mainly because of evolution was characterized by either forced or impelled migrations.

Situations in the 1990s were defined by extreme instability in Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). As a result of the 1994 genocide in Rwandan and Burundi conflicts, Kenya proved to be a safe haven for those fleeing ethnic persecutions. Further, the instability of the government in Democratic Republic of Congo posed issues of instability, which were further exasperated by the large Rwandan Hutu refugee population that became militarized within its borders. Thus these conflicts engendered a large influx of refugees into Kenya due to its political stability at that time.

It is of interest to this study to note that of the hundred (100) Congolese household heads that interviewed as participants in the study, none had settled in Kitengela, Kajiado County before 1991. The study further established that the Congolese refugees who were in Kitengela at the time of study settled at different times between 1991 and 2002. This was confirmed by historical events since the period in question witnessed conflicts and wars in DRC which were both internally and externally instigated. In
particular, the participants narrated the impact of the civil wars crises during Mombutu SeseSeko political regime which was a complex political tumult, associated with violence. In addition to many deaths, the crises culminated with an evolution of many Congolese refugees who eventually settled in the neighboring countries-Rwanda, Uganda and Kenya.

The evolution of Congolese refugees who eventually settled in Kenya including Kitengela was further escalated by Rwandan Genocide of 1994. The relationship of Congolese refugee and Genocide was grounded on the fact that the Rwandan perpetrators were among the refugees from Rwanda who sort amnesty in Eastern Congo. This was at the time when the Mombutu government was incapable of controlling the former g’enocidaires due to its weakened state. As a result, the government supported the by training and supplying them with arms for an invasion into Rwanda, a situation that forced the regime in Kigali to act (Filip, 2009). The result was raising ethnic tension and lack of government oversight in Eastern Congo resulting in rising in security threat posed by the g’enocedaires. Eventually the unrest built up into the Banyamulenge rebellion that transformed into Alliance of Democratic Forces for Liberation of Congo (AFDL) which was led by Laurent-Desire Kabila, a long time opponent of Mombutu’s government. Thus AFDL was now a Congolese rebel movement that increased tension between Congo and Rwanda in the years 1996 to 2002 and later worked with Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF) between 1999 and 2001.

While all these crises were happening in Congo, The onset added impact of the 1st Congo war of 1996 which fueled the 2nd Congo war which began in August 1998 and which gained the infamous euphemism as the great war of Africa. The Second Congo
War ended in July 2003, when the Transitional Government of the Democratic Republic of Congo came into power. However, up to date, the Congo is a scene of continued in-fighting among various militia groups and government troops. If anything, more violence continues to rock the region, causing an increasing number of civilians to seek refuge elsewhere.

Household heads emotionally narrated to this study that although peace agreement was signed in 2002, violence continued in most parts of Congo though they were more intense in the eastern region of the country. Since then, hostilities continued in the form internal conflicts, continuously providing the spark for the mass exodus of Congolese refugees into various other countries, including Kenya. Thus the Congolese refugee crisis has been the product of many years of armed conflict and unrest in the DRC, with the eastern provinces of North and South Kivu bearing the brunt of the violence and mass exodus of residents into neighboring countries as refugees. It is then not a wonder that UNHCR, (2014) reports that by the end of 2012, more than 2.4 million Congolese were internally displaced and that more than 460,000 had sought asylum in neighboring countries including Kenya.

One male Household head in an interview explained that since refugees normally seek asylum in a country with a political tranquility and relative peace, the refugees from Congo were limited in options given that between 1991 and 2002, immediate neighboring countries – Rwanda and Uganda were involved in Congo conflict in one way or the other. Quoting one female household head respondent, the refugees perceived Kenya as a neutral and safe country for asylum “given that the country has not historically been a party to the conflict back home”(F.H.H, 7/9/2015)
Ampell, *et al.* (2006) in a study on Congolese refugees’ livelihood in Nairobi observe that while Congolese refugees have settled in several parts in Kenya, majority are in Nairobi, some of whom made their way to Kitengela in Kajiado country. It is therefore the presence of the Congolese refugee in Kitengela that prompted the choice of the area as a focus of this study.

### 3.3 Settlement of Congolese refugees in Kitengela, Kenya 1991-2002

As discussed in the section on methodology, Kitengela is located 40 Kilometers south of the Nairobi and is in Kajiado County in Kenya. The town is located in the proximity of the busy Nairobi Mombasa road. The study established that Kitengela has attracted the settlement of refugee due to the fact that it has experienced rapid social-economic growth since early 1990s on the back of a booming manufacturing industry. Another attraction has been increase commercial growth, coupled with enhanced infrastructure especially, roads and ICT.

Another factor that has favored increased settlement by both locals and refugees since early 1990s is the emergence of macro and micro businesses operated by local and foreign investors that offer employment opportunities. The emergency of the industries and businesses take the advantage of the proximity to Nairobi-Mombasa road. Among these are the cement manufacturing industries which include Portland, Bamburi, Savanah, Simba, and Rhino. Others include Export Processing Zone (EPZ), London Distillers and Quarries. Another attraction to settlers including refugees is the growing construction industry which provides employment for livelihood among many others (UNHCR, 2014).
The majority of refugees residing in Kitengela are from the Democratic Republic Congo, with a minority from Somalia and South Sudan. Key informants for this study who included Kitengela local chief and local church leaders informed the study that the inflow of refugees into Kitengela picked up from 2000, many of them coming directly from countries of origin, other locations in Nairobi, as well as from refugee camps in Kenya. On the other hand, the report from refugee’s household heads who were interviewed in the study explained that they came to Kitengela come in search of livelihood opportunities and were attracted by the lower cost of living. Other reported attractions to Kitengela included less scrutiny and suspicion from local authorities in Kitengela. At the same time, harassment from the law enforcement agents, especially the police are reportedly less common, compared to other parts of Nairobi City County.

Further, Kitengela offers a safer environment with less crime compared to other parts in the periphery of Nairobi City County, where reports of criminals targeting asylum seekers and refugees are common.

Observations during this study revealed that in Kitengela, the main livelihood activities for refugees including Congolese are casual laborers, employment in the construction industry and EPZ, and trade. Construction work is available on private construction sites and in the six cement factories in Kitengela. Domestic work and petty trade of food, milk, eggs, fruits and vegetables are common among women. Formal employment in the EPZ is available to refugees. Employment in the hotel, retail and restaurant business is also common. It emerged that majority of the Congolese refugees living in Kingetela came mainly from rural areas of Congo, all fleeing the country as a result of internal wars and conflict based on ethnicity identities between Banyamulenge and Bafurelo and Wuabembe. Wanyamulenge were mainly pastoralist, Wuabembe
were in farming and fishing while Wuafuriru were farmers and pastoralists. The ensuing conflicts were typical of phenomenon in Africa where ethnic tensions in many cases play a part in most African conflicts. In the views of the participants, the influx of Congolese refugees has been going on since 1960s, though the most affected parts were the eastern provinces of North and South Kivu. The study respondents further confirmed that between 1991 and 2002 millions of Congolese were internally displaced while thousands sought asylum in neighboring countries. The observations concur with those of Flahaux, (2016) in his narration on “Democratic Republic of Congo: a migration history marked by Crisis and restrictions”

The study respondents affirmed that more complex conflicts were experienced in Congo especially after Rwandan genocide of 1994 when armed people from Rwanda invaded the Congo in search of the perpetrators of genocide. This was followed by years of tensions, internal conflicts, with the climax being the outbreak of first and second Congo wars of 1996 and 1998, respectively. As reported by one participant, the reign of Mobutu Sese Seko fueled the conflict and internal wars in 1990s because of the growing dissatisfaction with what many termed reign of terror. Internal wars intensified, forcing many people to flee the country, after being internally displaced for sometimes. Meanwhile Laurent-Désiré Kabila was party to the first Congo war as he launched an armed campaign against President Mobutu with the backing of Rwandan and Ugandan troops. After taking over the ruler ship of Congo the second war was as a result of armed rebellion against him in 1998. This war that led to the assassination of Kabila and installation of his son Joseph forced many Congolese to migrate to neighboring countries as refugees (Flahaux, 2016).
Narrations from the Congolese refugees in Congo revealed that the Congolese refugee flows increased dramatically from 1990 to 2003, when the second Congo war war ended.

As one male respondent stated, “

> Although the war ended many of us in Kitengela do not want to go back because many parts in Eastern Congo where we came from continue to experience regular violence and tensions. Most of us in Kitengela came from Eastern Congo. I know my fellow refugees who came from Kalogrogi, Minembwa, Mibunda, Bijumbo, and Kiringu villages (M.H.H, 10/10/2015).

Another participant narrated that “majority of us are Banyamlenge because the reason for fleeing our original homes was the attack from our traditional rivals the Bafurelo, who frequently raided our homes, killing many of our people” (M.H.H, 6/10/2015).

According to participants’ narrations, the journey to Kitengela and eventual settlement between 1901 and 2003 was marked by long and painful trekking through the Congo forests, while aware that the enemies were pursuing them. In Congo, they would settle in one place within Congo for sometimes with hope that they would settle though as internally displaced persons. However as more conflicts erupted this was never to be. A case in point as narrated by the respondent was when in the process of fleeing their enemies found an abandoned village, and decided to settle as internally displaced persons. Consequently they made temporary shelter but after three months, they were attacked by Bafurelo, forcing them to move on, towards East.

Some groups fled to Bukavu and Rumbubashi from where they took boats in Kivu and landed in Goma, where they settled for a while but fled when tensions between Congo and Rwanda intensified. It is from here that some families continued on to Uganda and settled in Bilele, where they found an abandoned school. Since there was no official support from Uganda government, the Congolese took Lorries which were felling goods to Kampala and eventually Nairobi and Kitengela. Since the means of transport
were the Lorries that were transporting goods to either Uganda or Tanzania, some families arrived in Kitengela through Tanzania. The analyses reviewed that the main occupations for the household heads living in Kitengela were formal, self-employed and casual engagement. The results mean that at least majority of the respondents have an occupation and could be earning an income. This implied that many of the household head who participated in this study had a gainful occupation and were earning an income. The results confirm the observations by the key informants that refugees prefer to move out of the refugee camps into informal, urban settlements in Nairobi and its environs, with the hope to secure regular income for better living.

In what sounded as a summary to the evolution and settlement of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela, one female Household head gave the following narration, during the interview:

*To become a refugee and to live in Kenya was never in my mind. As we fled the conflicts right from our villages we thought that the worst we could ever get into was internal displacement. Even then as we moved from place to place we still believed that in near future we could go back to our homes where we had left our animals and farmlands. The reality downed on me after closing the Congo-Uganda border and eventually Uganda-Kenya border. On arrival we realized we had to officially seek asylum in accordance with the regulations of UNCR. As we officially acquired the refugee status, the reality has since downed on us and accepted the status. Some of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela have been here since 1998, although the journey may have started in the early years of 1990s (F.H.H, 2/9/ 2015).*

The analyses of the information gathered from the Congolese household heads revealed that main occupations for the household heads living in Kitengela were self-employed and casual engagement, meaning that although they are earning an income, they are living in poverty. This is contrary to their expectations as many informed the study that they moved to Kitengela with a hope that the town would offer them better means of
livelihood as a result of its location and close proximity to the capital Nairobi and in a vast economically growing area. This was confirmed by the study’s key informants who affirmed that refugees prefer to move out of the refugee camps into informal, urban settlements in Nairobi and its environs, with the hope to secure regular income for better living.

In terms of Congolese refugees settlement in Congo, further analysis if the data generated for this study revealed that there were more self-employed women compared to men. The study was informed that this was because most refugee women with no formal employment are engaged in some form of minor business such as green grocery while the husband is away at work. Other self-employment included small-scale trade, usually operated as family ventures. Key informant who included chief, local pastor and community leaders confirmed the same. The elderly who were over sixty (60) years old were facing difficulties in securing informal employment and especially casual work due to their advanced age. Few Congolese refugees were in formal occupation and were mainly utilizing skills that they had in home countries in teaching private schools and technicians in different fields, especially woodwork and artisan.
4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings in response to objective three of the study, which was to investigate the challenges and coping mechanisms of Congolese refugees in Kitengela from 2003 to 2015. The presentation is based on primary data which was generated from the Congolese refugees household heads selected to participate in the study. Specific data on the challenges and coping mechanisms was coded and analyzed using SPSS which was convenient in the presentation of tables and frequencies.

The chapter however starts by presenting and discussing some key demographic characteristics of the refugees who participated in the study as respondents. The demographic characteristics considered are gender, age, and marital status, level of formal education, current occupation and duration of stay in Kitengela. The analysis was done because the stated characteristics influenced some of the challenges and coping mechanisms for the refugees living in Kitengela.

As explained in the preceding chapter on methodology, a sample size of 100 household heads of Congolese refugees in Kitengela was used. All the 100 targeted household heads were successfully reached for the interview, making a 100% return rate.
4.2 Demographic Characteristic of the House Hold Heads of the refugee who participated in the Study

a) Distribution of household heads by Gender

Data analysis revealed that majority of the Congolese refugee household heads who participated in the study were female, accounting for 56% of the respondents, compared to the 44% of male respondents.

b) Distribution of household heads by Age

As shown in table 4.1, there was no household head of below 18 years, while 78% of the household heads who participated in the study were youths as per the definition of the Kenya constitution (2010).

Table 4.1 Age Bracket of Household Heads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Bracket</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 18 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-35 years</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-60 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that majority of the household heads were between 18 and 35 was of interest to this study since this is a prime age in human production and therefore has an implication to the challenges being experience as well as the adopted coping strategies.
c) Distribution of household heads by Marital Status

As shown in table 4.2, majority (71%) were married.

Table 4.2 Marital Status of Household Heads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While 25% of the Refugee household heads who participated in the study were single, the analysis revealed that these were in the age category of 18 to 35 (youth), 48% of whom had children and not married while the 52% had no children but were heading households.

d) Distribution of household heads by Level Formal Education

As shown in Table 4.3, majority (71%) of the refugee household heads who participated in this study had attained secondary education and above.
Table 4.3 Level of Formal Education of Household Heads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Level of Formal Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No formal education</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-secondary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-graduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further analysis revealed that the 21% of the refugee household heads who had post-secondary and post graduate levels of education had professional skills in the following fields; eight were in teaching profession, technicians in various fields and three artisans. On the other hand, the eight with no formal education comprised six women and two men, who were all married.

e) Ethnicity and Geographical origin of Congolese Refugees in Kitengela

The analysis presented is on the basis of geographical setting (rural/ urban) as well as ethnicity. The analysis was necessary as it could have a bearing on the challenges and coping mechanisms of the Congolese refugees in Kitengela. On the other hand, the occupation that was considered was based on what they were doing in the Republic of Congo before acquiring the refugee status.

As shown in Table 4.4, the majority of the Congolese refugee who participated in this study (75%) was living in urban areas in Congo before seeking refuge status in Kenya, as compared to 73% of Wanyamulenge ethnic group.
Table 4.4 Ethnicity and Geographical origin of Congolese Refugees in Kitengela.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Variation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographical</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>Wanyamulenge</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wuabembe</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Waafuliru</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ethnicity of Congolese refugees reflected on their traditional occupation in Congo where the Wanyamulenge were mainly pastoralist, Wuabembe were in farming and fishing while Waafuliru were mainly farmers and pastoralists. This was of interest in this study especially because the demographic information on current occupation as shown in table 4.4 above revealed that the household heads who participated in this study were in formal, self-employment and casual engagement. It is then not a wonder that household heads informed the study of some challenges that they encountered in day-to-day living as discussed later in this chapter.

Further, data analyses revealed that majority of those from urban (87%) were from Rumbubashi and Bukavu in Eastern Congo with a few having come from Kisangani area. The rest (13%) of the household heads who participated in the study were from the rural areas, mainly in Goma/Kivu region. The origins had implications in coping strategies and especially in terms of occupation before attaining the refugee status in Kenya. While the refugees from the urban setting had no problems in living in Kitengela, which is urban, those from rural setting had to make adjustment. This was
confirmed by one male household head from Wanyamulenge community during the interview as follows:

Having come from rural area in Congo, my life and that of my family has not been easy. Just imagine having to get packed milk other than milking directly from my animals that I owned for many years. (M.H.H, 16/9/ 2015).

Regardless of the ethnicity, the study was informed that the Congolese refugee spoke a common language French that is an official language in Cong and Kiswahili as a common language. Those from rural areas expressed having had a challenge in speaking Kiswahili. This had an impact in coping with day-to-day life in Kitengela-Kenya where French is a foreign language. Data analysis revealed that beyond the rural/urban and ethnicity, the problem of languages was a big issue to those with no formal education and those over 60 years.

On the other hand, few Congolese refugees spoke English, which as discovered, was taught only in schools. In this respect, one household head from Wuafuliru had this to say:

I only spoke French and had a lot of difficulty learning Kiswahili which I found to be difficult compared to Kiswahili of Congo (M.H.H, 20/9/ 2015).

f) Occupation of Congolese Refugees in Kitengela

The analysis of the occupation was done in order to establish the coping strategies that the refugees were engaging to address challenges of livelihood in Kitengela.

The analysis also revealed that the 42% who had stayed for less than 3 years were of mixed social characteristics in terms of gender, age and marital status.
The analyses as reviewed in table 4.5 indicate that the main occupations for the household heads living in Kitengela were formal, self-employed and casual engagement.

**Table 4.5 Occupation of Refugee Household Heads**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No occupation</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This implied that at most 90.6% of the respondents had an occupation and could be earning an income. This in turn implied that 89% of the household heads who participated in this study had a gainful occupation and were earning an income. The results confirm the observations by the key informants that refugees prefer to move out of the refugee camps into informal, urban settlements in Nairobi and its environs, with the hope to secure regular income for better living.

Further analysis revealed that there were more self-employed women compared to men. The study was informed that this was because most refugee women with no formal employment are engaged in some form of minor business such as green grocery while the husband is away at work. Other self-employment included small-scale trade, usually operated as family ventures. Key informant who included chief, local pastor and community leader confirmed the same. The eleven household heads that had no occupation comprised the three (two male and one female) above 60 years while the 5
youths living with parents and three married women. Those in formal occupation found to be utilizing their skills were teaching private schools, technicians in different fields and especially woodwork and artisan.

4.3 Challenges of the Congolese Refugees in Kitengela 2003-2015

Like other refugees elsewhere in Kenya and other parts of Africa, Congolese refugees in Kitengela face challenges related to personal issues as well as those related to being refugees. Common personal challenges are related to daily stress and frustrations resulting from poverty, health problems, strained social relations with and among the family members. Mental problems and the stress among refugees were found to have mostly stemmed from their imposed acculturation, especially in the cases of those refugees whose values are totally different from those of the host country and from their interactions with the host communities. This is not to mention that as refugees, they had challenges due to lack of shelter, clean water, quality and affordable education for their children, decent and well-paying employment opportunities and affordable and quality health facilities and houses. In Kitengela refugees also face particular disadvantages. In that they often pay higher residential houses rents than Kenyans (Abuya, 2004).

The official language in Congo is French and only a few speak Kiswahili. On the other hand, very few families among the Congo refugees speak and understand English. As such, children for Congolese refugees in Kitengela who cannot speak English or Kiswahili faced language barriers in schools which affect their performance and integration with other children. Further due to lack of regular and well-paying forms of livelihood and employment some refugees’ children miss opportunities to access formal schooling while others drop out of the schooling, without realizing their dreams. In
some schools, children of refugees are charged more through “hidden” in the form of ‘admission fee’ before admission despite the fact that primary education in Kenya is free. As a result, parents opt to take their children to informal schools owned by individuals or religious organizations, often staffed with unqualified teachers (UNHCR, 2012).

Even with the relevant skills, it is also true that refugee status and documentation means that many urban refugees find it difficult to access formal employment in Nairobi, whether in the private or public sector. Yet the refugees do make a contribution to the local and national Kenyan economy through informal employment and businesses. Since there is no official administrative engagement with refugees, majority of refugees are hired on a casual basis without contracts, and earn an average of Kenya Shillings (200) per day. Lack of work permits is a major constraint to access fair wages and better employment opportunities. As a result, majority of refugees in Kitengela work in the construction industry which seems to provide numerous opportunities for casual workers especially the poor who earn an average of between Kenya Shillings (350-400) per day. Since the construction work mainly favor the male, female refugees seek for domestic work and in textile in EPZ and flower farms, where they earn a daily wage of Kenya Shillings 150-200. On the whole expenditure on food is the largest cost for asylum seeker and refugee households in Kitengela as confirmed by Abuya, (2004) in his empirical survey on the status and determination of refugees.

Adult male and female refugees also suffer frequent exposure to police abuses and extortion and a feeling of discrimination as a result of xenophobic attitudes by the Kenyan local community. The Kitengela refugees also reported living in a state of
exclusion which makes them feel lonely and therefore unable to integrate with their Kenyan neighbors. This concurs with the UNHCR, 2010 report which reported a similar state for both asylum seekers and refugees.

The findings noted that the challenges faced in Kitengela were in addition to many those that they suffered during their long journeys from their home countries to Kitengela which included hunger, sicknesses, and harassment by law enforcement officers. Many a times, they had to buy their way from corrupt law enforcers. While many friends and relatives including children died along the way.

As shown in table 4.1, data analysis of information generated from the Congolese refugees household heads revealed major challenges that they faced ranging from lack of income, cultural shocks, difficulties in communication and a feeling of isolation due to limited social networks.

**Table 4.6 Challenges Faced by Congolese Refugees in Kitengela**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Frequency of response</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of income</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural practices</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language of communication</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social networks (Isolation)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency response against each challenge shows that the most frequently experienced challenge was lack of income while the list experienced was isolation, as discussed below.
a) Lack of income

The information generated from the study respondents revealed that Congolese refugees living in Kitengela face economic challenges due their restrictive conditions in their refugee status. The study was informed that the major reason for lack of income is that refugees do not acquire work permit, which would otherwise enable them to seek for formal employment. This was particularly so for those in casual and self-employment some of whom claimed they had acquired professional skills, which they were not able to utilize for lack of employment opportunities. Confirming the same, a male household head in casual employment had this to say, during an interview:

*In my country I was a trained teacher and had taught in primary school for eight years but I have been here for 5 years without a job* (M.H.H, 2/9/ 2015).

In affirmation, a female household head was quoted saying:

*Back home I was a trained nurse and was working in a government hospital. Here in Kitengela as a refugee I earn my dairy wage by washing people’s clothes. Fortunately, I have three families that I wash for weekly and they pay me a total of Kenya shillings 600 which is hardly enough to sustain my family for a week* (F.H.H, 7/9/ 2015).

All the 37 household heads who were in the formal employment expressed concern that they were earning much lower income in comparison with their former jobs in their home country. Among them were four teachers in private primary schools and two in private secondary schools, who were lecturers in tertiary institutions in Congo. In Kitengela, they were teaching French language in private primary and secondary schools. Further the pay was very low and irregular since they were employed on private arrangement with those they were teaching. On the other hand, the household heads in self-employment were in small-scale trade, which they claimed did not have
enough return to cater for family needs. Confirming the same, the observation revealed that most of them were working in hair salons, barber shops, small kiosks of fruits, vegetables, charcoal among others.

Although the most affected by the economic challenges were those without any form of gainful livelihood, the refugee’s household heads in casual jobs expressed having economic hardships. The casuals were concerned that they were not assured of getting work on daily basis, while sometimes their employers delay the payment. To this effect, one female casual laborer explained that:

One of the people I wash clothes for pays me in kind usually maize flour regardless of my needs, while another one pays me in bits making it impossible to make the ends meet (F.H.H, 8/9/ 2015).

Sadly the household heads without gainful livelihood informed the study that they were mostly relying on well-wishers within the neighborhood both Kenyans and Congolese as well local religious institution and NGOs.

This is confirmed in the following words of one (one) male over 60years who participated in this study:

Am unable to work due to my advanced age and poor health. Were it not for my Kenyan neighbors in Kitengela and fellow refugees, I would have died of hunger. Occasionally, though not regularly, my church donates foodstuff (M.H.H, 4/10/ 2015).

Additionally Congolese refugees interviewed cited frequent harassment by police officers on patrol, especially in the evenings. They also suffer additional cost of living where they are sometimes asked to pay some unexplained school fees for their children, paid less wages for equal work done by Kenyans, and more often than not working without pay. On reporting to police their complaints are dismissed unexplained.
b) Cultural related Challenges

Data analysis revealed that many Congolese refugee household heads who participated in this study experienced culture related challenges. Further analysis revealed that among those who expressed having cultural challenges were middle aged and elderly. The reason for the finding could be that being the youth are quick to adapt to new ways of life as compared to the older people who are used to certain ways of doing things. Michelle (2011) confirmed cultural changes that in spite of the supportive systems, the challenges that refugees encounter in the host countries are complex given that they come from different social, economic and political backgrounds and status contrast to their original communities. In line with this, the household heads who confirmed having cultural challenges highlighted the following as areas of concern (Michelle 2011).

i) Social relations in marriage

The concern raised by many study respondents was that there were high divorce rates and co-habitation of our Kenyan youths without marriage commitment, which is not acceptable among Congolese. There was also an observed challenge of lack of cohesion in the families and especially amongst spouses, as one male married household head stated:

_It bothers me when I see Kenyan married men rarely with their wives and children in social events, including church services_ (M.H.H, 7/9/ 2015).

Religious leaders and area chief who participated in this study as key respondents confirmed the same. The religious leaders declared an observation that they have not had to resolve marital conflicts among Congolese and yet this is frequently done among Kenyan couples, both young and old. On the other hand, the chief of Kitengela confessed having not arbitrated on marital cases among Congolese couples.
ii) Approaches in Parenting

The respondents found challenges in the way children in Kenya acquire independence from parenting immediately they finish schooling and get into employment. The study was informed that in Congo, children remain under the care of parents long after marriage. Confirming the same, female household head had this to say:

*It is commonly accepted that married children are not allowed to leave parents’ home until they have given birth up to several children (F.H.H, 5/9/2015).*

This same was confirmed through observation during the field data collection process, where in some households included in the study, married children had rented rooms in the same building with the parents.

ii) Food related challenges

Congolese refugee’s household heads who participated in the study reported a major challenge in the types of food eaten in Kenya since this is different from what they ate in Congo. In this regard, the study was informed that the staple food for common people in Congo is made from cassava products, which are not available in. One household head was particularly concerned that cassava in Kenya is considered as food for the poor. For Congolese refugees, they none of Kenyan food is good enough and that they consume what they find for survival, though they hardly ever enjoy it. Ainsworth (2007) concur with this study in relation to refugee diet in a context of urban displacement. Additionally, Congolese refugees expressed concerned about high cost and lack of fish, milk and meat which they said was readily available in Congo.

c) Challenges in the language of communication

Many Congolese refugees who participated in the study expressed having had challenges in communication with Kenyans. The problem is compounded by the many languages spoken in Kenya and the fact that the Kiswahili dialect spoken in Congo is
different from that spoken in Kenya. The challenge was mainly raise by Congolese from rural settings. Of all the Congolese refugees who participated in the study only very few could speak English language. Another concern raised was that majority of the refugees speak French which is a medium of instruction in Congo. Language of communication particularly affects school going children since English and Kiswahili are not only taught in school curriculum but are also medium of instruction. On the other hand, the elderly household heads, informed the study that they have given up in learning any other language other than the French they knew before coming to Kenya. This was confirmed during the study interviews as they had to be conducted through an interpreter.

d) Lack of Social Networking

The challenges that were expressed by the household heads about social network were based on lack of free interactions with Kenyans due to the stigma bestowed on the refugee status. The household heads informed the study that they lacked social networks with Kenyans to enjoy full social life and especially festivities that are held in rural areas. One female youth of 34 years who participated in this study lamented as follows:

*I have been in Kenya for 9 years and I have never left Kitengela. How I long to go for parties especially during festive seasons and weekends far from Kitengela. Unfortunately I have not been invited a single party by Kenyans* (F.H.H, 12/10/ 2015)

Data analysis revealed that majority of those who cited lack of social network as a challenge the youth and those below 49 years, married and single.
4.4 Mechanisms That Congolese Refugees adopt For Their Day-To-Day Lives 2003-2015

Coping refers to a set of Behavioral strategies which are used by an individual usually to manage the demands of stressful situations (Folk man and Moskowitz, 2004). Refugees in most cases show enormous “courage and strength by coping with conditions of extreme deprivation and surviving against adversity” as a result of building resilience Tiong, (2006). In the context of war and trauma which are associated with refugee status, resilience is defined as personality traits that help in protecting against psychological disorders which often result from exposure to terrifying incidents, such as violence or deportation under life-threatening circumstances. It also encompasses bouncing back and positive adaptation in the face of safety-challenging experiences (Edward and Warelow, 2005; Hoge et al., 2007). For refugees, resilience can influence the capacity to overcome safety-threatening events and enable the individual to perform adequately (Charney, 2004). Resilience also explains how a survivor of violence can deal positively with past traumatic experiences (Lee et al., 2008).

As explained earlier in the theoretical framework, protective and supportive systems and especially the social relations enhance effective coping strategies for refugees in dealing with their challenges and construction of new meaningful life during in their new environment. Family and social networks were indicated as playing an important role in building greater resilience. For refugees in Kitengela, secure interpersonal relationships provided an important source of emotional and social support from the local community. Refugees’ internal resources were found to have been a major contribution to their resilience. This concurs with Toth, (2003) whose study with
refugee women suggests that personal qualities such as optimism, adaptability and perseverance helped them to cope and survive.

Respondents in this study indicated that a strong belief in individual’s inner strength to deal with life’s challenges also referred to as self-efficacy also helped them to cope with life challenges. Evidently, the Congolese refugees in Kitengela have engaged in small trade and casual jobs. It Women do domestic work of babysitting, washing and cleaning while a vast number of elderly run small groceries or sell foods in construction sites.

As demonstrated in table 4.2, Congolese refugees in Kitengela have adopted various strategies through which they navigate their day to day livelihoods.

### Table 4.7 Mechanisms for Refugees in Coping with Day-To-Day Life in Kitengela

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanisms</th>
<th>Frequency response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seeking for income generating activities</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement with religious organization</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement in musical activities</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal employment</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking for support from relative from Diaspora</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking for support from fellow refugees</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investing in formal education for children</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analyzed data revealed that the mechanisms commonly adopted included seeking for income generating activities, engagement with religious organizations, seeking for
support from relatives in Diaspora, seeking support from fellow refugees as well as investing in formal education for children

a) Seeking for income generating activities

Seeking for income generating activities was the most popular mechanism that the refugees from Congo resulted to in order to cope with day-to-day life in Kitengela. The study was informed that the most common activities included casual labor by male and females with females being frequently involved in domestic work for pay (washing clothes, cleaning houses and selling foodstuffs in construction sites). Male Congolese refugees usually engaged in herding, Berber shops, informal transport (Boarder boarder) and working in construction industry. Both male and female refugees were also engaged in hawking and operating small green grocers. Due to the poor pay and irregular income many refugees carry out several activities to try to make ends meet. This was affirmed by one female respondent during the interview as follows:

I’m a married mother with two children. I sell second hand clothes in the evenings at the bus stop and wash clothes for my neighbors in the mornings (F.H.H, 10/12/ 2015)

Confirming the same, a married male youth had this to say:

Am usually employed as casual laborer in a construction sites but on the days that am not at work, I sell brewed coffee at bus stops (M.H.H 22/10/ 2015).

b) Engagement with Religious Organization

Many Congolese refugees deliberately engaged in religious organization for survival support. The anticipated support was mainly for foodstuff and financial support in times
of need, mainly for food and also meeting the cost of their children’s formal education. A young married man had these to say;

*I play Keyboard in our church and I’m to meet my needs* (M.H.H17/11/2015).

c) **Engaging in musical activities**

Musical activity was a coping strategy was found to be common among the youth. The findings indicated that engaging in musical activities such as singing and playing musical instruments helped the refugees to forget about their challenges, which they face on a daily basis, and gives them something to do in their free time. Additionally, those engaged in musical activities often benefited from informal employment in the religious organizations they attend. In return, the organizations compensate them for playing and performing, for example, during church and community functions.

d) **Formal Employment**

A local chief who was a key informant to this study confirmed that refugees in Kitengela do not enjoy full rights to formal employment. This he said was because they were only given employment opportunities when they were more specialized in the task compared with the locals. In this respect, they had an advantage of being employed in private schools to teach French. Other skills that gave them an upper edge in securing formal employment included teaching music in private schools, technicians in different fields and especially woodwork and artisan. Further data analysis on the formal employment as a coping strategy revealed that the beneficiaries were the refugees with post-secondary and post-graduate level of education, below 50 years, regardless of whether they were men or women.
e) Seeking support from relatives in the Diaspora

Out of the 100 refugees household heads interviewed, 22 informed the study that they sought for financial support from relatives in Diaspora. These were found to have been married and with children and other relative in the Diaspora. The financial support was mainly for house rent food and school fees. However the financial support from relatives from Diaspora was rated as irregular and unpredictable.

f) Seeking for support from fellow refugees

The Congolese refugees in Kitengela were found to have formed community groups to support and encourage each other, especially in times of need. The groups served as avenues through which the members could seek for assistance from fellow refugees during the times of need. The form of support that they sought was mainly foodstuff and money to pay house rent. To make the coordination in the groups efficient they had group leaders who coordinated and facilitated group activities, including meetings. The groups also served as sources of spiritual nourishment as they held regular Sunday evening prayers and Christian fellowship commonly known by Congolese refugees as ‘Kitaramo’. To this effect one elderly Congolese refugee female stated the following:

_I am old and sickly. Being not in a position to earn any form of living and having no relatives around I depend on my fellow refugees in my group for daily survival. Every Sunday they ensure that I have enough food to last the week, while the church pays my house rent. I thank God for the support_ (F.H.H, 17/12/ 2015).

g) Investing in formal education for children

Some household heads informed the study that investing in formal education for their children helped them to cope with day-to-day challenges in that it gave them hope of a
better future. This they explained was in the sense that they believed that once the children complete formal education, they would be employed and pay back in the form of supporting their parents. This came out very well in the words of single mother who expressed the following in the interview:

There are times that I go to bed hungry. However I am convinced that as long as I have paid school fees for my children, they will support me when they finish schooling and get employed (F.H.H, 19/10/ 2015).
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the findings on the Congolese refugees in Kitengela, Kajiado County-Kenya: 1960-2015. Also presented in this chapter is the study conclusion and recommendations on how to improve on the coping mechanisms of refugees in Kitengela as well as suggestion for further studies.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

Congo experienced brutal colonial history during the leadership of Belgium King Leopold II, who ruthlessly exploited the country’s natural resources and is also associated with harsh autocratic rule and slave labor by Congolese. Conflict ensued immediately after Congo became independence which culminated into assassination of the 1st Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba. There were serious political conflicts which led into overthrow of government led by President Kasavubu by President Mobutu and later Mobutu was overthrown by President Laurent Kabira who was assassinated and Joseph Kabira took over the country’s leadership. Congo experienced 1st and 2nd wars that lead many of citizens to seek asylum from other countries. The conflict crises were both internally and externally instigated. The evolution of Congolese refugees was also fueled by instability in Rwanda, Burundi and Democratic Republic of Congo in 1990s. The inflow of refugees into Kitengela picked up from the year 2000. Congolese refugees in Kitengela came directly from their country of origin while others were from Nairobi as well as different refugee camps and neighboring countries.
The study confirmed that the Congolese refugees living in Kitengela experience a number of challenges among them lack of income, cultural practices, language of communication as well as feeling isolated due to lack of support social networks. They have however developed coping mechanisms in order to navigate through day to day life. They engage in income generating activities as well as support of relatives in Diaspora and well wishers to earn their living. In addition, refugees invest in formal education for their children so as to build a future self supporting generation of refugees.

5.3 Conclusion

The Congolese refugee phenomenon became a reality soon after gaining independence in 1960 and resulted from multiple tensions within the state as a result of ethnicity and struggle for power by local leaders. Tension from the neighboring countries especially Uganda and Rwanda fueled conflicts in Congo that also forced many citizens to free the country including the Rwandan genocide of 1994. Congolese refugees in Kitengela persevered several socio-economic challenges, as they navigated on their survival in Kitengela. However, they have adopted various ways of coping with day-to-day life, even though many have to contend with low income due to lack of gainful employment or income generating activities. There are also those who are extremely poor because they have no source of livelihood, and depend on their fellow refugees and socio-economic support from local institutions for survival and support.
5.4 Study Recommendations

This section presents recommendations based on the study findings. The section presents recommendation for policy/action as well as for further research.

5.4.1 Recommendations for Policy Action

In order to scale up the livelihood of the Congolese refugees, and to improve their lives in Kitengela, the study recommends the following:

a) The Kenyan government should fast track documentation of incoming refugees to avoid unnecessary harassment and uncertainty of their refugee status.

b) Local NGOs should engage in providing training and survival skills in small business entrepreneurship. In addition, they should offer basic Kiswahili and English language training to give the refugees to place the refugees in a vantage position to communicate effectively with the local community.

c) Local religious institutions should provide moral and spiritual support system for refugees living in the community.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Further Studies

Based on the scope and the findings of this study, future research can consider the following topics.

i) Study on the perception of the local Kenyans on the refugee community.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY ARCHEOLOGY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE

Dear Participants,

My name is Simon Njoroge Kamau.

I am a student at Kenyatta University, undertaking an MA Course in Peace and Conflict Resolution. As part of the course requirement, I am carrying out a research for my thesis, whose title is “Evolution And Coping Mechanisms of Congolese Refugees in Kitengela, Kajiado County- Kenya”.

Your participation in this study will be of great value in helping me to generate informed findings, conclusion and recommendations in the issues being investigated.

Kindly note that your response to the questions being raised and in line with your consent, will signify that you have an informed consent to participate and have granted me the permission to utilize the data in this academic undertaking.

If at any time you feel uncomfortable in answering a certain question, kindly inform me and I will move to the next one. All your responses and any other information provided in the course of your participation will be strictly kept confidential and will not be utilized for any other purpose, beyond this study.

In case you need further information in future regarding this work, please contact me on:

Telephone: 0722270891, Email: simon_n_kamau@yahoo.com

Thanks in advance,

Yours sincerely

Simon Kamau
APPENDIX II: KU ETHICAL CLEARANCE

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Email: chairman.kuvec@kunke.edu
Secretary. kuvec@kunke.edu
Website: www.ku.ac.ke

P. O. Box 43844 - 00100 Nairobi
Tel: 071093112
Fax: 0711764/0711575

Our Ref: KU/R/COMM/51/552

Date: 28th September, 2015

Simon Kamau,
Kenyatta University,
P.O Box 43844, Nairobi.

Dear Kamau,

RE APPLICATION NUMBER P/KU/379/1351 – “COPING MECHANISMS BY CONGOLOSE REFUGEES IN KENYA: A CASE OF REFUGEES FROM DRC LIVING IN KITENGELA, KAJIADO COUNTY, KENYA” – VERSION 2

1. IDENTIFICATION OF PROTOCOL
The application before the committee is with a research topic “Coping mechanisms by Congolese refugees in Kenya: a case of refugees from DRC living in Kitengela, Kajiado County, Kenya” – Version 2 dated 24th September, 2018.

2. APPLICANT
Simon Kamau

3. STUDY SITE
Kitengela, Kajiado County, Kenya.

4. DECISION
The committee has considered the research protocol in accordance with the Kenyatta University Research Policy (section 7.2.1.3) and the Kenyatta University Ethics Review Committee Guidelines AND APPROVED that the research may proceed for a period of ONE year from 25th September, 2015.

5. ADVICE/CONDITIONS
i. Progress reports are submitted to the KU-ERC every six months and a full report is submitted at the end of the study.
ii. Serious and unexpected adverse events related to the conduct of the study are reported to this board immediately they occur.
iii. Notify the Kenyatta University Ethics Committee of any amendments to the protocol.
iv. Submit an electronic copy of the protocol to KUERC.

If you accept the decision reached and advice and conditions given please sign in the space provided below and return to KU-ERC a copy of the letter.

PROF. NICHOLAS K. GIKONYO
CHAIRMAN ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Signature: ____________________________
Dated this day of __________, 2015.

cc. Vice-Chancellor
APPENDIX III: INFORMED CONSENT

My name is Simon Kamau. I am an MA student from Kenyatta University. I am conducting a study on “Congolese Refugees in Kitengela, Kajiado County-Kenya”. The information you provide will be used only for academic, specifically to inform the study findings, conclusions and recommendations for my MA thesis.

Procedures To Be Followed

Participation in this study will require that I ask you some questions in regard to your origin, how you cope with day to day life in Kitengela and challenges that you encounter. The information you give will recorded in a note as we proceed in discussions.

You have the right to refuse participation in this study. You will not be victimized in any way and there will be no grudge held against you for not participating.

Please remember that participation in the study is voluntary. You may ask questions related to the study at any time during the discussions.

You may refuse to respond to any questions and you may stop the interview at any time. You may also withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences whatsoever now or during your stay in Kitengela in future.

Discomfort and Risk

Some of the questions you will be asked will touch on your personal life and may be embarrassing or make you uncomfortable. If this happens, you may refuse to answer
these questions if you so choose. You may also stop the interview at any time. The interview may take half an hour of your time.

**Benefits**

If you participate in this study, you will help us to learn on how you cope with life in the new status and environment as a refugee in Kitengela. As such, the study will not only help the organizations that deal with refugee programs to reflect on the support they offer but also inform on the realistic strategies to make your life better.

**Confidentiality**

The interviews will be conducted in a private setting within your home. Your name will not be recorded on the interview schedule or anywhere in the note books. In addition, the information you give will not be shared with any other person, nor will it be used for any other purposes beyond this study. The recorded information will be kept safely in Kenya University. Everything will be kept private.

**Contact Information**

If you have any questions regarding this work, you may contact my supervisors in Kenyatta University: Professor ElishibaKimanai on 0723702041, Dr. Susan Mwangi on 0721598001 or Dr. Edwin Gimode on 0724264311 or the Kenyatta University Ethical Review Committee Secretariat on chairman.kuerc@ku.ac.ke, secretary.kuerc@ku.ac.ke, ercku2008@gmail.com.
Participant’s Statement

The above information regarding my participation in the study is clear to me. I have been given a chance to ask questions and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. My participation in this study is entirely voluntary. I understand that my records will be kept private and that I can leave the study at any time. I understand that I will still not be victimized for participating or failing to participate and that I will continue to be part of the community.

Name of participant (code)…………………………………………………..

………………………………………..                       ……………………………

Signature or Thumbprint                                                  Date

Investigator’s Statement

I, the undersigned, have explained to the volunteer in a language s/he understands the procedures to be followed in the study and the risks and benefits involved.

Name of interviewer………………………………………………..

……………………………………………        ……………………..

Interviewer signature                                                  Date
APPENDIX IV: NACOSTI LICENSE

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT,

MR. SIMON NJOROGE KAMAU

of KENYATTA UNIVERSITY, 286-242

Kikuyu, has been permitted to

conduct research in Kajiado County

for the period ending:

31st December, 2017

Permit No.: NACOSTIP/16/99974/14556

Date of Issue: 4th December, 2016

Fee Received: Isk 1000

 applicant's signature

Director General
National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

This document is a scanned PDF. It contains a certificate of license issued by the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) in Kenya. The certificate is for research conducted by Mr. Simon Njoroge Kamau at Kenyatta University, Kikuyu, in Kajiado County for the period ending 31st December, 2017. The permit number is NACOSTIP/16/99974/14556, and the fee received is Isk 1000.
This questionnaire aims at gathering your views on the coping mechanisms of Congolese refugees living in Kitengela area.

**Social -Economic Profile**

**Gender:**
- Male  
- Female

**Age Bracket**
- 18 – 25 years
- 26 – 35 years
- 36 – 45 years
- Above 45 years

**Marital status**
- Married
- Single
- Divorced
- Widowed
What is the Level of your Education?

- No formal education
- Primary
- Secondary
- Post - secondary
- Post Graduate
- Congolese occupation
- Formal employment
- Self employed
- Casual

(a) How Long Have You Lived in Kitengela?

- Less than 1 years
- 1 – 3 years
- 4 – 5 years
- Over 5 years
b) Number of dependants children under 5 years.

Primary school □

Adults □

Elderly □

CONFLICTS AND EMERGENCE OF REFUGEE PHENOMENON IN CONGO 1960-1990

a) As far as you remember please tell us about the conflicts in Congo that led to the emergence of refugees.

b) What conflicts led you and your family to flee from Congo?

c) Kindly describe your journey and experiences from Congo to Kitengela.

MEANS OF LIVELIHOOD IN KITENGEA

8 a) Do you get adequate food supply in your household?

Yes □ NO □

b) In a scale of 1-5, tick the one of the following that express to what extent is the food supply in your household adequate.

Very High □

High □

Fair □

Low □
9. What is your current source of livelihood?

a) Formal employment  

Self employment  

Business  

Donations  

If business, what kind of business are you engaged in?

…………………………………………………………………………………

10. What is the family income per month in Kenya Shillings?

a) Less than 1500  

b) 1501-5000  

c) 5001-10,000  

d) 10,001-20,000  

e) Over 20,000

Coping Strategies

11. How do you rate your neighbour in terms of friendliness to refugees?

a) Very friendly  

b) Friendly  


c) Hostile  

12) Do you attend any religious institution like church or Mosque?

a) Yes  

b) No  

c) If yes, what is the name of the church/Mosque that you attend?


13) Have you ever interacted with any government office in Kitengela?

a) Yes  

b) No  

c) If yes, which office have you interacted with? ..............................................

d) What was the purpose for your visit? .........................................................

14) Would you say you have enough resources for your basic needs survival?

a) Enough food  Yes  No  

b) Decent shelter  Yes  No  

c) Regular and adequate income  Yes  No
Where not enough, how do you adjust for survival?

16) COMMUNICATION CHALLENGES

a) Are you able to speak Kiswahili fluently? Yes □ No □

b) Are you able to read and write in English? Yes □ No □

c) In which areas do you find language barrier a major problem? (Tick appropriately)

- Communication with Kenyan’s □
- In schools and colleges □
- In religious gathering □

17) Is the Kenyan food a challenge to your family?

Yes □ No □

b) If yes, explain why?

18) a. Do you find any aspect of Kenyan cultural practice a challenge in any way?

Yes □ No □

b) If yes, which cultural practices are a challenge and how

19) a) Are your family members able to interact with Kenyans freely?

Yes □ No □
b) If no, what are the specific challenges?

........................................................................................................................................

20) What is your main concern in regard to stay in Kitengela?

i) ........................................................................................................................................

ii) ........................................................................................................................................

iii) ........................................................................................................................................

iv) ........................................................................................................................................

STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING REFUGEES WELBEING IN KITENGE LA

21) What strategies would you like to see put in place to make the stay of Congolese refugees more comfortable in Kitengela?

i) ........................................................................................................................................

ii) ........................................................................................................................................

iii) ........................................................................................................................................

iv) ........................................................................................................................................
22) Do you have any specific recommendation for a:

a) Kenyan government ........................................................................................................

b) UNHCR ..........................................................................................................................

c) Local churches .................................................................................................................

d) Local NGO’s ....................................................................................................................

23) Do you have any other information that you would like to tell me about your stay in Kitengela?

..............................................................................................................................................

Thanks for your time.
APPENDIX VI: KEY INFORMANT QUESTIONNAIRE

1) Male □ Female □

2. a) Do you interact with refugees in Kitengela? Yes □ No □

   b) If yes in what agenda? Official □ Unofficial □

3) a) Are refugees in Kitengela allowed to engage in employment?

   Yes □ No □

   b) If no, why .................................................................

4) Are they allowed to engage in business?

   Yes □ No □

5) Are they allowed to participate in local learning institutions?

   Yes □ No □

6) Are the refugees given opportunity to mix freely with Kenyans?

   Yes □ No □

7) a) Are they accepted by the local community?

   Yes □ No □
b) If no, why are they not accepted?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

8) a) What is the common form of livelihood for refugees in Kitengela

i)……………………………………………………………………………………

ii)……………………………………………………………………………………

iii)……………………………………………………………………………………

b) How would you rate their welfare?

Very Comfortable ☐ Comfortable ☐ Poor ☐

9) What is the UNHCR doing to uplift the lives of refugees in Kitengela?

a) Social ……………………………………………………………………………

b) Economic ……………………………………………………………………….

c) Security ………………………………………………………………………

10) What is the government doing to uplift the lives of refugees in Kitengela?

a) Social ……………………………………………………………………………

b) Economic ……………………………………………………………………….

c) Security ………………………………………………………………………
11) What strategies would you like to see put in place to make the stay of Congolese refugees more comfortable in Kitengela?

i) .........................................................................................................................

ii) ..........................................................................................................................

iii) ..........................................................................................................................

iv) .............................................................................................................................

This section focuses on what can be done to improve your stay in Kitengela

12) Do you have any specific recommendation for:

a) Kenyan government .........................................................................................

b) UNHCR .............................................................................................................

c) Local churches ..................................................................................................

d) Local NGO’s .......................................................................................................
### APPENDIX VII: WORK PLAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Duration</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JAN 2015 – JUNE 2015</td>
<td>Proposal writing AND defense</td>
<td>Six months</td>
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<tr>
<td>JULY - AUGUST 2015</td>
<td>Development and Revision of Instruments</td>
<td>Two month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEPTEMBER - OCTOBER 2015</td>
<td>Piloting questionnaires data collection / Report writing and</td>
<td>Two months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCTOBER - DECEMBER 2015</td>
<td>Thesis Development</td>
<td>Three months</td>
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<tr>
<td>JANUARY - MAY 2016</td>
<td>Finalization and Examination</td>
<td>Five months</td>
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### APPENDIX VIII: BUDGET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>PRICE PER UNIT</th>
<th>TOTAL (Ksh)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Stationery</td>
<td>10,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Photocopying</td>
<td>2 Ksh per copy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Typing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Printing expenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>Researcher’s per diem</td>
<td>500 Ksh x 6 days</td>
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<td>Transport and meals</td>
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<td>10,600</td>
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<td>Miscellaneous</td>
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<td>5,500</td>
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<td>Gratitude to the participants</td>
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<td>Binding</td>
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<tr>
<td>Overhead expenses</td>
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<td>TOTAL</td>
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<td>140,000</td>
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