AN ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACT OF A GOVERNMENT INVOLUNTARY RELOCATION AND RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMME ON THE LIVELIHOODS OF DEVELOPMENT-INDUCED DISPLACED POPULATIONS;

A Study of Bujagali Hydropower Dam Project Affected People in Naminya Resettlement Village, Uganda.

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the Master of Arts Degree in Development and Emergency Practice

August 2011

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Declaration

I, Phiona Nampungu, do hereby declare that this thesis is a result of my research investigations and findings. Sources of information other than my own have been acknowledged and a reference list has been appended. To the best of my knowledge, this work has not been previously submitted to any other university for award of any type of academic degree.

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Student (Researcher)

David Sanderson
Supervisor
Dedication

To my mother Helen Kakembo, Mrs Sarah Kayondo, Innocent Wemesa and all those who have in any way, contributed to my education.
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Great thanks go to my supervisor, Professor, David Sanderson who guided me through the writing process of this thesis. I am grateful for your time and guidance. Thank you very much.

To the students of Oxford Brookes University 2010-2011 group, thanks for sharing ideas and experiences. A big thank you goes to; National Association of Professional Environmentalists, Bujagali Energy Limited and Uganda Ministry of Energy and mineral Development for the help towards this study.

A word of gratitude to my mother Ms Helen Kakembo and my boyfriend Innocent Wemesa, thanks for taking care of me. You have been extremely supportive and a source of inspiration in my life. To Walter Mwaka and John Richard Okumu, you have been great advisers ever since I met you, and thanks for accepting to proof-read this thesis.

A huge thank you goes to Martin Wilkinson and Oxford Brookes University for the scholarship that enabled me to complete my Master’s Degree.
Abstract

The construction of a 250 megawatts Bujagali hydropower dam project in Uganda begun in the late 1990s and is expected to be commissioned by end of 2011. The dam is expected to bring about economic benefits such increased investments thereby reducing poverty through increased employment. Due to this project, between 1999 and 2001, 8,700 people were either displaced and resettled or lost assets to the project. Some 35 households with 350 members were resettled in Naminya. The resettled people in Naminya village were promised electricity in their homes, clean water, land titles, schools, a health centre, markets and roads to mention but a few in exchange for their land in Bujagali. With no option to remain in Bujagali, some agreed to move to Naminya.

According to National Association of Professional Environmentalists 2008 report, “it is unlikely that this project will effectively address Uganda’s energy needs for socio-economic development, transformation and poverty reduction” (NAPE 2008 pg1). The objective of this research was therefore to explore the impact of a government involuntary displacement and relocation programme on the livelihoods of the resettlers in Naminya village.

In this research, a critical look was taken into the aftermath of involuntary resettlement of people in Naminya village. Using Cernea’s impoverishment risks and reconstruction (IRR) model developed in the 1990s to explain the consequences of involuntary resettlements, this study focused on eight risks identified by the model to explain the impact of involuntary resettlement on the livelihoods of the resettlers in Naminya village. The risks included; joblessness, homelessness, food insecurity, loss of common property, social disarticulation, landlessness, marginalization, increase morbidity and mortality.

It was thus discovered during the study that the resettlers’ livelihoods have worsened since the relocation as they lost land and jobs mainly fishing since they were banned by the government from fishing near the dam, lost social and family ties, lost common property such as the lake, forest and shrines. The research further discovered that the resettlers in Naminya also felt homeless having been relocated far from their original
area in Bujagali and were hopeless and food insecure. Some of their children had to drop out of school while some of the girls opted for marriage. Increased domestic violence due to money related issues was on the increase in Naminya as the men were more or less redundant. What was largely observed however was the fact that many resettlers were still bound by poverty and some worse off than before relocation despite having been promised a better life by both the Government of Uganda and dam developers (AES Nile Power and Bujagali Energy Limited). In summary, development caused these people their livelihoods and has left them in a state of impoverishment with no easy way out.

A number of recommendations are suggested in this study if further development-induced displacements and resettlements are to re-occur some of which include; increased community participation, the process should be transparent and gender sensitive, extension of credit facilities to facilitate in economic restoration and social services such as schools, hospitals, markets should be built close to the resettlement village.
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<td>AESNP</td>
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<td>AKFED</td>
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<td>BEL</td>
<td>Bujagali Energy Limited</td>
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<td>CIA</td>
<td>Cumulative impact Assessment</td>
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<td>DIDR</td>
<td>Development-induced displacement and relocation</td>
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<td>Government of Uganda</td>
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<td>ICOLD</td>
<td>The International Commission on Large Dams</td>
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<td>Internally Displaced Persons</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
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<td>Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction</td>
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<td>Local Council</td>
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<td>MW</td>
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<td>NAPE</td>
<td>National Association of Professional Environmentalists</td>
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<td>Non-Government Organization</td>
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<td>Operational Directive</td>
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<td>SEA</td>
<td>Social &amp; Environmental Assessment</td>
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Chapter One

This study is about the impact of a government involuntary relocation and resettlement programme on the livelihoods of development-induced displaced populations in Uganda and includes a case study of Bujagali hydropower dam project affected people resettled in Naminya village. Chapter one presents the introduction, background to the study, the statement of the problem, the aim and objectives of the study, the research questions, the significance and scope of the study.

1.0 Introduction

Every year, millions of people across the world are forcibly displaced by development projects, whether dams, roads, reservoirs or oil, gas, mining and wildlife conservation projects (Robinson, 2003). Although such projects can bring enormous benefits to countries, they also inflict costs, which are every so often borne by its poorest and most marginalized members. Robinson (2003, pg 1), points out “for millions of people around the world, development has cost them their homes, their livelihoods, their health, and even their very lives.”

According to Jason (2003, pg4), no precise data exists on the number of people affected by development-induced displacement throughout the world however, for an indication of magnitude, most scholars, policy-makers, and activists rely on the World Bank Environment Department’s (WBED) rough estimate of 10 million people globally being displaced each year due to dam construction, urban development, transportation and infrastructure programs (Cernea ,2000, pg11). In 2000, a study of development-induced displacement by the World Commission on Dams concluded, “Impoverishment and disempowerment have been the rule rather than the exception with respect to resettled people around the world” (Bartolomé, et. al. 2000, pg7). The impact has been felt most heavily by marginalized and vulnerable populations.

Coming down to Uganda, this study focused on resettlers in Naminya village who were displaced to pave way for the construction of a 250 MW Bujagali hydropower project which was embarked on in the late 1990s and is expected to be commissioned by end of 2011.
Uganda, in which this study was conducted, is a landlocked country astride the equator, about 800 kilometers inland from the Indian Ocean. It lies on the northwestern shores of Lake Victoria, extending from 1-south to 4-north latitude and 30 to 35-east longitude. It is bordered by Tanzania and Rwanda to the South, Democratic Republic of Congo to the West, Southern Sudan to the North and Kenya to the East. With a land surface of 241,139 square kilometers, it occupies most of the lake Victoria Basin which was formed by the geological shifts that created the Rift Valley during the Pleistocene era. With a population of 33.8 million (UN, 2010) and a life expectancy of 55 years (men) and 56 years (women), Uganda’s economy is heavy dependent on agriculture, which employs about 80% of the population.

Fig 1: Map of Uganda. Source: Google maps
1.1 Background to the Study

In 1986 Uganda had just emerged from 15 years of tyranny and in particular a guerilla war from 1981 to 1986 between the National Resistance Army against the Government of Milton Obote and later that of Tito Okello. A new regime in 1986 under the leadership of President Yoweri Museveni had demonstrated a clear commitment to economic reform and actively encouraged private sector investment in the country. At that time, the only power station in the country, the Owen Falls power station, which had an installed capacity of 150 MW, was only producing 60 MW. This was very little to meet the demands of the country then. The power plant was however refurbished and upgraded to 180 MW in the late 1980’s. By 1994 as a result of rapid economic growth, the maximum demand for electricity was about 220 MW, but the Uganda Electricity Board was unable to meet demand (NAPE, 2007).

In 1999, the Government of Uganda (GOU), in order to address the national energy shortage, commissioned AES Nile Power (AESNP) a US- based Corporation to construct and operate the Bujagali hydropower plant and the related transmission line. Bujagali dam is located at Dumbbell Island, 8 km from Owen Falls Dam (Nalubaale), itself adjacent to Owen Falls Dam Extension (Kiira), downstream of the River Nile. The River Nile receives its water from Lake Victoria, Africa’s largest and the world’s second largest fresh water lake. This project was awarded to AES Corporation, without any competitive bidding due to corruption (NAPE, 2007).
As a requirement for both international and regional policies, AESNP prepared the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) documentation for the hydropower project and the associated transmission system facilities which resulted in the approval of both the hydropower project and transmission facilities by the GOU’s National Environmental Management Authority (NEMA) in 1999/2001, the World Bank and African Development Bank Boards in December 2001. However; due to corruption and persistent objections from environmentalists inside and outside Uganda, the first project was abandoned in 2003 when AESNP Energy pulled out of the deal. AESNP withdrew from the project before commencing construction of the dam, but after undertaking some preparatory environmental activities and involuntary resettlement of people directly affected by the dam (NAPE and African Rivers Network, 2009).

The population in and around the Bujagali dam area was dense and multi-ethnic and according to NAPE and African Rivers Network, 2009, before being displaced by the dam in 1999 the number of people was about 6,800. At the project site, there was intermingling of peoples from different ecological, geographical, cultural and spiritual backgrounds. The main income generating activity was small-scale farming and some people were however engaged in fishing before the government prevented them to access the river in favour of the dam (NAPE and African Rivers Network, 2009).

A new consortium of Sithe Global Power from the United States and Industrial Promotional Services, a division of the Aga Khan Fund for Economic Development (AKFED), was formed to develop the project in 2007. The new developers formed a company called Bujagali Energy Company Limited (BEL). Construction of the dam and powerhouse started in June 2007, with loans from the World Bank, the European Investment Bank and the African Development Bank. Salini, an Italian construction company was selected to be the lead contractor on the project (Ibrahim Kasita of the New Vision 4th June, 2007).

Bujagali dam construction begun despite then the ongoing investigations into claims presented by Civil Society groups that the project violated environmental and social standards of both the World Bank and the African Development Bank (AfDB). The estimated costs for the dam and power plant is approximately above US $ 1 billion and
is one of the most expensive large dam infrastructure project in the world (NAPE and African Rivers Network, 2009). Completion of the project is expected in April 2012, although partial power generation may start as early as October 2011. In February 2011, the New Vision newspaper, Uganda’s leading daily publication, reported that the first 50MW will become available in October 2011 and the subsequent 50MW additional units will become available every two to three months until the final addition in April 2012.

Between 1999 and 2001, 8,700 people were either resettled or lost assets to the project (NAPE and African Rivers Network, 2009). A total of about 35 households with 350 members were resettled in Naminya village. According to the Bujagali resettlement action plan, the resettled people were promised land titles, schools, a health centre, clean water, housing, latrines, electricity, source of income and food, compensation, a community centre, a market, environment protection, employment, routine maintenance of roads and infrastructure, visitation and consultations by World Bank, government and the dam developer. However according to the letter dated 18th February 2007 addressed to the Director of Bujagali Energy Limited from the resettlers of Naminya village, a few or close to none of those promises had been fulfilled.

This research therefore sought to investigate the impact of an involuntary relocation programme on the livelihoods of the resettlers in Naminya based on evidence of inadequate compensation to the affected people by the GOU and the dam developer.

1.2 Statement of the research problem

No study has followed up the resettled persons displaced from their original land to pave way for the Bujagali hydropower dam. One of the key criteria for measuring the success of the Bujagali hydropower dam should have been the improved or at least the
restored status of the affected people and their families who were displaced, relocated and resettled in Naminya village. It is on the basis of the above problems that the study sought to analyze the impact of involuntary relocation and resettlement on the livelihoods of the affected people in Naminya resettlement village.

Studies indicate that large-scale dam construction projects have displaced some 40 to 80 million people Worldwide (WCD, 2000). However, according to literature on development-induced displacement, the livelihoods of many people adversely affected by the construction of these dams are usually not considered and they are not adequately compensated. Even where there is compensation, many resettled people suffer long-term losses that have not been taken into account and as a result, the benefits of large dams have not always been equitably distributed (Bartolomé, et. al, 2000).

A number of studies have reviewed the impact of big hydropower dams in Africa (Abhishek Chakravarty, 2010, World Bank 2004, WCD 2000, SIWI 2005, Hollis et al., 1993, Goes 2002, Beilfuss et al., 2001) but most of the literature focuses on; impact of dams on infant mortality, agricultural productivity and fishing, ecological change, dams and economic development, downstream impact of dams, number of people displaced by the dams, compensation packages and how to ensure successful resettlement. However, none attempted to assess the extent to which the affected people in Naminya village have either failed or successfully coped with the change in location, income and living conditions.

According to the 2009 World Bank Bujagali hydropower dam inspection panel report findings and the July 2008 report findings by the AFDB independent review mechanism, there existed a range of important problems regarding how the Bujagali hydropower project failed to meet the expectations of the local people displaced by the project. Both reports put into question the benefits for the local population and indicated that negative effects had not been adequately taken into account. This touches the heart of the project’s purpose and mission to reduce poverty that should guide the policy choices of all stakeholders involved.
One of the key findings in the World Bank Inspection Panel report 2009 was that the affected people in the area around the Bujagali dam have seen their livelihoods diminish and have not or insufficiently been compensated. The consequences of forced relocation in the area around Bujagali are illustrated in a short documentary: [http://myvideo.co.za/search/Bujagali](http://myvideo.co.za/search/Bujagali). In the documentary is a song by sung by the resettlers’ children requesting the government and the dam developer to provide schools, health centers, markets and build roads in the village.

1.3 Aim

The aim of this dissertation is to examine the impact of a government involuntary relocation and resettlement program on the livelihoods of a displaced population in Uganda namely the Bujagali hydropower dam project affected people displaced and resettled in Naminya village.

1.3.1 Objectives

1. To explore people’s perception of government relocation and resettlement programmes
2. To assess the level of community participation in the relocation and resettlement process
3. To determine the effects of the relocation programme on the livelihood of the resettlers with specific focus on landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalization, food insecurity, loss of access to common property resources, increased morbidity and mortality, education and community disarticulation
4. To review the current coping mechanisms of the resettlers with specific focus on income generation.

1.4 Research questions

1. How do people perceive government relocation and resettlement programmes?
2. Were the people involved in the relocation and resettlement programme, and if at all, how?
3. How did relocation affect Naminya resetters in terms of landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalization, food insecurity, loss of access to common property resources, increased morbidity and mortality, education and community disarticulation?

4. What are the current coping mechanisms of the resettlers in Naminya resettlement site with specific focus on income generation?

1.5 Significance of the study

This research could help the GOU towards drawing up a relocation and resettlement policy which up to now has does not exist.

It is hoped that the lessons learnt from this study may be usable by the government to enable them modify future relocation and resettlement programs in such a manner that would minimize the negative effects on those affected.

The research will provide additional knowledge on the subject matter and will also provide areas for further research.

This study is also a requirement for the fulfillment of the Masters in Arts Degree in Development and Emergency Practice at Oxford Brookes University that the researcher pursued.

1.6 The scope of the study

The study examines the impact of a government relocation and resettlement programme on the livelihoods of people in Naminya resettlement village located in Mukono District 27 Km from Kampala, Capital City of Uganda. Mukono District is bordered by Kayunga District to the north, Buikwe District to the east, the Republic of Tanzania to the south, Kalangala District to the southwest, Wakiso District and Kira Town to the west and Luweero District to the northwest. The coordinates of the district are:00 20N, 32 45E.
2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the literature related to relocation and resettlement programmes focusing on the major development causes of displacement, theories, International; regional and national frame works that address resettlement and how Bujagali dam failed at some of them. The opening of this chapter defined the key study concepts i.e. relocation and resettlement, livelihoods and development-induced displaced populations.

2.1 Definition of Key concepts

2.1.1 Relocation is defined as the act of moving someone or something to a new place to work or operate. (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary).

2.1.2 Resettlement is a process through which populations displaced from their habitant and or economic activities relocate to another site and reestablish their productive activities, services and community life. In World Bank terminology, resettlement covers all direct economic and social loses resulting from land taking and restriction of access together with the consequent compensatory and remedial measures, including economic rehabilitation of displaced persons to improve or restore their incomes and living standards (World Bank, 2004, pg5). It can be voluntary or involuntary; the primary goal is to prevent impoverishment to improve the livelihood of the resettlers.

2.1.2.1 Voluntary Resettlement

This refers to any resettlement not attributable to eminent domain of other forms of land acquisition backed by powers of the state. This type of resettlement is based on the principle of informed consent and power of choice, meaning that the people involved are fully knowledgeable about the project, its implications and freely agree to participate in the project (World Bank, 2004, pg21).
2.1.2.2 Involuntary Resettlement

Involuntary resettlement refers to two distinct but related processes. One is displacement, which is a process by which development projects cause people to lose land or other assets, or access to resources. This may result in physical dislocation, loss of income, or other adverse impacts. The other is resettlement or rehabilitation, which is a process by which those adversely affected are assisted in their efforts to improve, or at least to restore their incomes and living standards (World Bank, 2004).

Involuntary resettlement usually takes the form of forced migration and eviction and is itself never the primary objective of a project that causes displacement but rather a byproduct of urban programs, construction of dams, highways, industrial estates and ports among others.

2.1.3 Livelihoods

“A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living.” (Chambers and Conway, 1991). Livelihoods are systems upon which people survive in a given community, and these include assets like land, food stores, tools, livestock, networks, skills, roads, schools, credit, trade and remittances etc.

2.1.4 Development-induced displaced populations refer to those persons who are forced to move as a result of losing their homes to development projects. The World Commission on Dams (WCD, 2000) report refers not only to physical displacement, but also to livelihood displacement, which deprives people of their means of production and displaces them from their socio-cultural milieu.

2.2.0 Types of development projects causing displacement

Types of development projects range across a wide spectrum however for the purpose of this study, projects were divided into four categories, dams, urban renewal and development, natural resource extraction and environmental conservation.
2.2.1 Dams

Of all the types of development projects that bring about physical displacement, dams and their related infrastructure, including power stations and irrigation canals, stand out as the largest contributor of displacement. China’s Danjiangkou Dam displaced 383,000 people, while Three Gorges Dam project displaced 1.2 million. Of the projects assisted by the World Bank, 63 per cent of involuntary displacement and resettlement occurs in dam projects (Jason, 2003).

McCully (2001) and the WCD report (2000) provide comprehensive overviews of the impacts of large dam projects, including direct and indirect displacement and resettlement. Indirect displacement could result from flooding of valuable land causing people to move. Many studies have focused on the impacts of dams on the environment, compensation issues to those displaced and how better resettlement can be carried out in future such as Bartolome et al. (2000), who suggests a number of ways to improve accountability and facilitate negotiation in future resettlement schemes.

In Uganda, the Bujagali dam is estimated to have displaced about 8,700 and affected another 1,902 in land acquisitions (NAPE, 2007 and 2009). Research has been around the dam’s failure to meet both international and national policies regarding relocation and resettlement, failed compensation and the impact of the dam from the environment perspective (NAPE, 2009). However no research has been done on the impact of relocation on the livelihoods of those people who were displaced and resettled in Naminya, a study that this research sought to fulfill.
2.2.2 Urban infrastructure and transportation

Urban infrastructure and transportation projects which cause displacement include; slum clearance and upgrading, establishment of industrial and commercial estates, building and upgrading of sewerage systems, schools, hospitals, ports and transportation networks etc. The WBED estimates that 60 per cent of development-induced displacement every year, about 6 million people is a result of urban infrastructure and transportation projects. Indonesia’s Jabotabek project displaced between 40,000 to 50,000 people while India’s Hyderabad water supply project ousted 50,000 people. These are among the largest urban displacements on record (Jason, 2003).

In Uganda, during the upgrading of Nyakahita-Ibanda-Kamwenge road in 2009, the project potentially displaced 29 households and disrupted or partially damaged property for approximately 330 persons through loss of crops, trees, land, structures and kiosks in the town centres such as Nyakahita, Rushere, Kiruhura, Kazo, Ibanda, Ishongororo and Kamwenge. 15 acres of land were grabbed to allow for road expansion that resulted into involuntary resettlement of the affected people (AfDB ESA report, 2009)

2.2.3 Natural resource extraction

This category of projects include mineral and oil extraction and according to Jason (2003), no cumulative or annual statistics are available on the number of people displaced by natural resource extraction projects world-wide. However, according to the World Bank projects, displacement in such projects is much lower than in many dam and urban renewal projects due to two factors; firstly, these projects only cause limited displacement as compared to large development projects such dams and urban infrastructure and secondly, such projects usually lead to indirect displacement which could result from a leakage from an oil pipeline which might contaminate the drinking water or air pollution leading families to abandon their homes and lands for safer conditions elsewhere (Jason, 2003). Such indirect forms of displacement are less apparent and rarely lead to formal resettlement operations as compared to the direct displacement caused by many large infrastructure projects such as dams. On the other
hand, research around this area has been around ways of minimizing impoverishment of those displaced such as Downing’s (2002) report “Avoiding New Poverty: Mineral-induced displacement and resettlement” in which the author offers an overview of the issues surrounding displacement and resettlement in mining projects and suggests ways of how to prevent the impoverishment of people displaced.

Coming down to Uganda, since the discovery of oil in Buliisa district 240 km North West of Kampala in 2006, many people have lost their land to Tullow Oil Company that is expected to start drilling the oil in 2012. The 3.5 square miles of land requested for by Tullow Oil Company from the Government of Uganda displaced people who were neither compensated nor resettled. More people are expected to lose more land once production starts in 2012. (http://www.sunrise.ug/features/enviroment/2008-ugandas-oil-from-promise-to-despair.html)

2.2.4 Environmental conservation

Development projects also include protected areas, which have economic, and environmental values attached to them such as; forests, national parks, game reserves and corridors. All over the world, development and protection of such areas has resulted in displacement of indigenous people who have lived and depended on such natural resources for generations. According to McLean (2000), relocation of indigenous people from protected areas became a common practice in most developing countries, with little regard to the impacts imposed on a community’s cultural designs and devices for survival. Schmidt-Soltau (2003), adds that conservation related resettlement programs are judged to be largely unsuccessful due to people’s opposition to move from their original place, especially in the case of tribal and indigenous people.

In Uganda, for the past three decades, there has been an expansion of protected areas due to their environmental value, which has led to displacement of a large number of people who depended on the natural resources. For example, the establishment of Bwindi and Mgahinga forests as National Parks in 1991, led to the displacement of the indigenous Batwa people from the forests where they had lived for generations. The
government neither gave an early notice nor compensation or land to the Batwa (Cernea and Schmidt-Soltau, 2003).

Another 35,000 people in Uganda were evicted from Kibaale forest reserve and game corridor as part of a European Union natural forest management and conservation project (Feeney, 1998, pg 90-1). According to Anon, (n.d), this eviction occurred with serious violations of human rights, leading to a public outcry which resulted in the High court of Uganda passing a judgment against Kabarole district council which played a key role in the evictions.

2.3.0 Theoretical models of Resettlement

Building upon earlier approaches such as the Chambers Participatory Development Model (Chambers, 1983) that predominantly dealt with the processes of voluntary resettlement, Scudder and Colson, 1996 proposed a four-stage model of how people and socio-cultural systems respond to resettlement. The stages included; recruitment, transition, potential development and handing over or incorporation. In the recruitment phase, without informing those to be displaced, policy-makers and/or developers formulated development and resettlement plans. During the transition stage, the affected people learnt about their future displacement, which according to Jason (2003), intensified the level of stress experienced. Potential development only begun after physical relocation had occurred and the displacees began the process of rebuilding their economy and social networks. The final stage of handing over or incorporation referred to the handing over of the local production systems and community leadership to a second generation of residents that identified with and felt at home in the community. Once this stage was achieved, resettlement was thought to be a success (Jason, 2003).

The Scudder–Colson model focused on the different behavioral tendencies common to each of the stages through which resettlers passed and was formulated to explain the stages of voluntary settlement. However, later in 1980s and 1990s when it was applied to some cases of involuntary resettlement, evidence from involuntary resettlement schemes that failed to pass through all the four stages suggested that a new model was
required to explain the consequences of involuntary relocation especially impoverishment which resulted from forced resettlement schemes.

In response to the above, Cernea's Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction (IRR) model arose in the 1990s. Unlike the Scudder–Colson model, the IRR model does not attempt to identify different stages of relocation, but rather aims to identify the impoverishment risks inherent to forced resettlement and the processes necessary for reconstructing the livelihoods of the displacees. Precisely, this model emphasizes that, unless specifically addressed by targeted policies, forced displacement can cause impoverishment among displacees by bringing about landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalization, food insecurity, loss of access to common property resources, increased morbidity and mortality, and community disarticulation. To these risks, Downing (2002) added; loss of access to public services, disruption of formal education activities and loss of civil and human rights. However, it should be noted that, not all of these risks necessarily occur in each case of forced resettlement and not all displaced households are necessarily affected in the same way by each risk, but rather, the model notes that, when taken together, these processes capture the reasons behind many failed resettlement operations (Jason, 2003).

The IRR model has been used as a framework for a number of studies including Mahapatra (1996, pg 189-230) who used the model to examine India’s experience with involuntary resettlement from 1947-97, Thangaraj (1996, pg 223-232) employed the model to analyze resettlement operations in two of Indian projects; the Upper Indravati Hydroelectric Project and the Orissa water resources consolidation project and Lassailly-Jacob (1996, pg 187-199) looked specifically at land-based resettlement strategies in African dam projects. In Uganda, this model has been used by Henry Luzinda (2008, pg 83-94) who looked at involuntary resettlement of the Benet people in Mt. Elgon National park.

The researcher also used the IRR model to analyze the impact of involuntary relocation and resettlement on the livelihoods of people in Naminya resettlement village.
2.4.0 THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC, POLITICAL, CULTURAL AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT OF BUJAGALI

The population in and around the Bujagali dam was large and multi-ethnic and before being displaced by the dam in 1999, the number of people was about 6,800. There was a mixture of people from different ecological, geographical, cultural and spiritual backgrounds. The main income generating activity was small-scale farming and some people, however, were engaged in fishing before government prevented them in favour of the dam (NAPE and African Rivers Network, 2009).

At the Bujagali falls, there was an important old cultural spiritual institution, which was the epitome of a traditional belief system and a sustainability system bestowing the Basoga with ethical and moral values as well. This site was however destroyed to pave way for the Bujagali hydropower dam. According to NAPE (2008, pg21), “the spiritual leader of the Basoga was marginalized from the consultation processes”.

Administratively the area in which Bujagali dam is sited is under the direct control of the Central Government, which, at the local level, manifests in form of Local Councils (LC) from LC 1, the lowest level, to LC 5, the topmost level. It is part of Jinja District whose political head is Local Council Five Chairman (LC 5). However, there is no evidence suggesting that local government was involved in the Bujagali dam decision-making process other than being required or compelled to approve the process (NAPE and African Rivers Network, 2009).

2.5.0 GLOBAL FRAMEWORKS FOR ADDRESSING DIDR

The move towards greater privatization in Africa has seen Africa’s development being largely driven by global financial institutions such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. Anxious to attract overseas development assistance and foreign investment, many African governments have been compelled to agree to large infrastructure, industrial and dam projects in the name of the common good. The influence of global institutions in Africa’s development has therefore necessitated the
consideration of what global frameworks exist for managing the negative impacts of such development projects.

2.5.1 World Bank Policy on Involuntary Resettlement

The World Bank is one of the international funders of development projects such as dams that have resulted in involuntary displacements and relocations without adequate compensations or resettlement assistance of the affected people across the world. Due to prolonged negative publicity and criticism of the Bank’s failure to intervene on behalf of the displaced peoples, the World Bank initiated the process to develop its own policy and procedures for involuntary resettlement to address the plight of millions of people around the world whose homes are destroyed or livelihoods adversely affected as a result of Bank-financed projects (Don and Frauke, 2001).

The current version, Operational Directive (OD) 4.30, remains the most widely used guideline for any project involving involuntary resettlement. According to the World Bank, (1990, para 1), any bank-financed project that involves land acquisition should be reviewed for potential resettlement requirements early in the project cycle. The World Bank Resettlement Policy emphasizes that project planning must avoid and minimize involuntary resettlement, and that if people lose their homes or livelihoods as a result of Bank-financed projects, they should have their standard of living improved, or at least restored. In determining appropriate compensation for the displacees, the directive states that preference should be land-based resettlement as opposed to cash compensation, which is usually inadequate to restore previous livelihoods (Don and Frauke, 2001).

According to NAPE (2007), the Bujagali dam project is said to have violated the World Bank’s Policies on environmental assessment (OP 4.01), environmental action plans (OP 4.02), natural habitats (OP 4.04), water resources management (OP 4.07) to mention but a few. To add to that, the Bujagali Energy Limited (BEL) Social Environmental Assessment (SEA) considered the project area as not inhabited by indigenous people therefore considering the Basoga as not being indigenous, yet the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda considers Basoga as an indigenous people. The
failure of the World Bank to respect the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda as regarding indigenous peoples is a violation of World Bank's Policy (OP/BP 4.10) on indigenous people (NAPE, 2007).

**Critique of the World Bank's guidelines**

It could probably be argued that the biggest short-coming of both the old and new World Bank safeguard policies is that they are not a strict tool with enforcement mechanisms in place to ensure that plans are implemented but rather just guidelines on how plans can be implemented. Therefore, as recognized by the Morse Commission in their independent report on the Narmada Sardar Sarovar dam involuntary resettlement (Morse et al., 1992, cited in Cernea, 1997) there exists a large gap between policy and performance. The policy is not usually abided to during development projects.

The Bank's guidelines also only suggest that the borrower's obligation to carry out the resettlement plan should be reflected in the legal agreements between the bank and the borrower (World Bank, 1990, para 30; World Bank, 2001b, para 22). Due to the absence of mandatory and minimum requirements, the level of responsibility and commitment of both the Bank and the borrower is probably open to misinterpretation.

The World Commission on Dams (WCD) report (2000, p189) criticizes the World Bank's discretionary adaptation of policies to developing country realities and its ignorance of noncompliance, stating that it only breeds cynicism about the willingness to comply. Although the World Bank has in the past suspended financial assistance to an urban sector project like in Cameroon, where implementation of resettlement “gets seriously out of compliance with World Bank resettlement policy and practice” (Cernea, 1997, p32), this type of disciplining is of no help to the resettlers whose livelihoods have been destroyed in the process. More creative and strict mechanisms should be developed to ensure compliance with resettlement plans.

The World Commission on Dams further criticizes the Bank guidelines on the basis that they focus on project planning and design and not on options assessment or implementation (WCD, 2000, p188). As monitoring is generally discontinued after 5
years the assumption is that the planning phase has anticipated and covered all future eventualities. However, the inflexibility of implementation and monitoring doesn’t allow for constant adaptive management (Don and Frauke, 2001).

According to Don and Frauke (2001), there is no clear procedure for determining when independent monitors will be called in to monitor implementation and impacts which is another loophole in the Bank’s guidelines. The role of the Bank as both project shareholder and supervisor of the resettlement plan creates conflicts of interest that favours cost minimization at the expense of livelihood and income re-establishment.

The policy of “improving or at least restoring” former living standards, income earning capacity and production levels has been criticized for not making the minimum requirement “improvement” (IFC, 2001). This challenges the initial policy goal of ensuring that the affected people receive compensation from the project. Although, the World Bank argues that restoration at least provides a measurable benchmark by which to ensure that resettlers are not worse off than prior to the project, in many developments and resettlement plans, the affected people are usually worse after displacement and relocation than prior to the project.

2.5.2 The World Commission on Dams Guidelines for Good Practice

The World Bank and IUCN-the World Conservation Union established the World Commission on Dams on May 1998 in response to the growing opposition to large dams. It was launched on 16th November 2000. The report covers issues related to the economic and biophysical impact of dams, experience of displaced people and their resettlement and compensation (WCD, 2000). The report also recommends a set of guidelines for good practice, which encompass how to plan and implement an involuntary resettlement. According to the WCD, successful resettlement relies upon supporting national legislation and development policies, as well as accountability and commitment from governments and project developers (WCD, 2000).
Critique of the WCD Guidelines

The proposed guidelines have been rejected by, amongst others, the World Bank on behalf of their borrowing governments, who fear that the guidelines will lead to “more conditionality” by international financing organizations (WCD, 2001). Criticism of the guidelines largely stem from the call for prior informed consent from the affected parties (Le Page, 2001). As argued by the Harza Engineering, Hydro Quebec, Siemens and Électricité de France, that competing interests make consensus elusive, if not impossible, and that public acceptance does not mean attaining absolute consensus (WCD, 2001).

2.5.3 UN Guiding Principles of Internal Displacement

The guiding principles on internal displacement are an advocacy and monitoring framework for the assistance and protection of needs of the internally displaced. They also address specific needs of internally displaced persons worldwide identifying rights and guarantees relevant to the protection of persons from forced displacement to their protection and assistance during displacement as well as during return or resettlement and reintegration. The principles reflect and are consistent with the international human rights law.

In relation to the resettlers in Naminya village, a group of NGO representatives, including those from International Rivers and Uganda’s National Association of Professional Environmentalists, visited the village on July 14, 2002 and found that the resettlers were extremely unhappy about the conditions in the resettlement village. The resettlers felt that the quality and the size of their land plots, the access to water, firewood, markets and social services, and the conditions of housing for the majority of them were much inferior to the conditions at their original homes (NAPE, 2007). Failure to meet the basic human needs such as providing clean water, schools and hospitals is a violation of human rights thereby violating the UN guiding principle on internal displacement.
2.6.0 REGIONAL FRAMEWORKS FOR ADDRESSING DIDR

2.6.1 Equator Principles

The Equator Principles (EPs) are a credit risk management framework for determining, assessing and managing environmental and social risk in project finance transactions. Project finance is often used to fund the development and construction of major infrastructure and industrial projects. The EPs are adopted voluntarily by financial institutions and are applied where total project capital costs exceed US$10 million. The EPs are primarily intended to provide a minimum standard for due diligence to support responsible risk decision-making (www.equator-principles.com).

Equator Principles Financial Institutions (EPFIs) commit to not providing loans to projects where the borrower will not or is unable to comply with their respective social and environmental policies and procedures that implement the EPs. In addition, while the EPs are not intended to be applied retroactively, EPFIs will apply them to all project financings covering expansion or upgrade of an existing facility where changes in scale or scope may create significant environmental and/or social impacts, or significantly change the nature or degree of an existing impact (www.equator-principles.com).

Most countries, including Uganda should be commended for adhering to these principles in case they are undertaking projects with adverse effects on people’s livelihoods and social settings. However, it should be noted that, in most cases, these principles are not usually implemented in practice as they appear on paper.

Before initiation of the Bujagali project, an environmental and social impact assessment was carried out as per Principle 2 of the Equator Principles. In the assessment, it was agreed that all the affected people were to be compensated and relocated to other areas. In a report by National Association of Professional Environmentalists (NAPE, 2007) on the project asserted that the issue of relocation of the affected people was not accorded the attention it deserved under the pretext that most of the dam-affected people had migrated from elsewhere where they land, and therefore, would go back if displaced by the project. As a result, these people were given modest compensation,
which left many people displaced, unable to attain means of livelihood, as habitants for fish and agriculture, which were their major source of livelihoods, were also destroyed in the process.

2.6.2 African Development Bank (AfDB) Involuntary Resettlement Policy

The Bank group involuntary resettlement policy was developed to cover involuntary displacement and resettlement of people caused by Bank financed projects and it applies when a project results in relocation or loss of shelter by the persons residing in the project area, assets being lost or livelihoods being affected. The policy is set within the framework of the Bank’s Vision in which poverty reduction represents the overarching goal. Within this goal, the strategic action to achieve sustainable development must be pursued. The policy therefore reaffirms the commitment of the Bank to promote environmental and social mainstreaming as a means of fostering poverty reduction, economic development and social wellbeing in Africa. It is therefore meant to assist the Bank and borrowers to address resettlement issues in order to mitigate the negative impacts of displacement and resettlement and establish sustainable economy and society (www.afdb.org/.../afdb/.../Policy.../).

With regard to the Bujagali project, African Development Bank panel 2008 found that the project violated AfDB policies on indigenous people (EP 2004), resettlement (IRP 2003), poverty reduction (PR 2003), environment (EP 2004), participation, gender, and others. The panel also found Bank policies to be inadequate for analyzing project alternatives, dam safety and climate change (NAPE, 2008).

2.7.0 NATIONAL FRAMEWORKS FOR ADDRESSING DIDR IN UGANDA

It should be noted that literature concerning government relocation and resettlement in Uganda is very diminutive and not easily accessible partly because Uganda does not have a resettlement policy in place to guide resettlement programmes. Each time a need arises to relocate people such as during a war, aftermath of natural disasters or to pave way for a development project such as a dam, road and or urban expansion, the Office of the Prime Minister draws up a relocation and resettlement document however
these are not easily accessible to the general public either. In 1995, a draft policy was written and study undertaken by the Office of the Prime Minister entitled ‘Resettlement Policy and Institutional Capacity for Resettlement Planning in Uganda’ (GoU, 1995b; Segindo, 1995). To date the resettlement policy has not been taken forward.

Very few studies such as Penninah (2001) who looked at the impact of forest nature conservation on indigenous peoples: the Batwa of south-western Uganda; a case study of the Mgahinga and Bwindi impenetrable Forest Conservation Trust and David (2006) who researched on the socio-economic effects of protectionist conservation, involuntary resettlement and tenure insecurity on the edge of Mt.Elgon National Park, Uganda, have been done concerning relocation and resettlement in Uganda. This therefore puts a gap in the amount of literature that can be reviewed.

2.7.1 1995 Constitution of the Republic of Uganda

Article 237 of the Constitution of Uganda vests all land in the hands of the citizens of Uganda. It also entrusts all natural resources including forests in the hands of government for the people of Uganda. The article however provides for acquisition of land by government for public interest subject to article 26. Article 26 of the constitution provides for the protection from deprivation of property; however the provision is subject to exceptions where private property can be expropriated for public use upon prompt payment of fair and adequate compensation prior to expropriation, and a right to access courts of law for the deprived person or group of persons (Uganda Government, 1995). The Constitution upholds the right for people to be compensated for land and assets taken through compulsory acquisition by central or local government; it does not explicitly deal with the issue of resettlement (Uganda Government, 1995).

Despite the fact that the Bujagali affected people were given some compensation, according to the AfDB 2rd independent review report (2010), it was not enough to compensate for both their land and crops and to enable them acquire all the amenities and houses that would meet their families’ needs. As a result, 557 affected people living along the transmission line filed a case that they were inadequately compensated for both crops and land; a situation, which is not yet resolved.
2.7.2 Uganda Land Act of 1998

The 1998 land act affirms, in accordance with the 1995 Constitution, that all land is vested in the people of Uganda. Under section 1 of the Act, all land in Uganda is vested in the citizens of Uganda and shall be owned in accordance with customary, freehold, mailo and leasehold tenure systems. Under section 42, it provides for acquisition of land by government in public interest subject to article 26 of the constitution. Under section 44, the Act entrust the government with national parks, natural forests, natural rivers for the citizens of Uganda (GOU, 1998).

The Government of Uganda and the funders of the Bujagali dam project did not fully compensate the affected people for the land lost to pave way for the dam as noted in the NAPE, 2007/8 report yet according to the Land Act article 42, if the government is to acquire land for public use, the affected people must be fairly compensated. Failure to adequately compensate the affected people for their land lost for public use amounts to violation of the Uganda land act of 1998.

2.7.3 National Environmental Management Act, 1998

The Third schedule of the National Environmental Management Act specifies that any development that involves dams, rivers and water resources (including storage dams, barrages and weirs) or electrical infrastructure (including electricity generation stations, electrical transmission lines and electrical substations) require an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA). EIA helps in understanding the impact of such a project on the environment and since humans survives on these environmental resources, then it eventually affects their livelihoods if a proper EIA study is not conducted.

Also required are the cumulative Impact Assessments (CIAs) when more than one large infrastructure developments are located close together or on the same natural resource. However, in the case of the Owen Falls complex and the Bujagali dam project, no CIA was done which complicated the evaluation and appraisal process in determining the suitability of Bujagali dam at the proposed site 8km downstream the Owen Falls complex. The government also admitted that they were unable to conduct CIA studies,
because of the prior absence of EIAs for Nalubaale and Kiira power stations (NAPE, 2007)

2.8.0 Resettlement and compensation

During relocation and resettlement, items considered for compensation usually include; land, houses and crops. According to Brotoisworo (2000), cash or money compensation is the usual practice, which is contrast to the World Bank resettlement policy that states a preference for land compensation as opposed to cash as cash compensation does not restore the affected people’s livelihood. Cash compensation usually results in domestic violence as resettlement usually leads to unemployment, landlessness and other social problems.

The value of land and houses is usually determined by the government and the prevailing market prices, which results in the affected people receiving smaller amounts of cash than the actual prices of their land or house. As a result, the affected people may not afford the same size of house or land using solely the compensation from their former land or house (Brotoisworo, 2000).
Chapter Three: Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology that was used to conduct the research. It constitutes the research design, area and population of the study, sample size and sample selection, sampling procedure, data collection methods, data processing and analysis and limitations of the study.

3.1 Research Design

According to Enon (1998), a research design is a plan of how the researcher is going to carry out the investigation. It discussed why, where, how, and when the research was started and accomplished. Information was obtained from both primary and secondary sources and the survey involved fifty respondents. The findings were critiqued, conclusions drawn and recommendation made.

3.2 Sampling Design

3.2.1 Study population

The population surveyed included resettlers, host community, people who remained around Bujagali area, local leaders, NAPE, BEL and government workers.

3.2.2 Sample Size

The sample consisted of 50 respondents: 30 resettlers (21 male, 9 females), 2 local authorities in Bujagali area, 2 local authorities from the host community, 2 members from NAPE, 2 workers from BEL, 2 government workers, 5 people that remained around Bujagali area and 5 people from the host community in Naminya. Three focus group discussions were also held.
3.2.3 Sampling method

Random sampling was used for the household surveys while purposive sampling was used for the key informants. For random sampling, the researcher moved around the village and randomly selected whichever house that was open with members available and only interviewed member/s with his or her consent.

3.3.0 Study area

The study was done in Naminya resettlement village located in Mukono District 27 Km from Kampala, capital of Uganda. Mukono District is bordered by Kayunga District to the north, Buikwe District to the east, the Republic of Tanzania to the south, Kalangala District to the southwest, Wakiso District and Kira Town to the west and Luweero District to the northwest. The coordinates of the district are:00 20N, 32 45E.

3.4.0 Data Collection

3.4.1 Primary Sources

The researcher spent three weeks in Naminya village from the 13th June 2011 to 3rd July 2011 and employed semi-structured questionnaires for household surveys and open-ended questions and interview guides for key informants’. The purpose of using semi-structured interviews was that they were flexible and allowed new questions to be brought up during the interview. For focus group discussions, interview guides were used.

3.4.2 Secondary Sources

Secondary data was obtained from maps, journals, articles, thesis, published or unpublished documents, World Bank reports, NAPE reports, the Resettlement Action Plan, government assessment reports and BEL Bujagali hydropower reports. Some of these reports were available online while others were accessed from the different offices and libraries in Uganda.
3.4.3 Research instruments

The researcher employed interview guides and semi-structured questionnaires to the respondents from the selected sample. Both focused on four main sections. Section one contained background information, the second, people’s perception on government relocation and resettlement programmes and people involvement in the relocation process; third section focused on the impact of relocation on their livelihoods while the final section looked at coping mechanisms with specific focus on income generation.

3.5.0 Research Ethics

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from her University, which was used to gain approval from the respondents and to convince them that the research was purely academic and that the information so obtained was exclusively for academic purposes and was confidential. A research ethics form was also completed and signed off at Oxford Brookes University.

3.6.0 Data Analysis

The responses/findings were tabulated according to the major themes that emerged from the research questions and frequencies and percentages were got from which descriptive statistics and narrative explanations were generated.
3.7.0 Limitations to the study

The documentary data in Uganda was scanty and inaccessible to the public due to government involvement in such programmes.

Transportation and accessing some parts of Naminya village was a challenge since the place was located in a remote area. This was further aggravated by the constant heavy rains, which made the movements very difficult.

Red tape and bureaucracy was another challenge. Since Bujagali project has had many criticisms, every researcher has to first seek for permission from the Ministry of Energy
and Mineral Development to access the dam and get any information from Bujagali Energy Limited offices. The approval process took some time, which caused a lag in the timeline earlier set out.

Since the research was not done in the country where the researcher was studying, updating information as well as crosschecking data was a difficult thus a gap in this research.

However, despite these limitations, the information from the affected people gave relevance to the findings of the study, which were found to be still relevant and were corroborated with published data to raise the authenticity of the study contents.
Chapter four

Presentation and interpretation of findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents, interprets and analyses the findings of the study which focused on the impact of a government involuntary relocation and resettlement programme on the displaced community of Naminya resettlement village. The study used the IRR model developed by Michael Cernea in 1990s to investigate the impact because it identifies major risks, which could arise out of unsuccessful resettlement programmes. Finally the study focused on the situational analysis before and after the relocation programme.

4.2 The demographic and general information of the respondents

This section presents the background information of the study respondents with their relevance to the research findings. As shown in the table below, the information presented is related to the respondents’ age, gender, qualifications and economic activity of the resettlers and other key informants, which formed a basis for the analysis and fall back information on the findings of this research.

Table 1: Demographic and general information of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic/general information of the respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As indicated in the table above, a total of 50 respondents comprising of 30 resettlers and 20 key informants was used. The researcher established the sex of the resettlers and noted that out of 30 resettlers who participated in the study, 70% were males as compared to only 30% of the female respondents. The researcher also established that majority of respondents fell within the middle age brackets of 31 to 40 years representing over 50% of the total respondents. This was indicative of how the programme affected mainly the middle-aged category as most of them had settled around the lake to engage in fishing as the major economic activity.

Specifically, the study randomly selected and used a total of 21 males and 9 females throughout the interview processes. The main factor in the gender disparity was due to the fact that most households randomly chosen were male headed households and the men preferred to speak on behalf of their families leaving the women with little or
nothing to say. However, despite the low participation of women in the research, the study was able to ensure that the views of both sexes were effectively incorporated in understanding the impact of the relocation programme on the general livelihoods of the displaced community. This was done through comparing male and female views on the subject matter as well as ensuring that the female views were well presented in the report.

It should also be noted that from the findings of the respondents’ qualifications as indicated above, the most affected category of people during the government involuntary relocation programme was mainly the untrained/illiterate manpower which represented 90% of the total affected population. The few trained staff such as teachers and other skilled employees representing 10% of the respondents were only affected due to difficult economic situations that saw them give up their teaching jobs or other formal employment in favour of fishing which brought them daily income.

The study findings on current economic activities of the resettled community as shown above indicated that all the resettlers representing 100% of all respondents resorted to peasant farming soon after relocation since it was the only viable option which they could engage in for survival. This change in trend of income sources was reflective of the government’s ban on further fishing activities around the dam site and also due to long distances to other lakes from Naminya resettlement site, which is located in a remote area with no easy access to roads and markets. Both the government and BEL encouraged them to take up farming through provision of seeds, trees and training in agricultural skills and practices.

4.3 The perceptions of the resettlers on the relocation programme

The study also inquired into the resettlers’ perception on government involuntary relocation programme and most of them showed negative perceptions towards the programme because until the time of this research, some of the promises such as land titles, water, electricity and compensation for their crops and land had not been fulfilled.
Table 2: perceptions of the resettlers on the relocation programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions/opinions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It was a good move since now I have a concrete house</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was such a bad move since government and BEL have not fulfilled most of the promises</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was a move which made as poorer than before</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It would have been okay if Government had relocated us next to roads and markets as we were before</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was such a bad move since we lost so much in terms of crops, land, jobs, friends and relatives and some of these you cannot pay for them such as social networks.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source; primary data

The findings in the above table indicated various responses from 30 resettlers/respondents interviewed and whose diverse views are representative of their perceptions as far as relocation is concerned in relation to their individual conditions.

The responses sufficed to show that the resettlers moved to Naminya not because they wanted to; but because of the many promises which were made to them by both the government and the dam developer as represented by 90%. At the time of the study, promises such as providing tap water, electricity, land titles, building roads, availing credit facilities had not yet been fulfilled which further aggravated the situation.

On the other hand, 10% of the respondents were happy with the relocation because they were given concrete houses as opposed to the mud houses they had before. Although the resettlers own the houses in Naminya as a compensation for the ones’
they lost in Bujagali, the houses were not built according to their preferences. According to the resettlers, the houses were too small to accommodate their large families.

According to the resettlers, they were given two choices to either accept to move to Naminya or take the cash compensation and look for land elsewhere but did not have a choice to stay in Bujagali dam area. Some who had refused to leave were forcefully evicted a finding which was in line with the NAPE (2007) report.

4.4 Community participation in the relocation programme

Although both International and regional frameworks that govern relocation and resettlement emphasize equal participation between males and females, according to this study, within the households; it was mainly the males who had an upper voice than the females as shown by the table below;

Table 3: Community participation in the relocation programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both males and females participated equally</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the household level, males had an upper voice than females</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government and dam developer had an upper voice</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local leaders had an upper voice</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data
The table above present’s findings of 30 respondents whose views were sought to find out who was more involved in the relocation programme and as the results show, at the household level, men, represented by 60% of the respondents made decisions as compared to their counter-parts, the women, which is an indication of traditional practices in most societies in Uganda. Like most African societies, Ugandans are a patriarchal society where it’s mainly the men who make decisions on behalf of their households and this is a reflection of what happened during the relocation programme.

It should also be noted that, it is the women who at many times are concerned about the wellbeing of the family and therefore their views in this process would have been very vital. This was in line with the AfDB (2008) report which concluded concerning gender relations in the Bujagali project, "it does not appear that there was adequate consultation with affected women or that all their concerns have been adequately addressed in the resettlement and compensation plans."

On the leadership level, it was mainly the government, dam developer and local leaders who took part in most of the decision-making processes as represented by 90% and 30% respectively. Major decisions, which included where to relocate and the amount of compensation were made by the above despite the resettlers pleas to involve them in finding a new place or how to value their lost property.

This finding was in line with the findings from an interview with a NAPE official who insisted that both the government and dam developer did not give the community any chance to reflect their views let alone be consulted remarking that;

“As always, the practice with all government projects, these people were merely informed, coerced and even threatened into accepting the relocation in most cases learning the details from the press instead".
However, in another interview with the BEL project community officer, he insisted that people’s views were considered which led to the formation of the community development action plan, a document which was only on paper/formality as noted by the NAPE respondent during an interview.

On the other hand, 10% of the respondents indicated that they were consulted and they participated in the decision making of where to relocate them. Although the government, dam developer and local leaders had a major say in the relocation process, according to this research the final decisions of if to move and the kind of compensation to accept all came down to the males in the households.

The above findings of limited community participation are in line with the WCD (2000) report, which concluded “Dam-affected people are faced with the greatest risk of dam construction because they are not included in decision making with respect to resettlement, needs assessment and available options”.

**4.5.0 The impact of relocation and resettlement on the resettlers**

**4.5.1 Introduction**

The study also investigated the effects of uprooting these people from their homes in Bujagali and came up with numerous responses. The Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction model (IRR) developed by Michael Cernea in 1990s, was used to identify the risks of involuntary resettlement and the nature of their effects. The model identifies nine major impoverishment risks namely: landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalization, food insecurity, increased morbidity and mortality, loss of access to common property, social dislocation and lack of access to education. There are also ways in which the people were affected that cannot fit in the model, but those shall be discussed where they arise.

**4.5.2 Joblessness**

The risk of losing a source of income is very high during displacement yet creating or finding a new source is often difficult and requires substantial investment. The table below shows the kinds of jobs the resettlers lost when they moved to Naminya.
### Table 4: Joblessness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sex ratio</th>
<th>Total Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was a fisherman before but lost my job when I moved to Naminya</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21 men</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was involved in petty trade around the lake but I lost my shop when I moved</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I used to sell crafts and food crops along the road but I can no longer do that</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had a boat repairing shop but lost it when I moved</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: primary data

The responses given above were with respect to the kind of jobs the resettlers were involved in before relocation and a total of 30 respondents participated in the interview.

The findings show that most of the male resettlers were involved in fishing as the major economic activity representing 70% of those who lost their jobs as fishermen compared to petty trading, repairing of boats and craft selling each representing 10% of jobs lost. The reason was that they were located near water and so fishing was deemed to be the major economic activity amongst the men. No training was required; fathers taught their sons how to fish. The findings above show that more men (70%) lost jobs as compared to the women (30%) because like in many African societies, the man is the family’s bread winner while the woman is the home career and only engages in economic activities to supplement the family’s income but also then, it is not a must that she has to work.
Relocating them to Naminya meant that, the men could no longer be involved in fishing as the government had burned them from doing so and the other alternative lakes were far from their new location. Relocation left them jobless with only peasant agriculture as the only alternative for survival. In an interview with one of the local residents who remained within Bujagali area, he informed the researcher boastfully that;

“It’s the poor planners who accepted to move to that remote place and now suffering and missing fish meals and money”, and continued to explain that despite the government banning them from fishing near the dam area, he could still access the lake from somewhere else thus still earned daily income which made him better off in economic terms than those who relocated to Naminya.

4.5.3 Homelessness

Homelessness was identified as one of the effects of relocation as most resettlers felt a sense of missing their livelihoods, which were destroyed. These expressions came up during the interviews with them. They noted that despite each of them being given a house, many still felt a sense of homelessness as shown in the table below;
As indicated above, the study interviewed 30 respondents as to whether they felt at home in Naminya resettlement village. The findings show that although the dam developer provided every resettler with a house, majority of them who represented 80% of those interviewed do not consider Naminya as their home because of the fact that they were made to settle far from their original home in Bujagali as expressed by Kiyimba on being asked how he felt about their new place:

"We have become like outsiders or immigrants in this new place having left behind our culture, village, community, ancestors and our source of income behind", all showing how they feel being homeless especially the men who represented 70% of the total 80%.

However, (10%) of the female respondents felt that their children’s new generation will consider Naminya as their home since they will have grown up from there, schooled and possibly will continue to live there. On the other hand, 10% of the female respondents have since learnt to accept Naminya as their new home. The findings therefore show how men and women adapt differently to different situations when displaced or relocated to new environments.
4.5.4 Landlessness

Landlessness was identified as a major factor resulting from relocation to Naminya resettlement village. However according to this study it cannot be concluded that relocation left the resettlers landless but rather with smaller pieces of land as compared to what they had before relocation. All the resettlers in Naminya at least owned two acres of land. One on which the house was built and the other was used for planting crops. Of the 30 respondents, 10 had not yet received land titles and feared for any possible eviction. The variations in the sizes of the land each one owned in Naminya depended on many factors as shown by the responses in the table below;

Table 6: Landlessness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sex ratio</th>
<th>Total Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have the same size of land like what I had before relocation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Bujagali, I had more land however I was given two acres of land in Naminya and was compensated for the rest of my land in cash which I used to feed my family when we had just moved to Naminya</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21 men</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was given land in Naminya and I also bought more land elsewhere from my cash compensation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have not yet fully been compensated for my land I lost in Bujagali</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: primary data
The findings therefore show that out of the 30 respondents interviewed, 70% of the male resettlers currently have less land as compared to what they had before relocation. The findings also show that men had more land than women probably because in some African societies, women are not entitled to land ownership. The major reason for the 70% male respondents having less land was because the cash compensation, which was to buy more, land elsewhere was used to feed their households upon relocating to Naminya. This was as a result of the dam developer not fulfilling their promise to provide the resettlers with foodstuffs for at least the first six months after relocation, which caused severe food insecurity. The other reason according to the resettlers was that their crops and land were undervalued during compensation, which left them with less cash to buy more land.

A few of the female respondents (10%) who bought land elsewhere either had few mouths to feed or relied upon social networks mainly family which provided for them at the start. Another 10% mainly female respondents have not yet been fully compensated for the land they lost and only rely on the two acres they were given in Naminya. This was probably because they did not have a male representative to push for their compensation. This finding showed that the female-headed households were at a disadvantage compared to the male-headed households in terms of claiming for their compensation as more men (60%) participated in the process compared to 10% women.

4.5.5 Food Insecurity

From this research, food insecurity was the biggest issue amongst the households interviewed. The table below shows the situation as it were by the time this research was done.
Table 7: Food insecurity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sex ratio</th>
<th>Total Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The crop harvest is enough to feed my household</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The crop harvest is not enough to feed my household</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21 men:6 women</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Primary data

As indicated in the above table, 30 resettlers were asked on the status of food security in their households and the findings indicate that most of the households represented by 90% of respondents faced food insecurity and the reasons ranged from having small pieces of land, poor yields, poor soils and large families comprising of an average number of seven children per household. Of the 90%, 70% were male respondents, which showed that due to lack of a reliable source of income, men in Naminya find it difficult to provide food let alone a balanced diet to their families.

Due to the food insecurity, malnutrition levels were high which led to slow growth of children, poor attendance of schools and low body immunity most especially among the children and the old.

According to this research, there was a correlation between family size and food insecurity, the higher the number of family members, the higher the chances of food insecurity. This was because according to the resettlers, before relocation, they could feed their households no matter the number because through fishing they earned daily income, which is not the case with peasant farming which takes about six months to be able to harvest the crops. The time between planting and harvesting was identified as the hardest for these households as lamented by a male resettler;

“We are now going hungry as if we never planted any crops but all this is because instead of waiting for the evening to come and I sell my catch and buy food for my family, I now have to wait for many months to harvest the little maize that I even can’t
Such comments typically show the frustration in the shift of economic system/activities has put on the resettlers.

The 10% single female respondents who could provide enough food to their families was because they had fewer children as compared to the married women.

### 4.5.6 Loss of access to common property

According to this research, it was also evident that the people of Bujagali valued their community owned property such as shrines, forests and the lake. However, the relocation resulted into loss of rights to use these essential treasures for the community, which they felt could never be regained in their new location as shown in the table below:

**Table 8: Loss of access to common property**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sex ratio</th>
<th>Total Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When we moved to Naminya we lost our access to the shrines</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12 men: 6 women</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I mostly miss the forest from which we got fruits, medicines and firewood</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12 men: 9 women</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I miss the lake which brought us together as fishermen, gave as water and united us</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21 men:6 women</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: primary data

As shown in the above table, a random question was posed to the 30 resettlers to determine what property they considered to have lost during the relocation and the responses indicated that 90% of the respondents pointed to the lake as the main property lost because it was the main source of their daily earnings/income through fishing, some also used the water from the lake for home use or as a mode of transportation and a reunion ground with fellow fishermen. Of the 90%, 70% were men who lost their source of livelihood and 20% women lost their source of water for
domestic use. However, 70% of respondents also expressed that the loss of forest resources affected their livelihoods especially the women who used the forests as collection grounds for firewood, access to local medicines/herbs and free fruits. A female resettler remarked;

“The forest was everything to us; the pharmacy, the fruit store, the vegetable garden, the power station, our conference centre, our playground and our identity. We lost all this when we moved. It was never replicated in Naminya”.

According to the findings, all the nine women who took part in the study agreed to having lost the forest which was their source of medicine, fruits, firewood, gathering centre and a source of raw materials for their craft businesses.

On the other-hand, 60% of respondents both males and females felt the loss of access to their traditional shrines was another major loss to the community since it acted as a community consultative centre through which they sought wisdom, healing and counsel. According to Earle (1997), the loss of social and cultural resources is significant in and of itself as Individuals create and make a meaningful as well as a common identity through their relationships to place and the artifacts they use to define space. Resettlement disturbs the order created through relationships to space.

4.5.7 Community dislocation

Apart from losing common property, according to this research the resettlers as well lost social networks as a result of relocation. Some lost family members who refused to move to Naminya, others chose to leave Naminya due to the tough conditions while others lost friends and social support they depended on in times of difficulty because they moved to other areas as narrated by Akello,

“In Bujagali, when my children were chased from school due to outstanding fees, I would borrow money from my fellow women or my elder brother. However, since I moved to Naminya, I lost my friends and family because they refused to move to this place but rather opted to move to Jinja town. As a result, my two older children have dropped out of school because I cannot afford the fees or the transport to Jinja to
borrow money. *Moving to Naminya cost me my social and family ties which I depended on in times of difficulty*.

As noted by Cernea (2000, pg 30), human beings are part of social and cultural systems that give meaning to their lives. Relocation and resettlement weakens or dismantles social networks and life-support mechanisms, local authority systems collapse and groups lose their capacity for self-management. This can cause social disarticulation, dispersion and fragmentation of existing communities, and loss of reciprocity networks, increasing powerlessness, dependence, and vulnerability.

### 4.5.8 Marginalization, morbidity and mortality

According to this research, there were no responses regarding marginalization or increased morbidity and mortality. According to the resettlers, the host community (original inhabitants of Naminya village) treated them with compassion and helped them settle in by giving them some seeds, trees and farming equipment to start their own gardens. Rather what the resettlers faced was self-marginalization due to poverty a finding which was in line with Cernea (2000, pg26) who stated that, economic marginality can lead to social or psychological marginality.

Similarly from this research, no household reported to have suffered from diseases or lost a member as a result of relocation rather they said that the usual diseases such as malaria and HIV and AIDS, which affected them before, still do so. No household could confirm any increase in the spread of malaria or HIV and AIDS as a result of relocation.

### 4.5.9 Post relocation and access to basic needs and services

This section dealt with how the resettlers and their families tried to access the basic needs in comparison to their ability to access the same services before relocation. The basic public services considered in this study included; education, health, utilities like water and electricity.
Table 9: Access to education by children of the resettlers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sex ratio</th>
<th>Total Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My children dropped out of school</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5 men: 4 women</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I took them to cheaper schools</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15 men: 6 women</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I removed my children from boarding schools to day schools that were cheaper</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10 men: 5 women</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was lucky my children completed their education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: primary data

The table shows the difficulties that the resettlers had with regard to providing education to their children. They were forced to adjust to cheaper and more appropriate options and therefore 30% of the resettlers had to give up supporting the education of their children while 70% took them to cheaper schools clearly indicating that accessing low quality or no education was the biggest effect amongst the children of the resettlers.

The table also shows that only 10% of the resettles were able to fully support the education of their children to the end without compromising the quality although even here, it was amidst sacrifices and at the expense of other competing needs. The rest of the resettlers comprising 50% had to remove their children from boarding schools that were considered to offer better quality education and took them to cheaper day or state schools which offered low quality education.

**Access to medical care**

The researcher also inquired from the resettlers on the issue of access to medical services in their new area of relocation since better livelihood is a component of improved medical services and the responses were as below;
**Table 10: Access to medical care**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medical options</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sex ratio</th>
<th>Total Percentage%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For serious illness, we get treatment from bigger</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12 men: 9 women</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hospitals in Jinja or Mukono</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For simple illness, we get treatment from the community clinic in Naminya</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21 men: 9 women</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We use traditional medicine because they are effective and do not cost much money</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6 men: 6 women</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-medication</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7 men : 2 women</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: primary data

The responses as indicated in the table above were with reference to the question raised concerning where the resettlers sought medical care in their new village. One observation was that, all the respondents (100%) sought treatment from bigger hospitals in cases of serious illness although they all agreed to accessing treatment from the community clinic for simple illness such as flu or headaches at no cost. Although the treatment at the community health centre is free, it only covers minor cases, which meant that the resettlers either had to incur costs to access treatment from other bigger hospitals or resort to other forms of treatment.

In response, 40% of the resettlers resorted to traditional medicine for treatment, which they considered to be a reliable alternative and cost effective. An equal number (6 each) of both men and women agreed to using traditional medicine. For the women it was not a new form of treatment since they used to use herbs in Bujagali however to the men it was an almost new experience which was a result of poverty since they could not afford to go to hospitals like before. Others (30%) considered the distance from the village to the government hospitals as deterrence to seeking medical services and therefore opted for self-medication or merely using un-prescribed drugs. It was mainly the men (7)
who opted for self-medication also because of poverty which hindered them from affording proper treatment or transportation to access better health services.

**Access to other utilities; water, fuel and electricity**

It was also observed that access to utilities was an important component of the livelihood of any community and this research sought to find out how the resettlers were accessing water, fuel and electricity in their new relocation site and below were the responses.

**Table 11: Access to other utilities; water, fuel and electricity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We use boreholes and water tanks and wells</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We use paraffin lamps for lightening</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We use fire wood for cooking</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: primary data

The above trend indicated that the level of access to basic services such as lighting and fuel did not change much from what was before apart from water access, which changed from directly getting water from the lake to now using boreholes, tanks and wells. Although the dam developer promised the resettlers piped water, by the time of this research, the water had been pulled up to the local council’s house only but they could still not access it because they were asked to pay in order to be connected.
The table indicated that 100% used paraffin for lighting and firewood for cooking. The resettlers were also promised electricity however by the time of this research, this promise had not been fulfilled and even though they were to get electricity, the resettlers were informed that they will pay for their consumption and many will most likely not afford. Helen Akello, now living in Namilya resettlement village, offers a firsthand view of how people's livelihoods were affected: "As a single mother and breadwinner of my family, I now have to work twice as hard on poor soils, which produce so little compared to the rich harvests I used to realize from the fertile soils by the riverside in Bujagali." She continues;

"During long dry seasons, it's very difficult to access clean water and fire wood, I have to walk for about four hours to and fro, through sugar cane plantations to fetch water and firewood; I expose myself to risks of rape however by good luck I have not experienced it but other women and young girls have fallen victims to rape on their way to fetch water and firewood. To avoid being raped, I am forced to carry a heavy bumble of firewood to keep me for a few days say four and at times I choose to prepare one meal a day, or light foods that do not require a lot of firewood to cook. Sadly, this is at the expense of my family's health".

4.6.0 The situational analysis before and after relocation

This research also carried out a situation analysis to determine the life before and after relocation amongst resettlers and the findings are as discussed below;

4.6.1 The situational analysis before relocation

The majority of the respondents interviewed expressed that before relocation, many of them had dependable sources of income for survival. Many were fishermen while others were subsistence farmers. Therefore, the respondents agreed that their living
environment was better with lots of harmony in their homes. They also noted that the lake was their main source of water for home use, income through fishing and the forest was used for medicine, fruits and firewood.

In terms of children’s education, respondents noted that their children were in good schools with no threat of dropping out due to fees or other requirements since the parents were working and could afford to pay the fees. They also said, the families had enough food and afforded variety of foods to provide a balanced diet to their families.

4.6.2 The situational analysis after relocation

However, a further research to analyze the post-relocation situation revealed that majority of households experienced the loss of their steady, reliable and adequate flow of income and therefore could not support and sustain meaningful livelihoods.

In terms of ownership of assets, many resettlers indicated that the loss of larger pieces of land, common property and social networks all worsened their livelihoods in their new location.

Although the resettlers were given cemented houses as compared to the mud houses many owned before, majority of them did not feel at home due to the separation from their original livelihoods. It was also observed that as compared to children’s better education before relocation, the situation in Naminya has resulted in increased school dropouts of children due to lack of fees while others attend poor quality schools which leads to poor performances.

Food insecurity also became a common issue due to the unreliable weather, small pieces of land and poor soils hence affecting the livelihoods of most households. Food insecurity resulted into less family incomes since the resettlers had little or nothing to sell and poor balanced diets affected the children growth, school attendance and performance and resulted into low body immunities thereby easily exposing them to diseases.

Poverty led to increased domestic violence, as men could not meet their obligations of providing for the family leading to discontent among the wives and children and
frustrated men. On the contrary also, majority of men resorted to excessive drinking to avoid the responsibilities in their homes as well as suppress their frustrations due to failure to find alternative employment and source of income, which also increased the level of domestic violence within the households.
Chapter Five

Discussions, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction

This chapter covers the discussions of the information contained in chapter four that represented the perceptions and the impact of the relocation programme on the resettlers in Naminya village as well as their coping mechanisms with specific focus on economic restoration.

The discussion explored the extent to which the resettlers’ livelihoods had been impacted on by the relocation programme with reference to how they have managed to cope in their new location.

Conclusions were made on the extent to which the relocation and resettlement programme had affected the resettlers and recommendations were put forward as a guide on how similar government programmes could be better managed to minimize the negative impacts on the affected populations.

5.1.0 Discussion

5.1.1 Landlessness

One of the important questions answered by the study was whether the relocation programme caused landlessness amongst the resettlers. Although all the resettlers were given land in Naminya, 70% were not able to replace the same sizes of land they had before relocation because of the reasons discussed in chapter four. Land is a source of wealth in African societies; the more land one has the richer he or she is said to be. Having lost bigger pieces of land due to relocation, would have probably contributed to the resettlers state of impoverishment. Loss of land removes the main foundation upon which people’s productive systems, commercial activities, and livelihoods are constructed. Landlessness contributed to a reduction in family incomes of the resettlers.
In fact one of the resettlers, a 40-year-old male respondent had a painful memory when he narrated saying:

“*I had about eight acres of land before I was moved. I could feed my family and earn from my crops. In Naminya I was only given two acres of land with a cash compensation for the rest of my land, however; since I had a big family, I used the cash compensation to feed them and now I do not know what I will leave to my children when I die, these two acres are not currently enough. I do not want to think of that sad day when I die and leave my children with nothing.*”

Another rather lucky 35-year female resettler who had bought land elsewhere said;

“*It is important to expect anything. When I was told that we were to move to Naminya, I knew that our land could not be replaced in totality so the moment I was given a cash compensation for the rest of my land in Bujagali, I bought more land in Njeru.*”

From the findings, it was apparent that a strong correlation existed between family size and one’s chances of buying more land. The bigger the family, the harder the chances were of buying more land as larger families quickly spent the cash compensation that was meant to buy more land on food as the dam developer did not provide them with food and other necessities upon relocating to Naminya as they had earlier been promised. This alone served to say that the relocation programme had such an impact of larger families.

### 5.1.2 Homelessness

The research found that despite the feelings of homelessness being a concern among resettlers in Naminya village, there was no single case of physical homelessness among the resettlers. From the findings, every resettler was given a house; however, the resettlers major concern was that these houses were built with no consideration for large families. Each house had two bedrooms and a sitting room, the kitchen and toilet were all outside. With an average number of about seven children per family, the houses were too small to properly accommodate them. Although they had mud houses before, they had bigger pieces of land on which the older children built their own houses within the family compound. This was now impossible in Naminya due to lack of land.
The psychological feeling of homelessness was rather attached to the resources they left in Bujagali. Women reminisced of social networks; forest and the men missed the lake. This can be explained by the nature of culture among the Basoga, as being an outside culture where cultural space extends to the whole village and involves all village members. Although these people managed to settle in after a while, they never managed to reconstruct their livelihoods most likely because the resources that supported their livelihoods were never replicated in the resettlement area.

5.1.3 Joblessness

The study findings also revealed that generally, work among the resettlers had significantly reduced as compared to the situation before relocation. As discussed in chapter four; most of the resettlers comprising 70% were fishermen before relocation, an occupation that enabled them to feed and educate their families. However since moving to Naminya, they had to give up fishing and embark on agriculture. According to the resettlers, agriculture does not provide enough income as compared to fishing where they used to earn daily income.

Relocation also had a negative impact on women’s source of income and rendered them jobless as before, they used to sell crafts and crops and the men were fishermen. However; since moving to Naminya, both the markets and roads are very inaccessible as explained by Judith below;

"Sometimes, when I get a good harvest of maize and beans from my garden, beyond what my family can consume, I have to sell the excess and use the money to buy other necessities such as soap, sugar and paraffin. But due to unreliable means of transport or market in the village, I have to carry the heavy load for a long distance on my head to Njeru town which is about 15 to 20 miles from the village"
Joyce Nabwire, also affected by the programme, described the difficulties:

"There is no shop or market nearby. It now takes me about two hours to walk to the market. There is no public transport in the resettlement village. Rarely will you see a commuter motorcycle ride through the village, if you are able to get one; the cost is rather too high."

Men tried to work as labourers in sugar cane plantations but had to give up because they were being paid less than $1 or 1,500 Uganda shillings for a whole day’s work. Although the resettlers were promised jobs in the dam project, less than ten got the jobs mainly because of the corrupt recruitment officers who wanted bribes which the resettlers could not afford.

The study further found out that women may have developed on the whole a stronger resilience to relocation and resettlement as compared to the men. They have reconstructed the social-economic network in a modified way by forming small credit groups where they access small loans by collecting and saving contributions from group members. Women have also saved and benefited from the little incomes they derive from contract farming, while men are still struggling to adapt. Men have actually become more violent at home. The women focus group discussion revealed that money-related domestic conflicts are now common in Naminya.

5.1.4 Food insecurity

From the findings, the resettlers faced severe food insecurity when they had just moved to Naminya because neither the government nor the dam developer provided them with food items and according to them they were just dumped and left to die as remarked by Grace;
“The area was bushy, some soils were sandy and we had to start from scratch. The government did not care if we lived or died. The promised food items never came, children cried all the time because of hunger, it was a terrible time”.

Although the conditions have slightly improved since they grow food, the families’ still faced food insecurity because of the small pieces of land, which cannot produce the much, required. There was an evident lack of food among the people, some people were thin, and the children looked under-nourished. Adults claimed that milk and fish was a vital part of their diet, but now it is a luxury. As a way of coping with the shortage of food, some families have resorted to eating one meal a day as remarked by Stella;

“I have to work twice as hard to be able to feed my family, I have seven children who many times feed once a day, my problem is the little ones who at times cannot wait for that long, the good days in Bujagali are far gone and now I have to suffer to survive”.

5.1.5 Loss of access to common property resources

Having lived near the lake for generations, the people were greatly adapted to the lake resources. The adaptation was bolstered by a common property arrangement where all had user rights as individuals and ownership rights as a community. Resources such as grazing grounds, trees for setting beehives, lake, medicinal trees for herbs, fruits and other resources were freely accessible to all people to use in a responsible way governed by local rules. When these people were displaced from Bujagali, this system broke down. These common resources that supported their livelihoods were left in the lake and forest and were never replaced.

Comments from the women focus group discussion revealed that the men had changed; they were incapable of providing the domestic needs of their families because
they could not afford. Men agreed with the statement by saying that it was difficult to meet the increasing financial demands of a home in Naminya, given that they did not have meaningful sources of income. They also observed that there was not enough land to grow enough food for all the family members and alternative resources that relieved expenses on domestic needs like fishing are no longer available. What seemed to impoverish them was the collapse of their livelihood opportunities.

5.1.6 Community dislocation

All the resettlers expressed that their relationships with their families or community ties were broken by the relocation programme with many losing friends and relatives. Since moving to Naminya, many find it difficult to travel back to Bujagali area to visit their friends and relatives. Others lost relatives and friends who found the living conditions within the village very difficult to bare so they left to look for better pastures elsewhere. Some of these were older children who moved away from home with some moving to urban areas in search of jobs. To many resetlers, life has never been the same again as many social networks which they depended on mainly in times of difficulty were broken down. One mother said;

“Two of my old boys decided to leave Naminya for Kampala as they could not stand the conditions while my girls opted to get married. This movement cost me my family and friends, I take long to hear from children who are now scattered in different places”.

Comments from the women focus group discussion revealed that men had changed, in that, they do not love their children as they used to in Bujagali. They look at them as a burden: boys need wealth to pay for bride price and a piece of land to start a family, all of which do not exist in abundant amounts. The women also feared that the fathers have started to send girls at a very young age away from the home to get married. Marrying off a daughter brings in wealth to the family in form of animals and other materials paid as bride price.

Discussions in the female focus group discussion and the local leaders revealed that domestic violence was also on the increase due to increased alcoholism among men.
Since the men have nothing much to occupy them, many turned to excessive drinking. This resulted into constant fights among couples.

5.1.7 Marginalization

From the findings, the resettlers did not face any marginalization from the host community but rather were helped to settle in by the local residents in Naminya. According to the resettlers the locals provided them with seeds, trees and farming equipment to start up their gardens as remarked by Carol Nansege a host community member;

“When these people were brought here, they had nothing to feed on, their children cried all the time because of hunger. They became beggars to survive. As a mother, I could not stand to see the little children starving, so I used to cook and share my meals with them. I also gave maize and bean seeds to some women to plant. These people had no one else to turn to accept us the local residents.”

However according to the study; cases of self-marginalization as a result of the biting level of poverty among the resettled community existed which they admitted to freely. One male resetter said;

“I cannot now stand in the same circle as other men when at times it takes me months to get just Ugx 1,000, (less than $1). Can you say you are man when at times you cannot afford to feed your family? My daughter I feel so hopeless and helpless. I cannot say I am the same man as before, in fact I am a loser now”.

The resettlers look at poverty alleviation programmes such as credit extension, better seeds and training as a solution to their problem.

5.1.8 Increased morbidity and mortality

Cernea (1997) notes that displacement leads to serious decline in health and increases the vulnerability of a community to epidemics. However, from the findings, the resettlers did not experience an increase in morbidity or mortality as according to them the same diseases such as malaria and HIV and AIDS that they suffered from before relocation are the same diseases that they still suffer from in Naminya. However due to lack of a
nutritious diet, it is mainly the young and old people that face illnesses because of weak body immunity.

5.1.9 Loss of access to public services such as schools and hospitals.

According to this research, upon relocation, the resettlers faced a lot of difficulties in accessing education and hospitals because these facilities were not immediately provided to them by the dam developer as earlier promised.

However, in 2009, BEL built a nursery and primary school only up to primary five and according to the resettlers, a local person took over its management which made it difficult for some of the resettlers children to access the school due to the high fees. The resettlers plea to the government was to turn the school into a universal primary school managed by the state. This way, their children will be guaranteed of free universal primary education.

Accessing secondary education was also difficult because the school was built about 5 miles from the village. The distance discourages the children while those who endure it often times lack concentration in class due to hunger and tiredness.

In 2009, one of the houses was turned into a health centre and the services offered according to the resettlers are minor such as treating flu and headaches. In cases of serious health conditions, the resettlers have to painfully endure 15 to 20 miles of carrying a patient to Jinja or Mbiko towns to larger hospitals.

According to the resettlers, the medical staff in the health centre only work three hours during the day and refused to stay in the village because of its remoteness and lack of electricity. Such inadequacy makes the community feel more insecure in case of any emergency that needs medical attention.

Fig 12: A Primary school built by BEL
5.1.10 Access to utilities such as water and electricity

When the resetters had just moved into Naminya, they had no access to clean water and the women had to walk for miles to get water. With constant advocacy from NAPE, BEL built each house a water tank and a reservoir, which can be used to water plants during dry seasons. Two bore holes were also built in the village however; the major problem was that during long dry season, both water tanks and reservoirs dry up leaving the residents with the only two bore holes which often break down due to over usage.

Due to poverty, it takes a long time before the community can pool resources to repair the boreholes and therefore; the women still have to walk for miles to get water and at times are raped by men according to the responses from the women focus group discussion.

Although BEL has managed to bring in water pipes and electricity transmission lines, the resettlers were told that whoever could afford pay for the water and electricity bills could access the services. This contrasted the original promise made to them before relocation where they were promised free clean water and electricity in their houses. According to the resettlers, none of them can afford to pay the bills therefore, none accesses these services.
5.2 How the resettlers are coping: economic restoration

According to this research, due to lack of larger pieces of land, credit facilities and skills in other fields such as carpentry and poultry which could provide employment, the household members especially the men are finding it very difficult to cope economically. Many women took up agriculture as compared to the men. As a result, many women have taken up the role of providing for the family, which has increased domestic violence.

Apart from agriculture, there was no other source of income for these households a condition, which made economic restoration very difficult. Although the women formed small credit groups, the money they access is often too little to make any major difference in their homes.

Relocation greatly affected their livelihoods and both the government and dam developer could not restore them as per the World Bank resettlement guidelines.

5.3.0 Conclusions

The study findings as presented in chapter four and the above discussions led me to the following conclusions;

The majority of the resettlers were worse off after relocation as compared to before relocations. An overwhelming majority of the resettlers were jobless and due to lack of relevant formal education, they would not get jobs in the formal sector. Involuntary resettlement is impoverishing because it takes away economic, social, and cultural resources all at the same time.

Relocating people and giving them houses does not necessarily mean they will feel at home but rather relocation brought about psychological feelings of homelessness which resulted from being separated from their livelihoods and social networks.
The nutritional status of the majority of the resettlers and their households was worse off than before relocation. The majority of the households could only afford one meal a day, let alone lacking a balanced diet. With increased poor soils in some parts, unreliable rains and lack of government involvement in providing extension services to subsistence farmers, crop failure therefore makes single meals a common occurrence in the greater portion of the year.

Relocation left many households with less land and majorly affected large families. This resulted in reduction in family incomes, which saw some of the children dropping out of school to either engage in agriculture or get married to bring wealth into the family.

The price of accessing medical care increased as the community clinic can only treat simple illness yet before relocation, access of medical services was easier as transportation and money were available.

Lastly, development benefits are not shared equally; this is because the people who were physically displaced and resettled in Naminya may most likely not be able to afford the electricity yet they gave up their land for a dam.

The future of the resettlers in Naminya will probably be very dark if both the government and the dam developer do not come in to help them restore their livelihoods especially economic restoration. Their children will probably continue to drop out of school due to lack of fees, domestic violence may increase due to increased alcoholism among the men, child labour may spring up and increased mortality due to lack of money for treatment and balance diets. With no viable source of income, the livelihoods of the resettlers in Naminya will probably worsen in the near future.

5.4.0 Recommendations

There is need for an involuntary relocation policy that will guide future relocation programmes so as minimize the adverse effects on the affected people.

Both social disarticulation and marginalization can be mitigated by resettlement strategies that emphasize the reconstruction of communities and social networks and
deliberately pursuing strategies of social cohesion (Cernea, 2000, pg40). The building of education institutions that provide skills that allow people to use new resources is needed to combat marginalization.

The resettlers should be provided with relevant skills, post-relocation training in advance to enable them to smoothly transit into a new area or other modes of employment to help rebuild their livelihoods easily.

The resettlers should be provided with support such as foodstuffs, disturbance allowance for at least the first six months after relocation to help them settle in well with limited nostalgic tendencies.

The relocation process should be clear, transparent and fair and should be explained to those who will be affected in time. This would reduce the tendency of feeling maltreated and hence the delay to heal from such a programme.

There should be occasional guidance and counseling given to the resettlers in addition; there should be refresher courses and continuous training to tap the potential of the affected resettlers to allow them gain skills in other areas which could help them rebuild their livelihoods.

The government should extend credit services to the resettlers. This was one of the major hindrances, as the resettlers could not access bank loans due to lack of security and the high interest rate at 25%. Favorable financial credit schemes should be extended to the resettlers.

The government should revisit its withdrawal of agricultural subsidies such as fertilizers and other equipment as well as the unavailability of agricultural extension workers in remote areas. Since agriculture is the mainstay for the majority of the resettlers, the government should not abandon them.

There is need for increased investment in infrastructure, extending markets to the rural farmers to reduce transportation costs, improvement and extension of feeder road coverage, and increased extension services to them. If these are achieved, the
resettlers will start to earn comparatively good income from their produce and dramatically improve their livelihoods.

There is also need to improve the health services in resettlement places, which will reduce on the costs incurred by the people to access better health services. Services such as family planning should be freely provided to enable the resettler control childbirth. Fewer children would mean that the parents can take care of them

If relocation and resettlement of people must occur, the Government of Uganda must ensure that the process is participatory and rights-based. According to the Guiding Principles (GP), internally displaced persons have a right to be informed, consulted and participate in decisions affecting them (in particular GP 7.3 c and d, GP 18.3 and GP 28.2). The displaced people should be consulted and invited to participate in the process from the start including exploring intervention measures to help them remain and/or to move. It should be noted that failure to assist persons who have been displaced amounts to human rights violations.

When undertaking relocation and resettlement programmes, the government should adopt durable solutions that can promote successful undertaking of such programmes in general and promotion of affected people’s livelihoods in particular. This requires the state to put in place infrastructures that fulfill basic economic, social and cultural rights such water and sanitation facilities, schools and health centres close to the relocation and resettlement sites.

Finally the affected people should receive compensation for property and land lost as well as assistance in resettling and re-establishing their livelihoods and residence elsewhere (GP 28 and 29). In case of a permanent relocation, some development principles should also apply by analogy. The World Bank’s Operational Policy 4.12 on Involuntary Resettlement of January 2001 requires that all of the affected persons should have incomes and standards of living, which are at least equivalent to their pre-project condition.
5.5.0 Areas for further research

The role of NGOs in advocating for the rights of development-induced displaced communities. The study should focus on how NGOs can influence policy changes that ensure that the needs of those to be relocated are effectively addressed prior to relocation from their habitual places of origin.

Future research should study the wider needs of displaced communities in Naminya and make a comparative analysis with the needs of other development-induced displaced populations in other parts of the World. This will help draw the line on what impact relocation can put on the socio-economic and cultural fabric of the society.

The role of microfinance services in reconstruction of resettlers livelihoods in Naminya camp, specifically, future studies should look at issues of access to microfinance services and their potential for strengthening household incomes through savings as a means of creating sustainable livelihoods for the resettled community.

A long-term impact study over several years should focus on the change in social-cultural setting of the resettlers years after other generations have lived in Naminya.
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Appendix C

Semi-structured questionnaire for the household surveys

1) General Information

Respondent's name

Sex 1) Male                      2) Female

Age of respondents 1) 18-35      2) 36-55       3) 56&older

Education Status 1) Illiterate         2) Primary      3) Secondary    4) College/Degree

Family size of the household

2) Relocation information

a) Did you get the information about relocation? If Yes how did you get it?

b) When was the relocation carried out and who carried it out?

c) Were you among those who were relocated and how old were you?

d) If yes, were you allowed to take part in the decision making about relocation? 1) Yes
                                 2) No

e) Who took part in the decisions concerning relocation and how?
f) How long did it take you to leave Bujagali area from the time you first heard about the relocation?

g) Did you have meetings with government officials concerning relocation?

h) If what kind of meetings were they?

i) Did you voluntarily or involuntarily leave your land?

j) How did you move from Bujagali area to Naminya?

k) By what means did you move your property to Naminya?

l) How did relocation affect the young, elderly and pregnant women?

m) What was the compensation scheme? 1) Land 2) Cash 3) Others

n) Were you satisfied with the compensation scheme? 1) very satisfied 2) satisfied 3) unsatisfied 4) do not know

o) Do you think relocation should be done? 1) Yes 2) No

p) Relocation programmes should be carried out with adequate compensation to the affected people, 1) strongly disagree 2) disagree 3) neutral 4) Agree 5) Strongly agree 5) do not know

q) After relocation, have there been any development programmes to help you cope in the new area?

3) What were some of the problems you faced when you had just been relocated to this area?

1) Health , 2) security  3) conflict with host community  4) any other

4) Access to facilities before and after relocation

Does your family have access to the following facilities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Before Relocation</th>
<th>After relocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 water</td>
<td>Tape/borehole/others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5) Land distribution

a) What were the different means through which one acquired land in Bujagali area before relocation?

b) Who among family members received land on behalf of the family?

c) In whose names was the land registered?

d) How did land acquisition and distribution affect the social setting in the Basoga community, if so how?

e) Did every household get land?

f) How big is the land?

g) Have there been any land conflicts in Naminya? If yes what are the main causes?

h) Do you think your land can be taken away?

6) Housing status

a) Did you have a house of your own before relocation? 1) Yes 2) No
b) Do you have a house your own now? 1) Yes  2) No

c) If yes, type of house

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before relocation</th>
<th>After Relocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mud</td>
<td>Mud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wooden</td>
<td>Wooden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cemented</td>
<td>Cemented</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7) Social Assets

a) As a result of relocation, did you lose any family or friendship ties?  1) Yes   2) No

b) If yes, which ties did you lose?

c) Did you rely on others for help? If so, how?

8) Food security

a) Are you able to get enough food to eat?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before Relocation</th>
<th>After Relocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</table>

b) If no, how has food insecurity affected the health of your family?

c) Where does your food come, ie how do you get it?

9) Access to common property?

a) Before relocation, what important resources did you own as a community and how did you use them?

b) Do you still have access to these resources?

c) If not, what alternatives do you use now?

d) How has your life changed since the restrictions of the resources were effected?

e) Do you have anything you own as a community now?
10) Community dissemination
   a) Did you lose any family member during the relocation process? If yes, how?
   b) Has any family member left or moved since you were relocated?
   c) Why did they leave or move?
   d) Did relocation affect the Basoga social setting? If yes how?

11) Family Income/Expenditure
   a) What was the main income generating activity before relocation?
   b) What was your daily earning before relocation?
   c) What is your current income generating activity?
   d) What is your current earning?
   e) How much did you use to spend on a daily basis and on what before relocation?
   f) How much do you currently spend and on what?
   g) What are the other sources of income to supplement your earnings and expenditure gap?
   h) Is the income enough to meet the household needs?
   i) Do you access to credit facilities?

Appendix D

Interview guide for the local councilors
   a) How did this community come to exist and when?
   b) How many people live here?
c) Where did they come from?

d) In case of displacement/resettlement, who carried it out?

e) How was it carried out?

f) Were there any promises made by government after the incident and which ones are they?

g) Do you feel they have been fulfilled?

h) What government services do you have access to and are you satisfied with them?

i) What should be done to ensure proper displacement and resettlements?

**Interview guide for the Bujagali Energy limited / Government workers**

**Social-legal issues**

a) Has there been any displacement from Bujagali area?

b) If yes, what people were displaced and when?

c) Were there any guidelines set down by the government to follow during the exercise?

d) Were the local people aware of those guidelines? If yes did they ask for them?

e) Are there any international legal requirements regarding displacement that Uganda had to follow at the time of displacement and were they observed during evictions?
f) In your opinion were the legal requirements observed in the process of displacement?

g) What happened to these people after they were displaced from the park?

**Distribution of land during the resettlement exercise**

a) What were the grounds for land allocation in the new area?

b) What were the conditions for eligibility to receive land?

c) What was the procedure for choosing those conditions?

d) What does the nature of distribution of plots in the resettlement areas say about gender equality?

**The legality of displacement under the Ugandan law**

a) Who owned the land from where the people were evicted?

b) Was their ownership recognized under the law?

c) Under what conditions can displacement be acceptable?

d) Were there any kind of agreements between the government and the displaced people and if yes of what nature were they?
e) Do you think the people were on equal footing with the government in the agreement process?

f) Were the displacees presented with other alternatives options than resettlement?

g) What roles did the displacees play in making the terms of evictions and resettlement?

h) Was there any kind of arrangement for the dissatisfied local people to seek redress?

i) Do you feel the displacement/resettlement was carried out according to the law at the time?

**Dissemination of information**

a) Did the government disseminate information to the affected people before actual displacement/resettlement took place? If yes, how was it carried out?

**Interview guide for National Association of Professional Environmentalist workers**

a) How did you come to be involved in the issues of Naminya resettlement camp?

b) Can you tell me how relocation and resettlement has affected these people’s livelihoods?

c) In your capacity, what have you so far done to help them?
d) Have your pleas to help these people been herd by both National and international governing bodies?

e) In your view, do you think relocation and resettlement should be carried out on favour of a dam?

f) What recommendations would you give to the government to better manage these programmes?
**World Bank Involuntary Resettlement Policy**

- Involuntary resettlement should be avoided or minimized where feasible by exploring all viable alternative project designs.

- Resettlement plans should be developed for cases where displacement is unavoidable.

- Involuntary resettlement should be integrated into project design and dealt with from the start of project preparations.

- Displaced populations should receive benefits from the project.

- Resettlement should be conceived and executed as a development programme.

- Affected persons should be:
  - Compensated for their losses at full replacement cost prior to the actual move.
  - Assisted with the move and supported during the transition period in the new resettlement site.
  - Assisted in their efforts to improve their living standards, income earning capacity and production levels, or at least to restore them.

- Community participation in planning and implementing resettlement should be encouraged.

- Resettlers should be integrated socially and economically into host communities through planning resettlement in areas benefiting from the project and through consultation with the future host communities.

- Compensation and resettlement assistance should not only be limited to affected persons that hold legal title to the land. The Bank recognizes the existence of usufruct or customary rights to the land or use of resources.
WCD’s Guidelines Relevant to Involuntary Resettlement

• Negotiated decision-making processes: agreements to be reached by consensus amongst stakeholders.

• Free, prior and informed consent: agreement by affected people on option assessment and preparation as well as implementation and operation of selected option.

• Recognition of entitlements and sharing of benefits.

• Impoverishment risk analyses to identify risks and devise suitable migratory measures.

• Negotiation of a mitigation, resettlement and development action plan (MRDAP)
June 24, 2011

Mr. Glenn Gaydor
Project Director
Bujagali Energy Ltd
JINJA

MS. PHIONA NAMPUNGU

Ms. Phiona Nampungu, is a student from Oxford Brookes University, she is in Uganda to carry out field research on an assessment of the impact of a government relocation and resettlement programme on the livelihood of development – induced displaced population, a case study of Bujagali Hydropower Dam Naminya resettlement camp, Uganda.

The purpose of this letter is to inform you of that the Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development has authorized Ms. Nampungu to carry out her research on Bujagali.

Eng. Paul Mubiru
For: PERMANENT SECRETARY

CC Mr. William Groth
Resident Construction Manager
Bujagali Energy Ltd
1 June 2011

To whom it may concern

INTRODUCTORY RESEARCH LETTER FOR MISS. PHIONA NAMPUNGU

I hereby write to introduce Phiona Nampungu a student at Oxford Brookes University in the United Kingdom currently studying for a MA in Development and Emergency Practice.

Phiona is researching on “AN ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPACT OF A GOVERNMENT RELOCATION AND RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMME ON THE LIVELIHOODS OF DEVELOPMENT-INDUCED DISPLACED POPULATIONS, A CASE STUDY OF BUJAGALI HYDROPOWER DAM NAMINYA RESETTLEMENT CAMP, UGANDA” for her final thesis.

For this purpose, she is embarking on a trip to Uganda in order to undertake a field research and I will therefore be very grateful if you could be of any assistance to her to that effect.

Thank you very much for your consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]