THE EFFECTS OF CONFLICT RELATED SEXUAL VIOLENCE ON MALES: A CASE OF THE ARMED CONFLICT BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH SUDAN

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THIS DISSERTATION IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

LEGON MARCH 2016
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of an original research conducted by me under the supervision of Dr. Linda Darkwa. This work has never been submitted anywhere for any other purpose. Also, references to the works of other persons or bodies have been fully acknowledged.

.......................................................... ..................................................
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(STUDENT) (SUPERVISOR)

DATE......................................... DATE.................................
DEDICATION

To Lt. Col Noah Ofosu-Anim my father and the rest of my family.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am most grateful to God for His guidance and protection, also His mercies bestowed upon me throughout my studies.

My sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Linda Darkwa for her guidance, patience and meticulous supervision, which enabled me complete my work. My gratitude also goes to Dr Phillip Attuquayefio for being a source of great encouragement in the face of grave challenges.

I am also grateful to my husband, Kwame Amponsah Mpare, my mother, Mrs Comfort Ofosu-Anim as well as my siblings for their immense support during the period of my study.

I also thank the entire staff of LECEIAD and my course mates, Lawrencia Ashie, Kingsley Ofoe Doe and Pearl Boakye for their help and support throughout my studies.

God bless you all.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPA</td>
<td>Comprehensive Peace Agreement</td>
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<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organization</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>ICC</td>
<td>International Criminal Court</td>
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<td>ICTR</td>
<td>International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda</td>
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<td>ICTY</td>
<td>International Criminal Tribunal for Yugoslavia</td>
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<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Person</td>
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<td>IGAD</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Authority on Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>JEM</td>
<td>Justice Equality Movement</td>
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<tr>
<td>KAIPTC</td>
<td>Kofi Annan International Peace Keeping Training Centre</td>
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<td>LRA</td>
<td>Lord’s Resistance Army</td>
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<td>MSF</td>
<td>Medecins Sans Frontier</td>
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<td>NIF</td>
<td>Northern Islamic Front</td>
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<tr>
<td>OCHA</td>
<td>Office for the Coordination of Human Affairs</td>
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<td>OHCHR</td>
<td>Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>RUF</td>
<td>Revolutionary United Front</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCSL</td>
<td>Special Court for Sierra Leone</td>
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<tr>
<td>SLM/A</td>
<td>Sudan Liberation Movement/Army</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPLM/A</td>
<td>Sudan People’s Liberation Movement/Army</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commission for Refugees</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
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UNMISS - United Nations Mission in South Sudan
WHO - World Health Organization
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ABSTRACT

This study concerns sexual violence in armed conflicts against Sudanese males because reports have been characterized by a lower number of male victims reporting violations in contrast to females. In accordance with the study's basic outlined objectives, the study sought to determine why the plight of male victims of sexual violence has not been highlighted as well as to examine the possible implications of conflict related sexual violence on Sudanese males. The outcome of the study reveals that conflict related sexual violence is perpetrated against males similar to that of females in Sudan. It also reveals that even though sexual violence received some attention during the early stages of the conflict, it was underreported in Sudan. However, male sexual violence related to the conflict was woefully underreported thus interventions directed towards them was very limited. The study recommends among others that a commission of inquiry should be formed to serve as an honourable platform through which male victims of sexual violence in Sudan can speak freely about their ordeals in order to heal their wounds and also enable them to get help.
CHAPTER ONE
RESEARCH DESIGN

1.1 Background to the Research

Throughout history, sexual violence has been recognized as an integral aspect of militarization and war. Rape and other forms of sexual violence\(^1\) have been used as instruments of violence and terror.\(^2\) Sexual violence may be deployed in armed conflicts for various reasons. In some instances it may be perpetrated merely as part of the criminal enterprise that occur in situations of lawlessness. However, in most cases sexual violence is gendered and employed as part of the power dynamics that define armed conflicts. Following from this, sexual violence may be perpetrated against different groups for different reasons.\(^3\)

Sexual violence may be employed as a tool for humiliation as part of a grand scheme for ethnic cleansing. The perpetration of sexual violence against women may be a tool to humiliate male members of the side which the women belong to show their weakness and inability to defend their women. Used against males, sexual violence may be used as a tool to depict males as females thereby deflating their egos and pride and humiliating them by presenting them as females.\(^4\) Forced impregnation especially among patrilineal societies is employed as a weapon of increasing the population of the perpetrators and thinning out or diluting the population of victims and may be used as a strategy of cultural control.\(^5\) Even though available evidence shows that women and girls are disproportionally affected by sexual violence in armed conflict situations, it is important to note that men and boys have also been victims. Sexual violence is gendered and men and boys may have different experiences from women and may be impacted differently.\(^6\) This notwithstanding, males are as much victims of sexual violence as women. Although sexual violence has long been
recognized as a strategy of armed conflicts, it was almost accepted as an inevitable consequence of armed violence and was in some instances almost defended. It was not until about the 20th century that the international community decided to pay particular attention to the phenomenon. Interestingly, the efforts at addressing the phenomenon of sexual violence tended to focus on women. Out of the seven Security Council Resolutions on protection against sexual violence in armed conflicts, six are focused on the protection of women and girls. Only one pays attention to the protection of men and boys. Following from this, most of the mechanisms put in place to prevent and address sexual violence has been designed for women and girls although sexual violence against males in armed conflict has begun to receive some attention. This pales in comparison to the focus on females.

In Sudan, a civil war between the North and South began in 1955. However, there was resurgence of the armed conflict in 1983 that lasted until 2005. The armed conflict between the North and South of Sudan which has often been attributed to religious differences, was characterized by a lot of atrocities resulting in over two million casualties. Although the various forms of atrocities perpetrated during the armed conflict are fairly well documented, there is very little information on the aspects of sexual violence against males. The question that comes to the fore therefore is whether sexual violence against males was not a feature of the conflict. The answer to this question is not hard to find as Hagan et al write that numerous Darfuri men suffered anal rape during the armed conflict where sexual violence was perpetrated against males in 2003. Based on this inference, there is no doubt that interrogating the rationale for the lack of information on sexual violence perpetrated against males in the conflict between the North and the South is a worthwhile endeavour.
1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

Sexual violence in armed conflicts takes many forms and affects different groups differently. It is perpetrated by both non-state actors and state actors and is employed for a myriad of reasons including ethnic cleansing and in some cases as part of a strategy for genocide. As mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, both males and females may be victims of sexual violence in armed conflict situations. This notwithstanding, the popular narratives have framed women as victims and men as perpetrators. While it is indeed true that in most instances males are the perpetrators of sexual violence in armed conflicts and women are the victims, this is not always true. Sexual violence in armed conflict is gendered. This means that it is a tool used to subjugate victims on the basis of a sociological construct. Thus given that in most societies the sexual act of penetration is undertaken by a male, then it means that whenever there is that sexual act, the one doing the penetration is the male and the recipient is the female. Again given that the sexual act is expected to occur within a certain context, generally within a defined relationship (between married partners, married couples) and under some general conditions of agreement, then it means that when carried out outside the context, it is an affront to the dignity of the victim. Against the two broad backdrops provided, sexual violence in armed conflicts against women (deemed generally to be the recipients of the penetrative act) outside of their society’s norms becomes a tool of oppression and subjugation. On the other hand, the act of penetrating a male from the victim group by a male from the opposing force then becomes an act of feminization of questioning the manness of the other and humiliating him before other men and his society.9

Although there is evidence suggesting that sexual violence was perpetrated against males in the armed conflict between the North and South Sudan, there is very little empirical evidence to back the assertion. The absence of data on sexual violence against males in the conflict
between North and South Sudan is due to the fact that first the issue of sexual violence in armed conflict was not as prominent in the early years when the armed conflict began in Sudan. Secondly, the identification of men as perpetrators and females as victims by the international community makes it difficult for men (expected to be strong and the perpetrators) to self-report. Following from this, there is very scant information on the issue.

1.3 **Research Questions**

- Why has the plight of men in armed conflicts not been highlighted?
- How have interventions been skewed towards females when dealing with sexual violence during armed conflicts?
- What are the possible implications of conflict related sexual violence on Sudanese males?

1.4 **Objectives of the Research**

The plight of males has not been highlighted in conflict times and even when highlighted, a lot of focus has been on combatants and ex-combatants with little or no attention on non-combatant male victims. In view of this, the objectives of the research are:

- To examine why the plight of men in armed conflicts has not been highlighted.
- To assess how the interventions were skewed towards females with regards to dealing with sexual violence during armed conflicts.
- To examine the possible implications of conflict related sexual violence on Sudanese males.
1.5 Rationale of the Study

Reports of sexual violence in armed conflicts in Sudan have been characterized by a lower number of male victims reporting violations as compared to females. A study into conflict related sexual violence using Sudan as a case study therefore calls for research attention. This is in order to determine why males have not sought help and whether there are any existing mechanisms to ensure that male victims become more open about their experiences. The study seeks to provide a basis for further research into the phenomenon.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study focuses on the armed conflict between North and South Sudan which eventually led to the secession of South Sudan.

1.7 Hypothesis

The armed conflict had negative effects on the sexual health of Sudanese males.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

So much attention has been given to sexual abuse and violence against women than men who have been relegated to the background. It is undeniable that men also suffer these atrocities which is very damaging to them physically, emotionally and mentally in the sense that they are seen as weak and less of a man after going through such ordeals. Therefore the question that comes to mind is, “what does it take to be considered a man?” The theory that underpins
this study are Theories of masculinity which include concepts of masculinity, hegemonic masculinity among others.

Hegemonic masculinity is described as “the configuration of gender practice which embodies the currently accepted answer to the problem of legitimacy of patriarchy which guarantees the dominant position of men and the subordination of women.”¹⁰ In Connell’s view, this definition does not imply that hegemonic males are the most powerful people, but may serve as exemplars such as film actors and film characters.¹¹ In other words, to be seen as powerful, one does not have to conform to hegemonic standards but may be seen to play an exemplary role in the society. It can be identified more by its assertion of authority than its perpetration of violent acts.¹² Connell identifies the overall subordination of women and the dominance of men which is known as patriarchy as the main prerequisite to power and the element that places men at an advantaged position over women.¹³ He observes that when the conditions that sustain patriarchy change, the justification for the dominance of a patriarchal masculinity are undermined. This extends to some heterosexual men who are not seen to qualify as men according to the standards of hegemonic masculinity.¹⁴ Therefore men who do not act as real men should, do not deserve to be acknowledged as such. Instead, they are characterized as feminine and therefore treated as such.

According to Connell, masculinity is “simultaneously a place in gender relations, the practices through which men and women engage that place in gender, and the effects of these practices in bodily experience, personality and culture”¹⁵ Therefore, masculinity, places emphasis on the process and relationships through which men and women conduct gendered lives. Because gender, race and class, have increasingly been recognized as interlinked, it has
become common to acknowledge the different kinds of masculinities as well as the relations that exist between them.\textsuperscript{16}

Masculinity has also been attributed to negative behaviour such as violence and crime in the society. According to Collier, in the “masculinity turn” in criminology, hegemonic masculinity has to do with negative characteristics where men are portrayed as not being emotional, aggressive, detached and dispassionate.\textsuperscript{17} This again illustrates why some men would want to be associated with acts that categorize them as men and avoid those that do not fall in line with masculine traits.

In trying to maintain their dominance, many members of hegemonic groups use violence in two ways. By way of intimidating women, domestically assaulting and ultimately raping them as perpetrators of such crimes often do not regard themselves as deviants but rather feel their acts are justified simply because they feel they are exercising a right and are authorized by an ideology of supremacy.\textsuperscript{18} This may be adequately used to explain the behavior of rapists during armed conflicts. The use of violence in gender politics among men may also be used as a way of drawing boundaries to determine who should be included or excluded. This way, violence is used as a front to asserting masculinity.\textsuperscript{19} Mostly survivors of rape and other forms of sexual violence are feminized by the use of derogatory labels ascribed to men who have not more or less lived up to the expectations of hegemonic males. This is because men are expected to be the perpetrators of most crimes including sexual violence and not the ones victimized. In that regard, male victims after being violated or abused may carry out risk taking behaviour or some form of physical violence in order to demonstrate that they are in control of their lives by not reporting the crime to fix their ‘broken masculinity.’\textsuperscript{20}
The theories of Masculinity have proved to be very useful in understanding male behaviour in society. For instance knowledge about Masculinity applies to a wide range of issues; the prevention of masculine violence ranging from domestic and sexual assault to institutional violence and war.\textsuperscript{21} Also an understanding of the constructions of Masculinity has been useful when looking at effective counselling and psychotherapy of men in ways that pays attention to gender relations and gender specificity. Therefore men can be recognized as being different and not stereotyped into one particular category and this has made relating to them more effective.\textsuperscript{22}

Conversely masculinity has faced some criticisms which have been considered as weaknesses of the theory. First of all different forms of masculinity have been documented by researchers but attempts to show how these masculinities are distributed across populations has proved futile. In view of this, the theory is only seen as focused on types and not how the specific situations can be addressed.\textsuperscript{23} Masculinity also tends to stress too much on issues pertaining to power and domination among men. Resultantly, categories of men and masculinity are taken for granted or ignored and not properly examined and this ultimately creates uncertainty in what the theory actually stands for.\textsuperscript{24}

This theory best suits the topic because of how masculine stereotypes have affected victims of wartime violence in such a way that, although sexual violence prevailed amongst males during the civil war in Sudan, there has not been much information given mainly because of their inability to come out and report it. Consequently, there has not been much work done on males who suffered one way or the other during the civil strife.
1.9 Literature Review

The review of literature is based on works which seek to elucidate the fact that not much attention has been given to men and boys as victims during times of conflicts. For a long time, women and children have been the prime focus in conflict situations in terms of violence, sexual abuse and sometimes abduction. Because of their perceived vulnerability, many works have been directed towards throwing more light on issues concerning them as a means of ensuring their protection in times of war and instability. On the other hand, research carried out by several authors have established that more work is required to highlight the experiences of male victims of sexual violence.

Valorie K. Vodjik in her article, ‘Sexual Violence Against Men and Women in War’, attempts to explain sexual violence against men and women in war using a masculinities approach. By focusing on men and masculinities, the article seeks to help us understand three key points; First of all, violence against men is a recurring event which has taken place over time, place and culture. However, it has been labelled as torture or mutilation. Secondly it draws attention to the fact that sexual violence among men and women are not separate but rather alike since both instances deal with the construction of power on different levels. Finally, male sexual violence is not only a product of war but rather “forms part of larger social and gender system that constructs masculine bodies as masculine, heterosexual and dominant.”

The author uses documented reports to explain the nature and extent to which wartime male violence is carried out in several countries and also how these acts against males, as compared to females, have been subdued or made invisible when considering acts of criminal jurisprudence by the international community. She asserts that although some awareness has been raised by legal scholars and some feminists when it comes to the issue of male sexual violence during wartime, the phenomenon still requires adequate theorization.
just as wartime rape of women has been recognized as a crime against humanity and an instrument of genocide. Her work is successful in exploring the ways in which gendered patterns tend to explain sexual violence and abuse against both genders. That is, how perpetrators of these acts are exemplified as warriors and masculinized while the victims assume a feminine character which may have influenced a high number of under-reporting amongst men thereby hindering the ability to do more work on the subject. Vojdik uses the masculinity theory to analyse why male victims of sexual violence have generally not been open even though she seems to be overly focused on the gender dynamics, by specifically giving insights into the theory to explain wartime sexual violence against men and women. She however does not go into detail when it comes to how males may be affected as victims of sexual violence. This research seeks to fill that gap by looking at the possible implications of sexual violence on male victims.

Similarly, ‘Social Constructions of Masculinity and Male Survivors of Wartime Sexual Violence: An analytical Review’ by Monica Onyango and Karen Hampanda employs social constructions of masculinity in examining war time sexual violence against men and as a contributing factor to its underreporting by survivors. They examine documents and medical reports by Non-governmental organizations which focus on conflict related rape in all parts of the world specifically Africa. In their view, the current human rights discourse that is being used to examine wartime sexual violence is problematic because it portrays men as the perpetrators and women as the victims of these acts. They contend that in relation to gender based violence, there is an absence of organizations effectively tackling the problems of male sexual survivors as compared to females who receive a lot of support during the response to humanitarian crises. Also, men may suffer even worse mental health outcomes than women, and may also undergo the psychological effects, sex related problems like premature
ejaculation as well as the confusion over their sexualities to whether they are homosexuals.29 All these factors according to the authors, discourage male survivors from seeking help. The author skilfully covers the causes of sexual violence against men and its effects on men as well using constructions of masculinity to explain the reasons why they fail to report. They even go on to proffer solutions with regards to ending the silence on what they go through. However, there is not enough information on ways in which organizations have contributed to the silence of male victims even though they mention that they have not effectively dealt with male victims of sexual violence as compared to females. This enables the research to deal with insufficiency of interventions for male survivors of sexual violence which has contributed to less information being provided.

Much of the work done on rape by feminist scholars, including wartime rape, is seen as presenting the issue specifically as one which focuses on male-female gendered power relations. Miranda Alison in her work ‘Wartime Sexual Violence: Women’s Human Rights and Questions of Masculinity’ examines wartime sexual violence through a masculinized lens by arguing that although women and girls are mostly viewed as the victims during wartime sexual violence, men and boys must also be taken into consideration instead of being held culpable of such acts. This is because in order to pre-empt such violations, a clearer understanding of the causes is essential rather than relying on amendments to international law.30 However, unlike Valerie Vodkij who chooses to focus mainly on the masculinities approach, she also pays attention to how constructions of ethnicity feature during wartime violence. Theories about wartime sexual violence that are based solely on rape as a product of misogyny and universal patriarchal gender relations are inadequate to explain the fact that in most wars, and particularly in ethno-national conflicts, sexual violence is deliberately targeted at women and girls of ‘other’ ethnic groups and in particular ways, not at all women
and girls indiscriminately.31 Alison argues that such theories do not adequately explain the prevalence of rape amongst boys and men. As such, she advises that these theories need to be addressed. She is interested in theorizing multiple masculinities in relation to sexual violence against males during war time but does not point out how these constructions affect men and resultantly does not encourage them to openly report their experience. This paves way for more work to be done concerning how males have been neglected when it comes to conflict related sexual violence.

Sivakumaran Sandesh in his article, ‘Sexual Violence Against Men in Armed Conflict’ examines the incidence of male violence in armed conflicts by focusing largely on medical and criminology studies of men who have undergone sexual violence in times of peace. He also examines those of women victimized in times of peace and conflict as these are likely to be re-enacted during conflict times. According to him, the unavailability of materials when it comes to acts of violence against men stems from several factors such as shame, guilt, confusion, fear and stigma as a result of masculine stereotypes, which men tend to identify more strongly with in times of conflict.32 Perhaps due to the militarized character ascribed to them and also being regarded as protectors of women during war times, coming out to report their experiences may be seen as a vulnerability and weakness. The author asserts that even if men being sexually abused was considered as part of the numerous abuses men suffered it was likely to be viewed as torture or beatings rather than sexual abuse.33 This is possibly another way in which the masculinity factor comes into play as rape and sexual abuse is feminized and as a result men are not expected to fall prey to them. Although he agrees that it is unlikely the number of male victims of sexual violence during armed conflicts will exceed the number of female victims abused, the issue must still be given considerable attention. This is because there is a nexus between male and female sexual abuse, as such attention
given to male survivors may eventually help unravel some of the causes and effects of violence perpetrated against women. This article is relevant to the study because it affirms the fact that male victims of sexual violence are largely ignored and this has contributed to the lack of information available for research to be done in this area.

Some of the causes of violence against men during conflicts occurs for reasons of personal gratification, as a by-product of supposedly necessary military training and within the same context or as a reward offered to soldiers to reinforce participation in the first place. Dustin Lewis in his work ‘Unrecognized Victims: Sexual Violence Against Men in Conflict Settings’ highlights some isolated factors which serve as explanations to the causes of sexual violence during armed conflicts. However he is quick to point out that these acts may be aimed more at domination or exertion of power over the male victims than as a means of personal gratification due to the gendered nature of war. Various forms of conflict, some of which leave damaging physical and psychological scars that can last a lifetime have been documented. According to Lewis, some of these long term consequences include sexual dysfunction, physical impotence, transmission of sexually transmitted diseases and trauma such as anxiety depression and vulnerability. Lewis takes a different dimension from the other authors discussed above by looking at developments in international law with reference to sexual violence in armed conflicts and according to his findings victims in certain countries are likely to enjoy greater legal protection as a result of criminalization of such acts. His work is deficient in examining why male victims of sexual violence often go unrecognized for so long as his title suggests. To a larger extent he seems to be more concerned with the causes and consequences of sexual violence among male victims and even goes on to suggest some mechanisms that should be in place to enable the interpretation and application of international law to reduce and prevent sexual violence against men in
conflict settings. He also fails to give adequate explanations as to why male victims of sexual violence often do not report. The research seeks to contribute to fill that gap by providing more detailed information on how the framing of the experience of males during armed conflicts has contributed to the lack of information in the chosen area of study.

In his book “War and Slavery in Sudan’, Jok Maduk Jok links contemporary slavery in Sudan to past conflict experiences in order to provide us with a clearer picture of how war has affected the Sudanese population. According to him, previous explanations have not helped to adequately deal with the incident of slavery even though sexual exploitation could be considered as another form of slavery that may have gone unexposed under the pretext of ordinary domestic service. He engages in a discussion as to what definitions and conditions constitute slavery and describes it as a debate (whether a blessing or a curse) that has influenced the perception of many writers with reference to slavery in Sudan. Jok asserts that it has also “concealed the desolate conditions in bondage and, as a result, reducing it to merely another form of servitude resulting from the war-provoked economic difficulties of the whole nation”\textsuperscript{39}. As a result, he declares his intentions to “document, describe and expose flagrant abuses of human rights in Sudan since 1983”.\textsuperscript{40} This he attempts to do in Chapter 1 of his book, with a documentation of interviews with former victims of slavery. As the title “The Revival of Slavery during the Civil War : Facts and Testimonies” suggests, Jok is able to provide a vivid account of the experience of slaves by means of the cruel treatment given them by their masters, as well as describing how raids are carried out in order to capture their victims. Sexual violence, he observes is not limited to only Sudanese women but to men and boys who are conscripted and sometimes raped by their masters as well.\textsuperscript{41} According to Jok:

“Upon returning home, one escaped slave boy from Gok Machar was said to have told his mother that the forced sexual contact between him and his captor had happened so often that he had sometimes wondered whether this was a natural occurrence for all men”\textsuperscript{42}
However, the zeal with which Jok begins his book when he talks about exposing the acts of human rights abuse gradually dwindles in his subsequent chapters (2-6) which are instead seen as echoes of what he has previously said. In fact his own voice seems to overshadow that of victims and this gives the book a subjective tone because he does not rely on the data acquired through these interviews to give a true account of the ordeals of victims. In all, the author is seen to have set unattainable goals for himself, because he does not fully achieve the goal he set for himself, that is, to engage readers into understanding the crisis in Sudan by way of revealing what victims went through and how their painful experiences often went unnoticed. Perhaps this would have given a better insight into what victims truly encountered as far as activities that infringed upon their rights were concerned. This book is relevant to the study because through slavery, it uncovers sexual abuses carried out against Sudanese males. The work is based on a qualitative approach using descriptive means from primary sources of data which includes key informant interviews with over two hundred South Sudanese men, women and children who had first-hand information on how slave raids were carried out as well as secondary sources in the form of reports and scholarly articles.

1.10 Research Methodology and Sources of Data

The research objective is to provide an understanding into the issues of male sexual violence related to the conflict in Sudan. Therefore, the research adopts a qualitative approach to the data collection and analysis. A qualitative design describes and analyses functions in everyday settings ranging from informal conversations to more formal situations. The expectation therefore is that this design should allow all parties the freedom to describe or share their opinion on the study subject without limiting the space.
The research mostly relied on data gathered from secondary sources through the offices of the United Nations High Commission for Refugees and the United Nations Mission in South Sudan because these institutions are well versed with issues presented in the study. Also information was obtained from a number of professionals; a psychologist who served in Darfur, a military officer of the Ghana Armed Forces, who also served in Darfur as well as a course director for Sexual Abuse and Conflict Related Sexual Violence at the Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping and Training Centre because of his extensive knowledge in the area of conflict related sexual violence in conflict areas such as Sierra Leone and Liberia. Additional information was further gathered from books and journal articles as well as well-established internet sources. Data gathered in this research was meant to gain deeper understanding into the issues of male sexual violence related to the North and South Sudan, so as to proffer the needed assistance and interventions for them. As such, an exploratory procedure was employed in presenting secondary information. An exploratory research design is used when addressing a subject around which there is a high level of uncertainty because very little data can be found. This method was used because of its flexibility in helping to identify the hindrances to addressing the problems of male victims in conflict related sexual violence as well as pointing out salient factors which was relevant to the study. Sudan was chosen as the case study because as a society characterized by male domination and cultural barriers, sexual violence of males received little attention in the long armed conflict between North and South Sudan. Therefore, a study in the area would be a critical addition to ongoing discourse on the matter.

1.10 Limitation of the Study

The research faced a challenge with regards to getting an actual victim of sexual violence in Sudan to interview. This was notwithstanding the efforts made by the researcher to find
such an interviewee including requests to contacts at the Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary General on Preventing Sexual Violence in Conflict (SRSG-SVC), as well as a Ghanaian Peacekeeper in Sudan for help in this regard. The major reason for this challenge lies in the fact that the patriarchal culture of Sudan makes it difficult for male victims of sexual violence to report as known victims are likely to suffer some societal stigma. Moreover, the limited resources at the disposal of the researcher particularly in terms of the available time and funding for the study made travelling to Sudan a difficult proposition. Admittedly, such an interview would have enriched the perspectives in answering the research questions. However, to abate the effect of the lack of such an interview, the study utilized secondary data on the ongoing conflict in South Sudan and the Darfur region in the context of sexual violence. A psychologist who has previously served in Darfur was also interviewed.

1.12 Arrangement of Chapters

The study is arranged in four (4) chapters. Chapter one is the Research Design, which comprises of a Background to the Study, Statement of the Problem, Objectives of the Study, Scope of Study, Rationale of the Study, the Hypothesis, Literature Review, Theoretical Framework, Sources of Data, the Methodology and finally the Organization of the Study. Chapter two focuses on the nature, causes and effects of sexual violence in conflicts across Africa. Chapter three further examines why the plight of men in armed conflict has not been given the needed attention as well as the impact of the armed conflict on Sudanese males. The chapter also explores some of challenges of male victims of war time sexual violence in their quest to seek help. Chapter four presents the summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.
ENDNOTES

1 Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship in any setting.


8 Hagan, Kaiser, op. cit.

9 UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), Working with Men and Boys Survivors of Sexual and Gender-based Violence in Forced Displacement, July 2012

10 Connell, R. W (2005) , Masculinities (2nd Ed) , University of California Press p.77

11 Ibid.

12 Ibid.

13 Ibid., p. 74

14 Ibid., p. 79

15 Ibid., p. 71

16 Ibid., p. 76


18 Op cit. p.83

19 Ibid.

20 Carlson, M., (2008), ‘I’d rather go along and be considered a Man’, Masculinity and Bystander Intervention, Journal of Men’s Studies, 16, pp 3-17

21 Breines et al, 2000, Male Roles, Masculinities and Violence; A culture of Peace Perspective, UNESCO Publishing

22 Kuppers T., 1993, Revisioning Men’s Lives; Gender, Intimacy and Power, New York: Guilford Press

23 Collinson and Hearn, (1994), Men, Masculinities and Organizational Culture


25 Ibid.


27 Ibid.

28 Ibid.


30 Ibid.


32 Ibid.

33 Ibid.

34 Ibid.


36 Ibid.

37 Ibid.

38 Ibid.

39 Jok, Maduk Jok., War and Slavery in Sudan, Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2001
40 Ibid. p.5
41 Ibid.
42 Ibid
44 Van, Wyk B., Research Design and Methods Part 1, University of the Western Cape.
CHAPTER TWO

NATURE, CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF CONFLICT RELATED SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST MALES

2.0 Introduction

This chapter gives an insight into the concept of conflict-related sexual violence, why it occurs in conflict settings and the form that it takes against males. It also examines international biases and the seeming neglect of conflict-related male sexual violence. It further profiles specific examples of major conflicts in African which had either employed sexual violence as a weapon of war or produced sexual violence as an effect. The chapter then narrows down on the conflict in Sudan and issues of sexual violence which provide the basis for the next chapter.

2.1 Conflict-Related Sexual Violence

There are many different definitions of conflict-related sexual violence. However this study adopts the United Nation’s (UN) definition of conflict-related sexual violence as reflected in the UN Security Council resolutions 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1960 (2010) and 2106 (2013). The four resolutions define conflict-related sexual violence as:

rape, sexual slavery, forced prostitution, forced pregnancy, forced sterilization and any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity perpetrated against women, men or children with a direct or indirect (temporal, geographical or causal) link to a conflict.  

The definition emphasizes patterns of sexual violence against women, men, girls or boys occurring in a conflict or post-conflict setting that have direct or indirect links with the conflict itself.
2.2 Factors that give rise to the incidence of Sexual Violence against Males in Armed Conflict

The law that made conflict related sexual violence punishable even in part only became coded 60 years ago in international law. This of course was at the time when the world had long considered sexual violence as an unjustifiable and unacceptable act and was punishing perpetrators as well as administering various aids and interventions for victims.\(^2\) This was not to say that there were no challenges of underreporting of cases among others, except that International law was very limited in reaching conflict zones to punish cases and maintain justice. This is reason why in history, there were major sexual violence revelations such as the Russian brutalities against German civilians at the fall of Berlin and the Japanese’s Rape of Nanking.\(^3\) The historical evidence of sexual violations from these conflicts has contributed greatly to the conviction that militarily the act can be employed as a weapon of war.\(^4\)

There has been a high prevalence of sexual violence in contemporary armed conflicts in Africa, Eastern Europe, Asia and Latin America and as a result, various lines of reasoning try to explain the reoccurrence and the arguably unprecedented rise in sexual violence in these conflict zones.\(^5\) Perhaps primarily, one of the reasons for its continued use in conflict times can be blamed on the limited scope of codified international law that expressly punishes only rape out of the broad category of what acts are associated with conflict-related sexual violence.

Among the theoretical discourses on the factors that may contribute to males being sexually violated during armed conflict is socio-economic impunity where poor living standards of people can facilitate incidents of sexual violence. This is because where there is societal breakdown, the laws can no longer protect individuals and in such circumstances, the biological sexual desire of a person can drive him to abuse another sexually.\(^6\) Interviews
conducted by Baaz and Stern demonstrate how poverty stricken societies contribute to the incidence of sexual violence. For instance in DRC, soldiers blamed rape activities on their hunger, anger and frustration from their poor living conditions and their inability to pay for commercial sex, hence their justification for perpetrating such acts. Indeed, if sexual violence in a war is meant to humiliate a particular group, then there is no better war strategy in a society where people channel their grievances by committing heinous crimes and not being held accountable for their actions.

During conflicts, gender inequality has also been a channel through which sexual violence is made manifest. By being regarded as subordinate and weak, women have been subjected to sexual violence by powerful hegemonic men with the aim of destroying and humiliating them. Likewise sexual violence can also be used to shame men and such humiliation can be even worse because of the role they play as protectors. Therefore when men are sexually abused, they are stripped of their male status in the society and considered subordinate to other men. This therefore explains why sexual violence against males may be used as a war strategy.

Sexual violence may take place against males in conflict situations where there is intimidation and humiliation of different ethnic or racial groups and as such meant to discourage group cohesion. Neil notes specific circumstances where mass rape for example has been used to purposely destroy cultural and ethnic blood lines and to weaken marital and communal relations so as to capture territories and to delay return when such territories are recaptured. When males are targeted strong ethnic ties or group identity may be destroyed hence sexual violence would be a good way of annihilating a particular ethnic group and preventing group cohesion.
2.3 The Nature of Conflict Related Sexual Violence Against Males

Sexual violence against men occurs in nearly every armed conflict in which sexual violence is perpetrated although the extent to which the act is carried out is not known.\textsuperscript{12} There were reported cases of conflict-related sexual violence against men in the form of rape and sexual mutilation in the armed conflicts in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Chechnya, Iraq, the Central African Republic, India and Sri Lanka from 2007-2009.\textsuperscript{13} Enforced male rape occurred in Yugoslavia, together with, male genital beatings and electroshock to the genital area which were recorded in Bosnia, Kosovo, Northern Ireland and Sri Lanka. Reports from Abu Ghraib prison in Iraq in 2009 and in Kosovo from the war that took place from 1998-1999 showed that men were raped, sexually threatened and forced to pose nude and masturbate. The perpetrators were mainly reported to be security forces, media officials and civilians themselves. Enforced male masturbation cases were also recorded in Sri Lanka where the act was carried out by perpetrators as well as victims who were forced to masturbate one another. Forced sterilization or sexual mutilations such as castrations, were recorded in former Yugoslavia.\textsuperscript{14}

There have also been reported cases of sexual violence in northern Uganda since the beginning of the conflict in 1986 and has been mainly orchestrated by the Lord’s Resistance Army. Sexual violence against males has taken the form of rape, mutilation, sexual humiliation, sexual slavery and forced incest. Similarly, the LRA has spread its influence in places like north east Democratic Republic of Congo, south east Central African Republic and in South Sudan where civilians have been reportedly “raped and mutilated and boys and girls abducted for sexual slavery”\textsuperscript{15} Also, in detained camps, men were anaally raped, “\textit{forced to penetrate holes in banana trees that run with acidic sap, to sit with their genitals over a}
fire, to drag rocks tied to their penis, to give oral sex to queues of soldiers, to be penetrated with screwdrivers and sticks.”

What becomes clear in these cases therefore, is that sexual violence against males involves more than penetrative rape and may also have different motivations. Sivakumaran identifies three different motivations for carrying out acts for sexual violence on men during armed conflicts; homosexualization, prevention of procreation and emasculation or feminization. He notes that the motive of homosexualization is meant to provoke underlying societal stigma against the victim because their sexuality can be questioned and the society can mistakenly believe that only homosexual men would be sexually aroused during rape or other sexual assault. This may particularly apply to societies where males are expected to identify with certain masculine norms. As such, any perceived deviations from these norms tend to raise eyebrows.

Therefore, the idea that sexual violence against males is similar to penetrative rape in females is challenged according to the above information. Conflict-related sexual violence against males has been found to include oral and anal rape by perpetrators or forced rape between victims, sometimes including family members or the dead. It also seen in most cases, that conflict-related sexual violence against males is committed by the perpetrator who forces two or more males to sexually abuse themselves. This may be one of the purposes for its deployment as a war strategy because when males are forced to sexually violate each other, they are seen as victims in the eyes of their family and community.

Sivakumaran observes that the fact that there is not much information on male victims of conflict-related sexual violence is not really attributable to the lack of data. He rather argues that it is as a
result of an ignorance of the matter resulting in misrepresentation under a different category such as torture, thus hiding the sexual nature of these offenses. Evidence from the Latin American Truth Commissions is an example where a lot of male victims were undiscovered because the overly specific data collection processes could not capture male experiences of sexual violence.\textsuperscript{21}

The core problem therefore is that conflict-related sexual violence data collection tends to focus on a few aspects such as rape and ignore the many aspects as non-sex crimes. Meanwhile, men are frequent victims of the many other sides of sexual violence apart from frequent penetrative rape. Therefore, while the understanding of sexual violence against women has evolved to encompass certain acts of torture of women, unfortunately, torture of men has not been similarly understood to constitute sexual violence.\textsuperscript{22}

2.4 Ethnic, Religious and Age Dynamics Influencing Conflict Related Sexual Violence

It is pertinent to state that ethno-religious dynamics influence patterns of conflict as well as conflict related sexual violence. Therefore on the African continent, acts of sexual violence in ethno-religious based conflicts are committed along ethnic and religious lines.\textsuperscript{23} In other words, ethnic and religious dynamics that produce conflicts may equally bring about incidents of sexual violence.

In the Rwandan genocide, Darfur, northern Nigeria, Cote d'Ivoire, and the violent aftermath of the controversial Kenyan elections, among other cases, there is a general perception that Africa is trapped in a never-ending cycle of ethnic conflicts. This is because grievances accumulated at the group rather than individual level, are bound to continue fuelling tensions and reprisals. This would imply that Africa's complicated ethnic diversity leaves the
continent perpetually plagued by acts of social violations tactically employed in conflicts to denigrate such ethnic values. 

Deng like other scholars is of the view that virtually every African conflict today has some ethnic dimension usually rooted in history, such that even those that appear to be free of ethnic clutches still involved alliances built around ethnic loyalties. On the African continent, the influence of ethnicities in conflicts usually fall under two schools of thoughts where the first school of thought sees ethnicity as the source of conflicts while the second school sees it as a tool employed by the parties to the war to promote their ambitions.

Ethnicity appears to be very difficult to define in the African context. Especially in recent years, Daley makes the point that African ethnicities in the modern world are becoming more diverse, as scholars and historians beginning to challenge conventional primordial origins. According to him, there is a point of agreement however among most scholars and historians that, ethnicity is more than skin colour or physical characteristics, more than language, song, and dance. Daley argues that many scholars and historians would agree that African ethnicities are the embodiment of values, institutions, patterns of behaviour, a composite whole representing their historical experience and aspirations. In that depriving Africans of their ethnicity and culture, deprives them of their sense of direction or purpose. As mentioned earlier, ethnic dynamics that may trigger conflicts can also bring about incidents of sexual violence. In that regard, sexual violence is characterized as being deployed militarily for the purposes of ethnic cleansing. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, and also in Sudan, sexual violations have been carried out by Janjaweed militias and government forces as a way of destroying family and community networks.
Religion is treated by many conflict analysts such as Stewart and Appleby as a detachment of ethnicity. Stewart for instance considers religious organisations to be usually stronger than ethnic organisations. He also notes that religious groups receive more support than ethnic organisations. Appleby on his part sees religion as the human response to a reality perceived as sacred. Stretched further, Appleby considers religion as a formally organised community of faith that usually involves beliefs and spirituality of members and followers operating at various psychological and social distances from the institution and the official custodians of the religious tradition.

Appleby perspectives therefore suppose all religions would have specific beliefs, doctrines and principles, which followers of the religion accept and obey usually without question. The fact that religions differ from each other leads to clashes, because the followers of every religion are convinced that their religion is the “right” and the only true religion. One of the problems with religion is that the scriptures are sometimes vague and people can interpret it differently depending on the time and context. Therefore different interpretations of religious scripture can lead to conflict. Similarly, certain practises by religious groups can also constitute acts of sexual violence. For instance in Sudan under the Muslim Personal Status Law, women and girls are forced into early marriages and this leaves them with limited rights. Girls may also be betrothed as early as infancy since age does not determine whether traditional marriages can take place or not.

Age is also another factor that influences patterns of conflict related sexual violence. Adult sexual abuse has occurred across history during war times. It is mostly not recognized and known to be one of the violations mostly ignored in conflict situations even though the elderly are highly respected in the society. Children who are also known to have a special
standing in society because of their physical fragility and dependence, have also been targets of sexual abuse by being at the risk of being captured and inducted into rebel groups. For example child soldiers who serve as commodities for some armed groups such as the LRA have been trafficked into South Sudan in exchange for weapons.  

2.5 International Bias and Seeming Neglect of Male Victims of Conflict-Related Male Sexual Violence

For a very long time, conflict-related sexual violence against males has been a neglected field. The area has only started receiving some attention only less than two decades ago. In the cited Yugoslavia conflict for example, although there were many male victims of conflict-related sexual violence, the world rather gave renewed attention to female victims of conflict-related sexual violence while attention to male sexual violence lagged behind. DelZotto and Jones in their 2002 conference paper observed that out of the 4076 non-governmental organizations working in the former Yugoslavia area on conflict related sexual violence, only 3% mentioned sexual violence against men in their programs and literature. Meanwhile in 2003, Zarkov accused the international media of shying away from reporting on sexually assaulted men from the conflict. He gave evidence in the form of pictures of starved bodies and mutilated genitals of Muslim men from camps run by Bosnian Serb forces which were even aired in the national press within former Yugoslavia.

Indeed, it is only in recent years that the issue of conflict-related sexual violence against males has received some attention at the United Nations (UN) fora. In 2008 for example, the UN Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) organized an expert group meeting to assess the nature, scope, and motivation for conflict-related sexual violence against males. There is therefore some level of understanding within the UN that conflict-related sexual violence against males is a challenge. However, commentaries on the matter
seem to project conflict-related sexual violence against males as something new – as if it never existed; something that Joshua Goldstein finds hard to accept.\textsuperscript{38}

To Joshua Goldstein, it appears that there is some cynicism at the international level that dealing with the problem of conflict-related male sexual violence will mean taking attention and valuable resources away from addressing conflict-related female sexual violence. In 2008 for example, a high level conference of UN officials, governmental representatives, and force commanders of peacekeeping missions and others met at Wilton Park to discuss responses of military peacekeepers to conflict-related sexual violence and it was recognized that females were not the only targets of conflict-related sexual violence but males also.\textsuperscript{39} Nonetheless, the conference focused entirely on conflict-related female sexual violence, basically because it was felt that females comprised the majority target. Besides, it also believed that the female reproductive capacities could be ruined by gang-rape and brutality.\textsuperscript{40}

What probably was forgotten in that conference was the fact that what could ruin the reproductive capability of female victims could equally ruin that of male victims. Because just as with females, males could lose their reproductive capacity either as a result of the physical sexual abuse, for example castration, genital mutilation, etc. or as a psychological effect of the violence. Indeed Arche d’Alliance, an NGO working in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) since 1996 claimed that thousands of males were sexually violated in the large Ngandja community. It further claimed that the majority of these male victims are more likely to commit suicide, and the rates are higher should there be castration or mutilation involved. Besides, males like female victims also experience societal stigma from families and their communities.\textsuperscript{41}
As already indicated, the international criminalization of conflict-related sexual violence began only some three decades ago and in the advent of the International Criminal Tribunal for Yugoslavia (ICTY) to prosecute cases from the Yugoslavian conflict and places like recent Rwanda, Sierra Leone, etc. However, prosecutions from these three areas had been criticized looking at the way victims of sexual violence were treated while giving evidence. Cases of male victims of sexual violence were less advanced even though evidence of conflict related sexual violence was extensively documented and the few males who appeared before the ICTY had very limited jurisprudence and their cases were either not prosecuted or prosecuted under something else apart from sexual violence.42

Analyses of the instances from the UN international criminal tribunals therefore show that conflict-related sexual violence against males is usually mentioned but not characterized as sexual violence. And when mentioned and characterized appropriately, there is usually no corresponding prosecution. The mentions usually merely formed part of the background of a case in prosecution for a female victim and accordingly no consequences arose from the descriptions of the male sexual violence.43

This apparent bias towards female sexual violence however did not come about by accident. In the 1990s, feminists and human rights advocates, determined to see women rights protected in conflict zones, successfully rallied behind criminalization of rape under international law. Champions like Hilary Charlesworth, Rhonda Copelon, and Catherine MacKinnon among others protested that international law woefully failed to protect women against sexual violence during armed conflict even from formal military troops, and such acts went beyond the reach of the law.44
For instance the limited criminalization of conflict related rape under the various international laws was questioned against their biases. In normal (non-conflict) times, rape is always regarded as a breach of the international law but in times of war or in conflict zones, the 1947 Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Person in Times of War, and the 1977 Additional Protocols failed to categorize rape as a crime of violence against women’s bodily integrity. However, what the Geneva Convention provided for in Article 27 was to ensure that “women … be especially protected against any attack on their honour, in particular against rape, enforced prostitution, or any form of indecent assault.” In other words, acts that would bring shame and dishonour to a woman’s integrity were to be given much attention. The feminists’ thought that by focusing on the harm to women’s honour, international law believed wartime rape of a woman was of no harm to her physical or sexual autonomy, but rather harming her value to her husband, family, or community. This according to them put specific criminalization of war time sexual violence against women out of the window.

Following the massive killings and grave atrocities carried out against women in Yugoslavia and in The Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Security Council recognized the need to put an end to such flagrant abuses which constituted violations of international humanitarian law. Upon its formation, The International Criminal Tribunal for Yugoslavia ICTY described such crimes (enslavement, torture, rape) as committed against humanity when targeted at a civilian population in armed conflicts based on ethnic, political, racial and religious grounds.

This paved the way for similar cases like Prosecutor v. Jean-Paul Akayesu, where the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) defined rape as a weapon of war that
could constitute an act of genocide, a violent act by members of one group against another
group as a means to destroy that group. The ICTR in the Akayesu case found persons guilty
of acts of rape and sexual violence based on systematic use of rape against all Tutsi women
and solely against them. Also finding out that the rapes of Tutsi women were accompanied by
the intent to kill, the ICTR concluded that rape was a means of genocide. 48

The advocacy also achieved something more other than the criminalization of conflict related
sexual violence. It further brought to the attention of the international community the specific
harm directed at women during war and called on it to criminalize them as well. In 2000, the
United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 was adopted and the resolution prevailed
on member countries and all parties to armed conflicts to take special measures to protect
females from any form of violence related to the conflict. 49

The intent of Resolution 1325 was based on the motive that females and children were the
vast majority of those adversely affected by armed conflict. 50 At the same time, international
criminal jurisprudence had virtually considered no cases of conflict related male sexual
violence, or they were largely marginalized at the international criminal courts. For instance,
it is a fact that the very first international tribunals that prosecuted conflict-related sexual
violence, ICTY and ICTR, received documented evidence of male sexual violence as well.
The health workers in refugee camps and post-conflict zones in the former Yugoslavia
gathered incidents of male victims of sexual violence by men. The Commission on Human
Rights in a report witnessed corpses of 15 young men whose genitals had been mutilated in
the Balkans conflict. 51 The UN Commission of Experts that was charged with the
responsibility to investigate sexual violence in the Balkans came out with numerous evidence
of rape of male victims. The international criminal courts nonetheless have not given serious attention to male victims.

At the UN Security Council debate giving rise to the Security Council Resolution, SC Res 1820, the Permanent Representative of Slovenia to the United Nations, speaking on behalf of the European Union (EU), stated that ‘sexual and gender-based violence is an area of particular concern to women and girls in armed conflict situations, although we know now that also boys and men may be subjected to such violence and to sexual torture.’ A year later, during the debate to consider the SC Res 1820, the delegate of Mexico spoke of ‘...even seeing a trend towards the use of sexual violence against men.’

In addition, during a General Assembly debate on humanitarian assistance, the delegate of Norway expressed her country’s concern ‘about the sexual and gender-based violence that each year destroys the lives of thousands of women and girls, as well as men and boys.’ At a similar debate before the Economic and Social Council, the Assistant High Commissioner of UNHCR commented upon the reports of sexual violence against men and boys but noted that these ‘were rarer because of shame or fear of stigmatization.’ The inter-agency initiative ‘Stop Rape Now’ has noted that though women and girls are the primary targets of rape, men and boys may also be targeted’. The World Health Organization (WHO) for its health role has also noted that not enough attention is paid to male on male violence. In 2008, the UN Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) summoned a meeting of experts to assess the nature, scope, and motivation for conflict related sexual violence against men and boys. This therefore suggests that conflict related sexual violence against men, though clearly recognized by the relevant international bodies and aid workers still remains an undisclosed subject. Thus, it still remains invisible to the rest of the world.
Consequently, male sexual violence in relation to conflict is still grounded at the stage of failure to characterize sexual abuse of men during armed conflict as sexual violence. As much as this obscures the sexualized nature of the conduct, it also has several negative effects and reaffirms some of the earlier made assertions that the current characterization ignores the emotional and physical damage suffered by men from the loss of their sexual autonomy and dignity. It also renders invisible, the meanings of sexual violence against them, and it serves to normalize the deliberate use of rape and sexual violence in conflicts.\textsuperscript{60}

That being said, it is important to say that the work of feminists and advocates in advancing their course, have further aggravated problems of bias in the case of conflict related sexual violence against males. As Lara Stemple notes, gender violence has largely become conflated with male violence against female in war.\textsuperscript{61}

On the subject of wartime rape for example, early feminist activists, such as Rhonda Copelon and the Women’s Caucus for Gender Justice, have been criticized by Laura Stemple for presenting rape as male domination over women. In their view, “what this stands to do is to render male rape abnormal because men tend to be considered as perpetrators of sexual violence against women and not victims. Thus in the long run male rape is ruled out as non-existing”.\textsuperscript{62}

It is worth adding however that all hope is not lost and probably the break of silence is actually gaining grounds. In 2009, the RUF was prosecuted in a trial by The Special Court of Sierra Leone on charges of gender based crimes committed by Front.\textsuperscript{63} In Prosecutor v. Sesay, the Trial Chamber found out in 2010 that some acts of sexual violence were
committed against men and boys by RUF troops which included slitting the sexual organs of male captives, enforced nudity of males and forcing male abductees to rape female abductees. Resultantly, the Sesay judgment was of the view that sexual violence against both genders had deliberately been adopted as a weapon of war. However, never had the ruling at any point in time interrogated and prosecuted any of these acts of sexual violence committed against males.\textsuperscript{64}

The United Nations has also begun to recognize the rising incidence of conflict related sexual violence against males. The UN Secretary-General noted in 2009 that despite being the main targets of conflict related sexual violence, the case laws of the ICTY and the Special Court for Sierra Leone (SCSL) firmly attest to the fact that men are prone to sexual violation.\textsuperscript{65} In an effort to do something about the situation at the international level, the UN Security Resolution 1888, has tried to be more meticulous in its use of gender-neutral language so as to include males as victims of conflict related sexual violence as well.\textsuperscript{66} This new focus on men can be juxtaposed to Resolution 1325 adopted in 2000, which solely treated conflict related sexual violence as affecting women and girls.\textsuperscript{67} Even though it seems inadequate, this shift of attention is considered a step in the right direction as the Security Council has since recognized the importance in catering to male victims of conflict related sexual violence too.

2.6 \textbf{Sexual Violence in some African Conflicts and Sudan}

Data on the victims of conflict related sexual violence and for that matter male victims is always problematic among other reasons due to underreporting. Nonetheless, this section briefly focuses on the effects from a few major African conflict zones and then discusses the Sudanese experience.
Central African Republic (CAR) experienced acute instabilities since independence until violence actually broke out in 2001. The conflict being one of the most recent was mainly between Muslims and Christians resulted in at least 5,186 people killed and over 200,000 displaced as at 2014. Though there are believed to be more, the reported cases of sexual violence since the conflict broke out were 2,527. Out of this, some 800 were males with 141 being males who were raped. The act usually occurred in homes, during door to-door searches by armed groups and while victims were sheltering in the bush.

The conflict in Congo which broke out from 1996 had caused about 5.4 million deaths as at 2008 and this caused the war to be arguably ranked as the deadliest conflict worldwide since World War II. The conflict attracted a lot of attention as a result of the high incidence and the cruel nature of the acts of sexual violence that related to it. Till date, after officially ending the war in 2003, conflict related sexual violence has been deployed by armed groups. For example, the resurgence of violence by armed groups from January to September 2014 resulted in 11,769 cases of sexual violence in the provinces of North Kivu, South Kivu, Orientale, Katanga and Maniema. The UNFPA also reported that the majority of the related acts of sexual violence were underreported but concluded that in all reported cases, some 4% to 10% of the total number of victims of sexual violence were males that sought medical treatment. Comparably, this percentage range was thought to be one of the highest among male victims of conflict-related sexual violence that sought medical treatment around the world.

In Somalia where an armed conflict has raged since 1991, millions of lives have been claimed, around a million internally displaced and around 400,000 have sought asylum in neighbouring countries. Sexual violence cases related to the conflict were thought to be
grossly under reported fearing stigma and societal reprisals and revenge; this was particularly for the male victims. Nonetheless, most reported cases representing about 81% involved the one (1) million internally displaced people. The United Nations says since the war broke out, there are reports of at least 1000 cases each year of female sexual violence, and will not rule out male sexual violence.74

Records show from the conflict that also broke out in 1991 in Sierra Leone, that rebels forced civilians to commit incest in front of family members, with the fundamental aim of disrupting religious, cultural and social norms, and to prove a sense of power and dominance by the perpetrator. There were also instances whereby men were forced to watch the rape of their wives and family members by enemy troops, which was meant to cause trauma and marital discord.75

The war in Liberia lasted for 14 years from 1989 to 2003 claiming more than 200,000 lives, generating more than 700,000 refugees and leaving about 1.4 million people internally displaced. A survey of 1,666 adults by the Association of Combatant Status and Sexual Violence in 2008, found that 32.6% of male combatants experienced sexual violence while 16.5% of the male combatants were forced to be sexual servants.76

In Uganda, the conflict which broke out in 1986 was mainly fought between the government and rebel groups mainly led by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA). The conflict claimed tens of thousands of lives and displaced about 1.7 million Ugandans. Over the conflict period especially, there were notable reports of female sexual violence from particularly Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps and male sexual violence from detained camps. Men were also forced to sexually brutalize one another and boys were abducted for use as sex slaves.77
2.6.1 The Sudanese Experience

In line with its contents and as a precursor to details in the next chapter, this section briefly introduces the experience of Sudan in terms of conflict-related sexual violence targeted at particularly the male population which has often been underreported.

The Sudanese Civil Wars

Sudan has had political instability since it attained independence in 1956 attributable to its diverse religious and ethnic background. Also since independence, the country has had internal struggles over natural resources.\(^78\) Political instability between the North and South triggered the second civil war which eventually resulted in the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, and the secession of South Sudan in 2011.\(^79\) In Alex De Waal’s view, the struggle for natural resources and conflicts over economic interests poses a great threat as the continuous political interaction between government and political forces in each state’s territory could ignite and spur clashes.\(^80\)

Both civil wars which took place from 1955-1972 and 1983-2005, left dire consequences for the Sudanese population especially in the two regions that were directly involved. Apart from the death of millions and the massive displacement of people, men and women were subjected to various forms of sexual violence including rape, torture and compelled prostitution.\(^81\) Innocent civilians were repeatedly targeted and subjected to human right violations such as sexual slavery which was used as a tool for humiliating not only women but the entire community. Most testimonies of women and girls taken as slaves also revealed that they were forced into marriages and those who became pregnant were either freed or eventually gave birth to children fathered by their captors. According to Jok, a 1998 UN report that estimated the abduction of 800 women and 1500 children was just the tip of the
iceberg although it represented a breakthrough of international recognition of such violations. Arguably, the conflict has been described as the worst humanitarian disaster in the world today having claimed the lives of over two million people and other related economic costs with over five million people displaced, half a million becoming refugees and tens of thousands of women and children being abducted and subjected to human and sexual slavery.

The Darfur Conflict
The conflict in the Darfur region in Sudan started in 2003 when the Sudan Liberation Movement/Army (SLM/A) and the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM) accused the Sudanese government of oppressing the black Africans. The two groups felt that the government only supported Arabs. Similar to that of the conflict between the North and the South, sexual violence has been employed as a war tactic in the Darfur conflict. Violations such as rape, attempted rape, and indecent assault, abduction for the purposes of sexual exploitation, sexual humiliation and killings following rape have been very much rife. Furthermore, married women who have resisted rape as well as those who refuse to disclose the whereabouts of their husbands have had to endure torture and killing. In the ongoing conflict, rape of women and girls has also been largely used as a feature of ethnic cleansing which has been promoted by both government forces and the militias as well

Men and boys have also encountered some form of sexual violence such as anal rape and sexual humiliation in the Darfur conflict. In a briefing paper by Doctors Without Borders/Medecins Sans Frontier (MSF), a man from West Darfur described his ordeal as follows:

“I was working in my farm alone on that day. Eight men with guns came to me and ordered me to give my coat. I refused so they started beating me with a stick on my back. Five men
took me and raped me. One of the men pointed a gun at me after that and wanted to shoot me. Another man stopped him. My wife, who was on her way to meet me in the farm, saw me with the men. The same men took her and two of them raped her as well.”

The UNMISS report in 2014 observed that sexual violence in the Sudanese conflict occurred along ethnic and religious lines. Along ethnic lines, non-Arab black men for example have been particularly targeted and male rape survivors reported that they were insulted and called slaves as they were raped.

It also revealed that the laws of the land in especially North Sudan promote silence over sexual violence. Until 2014 when some progress was made in amending the law, the State had it that if a case of rape cannot be proven, the person filing the complaint of rape risks being prosecuted for other sexual offenses, because consensual adultery and consensual sodomy are illegal, and may incur the death penalty.

In light of the above developments, the International Criminal Court (ICC) accused the Sudanese leader, President Omar al-Bashir of committing war crimes, crimes against humanity and genocide during the conflict as well as Government forces and allied Arab militias for targeting black African civilians in the fight against rebels. In light of the crimes mentioned, the conflict in Darfur has also produced one of the worst cases of sexual violence, as it has been systematically adopted and deployed as a weapon of war.

Despite the fact that sexual violence and rape are continuously being used as a weapon of war in the conflict, it is perceived that the attention it once received is dwindling due to a lack of reporting by human rights agencies and the intimidation of humanitarian organizations. As a result, little information has been made available in order to bring the issue under control.
The Conflict in South Sudan

War in South Sudan began in 2013 where acts of sexual violence have been perpetrated mainly by the Dinka army and Nuer rebels. Forms of sexual violence include rape, during which objects such as guns are used, sexual slavery, abduction and forced abortion. In a recent development, more than a hundred children have been killed with surviving boys castrated and left to bleed to death while females are gang raped. These brutalities against children have been described by UNICEF as unspeakable and they must be given attention.93

The Secretary General’s report reveals that 167 incidents of conflict-related sexual violence affecting 236 persons were documented during the reporting period. Out of this number, 75 incidents affected 116 minors with women and girls being targeted in 95 per cent of these cases. In the ongoing conflict, there have been incidents of conflict related sexual violence by both parties in all ten states specifically gang rape in the Lake State.94

From the information provided, it is evident that the phenomenon of sexual violence has been largely underreported by victims although the conflicts in the two Sudanese states have produced one of the worst human rights violations in the world.
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CHAPTER THREE
AN ANALYSIS OF THE SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST MALES IN THE CONFLICT BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH SUDAN

3.0 Introduction
This chapter begins by discussing the historical overview of the North and South Sudan conflict as well as the cultures of both states and how they promote sexual violence. It also explores some reasons for underreporting of conflict related sexual violence by male victims and goes on to look at the implications of armed conflict on Sudanese males. The chapter finally assesses how interventions have been skewed towards female victims of sexual violence.

3.1 Historical Overview of the North South Sudan Conflict
The two main civil wars fought for about six decades beside the Darfur conflict really created an atmosphere for gross violations of human rights, grievous calamities and abuses including sexual violence as supported by instances in the previous chapters. In this section however, it is important to understand the scope of this atmosphere in historical perspective of the civil war.

In 1955, the year before independence, the first civil war between North and South Sudan broke out in Sudan and continued until 1972. The conflict flared up as a result of the Southerners fears that the Northerners would overpower them once Sudan gained independence. The Southerners wanted an autonomous state after independence, but they realised that the Northerners would not allow that to happen. As a result some Southern officers mutinied and started the Anya Nya guerrilla army. The Northerners reacted militarily to the mutiny. The government troops burnt down villages; they killed prisoners and
displaced as many Southerners as possible in order to prevent them from supporting the Anya Nya. At this time, these nefarious activities largely went unchecked; the international community was yet to have active presence in Sudan and to protect civilians. After Sudan’s independence in 1956 and by the late 1960’s more than 500,000 people had died and many more were displaced as a result of the civil war which lasted seventeen long years.

The second civil war began from 1983 to 2005. This war was primarily because the North through President Nimeri in 1983 wanted to place the oil rich areas of the South under Northern control by redrawing the boundaries to include more of the oil rich areas. The secondary reason was the plan to build the Jonglei canal to divert water from the South to the North. Finally, what sparked the war was the September Laws in 1983 that imposed the strictest form of Sharia on Christians, Muslims and animists.

As a result of the actions taken by Nimeiri, the Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA) was formed by a number of soldiers who mutinied under the leadership of former army Colonel Garang to oppose the government. The political arm of the organisation was known as the Sudan People’s Liberation Movement (SPLM). The objectives of the SPLM were to have a democratic state where all people would be equal and their human rights be protected.

In 1985, Nimeiri was overthrown by the military and Sadiq al Mahdi of the Umma Party became president in a democratic election where the majority of the Southerners could not vote because of the ongoing civil war. So the new government was once again dominated by Northerners. In 1989, Mahdi’s negotiation with the SPLM was leading to the scrap of the Sharia law. The Northern Islamic Front (NIF) which hitherto was in league with President Mahdi disapproved of this move, leading to the latter’s overthrow.
Omar al Bashir became the new president of Sudan. He declared that his main objectives were to put an end to the civil war and to make Sudan a wealthy country. Bashir never held an election and remained in power himself. He declared himself prime minister, defence minister and commander in chief of the armed forces. This deepened Sudan’s woes because he suspended the constitution, dissolved parliament, banned political parties, forbade civilian association meetings without government permission, shut down the free press, declared a nationwide state of emergency and set a curfew.

On 9th January 2005, the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed between the government and the SPLM which brought an end to the second civil war and the final secession of the South in 2011. The CPA brought an end to the Second Sudanese Civil War, but irreparable damage had already been done to the country and its people. It is estimated that more than 4 million people were displaced and more than 2 million died during the second civil war in Sudan.

The civil war situations in Sudan represent such cases where little had been done either to protect civilians during the war or remedial interventions for victims and the affected. For example it is difficult to understand why the CPA only catered for the Civil War and did not include the conflict that is taking place in the Darfur region.

The war in Sudan never had any international intervention either from the UN or the African Union until 2003 when AU troops entered as an observable force until the UN joined in support. In other words, both civil wars were almost fought without the active intervention of the international community. It is no surprise over 2 million people died and over 4 million were displaced. There were lost and unrecorded counts of numerous human right violations.
including related acts of sexual violence during both civil war periods. The main international intervention by way of UN assistance in 2003 was mainly to spearhead peace processes upon the signing of the CPA. This was different from the United Nations Mission in the Republic of South Sudan (UNMISS) announced in 2005 because of the Darfur conflict. In line with this study therefore, the chapter examines in the section below the extent to which UN assistance was provided in terms of protecting human rights including sexual violence related to the civil wars.

3.1.1 Conflict Related Sexual Violence during the Civil War Period: Extent of International Assistance

The first civil war period and a greater part of the second civil war period were usually the ‘dark ages’ in Sudan. The war periods were characterized by no or suspended constitutions, no or dissolved parliaments, banned political parties and activities, forbidden civilian association meetings or civil society activities, shut down of free press, rampant state of emergency and curfews. Therefore within Sudan, it was difficult to have any form of human rights protection work during the civil war periods. If there was any human rights protection help, it had to come from outside.

The research already stated that such hope of help only started coming in 2003 for a civil war that broke out since 1955. When UN assistance arrived in Sudan in 2003, the overall purpose was to “promote a peaceful environment that enables the fulfilment of the rights of Sudanese people to survival and protection, to be able to exercise informed choices, and to enjoy equal dignity and development.” The UN team was led by the Office of the Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator for Sudan and was composed of the following individual agencies:

- Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) – Funded $3,103,476 instead of $18,907,587 needed;
- UN Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) – Funded $2,679,332 instead of $2,854,051 needed;
- UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) – Funded just $350,000,
- UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) – Funded $2,119,550 instead of $32,585,000;
- UN Development Programme (UNDP) – Funded $7,154,358 instead of $11,000,000;
- UN Population Fund (UNFPA) – Funded $2.6 million instead of $3.5 million;
- UN Children’s Fund (UNICEF) – funded $20,733,275 instead of $69,075,775 needed;
- UN Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO) – funded $125,000 instead of $3.4 million;
- UN Emergency Mine Action Programme in Sudan (UNMAS) – No funding instead $8.5 million needed;
- World Health Organisation (WHO) – funded $4 million instead of $12 million needed;
- World Food Programme (WFP) – Funded in shortfall to $144,981,488.14

In line with protection and remedy against the war related sexual violence, the relevant agencies were the UN Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), UN Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and World Health Organisation (WHO).

OCHA mission statement had it to “Provide strong secretariat support to the Office of the Humanitarian Coordinator in order to mobilize and coordinate the collective efforts of the international community, in particular those of the UN system, to meet in a coherent and timely manner the needs of those exposed to human suffering and material destruction in
disasters and emergencies.” The UN Agencies Fact Sheet that provides information on OCHA paints the picture that this agency is performing quite well, yet reports from impartial sources state a different opinion even though it financially met its goals better than any agency. Among the key achievements that OCHA boasts of in Sudan is “successful mobilization of international response with an average of 80% of needs met.”

However, according to Mukesh Kapila, the UN Humanitarian Coordinator for Sudan then, war in Sudan similar to what happened in Rwanda had elements of ethnic cleansing though it appeared nothing was being done to curb the situation. Implicit in Kapila’s statement is the idea that the international powers of the world are far less involved than they could and should be. If Kapila’s expert opinion is believed to have any validity, OCHA is not only doing an unacceptable job of mobilizing the international community, but it is also misleading the people with its reports.

OHCHR as a mission was to “promote a human rights culture in Sudan to accelerate the democratization process of the country and to strengthen the capacity of Sudanese government and non-governmental institutions for the promotion and protection of human rights.” OHCHR certainly had its work cut out in Sudan. The agency could not even meet its financial goals from the start. Open and constructive dialogue on human rights within government institutions is cited as OHCHR’s key achievement in Sudan to date. Taking a look at Sudan as it is now, it is obvious that this agency is quite far from reaching its goals in the country.

Similarly, UNHCR, UNICEF and WHO have had budgets heavily underfunded leading to protracted results in efforts to protect the rights of civilians against all forms of violations. By
the end of 2004, Jamaal K. Adams assessed the effectiveness of the UN assistance in Sudan when it intervened in 2003. The failures and challenges enumerated in his report suggest that the UN did not make any real impact in dealing with human rights issues. There were no specifics as to how related sexual violence were handled but the specific issues discussed below is satisfying that the matter could not have received any real attention.

The UN’s work in Sudan is one that often generated disagreements between UN donors and officials in Khartoum. Disagreements were particularly because UN efforts in Sudan are undermined by a lack of intense coordination and indefensible operational deficiencies on the part of some UN agencies. The UN’s fragmented structure of separate and independent agencies did not have a strong chain of command in place to create the sense of accountability and responsibility necessary for successful execution of the organization’s agendas in Sudan. According to Mukesh Kapila during his time in Sudan, the top UN official in Khartoum had the title of UN coordinator. By observation, the coordinator was not empowered to direct any of the agency heads on what to do. The only power at the disposal of the UN coordinator was apparently the power of persuasion which, to state the obvious, “will not always be successful.”

The UN in Sudan was not also aggressive in dealing with Sudanese government. Arbitrary decisions by government officials, most frequently military or security personnel often hampered relief operations. Many who worked in support of the UN felt that the organization should have expressed more of the anger felt towards the Sudanese government when the government did not conduct affairs in an appropriate manner. Most UN officials disagreed stating that confronting the government was not their function.
One high-level UN official gave the account that a more aggressive approach would make it even more difficult for UN agencies in Khartoum to accomplish their mission. Some UN officials were very interested in avoiding a replay of what happened to an earlier UN coordinator that had to be recalled from Sudan. The Sudanese government had not liked his way of doing business and chose to expel him from Sudan. Ultimately, the UN effort in Sudan was much like a bunch of very talented players trying to win a game with no coach or leader.\footnote{21}

In the end, nothing much was achieved that is why when the researcher contacted the UN for data on male related sexual violence during the civil war periods in line with the objectives of this study, the UN could not provide the information. This however, did not mean that sexual violence acts were not committed against males because relevant information presented in the previous chapters confirmed there were. And under a new UN mission announced in 2005 (UNMISS), it appeared the UN had learnt from the mistakes of the 2003 mission and could now provide some data on male sexual violence cases for the conflicts in South Sudan and Darfur areas.

3.2 Cultures of the Two Sudanese States

The civil war between the North and South Sudan actually climaxes a long history in which the North has tried to spread its culture and religion to the South but not without resistance from the latter. Among other things, the war is as a result of a situation in which the North claimed superiority over the South and thus imposed itself on them. This section therefore looks at the cultures of the two states and how they promote sexual violence.
3.2.1 Culture of Northern Sudan

The Northern part of Sudan deeply identifies with The Middle East. Her identification with the Middle East dates back several thousands of years, to when ancient Egyptians and Arabians moved south in search for ivory, gold and slaves. In the 6th century A.D, when Christianity entered the then one state Sudan, it became the religion of three kingdoms – Nubia, Magarra, and Alwa – and thereafter spread and survived for thousand years. Islam however entered the North a century later through traders who helped prominent families to trace their supposed roots to Prophet Muhammad and Arab.22

It is also believed that the height of continuous struggle to gain more Islamic grounds in the South is what has resulted in the age long civil war between the two states. In the nineteenth century for instance, the Mahdist government in Khartoum with help from Turkish rulers of Egypt invaded the South to gain more boundaries by overthrowing more non-Islamic rulers. They were however resisted violently by the South Sudanese. Ever since, conflicts between the two states have been remotely caused by this struggle for supremacy. 23

As a result of the war, thousands of children from Southern and Eastern Sudan were forced to flee to the Northern part of Sudan in search of food and security. These children are reported to have suffered continuous harassment and forceful relocation. Those who were admitted into schools had to take instructions in Arabic and taught the Islamic faith against their will and that of their parents if they were still alive.24 Such acts are considered as some attempts by the North to change the identity of the South. Ultimately, these have fuelled tensions between the two states thus giving way to violent acts of sexual violence perpetrated against Sudanese men and women.
3.2.2 Culture of Southern Sudan

In the pre and post secession of South Sudan, South Sudanese politicians and elites have made it a subject to run bitter commentaries out of the pompous attitude of the North toward the South. A famous commenter once made the following remarks:

"Many northern Sudanese had the notion that there were but a bunch of uncivilized tribes in the South, and very condescendingly, Northerners regarded themselves as guardians of these, their backward brethren. Finding themselves in charge of the government of an independent Sudan, northern Sudanese politicians and administrators sought to replace the colonial regime in the South with their own. Arabic was naturally to replace English and what better religion than Islam could replace Christianity?"\(^{25}\)

South Sudan by race is indigenously African in culture and religion. By tradition, the North thinks that the South is weak, and the largely undeveloped nature makes it raw material enough to be ‘Islamized/Arabized’. However, the indigenous African culture of the South had deeply accepted Christian influences and Western orientation. Pre and post secession, in the spirit of establishing national cultural unity, the North promoted Arabization and Islamization\(^{26}\) and deliberately imposed it on the South. The actions of the latter however produced backward resentful effects and deepened differences in racial and religious dimensions, escalating into genocidal proportions and other social, economic break downs.\(^{27}\) These incidents gave rise to the phenomenon of sexual violence in Sudan.

3.3 Reasons for the Underreporting of Conflict Related Sexual Violence by Male Victims

Reasons for the underreporting of conflict related sexual violence by male victims may be attributable to two main factors; inhuman constitutional laws that almost works in favour of perpetrators, and a very unfriendly culture that stigmatizes and rejected male victims.
3.3.1 The Exploitation and Misinterpretation of Islamic Laws regarding Sexual Violence and Rape in Sudan

In the last two decades, increasing attention has been given to rape in the penal codes of Muslim nations as a result of the inability of cases of sexual assault to be proven as non-consensual. In exploring the issue, there have been problems pertaining to rape being considered as a variant of fornication/adultery or *zina*, in Islamic laws known as Sharia. Looking at this definition, sexual violence or rape was equated to an act of having unlawful sex by the end of the formative period of Islamic law and as a result, there was no distinction between consensual and coercive forms of unlawful sex. In that regard, *zina* is therefore regarded as forbidden by law. Reviewing Qu’ranic passages, Azam reveals that there is not an existing definition for the *zina*. Instead, it rather gives parameters within which sexual relations are not regarded as illicit. She also notes that the unacceptable nature of these sexual acts stems from the equation of *zina* with negative terms, for example being considered a shameful deed. Aside being given negative attributes, there are also punitive measures that the Qu’ran has put in place for offenders of *zina* which are lifelong confinement for women and later modified to flogging of men and women with 100 stripes. In view of the facts presented, victims of sexual violence are not encouraged to report their experiences.

3.3.2 Inhuman Constitutional Laws in Sudan

In rape prosecutions, Article 62 of the Evidence Law requires that the sexual act should have been witnessed by four credible men and this in itself is considered as impossible. In the case of male victims in Sudan, Article 148 of the Criminal Code states that:

“*there shall be deemed to commit sodomy, every man that penetrates his glans, or the equivalent thereof, in the anus of a woman or another man’s, or permits another man to penetrate his glans, or its equivalent in his anus.*"
Consequently first and second time offenders are subjected to 100 lashes as well as imprisonments whereas offenders for the third time are punishable by death or life imprisonment. These therefore goes to show how Sudan’s laws contribute to a denial of justice thus making reporting unattractive to male victims of sexual violence because of fear of being accused of committing *zina* as well as suffering the repercussions that are associated with it. Ultimately, this further exposes them to more incidents of sexual violence.

According to Major Julius Sarkoh, on military observations during which he was required to interact with the populace on the problems which they faced, it was very difficult even for women to come out and talk about their problems mainly because of cultural and also religious reasons and as a result, many chose to suffer in silence. He also mentioned the death penalty law for homosexuality as an example of what could have accounted for the deterrence of many Sudanese male victims of rape from making an open report.

C/Supt Amadou Fofana was of the view that in a society characterized by male domination especially in Sudan, men were usually expected to be the protectors in times of danger and not the vulnerable ones. He added that men are usually considered the head in families and expected to take charge because they wrongly see themselves in the dominant position in society. Therefore, violating them leaves a very profound psychological trauma and most of them would prefer to die than to testify or report especially when there was no witness present.

Mr Fiifi Edu- Afful, revealed that national laws were not as punitive as they should be. In that regard rules were broken down with no mechanisms in place in place to serves as checks and to keep perpetrators from flouting them in conflict times. Again, the fact that the laws rather
punished victims instead of protecting them served as a discouragement in trying to fight for their justice.\textsuperscript{36} He was also of the view that institutions were weak when it came to issues of sexual violence. Therefore even when male victims tried to seek justice for their abuse, sometimes their problems were not properly addressed. In his view, women’s vulnerability in conflict situations also made them the main focus in a typical African society where women were found to be at the lower ends and for these reasons male victims of conflict related sexual violence were not encouraged to report.\textsuperscript{37}

3.4 The Implications of Armed Conflict on Sudanese Males

In the section below, important information was presented to validate the claim the male related sexual was a reality in Sudan. Up to this point, information provided from the chapters situates the subject within the North and South Sudan civil wars. The point was made in the previous chapter that the years of the North South Sudan conflict is believed to have left imprints of major cases of male sexual violence on the globe\textsuperscript{38}. Unfortunately, during the course of this research, information to back these claims was not available. However, events in the ongoing armed conflict in South Sudan and the Darfur region validates the assertions made by Jok and other writers that there was sexual violence was rife in the armed conflict between North and South Sudan. As a result, the study deemed it fit to use empirical data from these conflicts.

3.4.1 Instances of Conflict Related Sexual Violence from Juba, Jonglei, Unity and Upper Nile

The research observed that the hottest grounds of the North-South conflict for various human rights violations with the period 2013 to 2014 were in Juba, Jonglei, Unity and Upper Nile.
Table 3.1: Conflict Related Sexual Violence Cases from Juba

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perpetrator/s</th>
<th>Total Victims</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Gov't Security Force</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDPs vs. IDPs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Gov't Security Force</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDPs vs. IDPs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>110</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The figures in figure 3.1 clearly show that there were far less reported cases of male sexual violence for the 2 year period in Juba; even though there was an unsatisfactory rise from 6 reported in 2013 to 9 in 2014. Indeed information from the office of UNMISS suggests that even female sexual violence cases were largely underreported. In all cases, the perpetrators were mainly government security forces and the Sudan People’s Liberation Army (SPLA). A few rare cases were attributed to perpetrators in Internally Displaced Persons camps (IDPs) and unknown people.

Information retrieved from the offices of the UNMISS and UNHCR revealed that health centres in South Sudan are purposely attacked in time of conflicts. It is on record that in 2013, 2014, during the conflicts, hospitals and primary health care centres in Jonglei, Unity and Upper Nile were attacked. In Juba, there were similar attacks on health centres but the remaining operational ones like the Juba Teaching Hospital have a strong military presence. The atmosphere therefore did not allow for sexual violence to be reported to health actors in Juba or to be verified through medical reports. Moreover, the offices felt that the security
forces having been identified as perpetrators undermined their chance of receiving any reports on sexual violence.⁴⁰

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perpetrator/s</th>
<th>Total Victims</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNHCR, UNMISS, 2013, 2014.⁴¹

In Jonglei, the trend followed with less than 10 reported cases of male sexual violence in each of the 2 years (table 3.2). The factors responsible for this abysmal turnout were similar to those encountered in Juba. According to information from the offices of the UNMISS and UNHCR, all hospitals and primary healthcare centres in Jonglei were attacked in 2013 and 2014. It was found that the main targets or victims were the Dinka and Nuer tribes and the perpetrators were mainly the SPLA. The main forms of male sexual violence were according to the offices genital beatings like in Juba.⁴²

In late December 2011, several months after South Sudan gained independence, the Upper Nile Times reported that the Nuer White Army and Dinka had reformed and had issued a threat on Christmas Day, 2011 to ‘wipe out’ the entire Murle Tribe off the face of the earth as the only solution to guarantee long-term security of Nuer’s and Dinka cattle. The statement also declared the intention to fight the SPLA and the United Nations which has peacekeeping missions in the country. That declaration marked the escalation of the ongoing clashes between the SPLA, the Murle, and the Lou Nuer in Jonglei and Upper Nile.⁴³
Also in Jonglei according to information gathered, during the conflicts in 2013 and 2014, all government offices were closed including those of security, judicial and social welfare. Therefore among other factors, this made it virtually impossible to report any such violence.44

Table 3.3: Conflict Related Sexual Violence Cases from Upper Nile State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perpetrator/s</th>
<th>Total Victims</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>94</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNHCR, UNMISS, 2013, 2014.45

In Upper Nile State, male reported sexual violence cases for each year was less than 6 (table 3.3). It was found that the fundamentals factors, the perpetrators and victim dynamics were similar to the happenings in Jonglei State.

Table 3.4: Conflict Related Sexual Violence Cases from Unity State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perpetrator/s</th>
<th>Total Victims</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Gov't Security Force</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDPs vs. IDPs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Gov't Security Force</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDPs vs. IDPs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNHCR, UNMISS, 2013, 2014.46

Unity and Juba states share some similarities in terms of male sexual violence cases. In both states, all parties to the conflict were perpetrators including the Police which was diversified
into government security operations or forces during the conflicts (figure 3.4). However, according to information received from the offices of the UNMISS and UNHCR amongst the victims were male foreign nationals and persons of Nuer and Equatorian ethnicity. This is particularly blamed on attacks by Nuer and Dinka armies that assumed most foreigners in the country were working for the UN.

![Figure 3.1: Aggregated Male Sexual Violence of the Four States](image)

Source: Researcher’s Construct of Aggregated Male Sexual Violence of the Four States, 2015

In figure 3.1, the researcher aggregated the total percentage of male victims of sexual violence for the four states analyzed above. The total aggregated sexual violence cases from table 3.1 to table 3.4 are 220 and 202 for 2013 and 2014 respectively. The aggregated male victims of sexual violence cases reported in 2013, 2014 respectively were 26 and 24. The figures in percentages are represented in figure 3.1. Figure 3.1 only shows that there was virtually no difference in number of reported incidences over the 2 year period.
Table 3.5: Male Sexual Violence Incidence from Darfur Conflict

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perpetrator/s</th>
<th>Total Victims</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Gov't Security Force</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rebel Groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDP vs. IDP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Gov't Security Force</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rebel Groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDP vs. IDP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Gov't Security Force</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rebel Groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDP vs. IDP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unidentified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>760</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


3.4.2 Incidence of Sexual Violence from the Darfur Conflict

The information as summarized in table 3.5 represented the lowest reported cases of male victims of sexual violence in Sudan. Information obtained obviously points to a case of underreporting by the male victims but also because of the intense rise of the conflict in South Sudan. The main perpetrators were Sudanese forces with allegations of over 200 (8 male victims) sexual violence cases against them in Tabit, north-east of El Fasher, North Darfur, over a period of 36 hours on 30 October 2014. Official information from the UNMISS suggested that during the hours when mass violations were taking pace, the mission was deliberately delayed by the Sudanese government in granting access to these areas. When the mission finally had access to these areas, interview processes conducted with members of the community were heavily supervised by armed Sudanese forces and military intelligence. Information flow from members of the community on sexual violence was thus obscured. It was shared that later, the Sudanese Government conducted its own investigation and reported
to the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) that the allegations could not be substantiated.49

3.5 The Skewed Interventions for Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict

The reviews presented in the previous chapter suggest that interventions and international focus are on conflict related female sexual violence with virtually no attention given to male cases of conflict related sexual violence. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Panzi hospital was established in 1999 by Dr Mukwege to cater for women victims of sexual violence in the Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo. Apart from providing medical services to women victims, the hospital which was later transformed into the Panzi foundation promotes women’s rights and gender equality. Additionally, certain programs that seek to build the skills and the capacity of women have been adopted by the foundation in the form of trauma healing, income generating training and legal advice. Among such programs is the Survivors of Sexual Violence Program (SSV) which provides group therapy and counselling sessions as a compliment to the medical services available to female victims of sexual violence.50 Mr Fiifi Edu Afful observed that female victims receive more attention in times of armed conflict because they suffer more in terms of rape and other forms of sexual violence.51 In Sudan he cited an example of ‘Zainab’s Story’ which is a UN initiative to promote awareness on sexual violence against females. He also referred to Liberia and Sierra Leone where most of the interventions have been directed at women because they are the primary focus when dealing with conflict related sexual violence. Therefore these interventions have been aimed at improving their livelihoods and making them less vulnerable by creating jobs, giving them money to enable them to fend for themselves.52 The justification given by the offices of UNHCR and UNMISS was also that females represented the majority targets in Sudan and as such, interventions were largely in their favor. Mr. Edu-
Afful also remarked that the fact there were not many reported cases of male sexual violence did not mean females were the majority target in Sudan because looking at the South Sudanese conflict, most IDP camps were flanked by females and not males. He believed that such a partial conclusion may lead to wrong diagnosis of the problem and prescription of interventions in Sudan. He said he personally followed events of the effects of the ongoing South Sudan conflict on family lives and activities despite the harm out there, men in Sudan were inclined to rather send their wives, mothers and female relatives out on farm and daily duties while they stayed in hiding. He mentioned that Sudanese were beginning to realize that even the UN missions in Sudan only provided some protection to women as they went about their chores on the field and in the farm. According to him, since there was no such protection for men, the women were rather put in harm’s way.

Information gathered from UNMISS and UNHCR revealed that that not a single resolution or program exclusively exits for dealing with male sexual violence related conflicts. It was revealed that structures and budgets as well as trainings for the UN mission in Sudan for sexual violence were almost focused in female cases.\textsuperscript{53}
ENDNOTES

2 The Madi term for snake/scorpion venom
7 Ibid.
8 Ibid.
9 Ibid.
10 Deng, F. M., op cit, p. 504.
11 Ibid.
14 Ibid
15 http://www.unsudanig.org/system/index.jsp?agency=OCHA
17 http://www.unsudanig.org/system/index.jsp?agency=OHCHR
20 Ibid.
21 Ibid.
23 Ibid., p. 1
26 The process of a society’s shift towards Islam.
27 Ibid., p. 4.
29 Ibid., p. 447
31 Ibid., p. 18.
33 Ibid.
34 C/Supt Amadou Fofana, Medical Doctor and Police Training Officer at the Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping and Training Centre, Questionnaire Interview,July 25, 2015
35 Ibid.
36 Mr Fiifi Edu- Afful, Course Director for Sexual Abuse and Conflict Related Sexual Violence at KAIPTC, Personal Interview, June 15, 2015
37 Ibid.
38 Near Verbatim Transcript of Press Conference hosting United Nations Special Representative of the Secretary General for South Sudan, Ms. Hilde F. Johnson”. UNMISS, May 8, 2014
39 UNHCR, UNMISS, 2013, 2014
40 Ibid.
Ibid.

41 Ibid.

42 Ibid.


44 Ibid.

45 Ibid.

46 Ibid.

47 Ibid.

48 Ibid.

49 Ibid.


51 Fiifi Edu Afful, op. cit.

52 Ibid.

CHAPTER FOUR
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.0 Introduction
This chapter presents a summary of findings of this research with concluding remarks and recommendations on better provisions for dealing with issues of conflict related sexual violence against males.

4.1 Summary of Findings
The North South Sudan conflict has connected roots to conflicts in Sudan spanning 100 years. In all the years, the conflict was fought on cultural and religious identities, and the resisting of oppression from the North. More recently however, within the last two to three decades, conflict is believed to have taken on a new dimension, with the quest to control natural resources like the oil reserve in the South and water sources.

The findings of the study show that the North South Sudan conflict was the result of, and still is one of the worst human rights violations in the world including sexual violence. The spate of sexual violence cases confirmed and allegations related to the conflict in Sudan has indeed caused global uproar. This research found that conflict related sexual violence is particularly deployed as a military tactic in Sudan, and government forces are guilty.

The study also found that conflict related sexual violence is perpetrated against males similar to that of females in Sudan. These were found to be mainly systematic along the North and South divide, along ethno-religious lines. The perpetrators were found to be mainly the government forces, the SPLA rebels groups.
The research found that very severe acts of sexual violence were committed against males. Conflict related female sexual violence cases in Sudan were found to be mainly rape. However sexual violence against males in Sudan involved a lot more than just penetrative rape and had various motivations. Rape was found to be present in males, but genital beatings were more rampant. The few reported male rapes in Sudan were motivated by homosexualization and to demonstrate dominance over civilians of the opposition.

It was observed that even though sexual violence received some attention during the early stages of the conflict, it was underreported in Sudan. But male sexual violence related to the conflict was woefully underreported. The study also found that in four of the common grounds of the South Sudan conflict from 2013 to 2014, male reported sexual violence totalled just about 50, as against about 372 reported cases by females. This is besides about 200 strong allegations of female sexual violence recorded by international organizations working in Sudan within the period. In Darfur, from 2012 to 2014, only about 10 cases of male sexual violence were reported as against about 750 females.

It was found that a myriad of cultural, religious, constitutional and even interventional arrangements were to blame for the abysmal underreporting of male sexual violence related to the conflict. On the cultural and religious front, the study observed that the construct of masculinity which underpins the culture and religion of the North and South stigmatizes male victims. Religion and the national constitution especially in the North criminalize adultery and homosexuality, and the victim risks further victimization if he reports. It was also found that international and national interventions were unduly skewed to mitigating female sexual violence and it was beginning to have a backlash in Sudan. For example, since all the interventions and protection were directed towards females, it was found that men in South
Sudan rather sent their wives and females relations out to the farm and town to get food which in turn put them at risk.

4.2 Conclusion

The results of this research have shown that the limited statistics that exist woefully under-represent the number of male victims. And most importantly, the reluctance of males to report conflict related sexual violence makes it difficult to assess the entire scope. However, in just the last two decades, almost all the aspects of conflict related male sexual violence – from rape, to sexual torture, mutilation of the genitals, sexual humiliation, sexual enslavement, forced incest and forced rape – as shared in this research have been documented in conflicts around the world.

Therefore there is hope for equality of attention in the future for both male and female conflict related sexual violence. In fact, the problem of conflict related sexual violence amongst males has been recognized by the humanitarian community at most within the last decade. The study provided evidence to show that many International Organizations including the UN have acknowledged the issue in a few publications but individual cases during missions remain largely undocumented.

Other international and national organizations that have taken up the challenge to reach out to male survivors may be handicapped by lack of awareness of the issue on the part of survivors and staff alike. Although male victims are sometime mentioned in some international tribunals’ definitions of sexual violence, the domestic laws of many countries do not recognize male victims in their definitions of sexual violence.
4.3 Recommendations

A Commission of Inquiry to Heal Wounds and Mend Bridges

Conflict related sexual violence against males definitely hurts male victims beyond physical injuries and bodily damages. There is a lot of hurt in Sudan, and the first remedy is to allow male sexual victims to speak on an honourable platform meant to heal wounds and mend bridges. A Commission of Inquiry appears to be an intelligent and promising idea that has the potential of creating the real change. The Commission of Inquiry should respect the following principles:

- Members appointed on this Commission should be known for their independence and their impartiality and should include people with a profound understanding of what is going on in the region and a professional and in-depth knowledge in human rights law and practice.
- Such a commission should be accorded sufficient time and adequate resources in order to make proper investigations and conclusions.
- Witnesses and male victims of sexual violence and other human rights abuses should be encouraged to come forward to present evidence without fear but must be given assurance of protection against any reprisals.
- The findings and the recommendations of this Commission of Inquiry should be made public and easy for Sudanese people to access and should be implemented.

International Organizations and Civil Society Organizations

The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) must help the governments and judiciaries to conduct the necessary comprehensive and credible investigations into allegations of sexual violations, and serve justice without fear or favour. This is to ensure that
investigations are independent, transparent, credible, and meet international standards. In fact, a UNMISS report on 8th May, 2014 about the conflict in Sudan revealed that:

*South Sudan has never undertaken a comprehensive, independent, and effective accountability process since it attained independence. Longstanding impunity and the failure to treat killings, sexual and gender-based violence, and other gross human rights and humanitarian law violations as crimes reinforces the cycle of conflict.*

Many constitutional laws on both sides that hold back victims from reporting sexual violence must also be changed with immediate effect. Recently some progress has been in the North where international organizations prevailed on the government to amend some laws on fornication and adultery that could further victimize female victims of sexual violence. These organizations must prevail more on the governments to change or amend laws that could criminalize men that speak up and report acts of male sexual violence.

Efforts to protect civilians must be enhanced. UNMISS’ capacity should be strengthened, through training and provision of adequate resources to handle male sexual violence as well. UNMISS UNHCR and all the other units on the mission must increase protection to all gender without discrimination.

Great work still remains for civil society organizations in terms of raising awareness of conflict related male sexual violence. However this great work is dependent on systematic collection of data which is dependent on the collective of international and organizations, a network of domestic civil societies, and the entire machinery that exist for collection of data for female sexual violence.

To curb the problem of societal stigma and other cultural hindrances, it recommended that international organizations and domestic civil societies in a joint effort, institute attractive
reward packages to induce male victims of sexual violence in Sudan to report. This reward may cover families that own up or urge victimized relations to report.

Given the complexity and sensitive nature of male sexual violence, it is also critical the UN formalizes a resolution on standard guidelines for locating, interviewing/data collection, and providing assistance to male survivors. This to enable credibility and uniformity of data sets from conflicts zones around the world. The UN must also lead in providing mechanisms and training on expert discussions on how to provide assistance and address the needs of male survivors. This is because the needs of male survivors often vary widely according to cultural context. Creation of mechanisms for expert discussion both within and across cultural contexts would also help program managers formulate effective strategies that meet their needs.

Most importantly, the time is ripe for male survivors to be represented in international justice initiatives just as female survivors. Once this happens, it will reflect well in national laws too. The ICTY and ICTR, and recently the trials from the Democratic Republic of Congo as outlined in the second chapter of this research are steps in the right direction. However, a lot more is needed. Humanitarian actors must begin to see that male sexual violence is not torture and must not be classified as such.

**Unbiased Interventions and Preventive Programs for Victims of Both Sex**

It is time for interventions and preventive programs in response to conflict related sexual violence to appear universal and cater for both sexes. The impact of conflict related sexual violence on females is just as significant as it is on males. Therefore from international, regional and national levels, state or private interventions and methods to prevent conflicts
related sexual violence should avoid discrimination against males. For example the Panzi Foundation in Dr Congo, acclaimed for its significant work in supporting survivors of rape and sexual violence to rebuild their lives, has programs biased towards females. It is difficult to find such a foundation anywhere in the world dedicated towards male victims of sexual violence.
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F. Interviews

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Interview with Mr. Fiifi Edu- Afful, Course Director for Sexual Abuse and Conflict Related Sexual Violence at KAIPTC, June 15, 2015

Interview with C/Supt Amadou Fofana, Medical Doctor and Police Training Officer at the Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping and Training Centre, July 25, 2015
APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR SEXUAL VIOLENCE UNIT OF THE UNHCR IN GHANA

I am a student of University of Ghana Legon Centre for International Affairs and Diplomacy. I am currently undertaking a research on the effects of conflict related sexual violence on males, using the armed conflict between North and South Sudan as a case study. The objective is to ascertain why the plight of men in armed conflict has not been highlighted and also to examine the possible implications of conflict related sexual violence on Sudanese males I would be grateful if you could kindly respond to the following questions. Information given will be treated with complete confidentiality.

Name (If willing): __________________________________________________________
Position: __________________________________________________________________

1. Does participation in conflict change normative ideas about violence and sex?
2. What transforms soldiers into sexual violence perpetrators?
3. What is the prevalence of sexual violence among men and boys in the history of the UN peacekeeping?
4. What is the contribution of cultural attitudes about violence to the motivations to violate men?
5. What is the link between sexual violence by armed groups and sexual violence by civilians?
6. It is a measure that routine screening increases the identification of conflict-related sexual violence either on the battle field or post war/peacekeeping mission? How is this practiced?
7. What are the consequences of stigmatization for men that suffered sexual violence?
8. What are the long-term psychological side effects for survivors? Any evidence to that effect?
9. What do men who survived sexual violence want in order for justice to be served?

University of Ghana http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh
10. Shame and stigma are seen as an inevitable result of sexual violence. How do you see this compared to women in the same situation?

11. What are the health, social impact and needs for males who are survivors of sexual violence? Are they different from female survivors?

12. How can we access the stories of males who are victims of rape/sexual violence and its impact on them?

13. What models exist for community-based prevention of conflict-related sexual violence perpetrated by armed groups and/or non-state actors? What forms of positive collective action exist to prevent (or minimize) conflict-related sexual violence?

14. What evidence exists for the effectiveness of community based programmes for the prevention of conflict-related sexual violence stigma?

15. What successful models exist for effectively engaging men and boys / women / families and schools / religious leaders / social leaders / perpetrators in the prevention of conflict-related sexual violence?

16. How do beneficiaries perceive programs to prevent conflict-related sexual violence, and what areas do they typically identify for improvement/modification? What do survivors of conflict-related sexual violence believe are effective prevention approaches? What do combatants believe are effective approaches to prevent conflict-related sexual violence?

17. Can military assets be effectively deployed or leveraged to prevent conflict-related sexual violence? How?

18. Does the threat of sanctions serve as an effective deterrent in the prevention of conflict-related sexual violence? (National level and individual level)

19. How do national laws and policies impact on the prevention of conflict-related sexual violence at the community level?
I am a student of University of Ghana Legon Centre for International Affairs and Diplomacy. I am currently undertaking a research on the effects of conflict related sexual violence on males, using the armed conflict between North and South Sudan as a case study. The objective is to ascertain why the plight of men in armed conflict has not been highlighted and also to examine the possible implications of conflict related sexual violence on Sudanese males I would be grateful if you could kindly respond to the following questions. Information given will be treated with complete confidentiality.

Name (If willing): __________________________________________________________
Status: ____________________________________________________________________

1. Does participation in conflict change normative ideas about violence and sex? Please explain how?
2. What are the reasons for the transformation of soldiers into sexual violence perpetrators?
3. To what extent are members of armed groups forced to take part in this culture of violence?
4. How do peers influence attitude towards sexual violence in a conflict situation?
5. Is there a link between sexual violence by armed groups and sexual violence by civilians?
6. It is a measure that routine screening increases the identification of conflict-related sexual violence either on the battle field or post war/peacekeeping mission? Do you know this as a practice?
7. Have you or a colleague you know ever experienced sexual violence or attempted sexual violence while in Sudan? If yes, please explain your feeling?
8. What do you think male victims of conflict-related sexual violence identify as their immediate needs?
9. What is your perception about the services male victims receive in response to conflict related sexual violence?
10. Are you aware of any specific programs that address the needs of male victims of sexual violence?
11. Are you happy with the scope of programs that address the needs of male victims?
I am a student of University of Ghana Legon Centre for International Affairs. I am currently undertaking a research on the effects of conflict related sexual violence on males, using the armed conflict between North and South Sudan as a case study. The objective is to ascertain why the plight of men in armed conflict has not been highlighted and also to examine the possible implications of conflict related sexual violence on Sudanese males I will be grateful if you can kindly respond to the following questions. Your information will be treated with complete confidentiality.

Name (If willing): ___________________________________________________________
Status: __________________________________________________________________

1. Does participation in conflict change normative ideas about violence and sex? Please explain how?
2. What are the reasons for the transformation of soldiers into sexual violence perpetrators?
3. What is the contribution of cultural attitudes about violence to the motivations to violate men?
4. Is there a link between sexual violence by armed groups and sexual violence by civilians?
5. It is a measure that routine screening increases the identification of conflict-related sexual violence either on the battle field or post war/peacekeeping mission? Are you aware of such routine screenings?
6. How do you examine the impacts of conflict-related sexual violence against males?
7. Have you ever interacted with male victim/s of conflict-related sexual violence? How do you describe their feelings?
8. What do you think male victims of conflict-related sexual violence identify as their immediate needs?
9. What would you say about the scope of programs that address the needs of conflict-related sexual violence of male victims?
10. How can programs to respond to conflict-related sexual violence be adapted to fit the cultural context of different country settings?

11. Which program approaches have been most effective in addressing the needs of conflict-related sexual violence survivors? What are the key elements of an effective program, what outcome measures are used, and what evidence exists to indicate that the approaches used are effective?