IMPACT OF RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMS ON REBUILDING OF LIVELIHOODS IN AMANI AND CANAAN RESETTLEMENT SCHEMES IN TRANS NZOIA COUNTY, KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the candidate

This thesis is my own original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without the prior written permission of the author and/or Moi University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my late father Festus Mwaturo, my late mother Elizabeth Naliaka and my children Lukela, Naliaka, Nyongesa and Kisiang'ani.

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ABSTRACT

People who are forcefully displaced from their habitual homes suffer loss of livelihood assets such as land and housing and are exposed to many risks such as joblessness, landlessness, homelessness and food insecurity among others. This study sought to establish the impact of resettlement programs on the rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled IDPs in Amani and Canaan resettlement schemes. The specific objectives of the study were to: establish the livelihood activities being undertaken by the resettled IDPs; determine the level of access to essential services; assess the impact of resettlement on the rebuilding of livelihoods and examine the challenges facing the reconstruction strategies of the resettled IDPs. Cernea's Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction (IRR) Model was relevant in conceptualizing the study problem. A cross-section survey research design was used. From a target population of 294 households, 232 household heads were selected using simple random sampling while the key informants were sampled purposively. Structured questionnaires, interview schedules, observations and photography were used to collect data. The statistical data was analyzed in form of mean and standard deviation and presented in form of tables, percentages and graphs. It was established that there was an increase in the number of IDPs who engaged in farming from 39 (16.8 %) before resettlement to 221 (95.3%) after resettlement. The resettlers also undertook off-farm livelihood activities whose proceeds were used to supplement household needs. There was increased access to agricultural extension, medical and administrative services as well as political leadership after resettlement. The resettlement programs increased ownership of land, houses and food. The resettled persons gained greater access to sources of safe drinking water. Pit latrines were the main sanitation facilities with the number of households sharing a facility reducing greatly after resettlement. The resettled persons had access to public medical facilities after resettlement. The main sources of fuel for cooking and lighting after resettlement were firewood and paraffin respectively. The number of people experiencing food shortages, poor housing, inadequate medical services, inadequate education facilities, and farming problems decreased after resettlement. It was concluded that resettlement led to rebuilding of livelihoods by improving ownership of land and housing, and access to water, medical and education services. Policy makers should integrate other livelihood activities in the resettlement programs. Scholars should further study the various programs for the rebuilding of livelihoods in other resettlement schemes in Kenya.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALKO	Afraha, Lanet, Kapkures and Ogilgey
AU	African Union
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CDF	Constituency Development Fund
CIPEV	Commission of Inquiry into Post-Election Violence
CRS	Catholic Relief Society
DC	District Commissioner
DO	District Officer
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
GoK	Government of Kenya
GOSS	Government of South Sudan
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation Agency
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization

IOM	International Organization for Migration
IRP	International Recovery Platform
IRR	Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction
ISDR	International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
KNCHR	Kenya National Commission for Human Rights
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
NGO's	Non- Governmental Organizations
NNIK	National Network for IDPs in Kenya
PEV	Post-Election Violence
PTF	Presidential Task Force
SPSS	Statistical Package of Social Science
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugee
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UN-HABITAT	United Nations Human Settlements Program
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Educational Fund

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

After resettlement: The period after the IDPs had been allocated land and had built homes for themselves in Canaan and Amani settlement schemes.

Before resettlement: The period after displacement and when the IDPs had not yet been allocated land but were living in temporary residences either in transit sites or among host communities as integrated IDPs.

Financial Capital: In the present study, it includes the monetary resources in terms of savings, credit and income from employment, trade and remittances.

Food security: It encompasses availability of adequate quantities of a variety of foods such as cereals, fruits, vegetables and animal products.

Host Communities: In this study it refers to communities leaving in the immediate neighborhood of the resettlement schemes.

Human Capital: It implies the skills, knowledge, health and ability of the resettled persons to work and make a living.

Integrated IDPs: In the present study, they include the internally displaced persons who have melted into the general population either by renting houses or returning to their 'ancestral' homes to live with relatives.

Integration: It refers to full participation of IDPs in the affairs of the host communities be it economically, politically or socially.

Internally Displaced Persons: In this study, IDP means persons or groups of persons who have been compelled to flee their places of habitual residence, but who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border.

Livelihood: in this study it comprises the capabilities, assets (natural and social resources) and activities for human survival that evolve within physical, social, economic and political contexts.

Livelihood assets: includes the tangible (such as trees, land, cash savings, livestock, and tools) and intangible resources (access to support, information, skills, education, employment opportunities and services) that the resettled persons would use to meet life's needs.

Natural Capital: In this study it includes land, water and forests that the resettled persons were able to access.

Physical Capital: in the current study it encompasses houses, roads, schools, ICT, tools, livestock and equipment that resettled persons had access to.

Rebuilding/ reconstruction: in the present study it means the revival or restoration of livelihood assets that were lost to the Post-Election Violence of 2007/2008.

Resettlement: refers to movement of IDPs to and establishment of new places of residence for them because they are no longer allowed to live in the homes from which they were displaced.

Returnees: the IDPs who have returned either to their ancestral homes or places from which they were displaced.

Social Capital: in the present study it involves the informal networks, membership to formalized groups and relationships of trust that facilitate cooperation and economic opportunities among a people.

Transit Sites: In this study it involves the temporary camps where displaced persons lived awaiting resettlement or return to settlements from which they had been displaced.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study Problem

Politically-instigated violence which reaches its peak during elections has caused displacement of many people in developing countries. According to Deng (2004), about twenty-five million people in over fifty countries are displaced from their homes or places of habitual residence due to internal conflicts, tribal violence or serious violations of human rights, but have remained within their national borders. Regionally, Africa leads in the number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) with about thirteen million in twenty countries; followed by Asia with approximately four million displaced persons in ten countries (Deng, 2004). The internally displaced persons are about three million in four Latin American states. Europe has three million IDPs in twelve countries while the Middle East is home to two million in five countries (Deng, 2004).

Whereas the phenomenon of internal displacement attributed to various causes has a long history in Kenya, the post-election violence (PEV) of 2007-2008 brought into sharp focus the lamentable failure by post-independence governments to address the real causes of conflict and displacement. There are many causes of displacement – natural disasters, development projects, cultural practices such as cattle rustling and resource conflict- but political violence has generated the largest proportion of all displaced persons in Kenya (United Nations Development Program [UNDP], 2011). Although displacement has followed the pattern of elections since the introduction of multiparty elections in 1992- having occurred in 1992, 2002 and 2007-that due to the PEV of 2007 was grand in scale and far reaching in its ramifications (UNDP, 2011).

It attracted greater media coverage and international attention owing to the great number of deaths and displaced persons it left in its aftermath.

Although a result of the anger over the highly questionable election results of 2007, and with strong evidence of planning by political groups (Waki, 2008), the violence rapidly spiraled into a calamitous ethnic struggle (Somerville, 2011). More than 1200 persons were murdered and about 660,000 displaced from their homes in 2007/2008. Those displaced were impoverished through deprivation of livelihoods and subsequent loss of human, social, natural, physical and financial capital (International Recovery Program [IRP], 2015). They faced risks to their health, security and property, and lost access to quality health care services, lacked proper nutrition, and suffered increased morbidity and mortality (IRP, 2015).

The Government of Kenya (GoK), United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR), United Nations Program for Human Habitation (UNHABITAT), religious organizations, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Civic society undertook intervention measures (Article 19 Eastern Africa, 2011) to help the IDPs in transit sites as more lasting solutions were sought. Initially the GoK provided humanitarian relief especially food, water, tents, security and some basic necessities to the displaced people. It also provided transport to those IDPs who wanted to return home (ancestral or other locations) in the Operation *Rudi Nyumbani* (Return Home) program after the signing of the National Peace Accord on 29th, February, 2008. Thirdly,the GoK and stakeholders took measures towards reconciliation and increased security. The programs included Operation *Ujirani Mwema* (Good Neighborliness) and Operation *Tujenge Pamoja* (Let's Build Together). As a result some IDPs returned to their "ancestral homes" as "integrated IDPs", or to their former

homes as “returnees”. Some IDPs bought land in safer areas either individually or through organized Self Help Groups while others remained in transit camps (UNDP, 2011).

To enhance peace and security, the GoK deployed more security personnel in areas with concentration of IDPs, and created 30 police posts in areas where returnees went (Kenya Human Rights Commission [KHRC] and National Network for IDPs in Kenya [NNIK], 2011). Security escort was provided to those who moved to new settlements and Special District Officers were appointed to coordinate activities of IDPs in volatile areas. Reconciliation measures were also pursued by other stakeholders including the clergy and civil society groups. The TJRC and its subsequent organs such as the District Peace Committees were established.

The last intervention program was the resettlement of IDPs by the GoK. Legal Notice No. 11 of 30th January 2008 established a humanitarian fund for mitigation of effects and displacement of victims (Article 19 Eastern Africa, 2011). After the signing of the Peace Accord in 2008, the GoK gave KES 10,000.00 to approximately 140,000 IDPs as stabilization cash and return package. Another KES 25,000.00 was given, for reconstruction, to IDPs whose houses had been burnt (UNDP, 2011). This program for IDPs was undermined by growing perceptions of bias, inefficiency, discrimination and corruption in relation to finances, supplies and housing (Article 19 Eastern Africa, 2011). While some IDPs missed the money either because they were absent or as a result of poor IDP profiling (KHRC and NNIK, 2011), others received severally after multiple registration in several centers (UNDP, 2011).

Meanwhile, IDPs were encouraged to return home. Those who accepted were provided with seeds and fertilizers for farming. The GoK, UNHCR, and

UNHABITAT formed the Shelter Forum to coordinate resettlement efforts. The Forum was funded by GoK, the African Development Bank, Government of China, UNDP and United Nations Children's Educational Fund (UNICEF) (KHRC and NNIK, 2011) and was to deliver 19,000 houses when complete. According to Article 19 (Eastern Africa, 2011), the GoK gave 2.25 acres of rich agricultural land to each household in planned eco-villages; 2 acres was for farming and 0.25 acres for the homestead. Land was also set aside for public amenities such as schools, markets, hospitals, security and burial sites. In total, only 21,000 acres were allocated to 6,978 IDP households (Article 19 Eastern Africa, 2011).The GoK gave IDPs construction material to build a basic pre-designed two roomed house for sheltering each household (KHRC and NNIK,2011).

Some scholars have been critical of this single-track approach of providing agricultural land to the IDPs without regard to their diverse socio-economic backgrounds and interests as being too agriculturalistic (UNDP, 2011). The IDPs who previously did commerce in urban and peri-urban areas, if consulted, would possibly have preferred capital for investment in other ventures to land. It is against this backdrop of diverse socio-economic backgrounds of the IDPs that this study sought to establish the impact of resettlement programs on rebuilding of livelihoods by the resettled IDPs in Trans Nzoia County.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Displacement as a result of conflict has prolonged negative effects on the social, economic and cultural lives of the affected population (IRP, 2015). Provision of land through resettlement is a most primary strategy in mitigating the problems facing the IDPs: it can promote and protect the rebuilding of their livelihoods by increasing

access to adequate food, safe water, medical services, housing, sanitation and education (UNDP, 2011). After resettlement, IDPs engage in various activities to rebuild their livelihoods: some engage in activities which are similar to what they did before resettlement while others adopt different strategies in their new environments.

Studies conducted in Kenya on resettlement of IDPs covered the status of the IDPs in relation to access to basic necessities; relationships with host communities and; problems faced by the IDPs during resettlement (UNDP, 2011). The literature that exists, however, provides little information on livelihood strategies of the resettled people. Furthermore, minimal studies have been conducted to establish the influence of livelihood strategies on rebuilding of livelihoods of IDPs in Kenya. Based on this background, this study also focused on the contribution of resettlement programs on rebuilding of livelihoods. In addition, challenges affecting the rebuilding of livelihoods among IDPs have not been assessed to the detail in Kenya.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General objective

To establish the impact of resettlement programs on the rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled IDPs in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

(i) To establish the livelihood activities being undertaken by the resettled IDPs to reconstruct their livelihoods in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya.

(ii) To determine the level of access to services by the resettled persons in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya.

(iii) To assess the influence of resettlement program in the rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled former IDPs in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya.

(iv) To establish the challenges facing the rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled former IDPs in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya

1.4 Research Questions

(i) Which livelihood activities do the resettled IDPs engage in in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans-Nzoia County for subsistence, income generation, investment and economic development?

(ii) To what levels are essential services and personnel accessed by the resettled persons in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans Nzoia County?

(iii) Did the resettlement of the former IDPs in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans-Nzoia County afford them sufficient financial, social and physical capital for the reconstruction of their livelihoods?

(iv) What challenges do the resettled former IDPs in Canaan and Amani schemes in Trans-Nzoia County face in carrying out the strategies to reconstruct their livelihoods?

1.5 Significance of the study

Several scholars and organizations have since 2008 studied and explained the causes of internal displacement of persons; ways of finding durable solutions; challenges facing resettlement; reconciliation; reintegration and revival of livelihoods in Kenya

(Achieng *et al*, 2014; Mwiandi, 2008; Sikwata, 2011; UNDP, 2011; Yieke, 2010). Most of their studies have minimal information on the livelihood strategies of the resettled persons and on the rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled IDPs. This study informs the social science scholars who are interested in establishing the effects of resettlement on the rebuilding of livelihoods among internally displaced persons and refugees.

This research is relevant to resettlement and development policy makers and implementers who are interested in identifying the best strategies that would contribute to rebuilding of livelihoods. The data generated is also useful to policy implementers especially in identifying the challenges that resettled persons encounter before and after resettlement with the view of finding possible solutions. The study unravels some key aspects of socio-political and economic dynamics at the local settlement level in a way that is relevant to policy and institutional changes and capacity building in Trans Nzoia County.

1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study covers the livelihood strategies adopted by the resettled persons to reconstruct their livelihoods and concentrates on Trans Nzoia County; in Amani and Canaan Schemes which are located in the Sub-Counties of Endebess and Kwanza respectively. The level of access to services by the resettled persons such as agricultural extension services, extended medical services, and administration and security services have been examined.

Whereas there have been many causes of displacement of persons in Kenya since independence which require investigation, this study focused on the IDPs that were displaced during 2007/2008 PEV because this was the target group in the resettlement

planning in the area of study. It is anticipated that due to the violent nature of the displacement, some settlers might refuse to disclose all the information.

1.7 The Study Area

Trans Nzoia County is found in the northern part of the Rift Valley region of Kenya and lies between latitude $0^0\ 52^1$ and $1^0\ 18^1$ N and longitude between $34^0\ 38^1$ and $35^0\ 23^1$ E. It occupies about 2,496 square kilometers. Amani Settlement Scheme in Chepchoina Division of Endebess Sub-county occurs at an altitude of 2200 meters, longitude 34^0 47' E and latitude $1^0\ 12^1$ N. It is approximately 600 acres. Canaan Settlement Scheme in Kapomboi location of Kwanza Sub-county is found at an altitude of 2033 meters, latitude 1^o09^1 N and longitude 34^054^1E and covers approximately 90 acres.

The Trans-Nzoia upland is a northward continuation of the Uasin Gishu Plateau at an altitude averaging 1,900 to 2500 meters (Odingo, 1971). It gently rises towards Mount Elgon in the South-West (4313 m), is hemmed by Cherangany Hills in the east (highest peak of 3371m) and bounded by West Pokot County to the north at an altitude of 1,400m (Foeken & Tellegen, 1992). Although its terrain is generally undulating, it is in some areas hilly and dissected by river valleys some of which are either waterlogged or swampy, such as River Koitoboss swamp north of Kitale. The rocks are mainly Pre-Cambrian gneisses and schists of the basement system covered by young volcanics (Odingo, 1971).

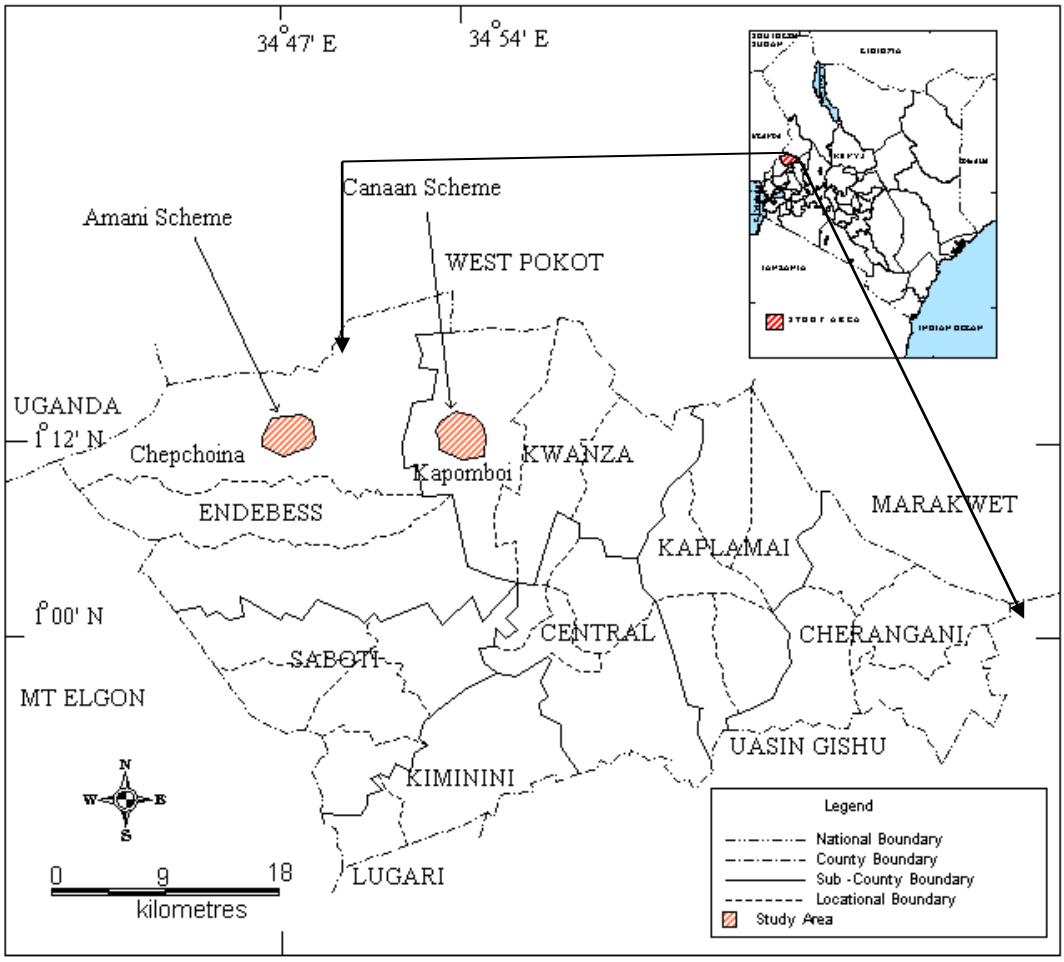

Figure 1.1: Map of the Study Area

Source: Author (2016) adapted from Survey of Kenya.

The soils are very deep, well-drained, and red to dark-red ferrisols in the central parts of the county. The slopes of Mt Elgon are dominated by red and brown clays. On the Cherangany hills, steep slopes of Mt Elgon and the border with West Pokot there are shallow stony soils (Foeken & Tellegen, 1992).

Trans Nzoia enjoys a Highland Equatorial climate and receives a mean annual rainfall of 1,000-1,200 mm which is fairly well distributed throughout the year (Foeken & Tellegen, 1992). There are two rainfall maxima, April-May and July-August with one dry spell from November to March. An average annual temperature of 18.3^0 C with a mean minimum of 11.7^0 C and maximum of 25^0 C has been recorded in Kitale

(Foeken & Tellegen, 1992). August is the coldest month (mean minimum of 11.2^0 C) while March is the warmest month (mean maximum of 27^0C).

The climate, topography and soil type makes the county highly productive for maize and dairy farming (Foeken & Tellegen, 1992). Tea, coffee, wheat (Seed and commercial), sunflower, and beans are also grown (Foeken & Tellegen, 1992). The cattle breeds reared include: Guernsey, Sahiwal, Friesian and Ayrshire and their cross breeds. Trans Nzoia County has a high population growth rate due to high influx of immigrants from other counties who seek jobs on the expansive farms in the area and industries in the town (Foeken & Tellegen, 1992).

The population is about 818,757 people, with a density of about 328 persons per square kilometer (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2009). Land holdings vary from very small to very large farms (Foeken & Tellegen, 1992), but there are many landless people too. The County has four Sub-counties of Kwanza, Endebess, Saboti, Cherangany, and Kiminini.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This section presents the knowledge that exists in the field of resettlement and internally displaced persons due to post-election violence. It examines the resettlement programmes and schemes in Kenya, strategies for rebuilding of livelihoods, access to services, impact of resettlement on rebuilding of livelihoods, challenges to rebuilding of livelihoods and guiding principle and policies to resettlement of displaced persons. It also includes a theoretical framework (Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction model) and a conceptual model.

2.1 Resettlement programmes and schemes in Kenya

According to the UNDP (2011), there were two types of resettlement schemes created in Kenya after the 2007-2008 PEV in Kenya. The first category was characterized by some IDPs contributing part of the money given to them by government to buy land mainly to build homes as their initial stage in the reconstruction of their livelihoods (UNDP, 2011). The second category of resettlement schemes involved the government directly buying the land and allocated the land to the IDPs. This group of resettlement schemes included: Rwamgondu Farm Scheme in Kuresoi, Kericho County; Baraka Shalom scheme in Molo, Nakuru County and Amani Resettlement and Canaan Resettlement schemes in Trans Nzoia County (UNDP, 2011). Land size and the households that were resettled at the resettlement schemes that were determined by the government and self-help groups (UNDP, 2011).

The various resettlement schemes accommodated displaced people from different socio-cultural and economic backgrounds as well as various places in Kenya. For example, Baraka Shalom had Kikuyu, Luhya, Kisii and Kamba with women being more than men from Uasin Gishu, Kisumu, Koibatek and Kipkelion (UNDP, 2011). UNDP (2011) observed that Rwangondu Farm had two tribes (Kisii and Kikuyu) while at Self Help Group ALKO Settlement there were different ethnic groups namely: Kalenjin, Luo, Kisii, Luhya, Kikuyu, Kamba, Boran, Turkana, and Teso. As observed by (UNDP, 2011) some of the IDPs were displaced from farms where they were agriculturalists while others were evicted from urban or per-urban areas where they were employed or engaged in non-agricultural activities.

2.2 Strategies for Rebuilding of Livelihoods

The resourcefulness of the IDPs household -physical fitness, skills, family labour force, social networks, and total asset situation-determines the success with which they revive their livelihoods after resettlement. Fernando and Moonesinghe (2012) have observed that in Sri Lanka, soon after resettlement, some people invested in assets, leased out their land to local communities and offered waged labour on their farms while others took up economic activities different from their former livelihoods. Godagama (2012) noted that 53% of the resettled IDPs in Sri Lanka obtained their livelihood from fishing, 16% involved in farming while 31% participated in business-related activities. In Botswana, the resettled people were employed as construction workers by government while others engaged in dress making, candle making and vegetable farming (Murayama, 2003).

Livelihood strategies are dynamic and may change overtime as IDPs acquire new attitudes, skills and assets in the new environments. Kassie *et al.,* (2014) noted that in

Metema District (Ethiopia) less than 1% of the settlers engaged in trading yet 2.8% of them had been traders in their previous homes. Whereas about 68% of the settlers had been farmers in their areas of origin, 86% took to farming in the new settlement in Metema District (Ethiopia). In contrast, the number of people employed in the agriculture industry in resettled areas in Iran had declined in both the host and guest communities (Asgary *et al.*, 2006)

Asgary *et al.*, (2006) while comparing households' self-produced and consumed goods before and after resettlement, found a rapid decrease in the capacity of households to produce goods for their own use. Similarly, in post war Iran, the demand by households for loans mainly for daily expenses, house construction and buying other goods rose (Asgary *et al.*, 2006). Gender roles also changed as more women took to waged employment after resettlement because they needed more money to replace lost resources, such as business equipment, crops and livestock and to cater for the inflated family budget. In overall, the workload of women increased dramatically (Asgary *et al.*, 2006).

Shanmugaratnam (2010) made an in-depth account of the livelihood activities of the returnees in Magwi County of the post war South Sudan. He singled out rain fed food crop agriculture as the main strategy used by the GOSS and GTZ to revive the livelihoods of the Acholi, Madi and Dinka of Magwi County after the war. The IDPs grew subsistence crops including sorghum, cassava, maize, and groundnuts using hand labour. The GOSS and GTZ gave initial supplies of seed and fertilizer for farming and relief food supplies to support the people in the first three months' gestation period (Shanmugaratnam, 2010). Production was low because of drought,

pests, diseases, delayed planting, low level of technology, delayed supply of inputs, lack of clear policy and programs on rural finance, and inadequate credit facilities.

Food insecurity became a perpetual phenomenon that forced people to seek opportunities to supplement family income and diversify livelihood (Shanmugaratnam, 2010): women collected firewood from the forest and also brewed beer for sale. The women too bought vegetables and fruits from vendors on the Uganda border and sold on the local market. The men undertook fishing, and were employed to crush stones in the quarries. The men too walked long distances into the forest for logging of trees to burn charcoal for sale to middlemen who took it to Juba (Shanmugaratnam, 2010).

Human portage was the main source of transport for both men and women. The GTZ set up a revolving credit scheme to create easier access to loans. In Kenya, according to UNDP (2011), there are resettled IDPs who ran small businesses in urban and peri-urban areas and were uncomfortable with settling on a farm in a remote part of the country. Most of these preferred to be supported to re-establish their businesses.

2.3 Access to Services

The role of individuals and households in the reconstruction of livelihoods cannot be overemphasized. According to International Recovery Platform [IRP] (2015) a household is a human capital base that is most important in articulating livelihood activities: gender relations, land tenure, ethnicity, cultural norms, division of labour, and household endowments in terms of skills, knowledge, health, ability to work ,attitudes and affiliation to productive social networks that are vital aspects in any production system. A household's informal networks, membership to formalized groups, relations of trust to facilitate cooperation and economic opportunities, and

relations with its neighbours and host community creates productive synergy that promotes livelihood activities (IRP, 2015)

According to IRP (2015), the government directly or indirectly strengthens livelihood strategies to increase income generating activities. Direct support includes technical training and business development counselling. Community mobilization and training not only improves production and management but also creates a more secure environment and social asset base. Trained IDPs are better able to identify livelihood opportunities for more productive work, access information about sales and market and establish strong linkages with local and regional markets. Indirectly, government may improve marketing channels for products or enact policies and laws that exploit income generation potential. The IRP (2015) identifies government as one of the key actors in the introduction of new technologies to improve production. The government is perceived by IRP (2015) to have profound influence on the social, economic and political environment so as to improve livelihood opportunities.

For resettlement and reconstruction of livelihoods among IDPs to be effective it requires a well-co-ordinated institutional framework that can facilitate access to basic resources that affect the quality of life such as; land, shelter, food, medical services, safe water and educational facilities in new areas [United Nations High Commission for Refugee (UNCHR), 2010]. The institutions may include various stakeholders at international, regional, national and local level of a given country (UNCHR, 2010). Godagama (2012) observed that in Mannar District (Sri Lanka) government organizations played a major role in providing basic needs like pre-schools, schools and free books. He noted that government institutions and Non-Governmental

Organizations were significant in supporting and rebuilding livelihoods among the resettled IDPs.

According to Shanmugaratnam (2010) in South Sudan, organizations such as United Nations High Commissioner for Refugee (UNHCR, 2010) supported the government in repatriation of refugees. In addition, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) assisted in successful return of IDPs. The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and the Catholic Relief Society (CRS) supplied the returnees with seeds as well as farm tools. International Non-Governmental Organization (INGOs) assisted in resettlement, livelihood revival and enhancing access to health and other social amenities.

Saparamadu & Lall (2014) observed that the Ministry of Resettlement's objectives in Sri Lanka are to: protect and resettle IDPs and refugee returnees, provide facilities and co-ordinate between government and, non-governmental and aid agencies on resource mobilization and implementation of programs for IDPs. The authors added that the Ministry was also mandated with administrative, financial, planning, monitoring and regulatory responsibilities. Saparamadu & Lall (2014) observed that the local administration also performed critical functions with regard to resettlement and service delivery to people in the North of Sri Lanka through the District Secretary structures. While the supervisory and monitoring functions relating to the resettlement process in the North were performed by the Presidential Task Force (PTF) for Resettlement, Development and Security.

Although formally, the Ministry of Resettlement and the Resettlement Authority had been charged with the full responsibility for resettlement, in reality Saparamadu and Lall (2014) pointed out that the process had been implemented under a political body

in collaboration with the military. In the contested North of Sri Lanka, in addition to I/NGOs, paramilitary groups were also providing basic needs and NGOs were allowed to work on only four sectors: shelter, water, sanitation and livelihoods (Saparamadu & Lall, 2014). From the existing literature, most studies conducted have concentrated on service provision for the resettled persons. However, inadequate knowledge exists on the level of access to services such as agricultural extension, extended medical care, administration and security before and after resettlement.

2.4 Impact of resettlement on rebuilding of livelihoods

Well managed resettlement processes only create positive development if they access IDPs to favorable socio-economic assets and services such as productive land, water, security, better education and health facilities, new jobs, housing and greater social and community support networks (Asgary *et al.*, 2006). According to Godagama (2012) nearly all resettled IDPs in Mannar District (Sri Lanka) had access to proper medical services and housing. Ownership of permanent houses decreased from 66% to 19% after displacement and resettlement, temporary housing increased from 9% to 42% while in semi-permanent houses increased from 24% to 33%.

The resettled IDPs in Baraka Shalom resettlement scheme in Molo constituency and Rwangondu farm settlement in Kuresoi constituency both in Rift Valley Region in Kenya liked their new places because land was arable, had spring water during rainy season and there was peace and security and that IDPs and the host community related well (UNDP, 2011). The IDPs provided cheap labor on the farms of the host community in Baraka Shalom, Rwangondu farm, Molo New Hope and Alko settlement schemes in Kenya (UNDP. 2011). IDPs and members of the host community attended social functions together and their children attended the same

schools (UNDP, 2011).The IDPs and host communities also shared social facilities and participated in intercommunity trade (UNDP, 2011). In Molo New Hope settlement the relations amongst the IDPs were good but there were petty conflicts which were solved at the neighborhood level.

Murayama (2003) noted that within the settlement scheme in Botswana there was a school, village office, clinic, a police station and workshop. Similarly, in Kenya, land was reserved for a burial site, school, open air market, church, security and an arboretum in some schemes such as Baraka Shalom and Rwangondu farm settlements (UNDP, 2011).

Kassie *et al.*, (2014) noted that the odds ratio of experiencing to not experiencing income shortage in Metema District in post war Ethiopia was found to be significantly influenced by the number of female family members, age and education level of the household head, origin of settlers, and distance to the market (to sell sesame and forest products). Asrat (2009) noted that the suitability of the site, the proximity of resettlers to their home areas, the opportunity to maintain regular contact with their home area, and earlier livelihood experience also account for the differential successes among IDPs (Asrat, 2009).

2.5 Challenges to rebuilding of livelihoods

The resettlement and reintegration of IDPs and the rebuilding of their livelihoods in developing nations has been affected by social, economic, political, institutional and geographical factors. Asrat (2009) noted that in Boreda resettlement scheme (Ethiopia) the resettled households left after just a few weeks due to unmet expectations, hostile living environment, inadequate medical facilities and water shortage. They preferred the hot climate of their original home to the cool

environment of their new settlement. Some of the (re)settlers fell sick due to the sudden change from a highland environment to a lowland one; most of them were exposed for the first time to health hazards caused by endemic diseases such as malaria, which is rampant in and around the resettlement area.

The basic dynamics, to which the resettled people need to adapt, pose challenges which are normally difficult or impossible to cope with, especially during the first period of resettlement (Asrat, 2009). He lamented that "the drastic change to what they saw as an inhospitable environment made the resettlers' first experiences very difficult." After resettlement, some IDPs cyclically move in and out of the settlements at different times of the year in their attempt to rebuild their livelihoods (Murayama, 2003). Murayama (2003) argues that movement in and out of the resettlement scheme was due to changes in employment opportunities, seasonal variations in availability of vegetables, conflicts with the neighbors or even culture shock. It was noted that wage earners remained in the relocation site such as chiefs, members of the Village Development Committee, construction workers and those engaging in income-generating activities (Murayama, 2003).

According to Kassie *et al.*, (2014) one of the most significant challenges facing resettlement programmes in Ethiopia was poor planning. The resettlement programs were planned hurriedly with the settler and the selection settling site done without due consideration of socioeconomic and biophysical dynamics in terms of the sources and destinations of settlers (Kassie *et al.*, 2014). Sikwata (2011) observed that although the Kenya government initiated several measures and programmes running into billions of shillings to resolve the IDPs issue, the situation on the ground indicates that the problem still persists.

Kassie *et al.*, (2014) further argued that effective resettlement programs was also hindered by absence of discussions with host communities in the resettlement sites whose access and entitlement to land and forest resources were significantly affected. The discussions are useful in identifying and employing measures that enhance smooth integration of settlers with the host communities. Sikwata (2011) recognized that the Kenyan government interventions have been poorly implemented because of mismanagement, corruption and lack of proper coordination. The government has been accused of partisan and selective resettlement along ethnic lines and political persuasion. This has bred hatred between settlers and the host communities who are unwilling to welcome back their neighbours or accept IDPs to be resettled in their "ancestral lands" (Sikwata, 2011).

Achieng *et al* (2014) noted that resettlement programs have been mutilated by the powerful local political leaders who intended to protect their interests at the expense of the squatters or the landless. For instance, in the Mpeketoni resettlement in Lamu East (Coast Region) the local communities accused the regime of former President Kenyatta of having allocated a large piece of Mpeketoni scheme to his Kikuyu community while neglecting the indigenous people of Lamu who were landless (UNDP, 2011). Similarly, in Government Resettlements in Rongai and Kuresoi (Rift valley Region in Kenya) there was a general perception among the Kalenjin that if Kikuyu should be resettled, then it should have been in Central region but not Rift Valley (UNDP, 2011). It has been recommended that for IDPs and hosting communities to live peacefully in Kenya, historical land matters should be resolved (Achieng *et al*, 2014).

Evanai (2011) reported that when the IDPs who were to be resettled in Trans Nzoia County arrived in Endebess sub-county; they were repulsed by infuriated local dwellers who opposed the resettlement process. The local communities demanded that local IDPs and squatters must be resettled first before the others could be accepted. It was revealed that in Lamu (Kenya) some individuals from upcountry (not from the Coast) were appropriating large areas of forest land (UNDP, 2011).

Kassie *et al* (2014) noted that lack of long-term objectives and vision was one of the hindrances to resettlement programs in Ethiopia. They observed that there were no alternative and progressive plans aimed at changing the livelihoods of relocated and host communities to less nature-dependent economic activities, nor were there pragmatic measures designed to ensure sustainable utilization of natural assets.

In Cross River State (Nigeria), Agba *et al* (2010) reported that the fishermen and traders were displaced as a result of resettlement were places where they could not carry out their occupations since the market structure was still unorganized. Most of the displaced persons had no accommodation since only about 170 houses were provided for over 12,000 IDPs. In the eviction of Bakassi people from "Old Bakassi" in Nigeria, Agba et al (2010) observed that the social networks established among family ties were destroyed because of the new pattern of settlement layout which was a different from the former. It is documented that the worshiping pattern suffered because those who had shrines and could not move them from "Old Bakassi" could no longer perform their traditional worship (Agba *et al*., 2010).

2.6 Guiding principles and policies for rebuilding of livelihoods among IDPs

The rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled IDPs in developing countries has been regarded ineffective and unsustainable. Various policies and mechanisms have

been developed to guide the rebuilding of livelihoods through resettlement. According to Deng (2004) Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, developed in 1998, stipulate where the primary responsibility for the resettlement of displaced persons stands. The Guiding Principles cover all aspects of internal displacement, from control of massive displacement, protection and assistance before resettlement, establishing durable solutions that promote safety and dignity to alternative resettlement and reintegration to development for self-sustenance.

The principles apply equally to both state and non-state actors that have control over displaced persons, and the Principles empower the IDPs to demand protection and assistance from their Governments and other relevant agencies. Although the guiding principles are vital, development of effective institutional frameworks at the international level to help countries in their responsibilities with respect to the internally displaced is equally significant (Deng, 2004).

Sikwata (2011) argued that in Kenya, the Draft National Policy on the Protection and Assistance to IDPs provides an institutional framework and guidance for the country in reducing future displacement: eradicating the main causes of displacement, mitigating its consequences, strengthening the responses to IDPs predicament and providing durable solutions. It also examines the government's obligation in regional mechanisms through African Union's Convention for the Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Protocol), the Great Lakes Protocol on the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons and the UN Guiding Principles.

Sikwata (2011) asserts that the Draft Policy grants the government the primary prerogative of protecting its citizens from internal displacement. The policy is built

on the initiatives and contributions of the Kenyan Government and other stakeholders in addressing the rights and needs of IDPs in its endeavor to reduce future displacement.

Kivuva (2011) noted that the policy adopts a rights approach guaranteeing the IDPs all the freedoms, rights, protection and entitlements similar to those guaranteed to every Kenyan by the Bill of Rights in the Kenya constitution of 2010. Further, it provides for a consultative process between the government, IDPs and the communities where IDPs are to be resettled. The second major strength of the draft policy according to Kivuva (2011) is in the definition of an IDP, which is comprehensive and incorporates almost every element of displacement. The policy incorporates all phases of displacement taking a rights and entitlement approach to handling IDP related issues. Lastly, the policy provides a fairly good institutional mechanism of addressing IDPs and for dealing with every stage of displacement; guaranteeing IDPs adequate services and protections (Kivuva, 2011).

2.7 Summary of the Literature Review

After resettlement, IDPs may have invested in assets, leased out their land to local communities, offered waged labour or engaged in economic activities different from their former livelihoods. Some of the resettled people in developing countries undertook livelihood activities like fishing, farming, trade and informal industry. The government directly or indirectly supports livelihood activities to increase income generating activities. Effective reconstruction of livelihoods requires a well-co-ordinated institutional framework. The institutions may include various key actors at international, regional, national and local levels.

The rebuilding of livelihoods is manifested in ownership of land and houses as well as access to basic services such as education, medical services, transport and communication, agriculture extension and safe water. Some of the challenges affecting rebuilding of livelihoods through farming activities included drought, pests and diseases, low level of technology, delayed supply of inputs, unclear policy and programs on rural finance, and insufficient financial facilities.

Some of the resettled households left the resettlement schemes after just a few weeks due to unmet expectations, hostile living environment, inadequate medical facilities and water shortage. Other resettled people fell sick due to the sudden change of environment and exposure to health hazards that caused endemic diseases such as malaria. Among the most significant challenges facing resettlement programmes is poor planning and lack of long-term objectives. Various policies and mechanisms have been developed to guide the rebuilding of livelihoods through resettlement.

2.8 Present Study and Knowledge Gap

Previous studies indicate that the displaced people were resettled in different areas in Kenya (UNDP, 2011). Although the existing literature identifies the main livelihood activities among resettled persons, little has been done to establish whether the livelihood options available to IDPs after resettlement had changed or remained the same as had been before resettlement. And if they had, had the frequency of engagement in the livelihood activities increased or declined after resettlement? In this study the livelihood activities that the resettled persons pursued before and after resettlement to reconstruct their livelihoods were established.

Previous studies indicate that after resettlement, the resettled persons gain access to various livelihood assets such as land, houses, income among others. However, few

studies have been done to establish whether the level of access to various services led to rebuilding of livelihoods after resettlement. Also, there is limited information about the influence of resettlement programs on the rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled persons.

There were inadequate studies conducted to find out the challenges hindering the rebuilding of livelihoods through resettlement programs in Kenya. The existing information on the challenges facing resettled victims of forceful eviction in other African countries only addresses the period after resettlement. This study established the challenges that the resettled persons encountered both before and after resettlement.

Table 2.1: Summary of literature review and identified gaps

Author	Area Studied	Literature Gap
Achieng *et al* (2014)	How to deal with people in Post Displacement-Reintegration: The Welcoming Capacity Approach.	Challenges facing displaced persons before and after resettlement
Agba *et al* (2010)	Socio-Economic and Cultural Impacts of Resettlement on Bakassi people of Cross River State, Nigeria	Challenges facing displaced persons before and after resettlement
Asgary *et al* (2006)	Post-disaster resettlement, development and Change: a case study of the 1990 Manjil earthquake in Iran.	-Whether the livelihood activities before resettlement had changed or remained the same after resettlement. -Whether there was rebuilding of livelihoods after resettlement.
Asrat (2009)	The Dynamics of Resettlement with reference to the Ethiopian Experience.	-Whether there was rebuilding of livelihoods after resettlement. -Challenges facing displaced persons before and after resettlement
Godagama (2012)	Development Impacts on Resettlement IDPs: An Assessment of the Interventions Channelled through the IDPs Camps in Mannar District, Sri Lanka.	-Whether the livelihood activities before resettlement had changed or remained the same after resettlement. -Whether the level of access to services had changed or remained the same after resettlement.

		-Whether there was rebuilding of livelihoods after resettlement.
Kassie et al (2014)	Resource entitlement and welfare among resettlers in the dry forest frontiers of North Western Ethiopia.	-Whether the livelihood activities before resettlement had changed or remained the same after resettlement. -Whether there was rebuilding of livelihoods after resettlement. -Challenges facing displaced persons before and after resettlement
Shanmugaratnam (2010)	Resettlement, Resource Conflicts, Livelihood Revival and Reintegration in South Sudan: A Study of the Processes and Institutional issues at the local level in Magwi County	Whether the livelihood activities before resettlement had changed or remained the same after resettlement. -Whether there was rebuilding of livelihoods after resettlement.

Source: Author (2018)

2.9 Theoretical Framework

From an anthropological point of view, Chiruguri (2015) identified three main theories and models that can be used to study resettlement and revival of livelihoods due to displacement. They included: Action Oriented Model (by Agarwal C. Binod, N. Sudhakar Rao and Gurivi Reddy), Scudder and Colson Four Stage Model (by Scudder and Elizabeth Colson,) and Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction (IRR) Model (Michael Cernea, 1997). According to Chiruguri (2015) the Action Oriented Model as proposed by Agarwal and his colleagues was mainly designed to understand the culture of the Indian tribes before they were displaced so that they could recommend to the government of India appropriate resettlement strategies. This model fails to consider the plight of the resettled persons and gives more emphasis on being implemented by the anthropologist or sociologist (Chiruguri, 2015).

Concerning the Scudder and Colson Four Stage Model, Chiruguri (2015) revealed that the model deals with the voluntary displacement, consequent rehabilitation and how people along with socio-cultural systems react to resettlement. Scudder and

Colson identified four stages namely; recruitment stage, transition stage, potential development stage, and handing over/incorporation stage (Chiruguri, 2015). But, Chiruguri (2015: 48-49) lamented that the model has shaded little light on people's participation, problems at the four stages and solutions for their challenges and it "*indirectly encourages displacement by neglecting the people's livelihood, environmental, educational, socio-politico-economic loss and cultural disturbances which is to give prime importance among all losses*."

The IRR model as proposed by Cernea was designed and utilized as a research framework to understand involuntary displacement by both conflicts and huge development projects (Chiruguri, 2015; Gizachew, 2015). Since it gives priority to the status of the displaced persons during displacement and after resettlement, it was deemed fit to enable the researcher internalize and conceptualize the study problem.

2.9.1 Introduction to Impoverishment Risks and Reconstruction Model

The IRR model was advanced by Professor Michael M. Cernea (Senior Advisor for Sociology and Social Policy of the Department of Environment of the World Bank, 1997). Studies conducted across countries in 1990s found that the worst effects of displacement were impoverishment and violation of basic human rights (Cernea, 1997). The IRR Model as a theoretical framework deals with economic, social and cultural aspects of impoverishment (Cernea, 1997). Cernea's model demonstrates that before resettlement, the victims are deprived of natural assets, man - made assets, physical assets and social assets. This model indicates that during reconstruction the displaced people must be able to regain these assets (Gizachew, 2015). This therefore is a model for the socio economic re-establishment of the displaced persons (Cernea, 1997).

When this model is used in research, it enables the students of development and resettlement studies to organize their questionnaires, test hypotheses and deduce conclusions based on their results (Cernea, 1997). The IRR model is based on three core basic concepts which are: “poverty (impoverishment) risks”, and “reconstruction" (Cernea, 1997). In this model poverty refers to situations in which people’s welfare and livelihood worsens as a result of specific hazardous interventions (Cernea, 1997). According to Cernea’s model, the core principles of any resettlement mission are: controlling impoverishment, minimizing risks and rebuilding livelihoods (Cernea, 1997).

2.9.2 Impoverishment Risks

Cernea’s model predicts the livelihood threats that displaced persons face on displacement and before relocation to other areas. They include;

Landlessness: this is a state where the displaced persons lose the land meant for farming and establishment of homesteads leading to loss of food and shelter for people. Land expropriation removes the substructure on which people’s basic livelihood systems are built. If these livelihood systems are not revived or replaced with steady income-generating employment, landlessness leads to impoverishment (Cernea, 1997). Gizachew (2015) argues, however, that the IRR model emphasizes the loss incurred in crop farming rather than livestock keeping.

Homelessness: Loss of houses and shelter may only be short lived for most of the displaced persons during the transition period but for some, homelessness remains a perennial problem. Generally, homelessness means cultural impoverishment (Cernea, 1997); loss of the group’s cultural space and identity. Gizachew (2015) criticizes Cernea’s initiative of assessing the impact of displacement based on the distance

IDPs are relocated from their original area of habitation and source of livelihood as trivial.

Joblessness: Landless laborers, working in enterprises or services, and small entrepreneurs lose their means of livelihood if they are displaced from their homes or places of residence, employment and entrepreneurship. The creation of new jobs or alternative sources of income for them is hard and needs more investment. The delay in investment gravitates into long periods of unemployment or underemployment after their physical displacement. Women are more vulnerable to this problem. Job change, which is another effect of displacement, can create underemployment that can be traumatic for the affected people (Cernea, 1997).

Marginalization: This is the loss of individual or family economic ability and status. For example, middle-income farming households may not become landless, but deteriorate into small scale farming. Economic marginalization, often accompanied by social and psychological marginalization, expresses in form of a drop in social status and loss of confidence in both society and the person. Marginalization results from peoples' inability to use their previously acquired skills at the new site. Subsequent to displacement, children are most vulnerable since dislocation arising from relocation disrupts schooling: some children fail to go back to school altogether (Cernea, 1997).

Food insecurity: Forced eviction increases the risk of both intermittent or chronic undernourishment and food insecurity. A sudden fall in food crop production and income are predictable during physical relocation, leading to long term famine. Food security can be achieved only by overcoming the main causes of impoverishment – landlessness and joblessness (Cernea, 1997).

Increased morbidity and mortality: Drastic decline in health levels results from displacement-induced social stress, insecurity, the outbreak of relocation-related diseases and psychological trauma caused by displacement. Infants, children and the elderly are the most vulnerable to diseases. In the absence of preventive health mechanisms, relocation related diseases such as diarrhea and dysentery, and parasitic and vector borne diseases such as malaria and schistosomiasis, occur due to poor hygiene, unsafe water and inadequate sewerage systems (IRP, 2015).

Loss of access to common property and services: For IDPs, particularly the landless and the asset less poor, loss of access to common property assets (forests, pastures, water bodies etc.) that earlier belonged to the relocated communities results in significant deterioration in income and livelihood levels. (Cernea, 1997)

Social disarticulation: Forced displacement rips apart the existing social fabric and balkanizes communities, dismantles production systems, scatters kinship groups and family systems, disrupts local labor markets and breaks people's sense of cultural identity. Life-sustaining informal social networks of mutual help among local people, voluntary associations, and self-organized service arrangements are dispersed and rendered inactive. There is a net loss of valuable social capital that compounds the loss of natural, physical and human capital. Such elusive disintegration processes undermine livelihood in ways unaccounted by the planners (Cernea, 1997). It is arduous for the displaced to reconstitute similar multifunctional social structures and networks and this is one of the hidden and serious causes of impoverishment. It is even more difficult and time-consuming to reconstitute similar social networks among resettlers and their hosts (Cernea, 1997).

However, Robinson (2003) added two more risks that displaced persons are likely to experience. They are discussed below:

Loss of access to community services: Medical and educational services become more costly thereby leading to loss or delay in the opportunities for healthcare and education of children.

Violation of human rights: Displacement from original places of residence and loss of property without fair compensation is a gross violation of the social and economic rights of displaced persons.

Cernea also discusses the risks that are encountered by both the host communities and guest communities. The influx of IDPs increases pressure on local resources and social services, and competition for employment (Cernea, 1997). Cultural clashes, social tensions and resource conflicts may persist.

Host populations are significant in the successful revival of the livelihoods of the resettled IDPs as they form part of their social capital. Recognizing the specific risks to hosts is integral to using the risks and reconstruction model (Cernea, 1997). The most effective safeguard for the interests of the host is an adequately designed and financed recovery plan for the (re)settlers. Cernea's IRR model, while warning of the risks of unplanned relocation, suggests measures of reconstruction. The ensuing part is a look into the reconstruction measures suggested by Cernea (1997).

2.9.3 Reconstruction

The significance of Cernea's model is that the conceptual representation of impoverishment through displacement is not just a model of 'inescapable gloom' (Cernea, 1997). Cernea has disclosed directions for the socio-economic reconstruction of the displaced. If the risk model is reversed, it tells what positive

actions are to be taken to restore or to improve the livelihoods and incomes of the displaced (Cernea, 1997). In addition to compensation, Cernea (2003) argues that incorporation of safety nets in addition to compensation would greatly enable the resettlers recover from the risks of impoverishment. He also cautioned that when compensation is cash based, then all the risks associated with replacing lost assets is transferred to those displaced (Cernea, 2003).

The reconstruction actions are: from landlessness to land-based resettlement; from joblessness to re- employment; from homelessness to house reconstruction; from food insecurity to safe nutrition; from increased morbidity to better health care; from social disarticulation to social reconstruction; from marginalization to social inclusion; from loss of common property rights to access to public utilities (Cernea, 1997). The Model is purposed to help in the analysis and prediction of risks associated with resettlement schemes (Cernea, 1997).

2.9.4 Usefulness of IRR model in previous studies and present study

The IRR model has been used by scholars in their studies based on resettlement of displaced people. Downing (2002) used this framework in his study entitled "Avoiding New Poverty: Mining-Induced Displacement and Resettlement." He conducted his study in mining companies and the role they play in reconstruction of livelihoods (avoiding new poverty) using documentation analysis.

Mkanga (2010) used this model in her study entitled "Impacts of Development-Induced Displacement on Households Livelihoods: Experience of people from Kurasini, Dar es Salaam–Tanzania." She carried out her research in Kurasini ward found in Dar es Salaam, using case study research design, sampled 32 respondents from the population purposively, collected data using in-depth interviews and

observation. She found out that the three major means of livelihood for resettled persons were; permanent employment in public and private sector, daily employment and small business. She also reported that the livelihoods of the displaced households had generally deteriorated.

Borrowing from the principles and ideals of the IRR model, the researchers were able to identifying the various risks that the resettlers were susceptible to before and after resettlement. If these risks are not addressed after resettlement, impoverishment may persist. It has been pointed out vividly that after relocation the resettlers are compensated either in cash or in kind where they are given land to build houses. This informed the researcher in identifying the livelihood strategies that are undertaken by the resettlers before and after resettlement.

Reconstruction measures are presumably meant to address the risks of impoverishment. This provided the researcher with the insight to establish the impacts of resettlement programs on rebuilding of livelihoods. The impoverishment was conceived as the state of food insecurity, insufficient medical facilities and services, inadequate housing facilities and unsafe and untreated water, and poor drainage in the study area. The risks were the challenges that were experienced by the resettlers both before and after resettlement. Also, the risks were perceived to be the effects of the challenges (impoverishment) on the rebuilding of livelihoods in the study area.

2.10 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework was used in this study to understand the problem. The main objective was to establish the impact of resettlement programs on the rebuilding of livelihoods. From the main objective, the independent variable of the conceptual

framework consists of the resettlement programs. These resettlement programs were conceived as the monetary compensation, allocation of land and provision of building materials to the IDPs by the GoK through the Ministry of Special programs in 2010. Resettlement, as informed by the literature reviewed and Cernea's IRR model, can lead to rebuilding of livelihoods if well implemented (Cernea, 2003).

Recovery from the risks associated with displacement was perceived as access to food, housing, water and sanitation facilities, medical services, energy, transport facilities, administrative services, market and access to education for children. These formed the dependent variables of the research, which were examined in terms of level of access to, ownership of and proximity to livelihood assets. It is clear from the conceptual framework that the resettlement programs influenced rebuilding of livelihoods. For instance, allocation of land to the resettled persons led not only to increased land ownership but also control of land use activities after resettlement. The financial support given to the displaced persons enabled them to acquire farm inputs and equipment, and buy construction materials to build farm structures. Lastly, the provision of construction materials, especially iron sheets and poles during resettlement, facilitated the construction of houses and creation of homes in the new settlement schemes.

Before resettlement, the IDPs had lost their livelihood assets such as human capital, social capital, natural capital, physical capital and financial capital. The discussed below are the intervening variables that influenced the impacts of resettlement on rebuilding of livelihoods. The livelihood strategies IDPs adopted after resettlement strongly influenced the reconstruction of livelihoods that is indicated by their level of access to food and income from the sale of farm produce. Access to services such as

agricultural extension, medical and administration as well as political representation was vital in influencing the rebuilding of livelihoods. For example, access to agricultural extension services would enhance crop and livestock production which will eventually determine the amount of food available for consumption and surplus for sale. Challenges such as food shortage, poor medical services, and inadequate learning facilities for school going children and poor transport and communication networks inter alia may greatly hamper the rebuilding of livelihoods.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

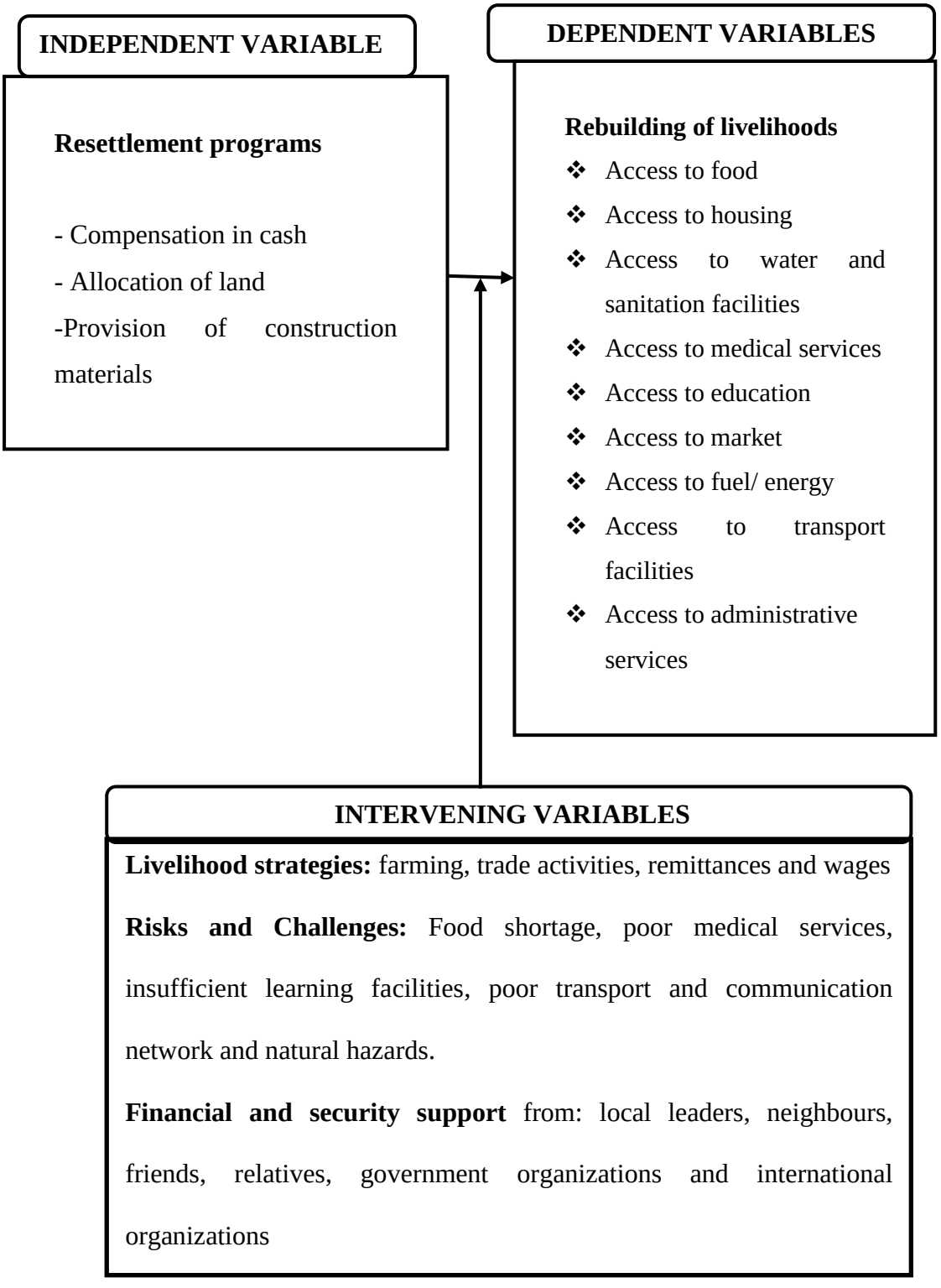

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework of the study
Source: Author (2018)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with various aspects of research methodology including; the research design, target population, sample size, sampling techniques and procedures, data collection instruments, research procedure, data analysis techniques and procedures, quality data control, and ethical concerns of the study.

3.1 Research Design

This research adopted a cross-sectional survey research design. A cross-sectional research design was relevant in this study because it facilitated collection of data from various variables. Also it enabled the researcher to study the problem from various perspectives when assessing the impacts of resettlement programs on rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled former IDPs in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya.

3.2 Target Population

The study targeted the resettled IDPs and key stakeholders within Trans Nzoia County. There were 294 households that were resettled in the two resettlement schemes of Amani and Canaan. There were 255 households in Amani settlement scheme, Chepchoina Ward, Endebess Sub-county and 39 households in Canaan settlement scheme, Kapomboi Ward, Kwanza Sub-county. There were two Members of County Assembly (MCAs), two chiefs, two assistant chiefs, two village elders, two leaders from religious-based organizations and two Deputy County Commissioners (DCC).

3.3 Sample Size

The study sample size of 232 resettled households was determined by use of Yamane's formula of estimates as shown in section 3.4**.** The key resource persons were selected purposively because the data required from them was in their privileged possession by virtue of their jobs. However the following formed part of the sample: 2 village elders, 2 assistant chiefs, 2 chiefs, 1 MCA, 1 religious leader, and 1 DCC.

3.4 Sampling Techniques and Procedures

The population sample size was determined by the formula of estimate proposed by Yamane (Yamane, 1967) which states that:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where n = sample size, N = population size, e = level of precision (3 % = 0.03) in this case, N = 294 households,

e = 0.03, therefore $n = \frac{294}{1 + 294\ (0.03)^2}$

$n = \frac{294}{1 + 294 \times 0.0009}$

$n = \frac{294}{1 + 0.2646}$

$n = \frac{294}{1.2646} = 232$ Households.

The study used a sample size of 232 households from both Endebess and Kwanza sub-Counties of Trans Nzoia County.

Random sampling was used to select the households. The houses in the scheme were closely built in an organized pattern with clear paths in the homestead section of the eco-village away from the farmland section. It was easy, therefore, to divide the

homesteads into blocks and allocate serial numbers and record in the field note book. The numbers given were from 1 to 294 (1-255 allocated to Amani and 256-294 to Canaan). The numbers were indicated on pieces of paper and placed in two boxes; one for each settlement. The pieces of paper were selected randomly from respective boxes and the numbers were indicated in the field notebook and the pieces were returned into the respective boxes and shaken for the next selection. Any piece of paper picked more than once was returned and a fresh one picked. During the field work, if the household heads were absent during the study period, the next household was selected. Alternatively the questionnaire would be left to be filled by the house hold head at a convenient time. The key informants such as area administrators and local politicians were selected purposively, and interviewed.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

Structured questionnaires, interview schedules, photography and secondary sources were used for data collection. Structured instruments were used in collection of primary data from the respondents. The questions on the livelihood strategies adopted by resettled persons, level of access to services, impact of resettlement of rebuilding of livelihoods and challenges facing resettled persons were captured on the questionnaire. The respondents were asked to choose from the range responses provided in cases of multiple responses or to choose one option in cases of ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ responses were asked. In addition, the questionnaires were mainly used to obtain quantitative data from the household heads during the field study. Interview schedules were also used to collect qualitative data. There was one set of interview schedule for the selected household heads, two village elders, two assistant chiefs and two chiefs. These key informants were asked questions related to level of water supply, access to health facilities and services, access to educational facilities and

services, access to sanitation facilities and services, quality of the houses, access to food, relationship between guest and host communities and the role of county and central government during and after resettlement process.

The information provided by the respondents during the filling up of the questionnaires and interviews were confirmed taking up of photographs. Photographs were taken for the crops cultivated and livestock reared, drainage ditches during wet and dry season, a home canteen to show trading activities, the collapsed walls of houses and waterlogged house floors, reconstruction of houses and reinforcing of house walls and Amani Primary School by the resettled persons after resettlement. The photographs taken show the information of the livelihood strategies adopted by the resettlers, level of access to services as well as challenges facing the resettled persons.

3.6 Research Procedure

Pilot study was carried out between 8th October and 15th October, 2014. This was essential in familiarizing with the study area. Two field research assistants were trained on the methods of data collection. Pre-testing of the data collection instruments was carried out for nearly a week in May, 2016. Permission was sought from the School of Arts and Social Sciences of Moi University and a research permit obtained from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) (Appendix VI). Data from the household heads was collected between June and August, 2017. The data from key resource persons was collected between 1st and 30th September, 2017.

3.7 Data Analysis Techniques and Procedure

After data collection, the information was entered in data variable interface of the computer-based Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Package 16.0 version). This is because SPSS offers an opportunity to deal with different kinds of quantitative data that can be analysed. The means and standard deviations of the distance to water sources, to school and to medical facilities were established. The demographics of the respondents was analysed in form of frequencies and percentages.

The age of the respondents was analysed in form of mean and standard deviation. All the four objectives that is livelihood strategies, level of access to services, impact of resettlement on rebuilding of livelihoods and the challenges facing resettled persons were analysed in form of frequencies and percentages. The information on the use of farm produce under objective number one was analysed thematically. Also, the data gained from the interview on access to agricultural extension services under objective two was analysed qualitatively.

3.8 Piloting Control

To ensure validity, the instruments that were used were pre-tested among fifteen of the resettled former IDPs. These respondents were not included in the sample that participated in the final field study. The unclear questions were rephrased and made clearer while the ethical issues in the interview questions corrected. This was also done to improve validity. For example, the question on the kind of support they receive from the elected leaders was rephrased after piloting it in the study area among fifteen households. The data instruments were given to two experts in the field of research to assess the content of each item. The reliability was enhanced by

ensuring that during the data collection only those respondents that were willing and co-operative participated in the study.

3.9 Ethical Concerns of this Study

The respondents were provided with adequate information about the nature of the research and the purpose of the research findings before they participated in the study. There was no coercion of those who did not want to participate. Every questionnaire was labelled by use of letters and numbers to keep the respondents incognito. The respondents were not required to write their names, to protect their identity.

During data collection, photographs for subsequent use in the final report were taken with permission of the respective respondents. The source of data that was collected from the respondents through interviews has been acknowledged in the findings. The literature reviewed and all books, articles, journals and secondary sources have been appropriately acknowledged, cited and indicated in the reference sections. There was no form of conflict of interest between the author and the employer, university, respondents or government institutions known to the author.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the demographics of the respondents, livelihood strategies of respondents and challenges experienced by the respondents in the resettlement areas.

4.1 Demographics of the Respondents

It was established that (23.7%) were below 30 years, (28.9 %) were between 30 and 40 years, (21.1%) were between 40 and 50 years while (26.3%) were over 50 years (Table 4.1). The mean age of the respondents was 37.7 years with a standard deviation of 6.8 years. This shows that most of the household heads were middle aged adults. These findings are similar to the finding by Agba and his colleagues who noted that in Bakassi resettlement scheme in Nigeria, majority of the resettled persons were aged between 31 and 40 years (Agba *et al.*, 2010).

The study findings showed that majority of the respondents (57.8 %) were women while male respondents accounted for (42.2%). Most women had no alternative place to go after the displacement and therefore relied on the good will of the government to be resettled. Majority of the respondents (61.6 %) were married, (20.3 %) were divorcees, (10.3 %) had separated with their spouses while the remaining respondents (7.8 %) were widowed (Table 4.1). These results are similar with those of Kassie et al (2014) who found out that most of the resettlers (89 %) in North-western Ethiopia were married.

Table 4.1: Respondent's demographic characteristics

Demographic characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Age group (years)		
Below 30	55	23.7
31-40	67	28.9
41-50	49	21.1
More than 50	61	26.3
Gender		
Male	98	42.2
Female	134	57.8
Marital status		
Married	143	61.6
Divorced	47	20.3
Separated	24	10.3
Widowed	18	7.8
Ethnic background		
Luhya	113	48.7
Kalenjin	47	20.3
Luo	30	12.9
Kisii	14	6.0
Kikuyu	12	5.2
Other	16	6.9
Level of education		
Primary	134	57.7
Secondary	74	31.9
College	6	2.6
No formal education	18	7.8
Place of displacement/ origin		
Urban	204	87.9
Rural	28	12.1

Source: Field data (2017)

The 2007/2008 displacement affected several ethnic groups and their resettlement had an ethnic dimension. In the study area in Trans Nzoia, a majority of the respondents

(48.7%) were from the Luhya community followed by Kalenjins (20.3%), Luos (12.9 %), Kisiis (6.0 %) and the least (5.2 %) were from the Kikuyu tribe (See Table 4.1). The 'others' category consisted of the Somali, Turkana, Teso, and Kamba tribes. This indicates that although the community in the study area was ethnically diverse majority were from the Luhyas, the predominant community around the study area.

Education is a determinant in securing the skills and knowledge that are required to venture into various social and economic activities. From Table 4.1, a majority of the respondents (57.7%) had acquired primary school education while only a few respondents (2.6%) had college education. In comparison, 42 % of the resettlers in North-western (Ethiopia) were illiterate (Kassie *et al*., 2014), showing that in general those with less education are likely to rely on government or other stakeholders for resettlement. The study established that a majority of the respondents (87.9 %) were displaced from urban areas while few of the respondents (12.1 %) came from rural areas. According to Kassie *et al* (2014) the place of origin has strong implications on the economic activities and opportunities for diversification of livelihood strategies.

4.2 Livelihood Strategies

The first objective of this study was to establish the strategies employed by the resettled persons in rebuilding their livelihoods. The resettlement process provides a launch pad from which the displaced persons could rebuild their assets (livelihoods). The study findings revealed that while some of the resettled persons engage in on-farm related activities, others venture into off-farm economic activities whereas another group tends to engage in both.

4.2.1 Farming livelihood activities

Farming is a common livelihood option in rural areas that are located in agriculturally productive areas like Trans Nzoia County. Farm produce is essential in promoting food security, saving and earning income, and acquiring of basic necessities within the households.

Table 4.2: Respondents engaging in farming before resettlement and after resettlement

Engaging in farming	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent (%)**	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Yes	39	16.8	221	95.3
No	192	82.8	11	4.7
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

From Table 4.2, it can be observed that 16.8 % of the respondents engaged in farming before resettlement, however, the number increased to 95.3% after resettlement. This implies that most of the resettled persons adopted farming after resettlement as a livelihood strategy. This could be attributed to loss of previous livelihood activity during the post election violence and availability of land for farming after resettlement. This finding agrees with the report by Kassie and his colleagues who revealed that the percentage of those practising agriculture as an economic activity in the new settlement in Metema District (Ethiopia) had increased from 68 % before resettlement to 86% after resettlement (Kassie *et al.,* 2014). They noted that the resettlement program was ensured that every settlers would become farmers.

Crop farming is a common economic activity in Trans Nzoia County and the crops grown include grains, vegetables, fruits and tubers. Respondents were asked to choose from a variety of crops the ones they grew. Their responses are presented in Table 4.3 below:

Table 4.3: Types of crops grown

Types of crops grown	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Maize	37	15.9	211	90.9
Beans	33	14.2	149	64.2
Horticultural crops	39	16.8	86	37.1
Bananas	19	8.2	36	15.5
Millet	1	0.4	3	1.3
Sweet potatoes	1	0.4	3	1.3
Fruits	1	0.4	2	0.9
Cassava	1	0.4	1	0.4
Sorghum	1	0.4	1	0.4

Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

It was revealed that maize was the main crop grown both before resettlement (15.9%) and after resettlement (90.9 %) while millet, sweet potatoes, fruits, cassava and sorghum were the least grown crops by the resettled people before resettlement and after resettlement in the study area. This indicates that a majority of the resettled persons grew maize both before resettlement and after resettlement, probably because it is a staple food crop grown in Kenya and also because it is not a perennial crop that requires long time to mature.

Plate 4.1: Some of the crops grown in Amani and Canaan Schemes

Through field observation, it is observed that most farmers practised intensive mixed cropping; they grew more than one crop on their farm at the same time as show in Plate 4.1 above. Formal discussions with the farmers revealed that before resettlement these farmers also practised mixed cropping. This is supported by the evidence provided by Shanmugaratnam (2010) which indicates that the returnees in Magwi County of the post war South Sudan grew a variety crops such as sorghum, cassava, maize and groundnuts on their farms. He pointed out that the practise of substance agriculture was due to limited potential for surplus generation, though sustainable in ecological terms.

Livestock keeping was commonly practised in both Amani and Canaan settlement schemes. It was revealed during the field study that the resettled persons reared livestock such as cattle, goats, sheep, pigs and rabbits, poultry.

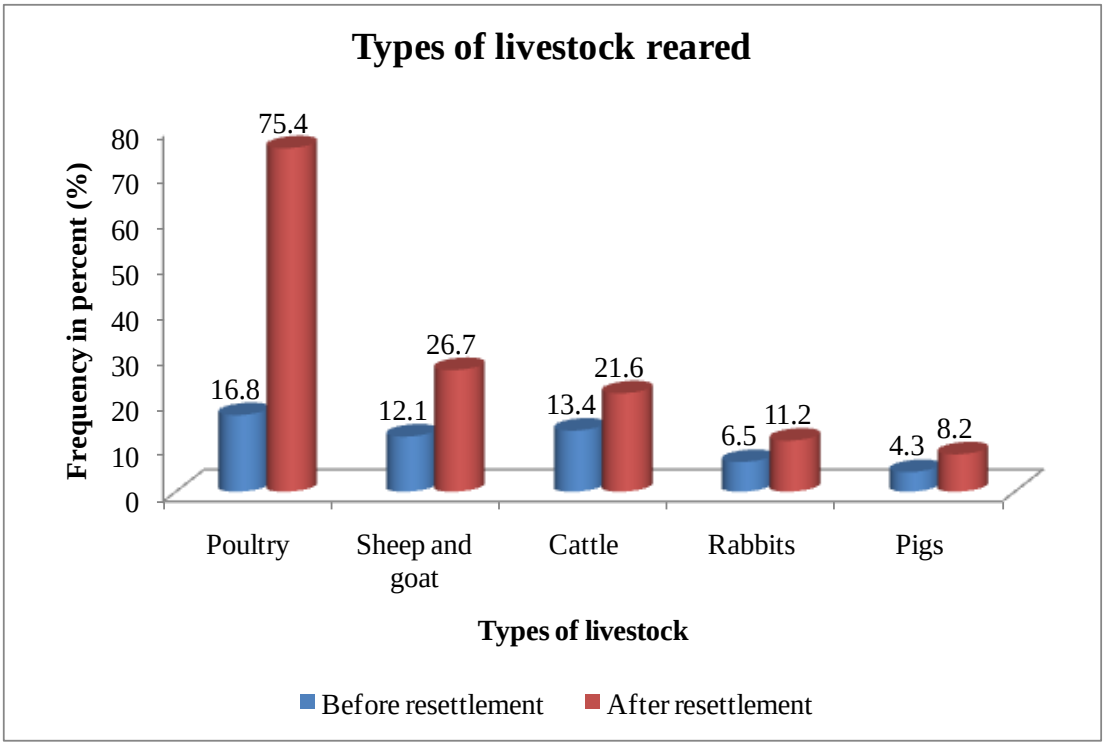

Figure 4.1: A bar graph representing the type of livestock reared
Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

It was noted that poultry was the most popular livestock reared by the respondents both before resettlement (16.8 %, n = 39) and after resettlement (75.4 %, n =175) while pigs were the least kept by the respondents both before resettlement (4.3 %, n =10) and after (8.2 %, n =19). It is possible that poultry was more popular because it required less space and little capital investment. This observation resembles the report by Asgary and his colleagues that the resettlers in Iran engaged in livestock keeping (Asgary *et al*., 2006). However, it contradicts the observations of Asgary and others who reported that the number of people employed in the livestock keeping in resettled areas in Iran had declined in both the host and guest communities (Asgary *et al.*, 2006). They attributed this to "new houses were built without adequate consideration of animal husbandry requirements".

Plate 4.2: Some of the livestock at Canaan and Amani settlement Schemes

Through field observations and interviews, some of the farmers that reared poultry, cattle, sheep, goats and rabbits had specific rooms for securing their animals both before and after resettlement. The rooms were either besides the main house or at the back yard. Those who had no spare room for the poultry kept it within the main house at night.

The produce obtained from farming is significant to the farmers and their households. Some of the respondents consume the produce entirely within the households while some sell part of it to get additional income. In this study, it was imperative that we establish how the respondents used the farm produce and, the results were as shown in Table 4.4 below:

Table 4.4: Uses of farm produce

Uses of farm produce	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
For food	39	16.8	191	82.3
For sale	31	13.4	124	53.4

Source: Field data (2017) *** Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)**

There was a substantial increase in the number of farmers that used the produce for subsistence from 39 respondents (16.9%) before resettlement to 191 respondents (82.3%) after resettlement. This could be due to the increase in the number of people that engaged in farming since the land was available for farming. Also, there was a substantial rise in the number of those that sold their farm produce from 31 household heads (13.4 %) before resettlement to 124 household heads (53.4%) after resettlement. This could be attributed to an increase in the level of production after resettlement due to increase in the acreage of farm size.

Through observation and interviews it was revealed that produce such as milk, eggs and meat were consumed at either household or neighbourhood level. There was a sense of sharing among the households as the people could share vegetables with neighbours that were not growing their own at a given time. In Canaan settlement scheme, most households grew similar crop types which varied with seasons of the year as indicated by the male respondent below:

> "….*we grow maize between the months of December and May and we cultivate tomatoes and vegetables between the months of June and October which we sell to traders".*

It was concluded from the interviews and field observations that farm produce such as green maize and tomatoes was sold mainly to traders from Kitale Town. Other produce like green vegetables was sold to neighbours within the village. Also, through interviews, live poultry, eggs and milk were sold by the gate of the homestead. Large livestock like goats, sheep and cattle were rarely sold because most farmers had only one or two which they preferred not to sell.

Those that were interviewed reported that the money obtained from the sold produce was used to subscribe to self-help groups, pay church tithes and provide basic

household needs such as sugar and salt. This revelation differs with the findings of Kassie and his colleagues who noted that those resettlers that sold farm produce in North-western Ethiopia invested the money mainly in livestock. Therefore, building on Cernea's IRR Model, reconstruction of livelihoods occurs when there is change from food insecurity to safe nutrition, from social disarticulation to social reconstruction and from marginalization to social inclusion (Cernea, 1997).

4.2.2 Source of farm labour

Farm labour is critical to agricultural production especially for those farmers engaging in medium to large scale production. The workers are required for land preparation, planting, weeding and harvesting. Most labour is provided by the family (spouses, siblings, and relatives) but some households may also depend on support from neighbours or hired labour. In this study, the respondents engaging in farming reported that they obtained labour from the sources shown in Figure 4.2.

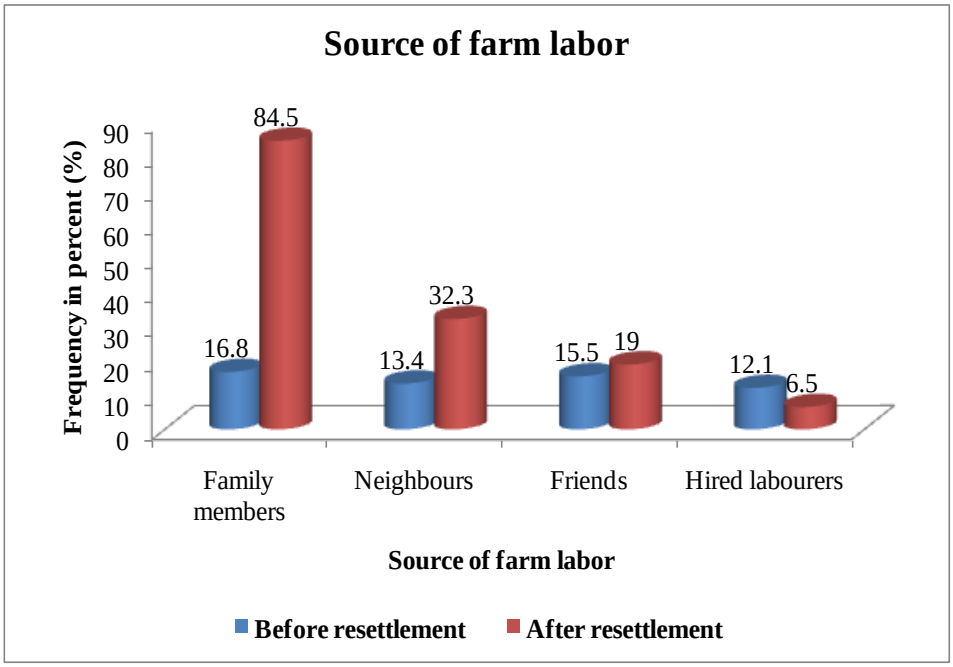

Figure 4.2: A bar graph representing the source of farm labour
Source: Field data (2017) *Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

It was observed that farm labour was mainly provided by the family both before resettlement (16.8 %) and after resettlement (84.5 %). Hired labourers were said to have rarely provided labour on the farms both before resettlement (12.1 %) and after resettlement (6.5%) in the study area. It was deduced that family members provided most labour on the farms both before resettlement and after resettlement this is because most farmers had meagre resources to afford employing of labourers. Also, the children also provided farm labour during the holidays and weekends. This observation was similar to the case of resettled persons in Magwi County (South Sudan) where farmers relied on family labour (Shanmugaratnam, 2010).

4.2.3 Other livelihood activities

Although most of the resettled persons ventured into farming as a major livelihood, some of them supplement by venturing into off-farm activities. The respondents were asked to state the alternative economic activities which they engaged in. It was reported that before resettlement most of the respondents (85.3 %) were engaging in trading activities but after resettlement a majority of them (80.2 %) were employed on farms. Also, there was a substantial reduction in the number of resettled persons that engaged in trading activities from 173 respondents (85.3 %) before resettlement to 58 (25.0 %) after resettlement. This could be attributed to the fact that before resettlement the resettled persons were living in urban areas (Nakuru Town) where business activities are the main stay livelihood activity.

Table 4.5: Other livelihood activities respondents engage in

Economic activities	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Trading activities	198	85.3	58	25.0
Employed as casual labourers	12	5.2	186	80.2
Salaried employment	27	11.6	11	4.7

Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

However, after resettlement the resettled persons relocated to the rural area where farming is the main economic activity. Shanmugaratnam (2010) opined that the resettled persons in Magwi County (South Sudan) engaged in other livelihood activities to diversify their household income. There was a substantial increase in the percentage of respondents that engaged in employment on farms casuals from 5.2 % before resettlement to 80.2 % after resettlement. Very few of the respondents were salaried employees both before resettlement (11.6 %) and after resettlement (4.7 %). This could be because only few of the IDPs had acquired the requisite college or university level education and training to qualify for salaried jobs. From the interviews and field observations, some of the respondents sought income opportunities from their neighbours by offering casual labour and transportation of produce from farms to markets, using bicycles and motorcycles, from which they obtained wages on daily or weekly basis. Most respondents revealed that they mainly worked on their farms throughout the year while a few were employed to do menial jobs such as watchmen, grounds men and teachers in nearby schools.

Trading, as an economic activity, can promote the ability of the households to secure extra income. The trading activities that the resettled farmers engaged in were established and the results were analysed in Figure 4.3 below. It was established that of those engaging in trading activities, hawking was the most common before resettlement (28.9 %) while selling grocery was the major business activity (7.3 %) after resettlement. Operating of food kiosks was the least practised trading activity (3.4 %) before resettlement while tailoring shops was the least practised economic activity (0.4 %) after resettlement.

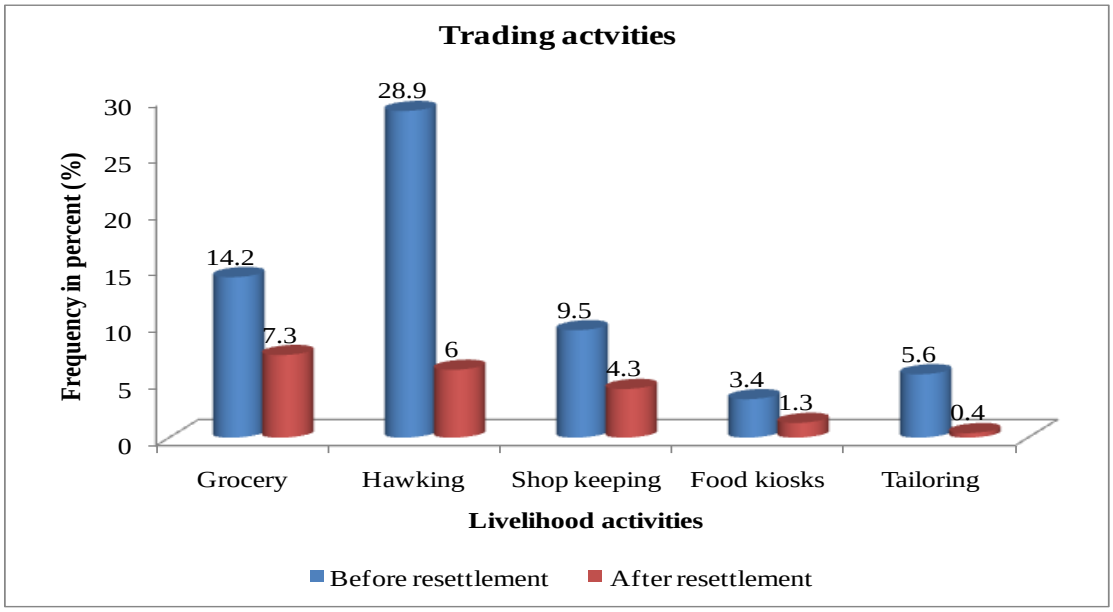

Figure 4.3: A bar graph representing the off-farm livelihood activities respondents engage in

Source: Field Data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

This implies that people that engaged in trading activities reduced after resettlement because of the shift from urban area to rural setting after resettlement. This finding is different from the resettled persons in Magwi County (South Sudan) who engaged in livelihood activities such as firewood and charcoal selling, brewing alcohol, offering wage labour, selling fruits and vegetables as well as fishing (Shanmugaratnam, 2010).

Plate 4.3: A home canteen at Canaan Settlement

The resettled IDPs could have taken up farming due to the rural location and high agricultural potential of the new settlement. This revelation is different with the observations of Godagama (2012) that the resettled IDPs in Sri Lanka obtained their livelihood from business-related activities.

The income obtained from off-farm activities is essential to the individuals and households engaging in it.

Table 4.6: Use of income from off-farm economic activities

Use of the income	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Buying household items	58	25.0	17	7.3
Catering for other bills	53	22.8	16	6.9
Investing in other business	37	15.9	13	5.6

Source: Field data (2017) *** Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)**

The study found out that the respondents used the money in various ways as shown in Table 4.6. It was reported that much of the money from non-farming economic activities was used to buy household items both before resettlement (25 %) and after

resettlement (7.3%). Other respondents noted that they used the income to pay other family bills both resettlement (22.8 %) and after resettlement (6.9 %). Few respondents reported having invested the money in other businesses both before resettlement (15.9 %) and after resettlement (5.6%). It could be deduced that generally the money was mainly used at the household level.

4.3 Access to Services

The second objective of this study was to establish the level of access to services necessary for the rebuilding of livelihoods among the resettled persons. The rebuilding of livelihoods among displaced persons requires enormous professional, sociological, and psychological support.

4.3.1 Access to agricultural extension services

Extension services are a key requirement for enhanced production in agriculture which is a main economic activity in the study area. The study investigated level of access to agricultural extension services among the resettled persons.

Table 4.7: Access to agricultural extension services

Access to agricultural extension services	**Before resettlement**		**After resettlement**	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	13	5.6	74	31.9
No	219	94.4	158	68.1
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

It was reported that there was an increase in the number of respondents accessible to agricultural extension services from 5.6 % before resettlement to 31.9 % after resettlement. Majority of the respondents did not receive agricultural extension

services both before resettlement (94.4 %) and after resettlement (68.1 %). This indicates that most of the resettled persons may have been relying on farming information from other sources such neighbours, friends and media. Some could have relied on experience or used the information learnt in school. One respondent when asked where he learnt farming from noted: "*I have gained farming skills and knowledge through actual engagement, neighbours and friends*". This point to the argument that neighbours and friends were critical in accessing information on farming. The explanation for this is best captured by Shanmugaratnam (2010) who indicated that in resettlement scheme in Magwi County (South Sudan) there were few and untrained agricultural extension officers who worked as volunteers.

4.3.2 Access to medical services

Medical services are an essential resource in both livelihood provision and protection (IRP, 2015) through control of diseases and reduction of mortality in a population. In the rural areas, medical facilities are generally located far from most households. It's important to provide extended medical services to the local populace, most especially maternal and child healthcare services such as immunisation and disease management.

Table 4.8: Access to extended medical services

Access to extended medical services	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	36	15.5	110	47.4
No	196	84.5	122	52.6
Total	232	100.0	232	100.0

Source: Field data (2017)

From Table 4.8, the number of respondents that had access to medical services increased from 36 (15.5 %) before resettlement to 110 (47.4 %) after resettlement. This increment in the percentage of the people receiving extended medical services after resettlement could be attributed to availability of both hospitals and medical personnel. The available volunteers after resettlement were located much nearer to the settlement compared to the period before resettlement. This is similar to the case of Mannar District in Sri Lanka where almost all resettled IDPs were accessible to proper medical services (Godagama, 2012). However, this observation contradicts to the findings by Asrat (2009) who notes that in Boreda resettlement scheme (Ethiopia) the resettled households were facing challenges of inadequate medical facilities and some of the (re)settlers fell sick due to a sudden change of environment.

4.3.3 Access to administration and security services

The nature and type of governance is critical in the development of the requisite social and economic asset base for effective reconstruction of livelihoods (IRP, 2015). Local administrators provide security as well as administrative services that control access to livelihood assets. The respondents were asked whether they were receiving adequate services such as issuance of National Identification cards (acquisition of citizenship), receipt of information from government and resolving conflicts within the settlement scheme from the local administration and security agents. Their responses are presented in Table 4.9 below:

Table 4.9: Services from local administrators and security agents

Local administration and security services	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency*	Percent	Frequency*	Percent
Obtain lost National Id cards	69	29.7	93	40.1
Delivery of information	67	28.9	145	62.5
Resolving conflicts	39	6.9	63	27.2

*** (Total does not add to 100% because it was a multiple response)**

Source: Field data (2017).

From Table 4.9, 29.7 % noted that they had been assisted to obtain lost National Identification cards before resettlement. After resettlement, the number of IDPs that were enabled to acquire lost National Identification cards increased to 40.1 %. This implies that during displacement the IDPs lost their property as well as identification documents and therefore were assisted to replace the lost National Identification cards. Also, household heads (28.9 %) got information from the local administration before resettlement but the number increased to (62.5 %) after resettlement. Some of the respondents (16.9 %) revealed that before resettlement local administrators were important in resolving conflicts while (27.2 %) noted that the local administration was significant in resolving conflicts within the community after resettlement.

This indicates that there was a slight increase in the number of people who were assisted by the local administrators in resolving conflicts. This could be due to the resettlement scheme being located near the Chief's office. This revelation resembles that by Saparamadu & Lall (2014) who reported that the local administration played vital roles in resettlement and service delivery to people in the North of Sri Lanka through the District Secretary structures.

It was observed during the study that in both Canaan and Amani settlements, Chiefs' offices were located right within the settlement. This is similar to the case of resettled IDPs in Baraka Shalom resettlement scheme in Molo constituency and Rwangondu farm settlement in Kuresoi constituency both in Rift Valley Region in Kenya where peace and security thrived and IDPs and the host community related well (UNDP, 2011). Some of the settlers were members of the Central Government's *Nyumba Kumi* (it means Ten Households) security cells and community policing. This initiative involves ten households consisting of members from the same neighbourhood provide security to the community. The members have the power to arrest and take the culprits to the police station and resolve some conflicts within the neighbourhood.

4.3.4 Access to services from elected leaders

The local politicians play an essential role in the effective resettlement and subsequent integration of former IDPs since they encourage host communities to accept and support the immigrants. In Amani Scheme, the office of the Ward Administrator, who represents the County Government of Trans Nzoia, is located within the settlement. In this study it was important to establish whether the elected leaders supported the resettled persons. The findings were as shown in Table 4.10 below:

Table 4.10: Support from elected leaders

Support from elected leaders	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	65	28.0	181	78.0
No	167	72.0	51	22.0
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

It was revealed that before resettlement 65 out of 232 respondents (28.0 %) received support from elected leaders but after resettlement 181 out of 232 respondents (78.0 %) got support from their elected leaders. This indicates that there was a substantial increment in the number of resettlers that received support from elected leaders in their new areas of residence.

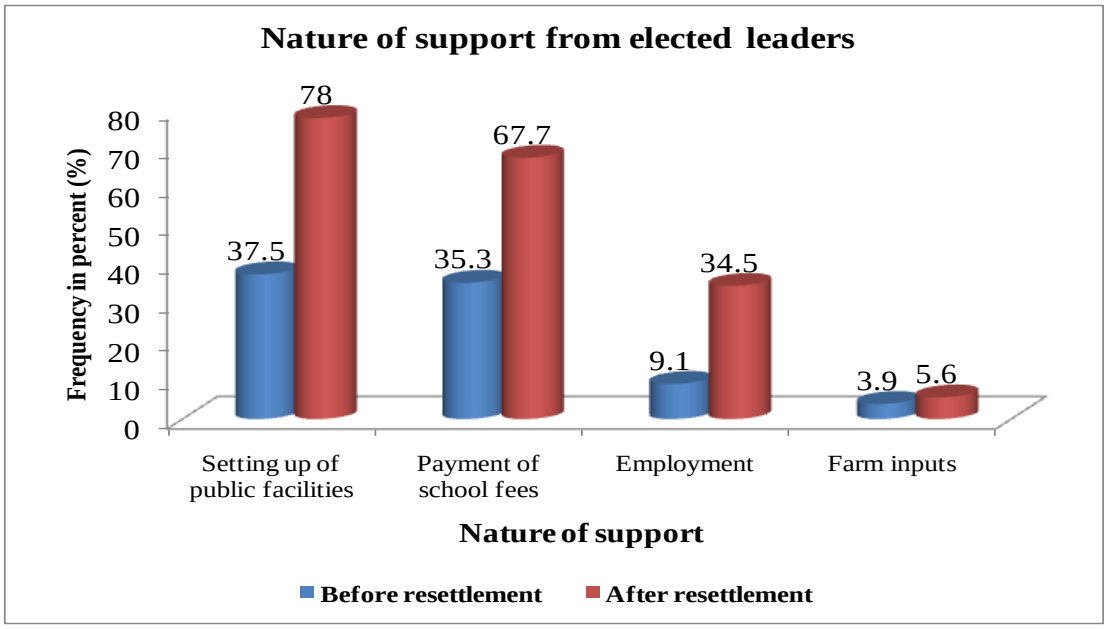

Figure 4.4: A bar graph representing the nature of support from elected leaders
Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (The total does not add to 100%)

Out of the 232 respondents, 181 (78.0 %) noted that they received support from elected leaders in form of developing public amenities after resettlement while 87 out of 232 (37.5%) respondents revealed that they were supported in setting up of public

facilities before resettlement. The households that received school fees support increased from 82 respondents (35.3%) before resettlement to 157 respondents (67.7%) after resettlement. Only 13 respondents (5.6 %) revealed having received farm inputs from the elected leaders before resettlement while 9 of the respondents (3.9 %) received farm inputs after resettlement. This indicates that the elected leaders mainly supported the resettlers through construction of public facilities such schools, hospitals and markets after resettlement. This finding contradicts the observations of Saparamadu & Lall (2014) who revealed that politicians play a great role in how the land is used such as when and how the IDPs are resettled.

4.4 Rebuilding of livelihoods through resettlement

The third objective of this study was to establish the level to which the rebuilding of livelihoods had occurred among the resettled persons owing to the various resettlement programs. Rebuilding of livelihoods in this study was conceptualized as the ability of the resettled persons to regain the lost assets and be able to use the regained assets to improve their wellbeing now and in future. The assets examined in this study included: land ownership; access to financial facilities; access to sources of clean water; access to medical services; ownership of quality housing; access to education facilities and services for children, access to sources of energy for cooking and lighting and; access to national identification (citizenship) and enfranchisement.

4.4.1 Land ownership

Land ownership is a vital strategy towards livelihood promotion (IRP, 2015); food production, building of houses, income generation and collateral for credit facilities from financial institutions. Land ownership enables and motivates one to practise on-farm livelihood activities with minimal restriction. Land owners have mandate over

the type, scale and intensity of utilization of the land for their wellbeing. The level of land ownership was established and presented.

Table 4.11: Ownership of land

Owner of the land	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent (%)**	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Self	9	3.9	98	42.2
Landlord/lady	178	76.7	0	0
Spouse	7	3.0	125	53.9
Parent	19	8.2	3	1.3
Relative	9	3.9	1	0.4
Friends	10	4.3	5	2.2
Total	232	100	232	100

Source: Field data (2017)

A majority of the respondents lived on land owned by landlords/ ladies before resettlement (76.7 %) while after resettlement, a majority of the respondents lived on land owned by either their spouses (53.9 %) or themselves (42.2%). This indicates that the resettlement program on land promoted land ownership among the resettled persons as well as their spouses. This implies that the increased landownership among IDPs ensured that the government achieved the resettlement objectives. The resettled persons were given allotment letters to indicate that they were the owners of the land after resettlement.

According to one village elder and chairman of Canaan settlement scheme the plots were allocated to the former IDPs, who were the majority and host the community who were the minority (6 plots only), through balloting. All respondents acknowledged that the land for resettlement was given to them by the GoK.

The IRR model as proposed by Cernea argues that reconstruction of livelihoods occurs when the impoverished population's situations changes from landlessness to land-based (Cernea, 1997). Therefore, as revealed by Cernea, these resettled persons were able to reconstruct their livelihoods since they were able to move from being landless to owning land. According to the chief of Chepchoina Location, there was a GoK restriction on the sale of the land allocated to the resettled persons in the settlement schemes, enforced through withholding of the land title deeds among other controls.

4.4.2 Access to financial capital

Financial resources are essential in the acquisition of investment capital and other basic necessities. The level of access to credit was as indicated in Table 4.12 below. It was revealed that 201 of the respondents (86.6 %) were unable to access loans before resettlement but after resettlement the number reduced to 164 (70.7 %). There was a slight increase in the number of resettlers that were able to secure financial assistance from credit facilities from 31 persons (13.4 %) before resettlement to 68 persons (29.3 %) after resettlement.

Table 4.12: Access to credit

Access to credit	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	31	13.4	68	29.3
No	201	86.6	164	70.7
Total	232	100.0	232	100.0

Source: Field Data (2017)

This could be attributed to some of the women had formed groups that enabled them to secure loans. However, most people were still experiencing inadequate access to capital for self-improvement after resettlement.

Most respondents were not accessing financial services and it was important to establish why they were not accessing loans. The reasons for the failure to access financial services were established and shown in Figure 4.5 below:

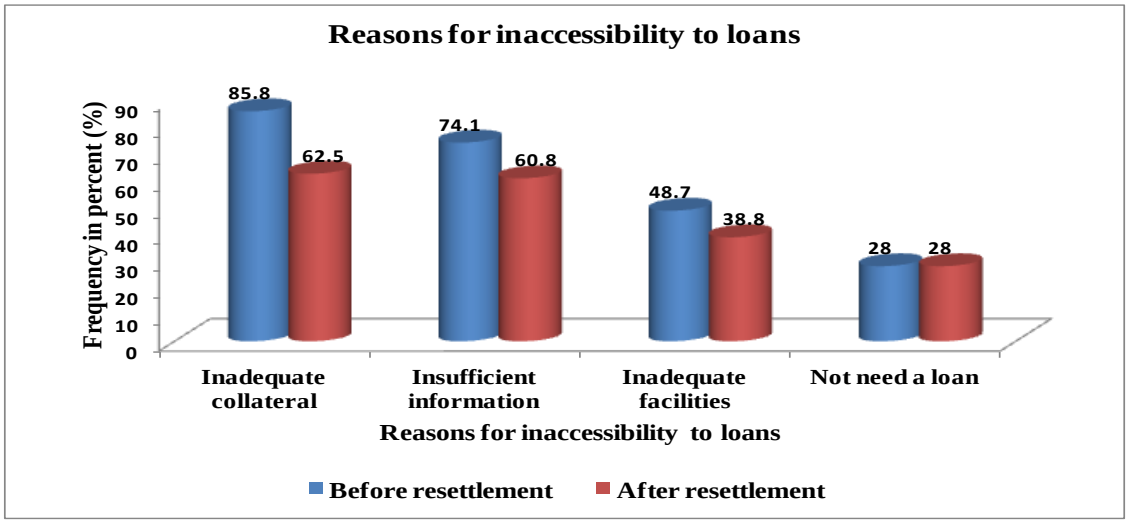

Figure 4.5: A bar graph representing the reasons for not accessing loans
Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

From Figure 4.5, 199 out of 232 respondents (85.8 %) revealed that inadequate collateral was the reason for inability to access loans before resettlement while 145 out of the 232 respondents (62.5 %) cited inadequate collateral as the main reason for failure to access loans after resettlement. This finding could be attributed to lack of formal employment and land title deeds, which had not been issued by the time of the study. However, 65 of the respondents (28 %) revealed that they did not require loans both before resettlement and after resettlement.

4.4.3 Access to safe drinking water

Water is basic to human survival. Access to clean and safe water for domestic use is critical to the lives of the resettled persons and marks a major step towards livelihood protection (IRP, 2015). This study sought to establish the accessibility of respondents to safe and clean water for domestic use. The responses are shown in Table 4.13 below:

Table 4.13: Access to safe drinking water

Access to treated water	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	13	5.6	155	66.8
No	219	94.4	77	33.2
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

The results reveals that there was a considerable increase in the number of respondents that were accessing safe drinking water from 13 respondents (5.6 %) before resettlement to 155 respondents (66.8 %) after resettlement. This implies that after resettlement, more resettlers gained access to safe water for drinking and this could be due to presence of spring water that was accessible. This observation contradicts findings of Asrat who revealed that the problem of water shortage was also experienced by the resettlers of Boreda resettlement scheme in Ethiopia (Asrat, 2009).

The sources of water for domestic use among the resettled persons were as indicated in Figure 4.6.

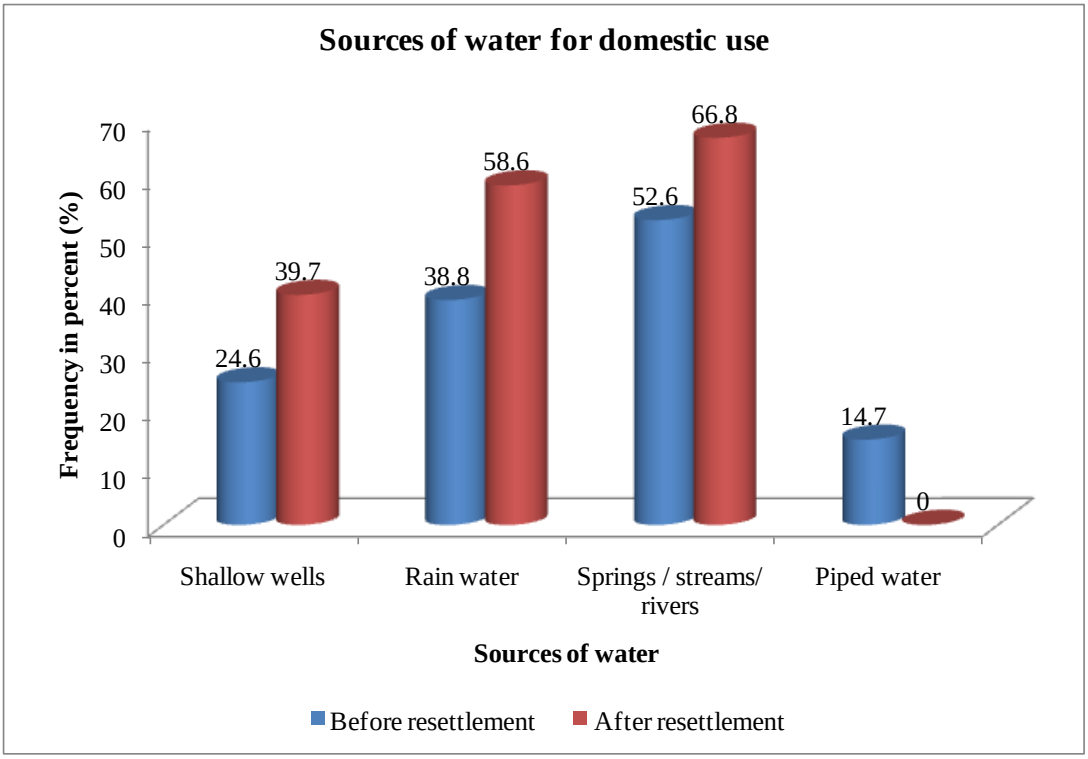

Figure 4.6: A bar graph representing source of water for domestic use
Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

From Figure 4.6, 122 of the respondents (52.6 %) noted that the main source of water before resettlement was springs/ streams/ rivers while 155 of the respondents (66.8 %) reported that the main source of water after resettlement was springs/ streams/ rivers. Generally, there was an increase in the number of respondents that obtained water from shallow wells, rain water and springs/ streams/rivers. It is argued that underground water is safe for drinking by human beings. There was a reduction in the number of respondents that were accessible to piped water before resettlement from 34 households (14.7 %) to none of the households (0 %) after resettlement. This implies that after resettlement, most households mainly used water sources that were unsafe for drinking and this was an affront to livelihood recovery.

Distance from the source influences the amount of time required to access the water. The sources of water were located at varied distances from the homes of resettled persons as shown in Table 4.14:

Table 4.14: Distance from the source of water

Distance from water source	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Less than 2 km	119	51.3	214	92.2
More than 2 km	113	48.7	18	7.8
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data (2017)

Table 4.14 shows that 119 out of 232 households (51.3 %) obtained water from sources located within two kilometres before resettlement but the number increased to 214 out of 232 households after resettlement (92.2 %). However, there was a substantial reduction in the number of people that obtained water from sources beyond two kilometres away from 113 out of 232 households (48.7 %) before resettlement to 18 out of 232 households (33.6 %) after resettlement. The mean distance to source of water was 1.98 kilometres with a standard deviation of 0.14 kilometres before resettlement while the mean distance to source of water was 1.58 kilometres and standard deviation was 0.23 kilometres after resettlement was after resettlement This indicates that the resettlement programs enhanced the access to water by the resettled persons since the water sources were located nearer to the place of habitation. The sources of water in the study area are the same as the ones for the resettled persons in Sudan (Shanmugaratnam, 2010).

4.4.4 Access to sanitation facilities

Availability of adequate sanitation facilities and services promotes hygiene and good health. The respondents were asked whether they were accessible to sanitation facilities or not. The responses were analysed and presented in Table 4.15 below:

Table 4.15: Adequate access to sanitation facilities

Adequate access to sanitation facilities	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	143	61.6	209	90.1
No	89	38.4	23	9.9
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

Six out of ten respondents (61.6 %) reported that they were accessible to sanitation facilities before resettlement while nine out of ten respondents (90.1 %) indicated that they were accessible to sanitation facilities after resettlement. It is clear from this finding that there was an increase, of 66 respondents (28.4 %), in the number of people who had access to sanitation facilities. This implies that the resettlement process promoted access to sanitation facilities and therefore there was an improvement in the quality of life resettled persons. This revelation coincides with the findings of Godagama (2012) who observed that there was an improvement of hygienic conditions and awareness in terms of toilet usage amongst the IDPs.

The number of people sharing sanitation facilities can inform on the level of hygiene and risk of communicable diseases. From Figure 4.7, the number of households sharing sanitation facilities with one household increased from 45 households (19.4 %) before resettlement to 116 respondents (50 %) after resettlement. The number of people that were sharing sanitation facilities with more than one household reduced after resettlement.

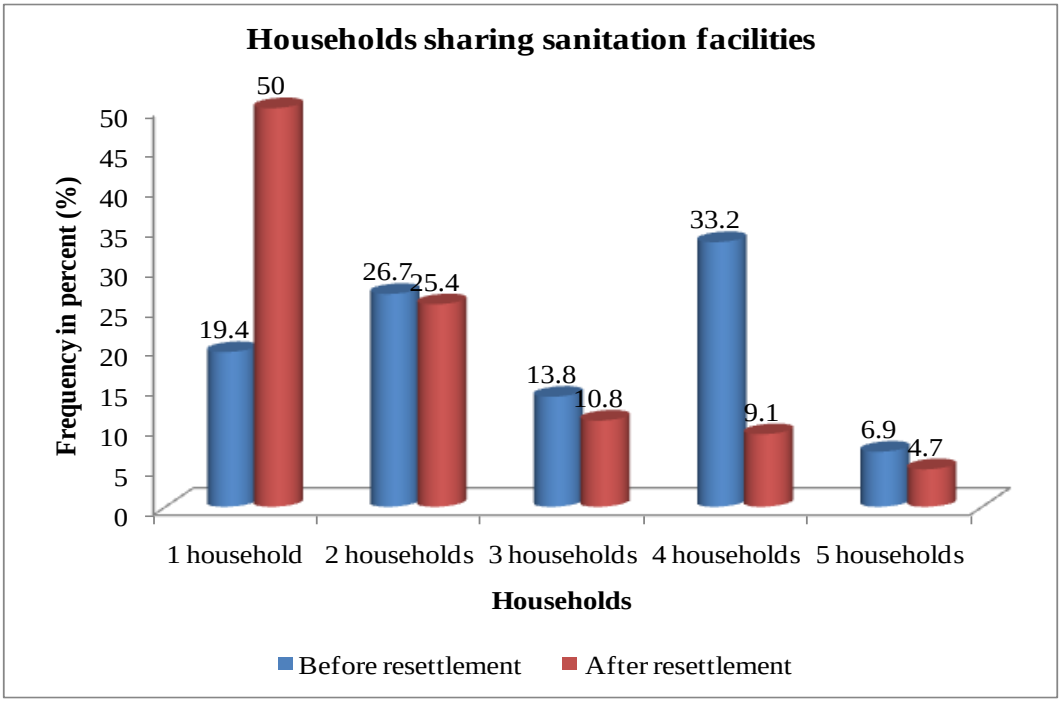

Figure 4.7: A bar graph representing households sharing the sanitation facility
Source: Field data (2017)

Through observation, it was noted that pit latrines and open pits were the main sanitation facilities in the settlement. However, from field observations, the quality of sanitation facilities was observed to have been poor in Canaan schemes since during the rainy season, there was flooding in the area due to the clay soils that have poor drainage. Also through formal discussions, the resettled persons disposed the garbage in open pits or burnt the household wastes. This could contribute to air pollution and spread water borne diseases in the area reducing the quality living of the resettled persons. This resembles the findings of Godagama (2012) who noted that a large number of the resettled persons in Sri Lanka burnt the garbage, a small percentage used to make compost manure.

4.4.5 Access to medical facilities

Medical facilities and services are necessary for prevention and management of diseases. The number of households that were accessible to medical facilities was established (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16: Access to medical facility

Access to medical facility	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	127	54.7	193	83.2
No	105	45.3	39	16.8
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

Out of 232 respondents, 127 (54.7 %) were accessed medical facilities before resettlement and 193 (83.2 %) of the respondents said that they were able to access medical facilities after resettlement. This implies that there was an increase in the number of respondents (28.5 %) that were accessible to medical facilities after resettlement. This could be attributed to the presence of mission and a public hospital a few kilometres from the resettlement schemes. From the interviews that were conducted, it was revealed that the distance to the medical facility was one of the main factors determining access to medical services before resettlement as well as after resettlement.

The study further sought to investigate the type of medical facilities which the respondents were accessing. The findings were presented in Table 4.17 below:

Table 4.17: Type of medical facility

Type of medical facility	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Public facility	129	55.6	193	83.2
Private or mission facility	156	67.2	60	25.9

Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

From Table 4.17, there was a slight increase in the number of respondents that were accessible to public medical facilities from 55.6% before resettlement to 83.2 % after resettlement. Also, 156 respondents (67.2%) reported to have used a private/ mission medical facility before resettlement for medical assistance compared to 60 (25.9%) respondents after resettlement. Fewer respondents used private or mission hospitals after resettlement perhaps because the facilities were few and relatively expensive.

Proximity of households to medical facilities influences the efficiency with which diseases are prevented and managed. The distance from medical facilities was investigated and the results were presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Distance to medical facility

Distance to facility	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2 km	90	38.8	120	51.7
More than 2 km	142	61.2	112	48.3
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232from**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

It was noted that 90 out of 232 respondents (38.8 %) used medical facilities that were located less than 2 kilometres away before resettlement but, after resettlement 120 out of 232 respondents (51.7 %,) revealed that the medical services were found less than

2 kilometres away. Therefore, most of the households (61.2 %) sought medical services from more than two kilometres before resettlement while 48.3 % of the respondents got medical assistance more than two kilometres after resettlement. The mean distance to medical facility was 2.11 kilometres before resettlement with standard deviation of 0.12 kilometres while the mean distance to medical facility was 1.97 kilometres with a standard deviation of 0.14 kilometres after resettlement.

4.4.6 House ownership and quality

Houses provide shelter and security to occupants. House quality and ownership is a significant indicator of the quality of life of the resettled persons. The level of ownership of houses was established in this study as shown in Table 4.19. Majority of the respondents (76.7 %) revealed that they lived in houses owned by landlords before resettlement while most of the households (96.1 %) reported to be living in their own houses or houses owned by spouses after resettlement. The analysed results indicate that there was a tremendous increase in the number of respondents that owned houses from before after resettlement. This implies that reconstruction of livelihoods was achieved according to IRR model which states that reconstruction occurs when those people that are homeless are able to reconstruct houses and own homes(Cernea, 1997).

Table 4.19: Ownership of the house

Owner of the house	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Self / spouse	16	6.9	223	96.1
Friend	10	4.3	5	2.2
Parent	19	8.2	3	1.3
Relative	9	3.9	1	0.4
Landlord	178	76.7	0	0.0
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

The quality and adequacy of a house bears on its suitability for shelter. In this study it was necessary to investigate the quality and adequacy of the houses the IDPs were living in after resettlement. The results are shown in Figure 4.8 below: From Figure 4.8, 23 out of 232 respondents (9.9 %) revealed that the quality and adequacy of the rooms was very good before resettlement while 57 out of 232 respondents (24.6 %) reported that after resettlement the quality and adequacy of the rooms was very good. However, 128 of the respondents (55.2 %) revealed that the houses they were living in were of poor quality before resettlement while after resettlement the number reduced to 36 respondents (15.5%) among those that noted their current houses were of poor quality.

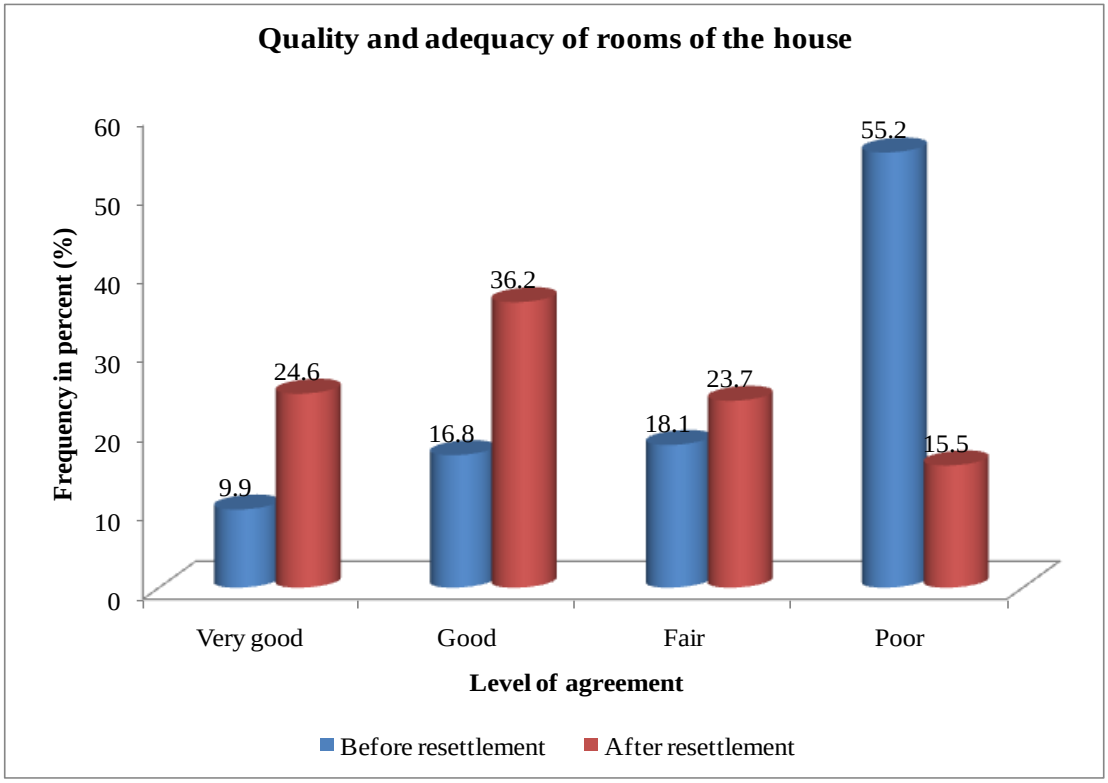

Figure 4.8: A bar graph representing the quality and adequacy of rooms of the house
Source: Field data (2017)

All the respondents reported during interviews that they were given iron sheets and construction poles alongside Ksh 10,000.00 by the GoK but they provided their own labour to construct the semi-permanent houses of standard size and design settlement. Furthermore, it was revealed during field study that a standard house was 20 feet long and 12 feet wide. Through observation, most of the houses were sub-divided into two rooms but a few were one roomed. This was mainly determined by household's housing needs based on the family size and structure. The cooking places were located outside the house, either at the backyard or on the side of the house.

Plate 4.4: Size of a standard house in Amani and Canaan settlement schemes, Trans-Nzoia County

4.4.7 Children's access to education facilities and services

Educating of children provides skilled and knowledgeable human capital for profitable economic and social development of any nation. Access to quality education facilities and services is, therefore, critical. This study assessed the accessibility of children to education facilities among the resettled households in the study area. Findings are shown in Table 4.20:

Table 4.20: Children access to education facilities and services

Access to education facilities	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	85	36.6	176	75.9
No	103	44.4	12	5.1

Source: Field data (2017) * (some respondents did not have school going children)

It was reported that 85 of the respondents (36.6 %) revealed that their children were able to access education facilities and services before resettlement while 176 of the respondents (75.9 %) reported that their children were able to access education facilities and services after resettlement. Therefore there was a considerable increase in the number of children who would access education facilities and services after resettlement and this was attributed to construction of schools within the resettlement area after resettlement.

Access to education is greatly influenced by the distance between the home and the school.

Table 4.21: Distance from the school

Distance to school	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2 km	57	24.6	123	53.0
More than 2 km	131	56.5	65	28.0
No children in school	44	19.0	44	19.0

Source: Field data (2017) * (some respondents did not have school going children)

From Table 4.21, 57 out of 232 respondents (24.6 %) said that their children went to schools located less than 2 kilometres away from their homes before resettlement while 123 out of 232 respondents (53.0 %) revealed that their children went to schools located less than 2 kilometres away after resettlement. Also, 131 of the respondents (56.5 %) reported that their children went to schools located more than 2 kilometres away before resettlement while 65 of the respondents (28.0 %) noted that their children attended schools situated more than 2 kilometres away after resettlement.

The mean distance travelled by children to school was found to be 1.20 kilometres with standard deviation of 0.07 kilometres before resettlement while the mean distance travelled was 0.85 kilometres with standard deviation of 0.03 kilometres after resettlement. Therefore, more school going children were relieved from travelling longer distance to reach school after resettlement. This could be due to the construction of schools within the settlement areas. To meet this need, the GoK had built a primary school at Amani Settlement using CDF financing at the time of the study. The County Government of Trans Nzoia had built ECD classrooms at the Amani Primary school. Canaan settlement found a pre-existing primary school adjacent to it.

Plate 4.5: Amani Primary school and ECD built by GoK and the County Government of Trans Nzoia

4.4.8 Sources of energy

Proper food preparation and adequate lighting requires a source of energy. The study established that households used various sources of energy for cooking and lighting as shown in Figure 4.9 below:

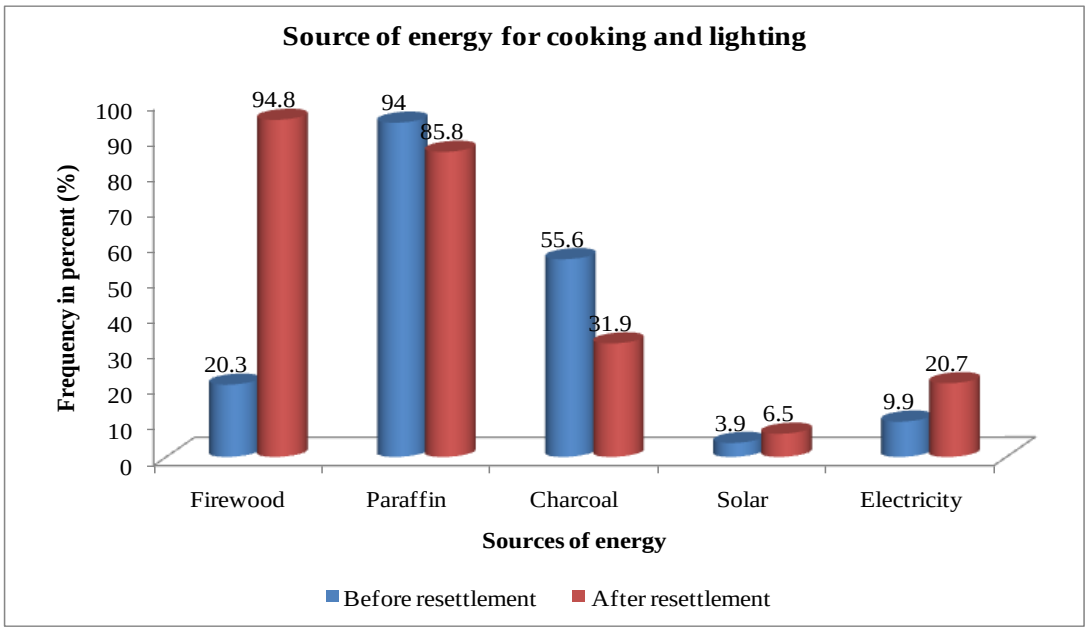

Figure 4.9: A bar graph representing the sources of energy for cooking and lighting
Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

From Figure 4.9, 218 out of the 232 respondents (94.0 %) revealed that paraffin was the main source of cooking fuel before resettlement while 220 out of the 232 respondents (94.8 %) noted that firewood was the main source of fuel. This implies that there was a considerable increase in the number of respondents (74.5%) that used firewood as a source of domestic fuel after resettlement. Also, solar energy was the least used source of lighting before resettlement (3.9 %) as well as after resettlement (6.5 %). It was observed during the research that in Amani Settlement Scheme, the GoK had begun supplying electricity through a World Bank funded program called *One Last Mile*. A few households had been supplied already at a subsidised cost of Ksh 15000.

4.4.9 Access to transport facilities

Transport systems influence the ease with which people, goods and services are accessed by households. This study sought to find out the state of transport systems and the responses were as indicated in Figure 4.10 below:

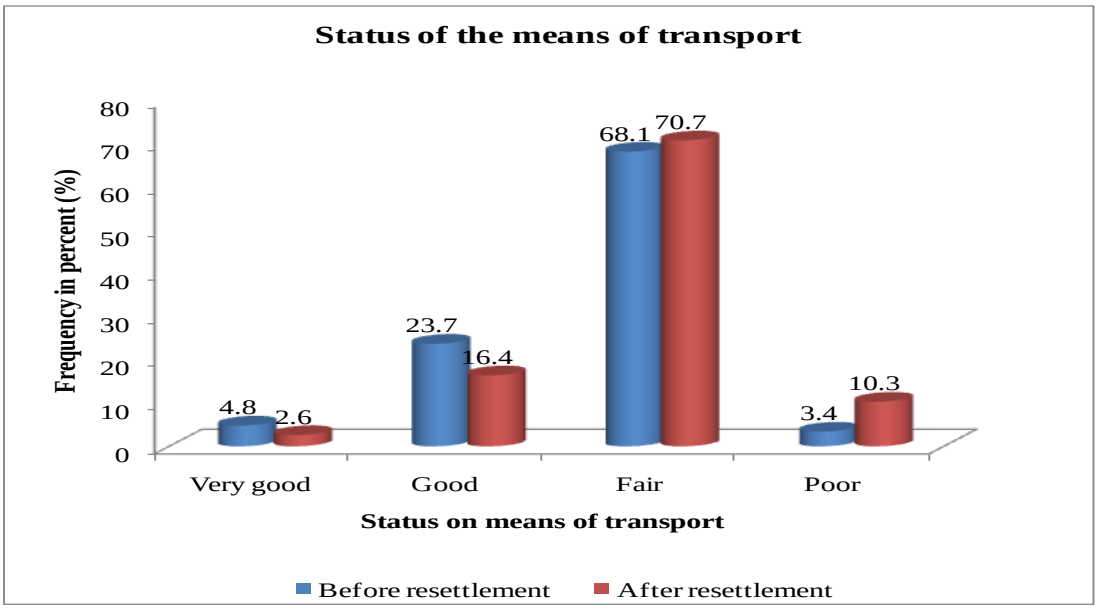

Figure 4.10: A bar graph representing the state of means of transport
Source: Field data (2017)

From Figure 4.10, 158 of the 232 respondents (68.1 %) said that the status of the means of transport was fair before resettlement while 164 of them (70.7 %) said that it was fair after resettlement. However, there was a decrease in the number of respondents that perceived the transport system as 'very good' from 4.8 % to 2.6 % and as 'good' from 23.7 % to 16.4 % after resettlement. But, there was an increase in the percentage of those that reported that the means of transport was poor from 3.4 % before resettlement to 10.3 % after resettlement. This implies that the status of transport systems in the areas of resettlement was worse than it was in the places the people lived before resettlement.

The main means of transport in the study area were established and the results were as indicated in Figure 4.11 below.

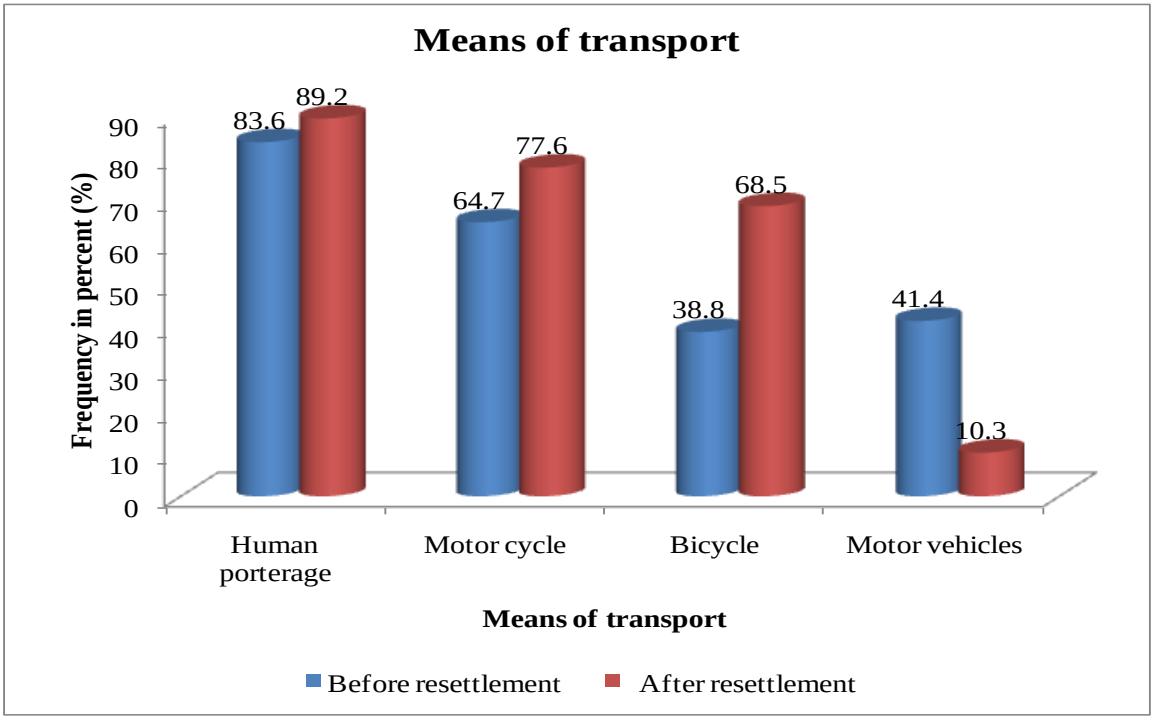

Figure 4.11: A bar graph representing the main means of transport

Source: Field data (2017) ***Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)**

It was reported that a majority of the respondents used human portage both before resettlement (83.6%) and after resettlement (89.2 %). Few respondents used motor vehicles for transport both before resettlement (41.4 %) and after resettlement (10.3 %). There was a slight increase in the number of people using human portage by 13 people (5.6 %), using motor cycles increased by 30 persons (12.9 %) and those using motor cycles increased by 69 respondents (29.7 %). However, there was a substantial reduction (31.1 %) of people using motor vehicles after resettlement. And, this could be due to the poor state of roads in the settlement areas. This explanation is supported by the finding of Shanmugaratnam (2010) who revealed that there was lack of transport and therefore the roads were impassable during rainy seasons in resettlement scheme in Magwi County (South Sudan).

The main means of communication shades light on the level of access to and transmission of information. The findings were analysed and presented in Figure 4.12:

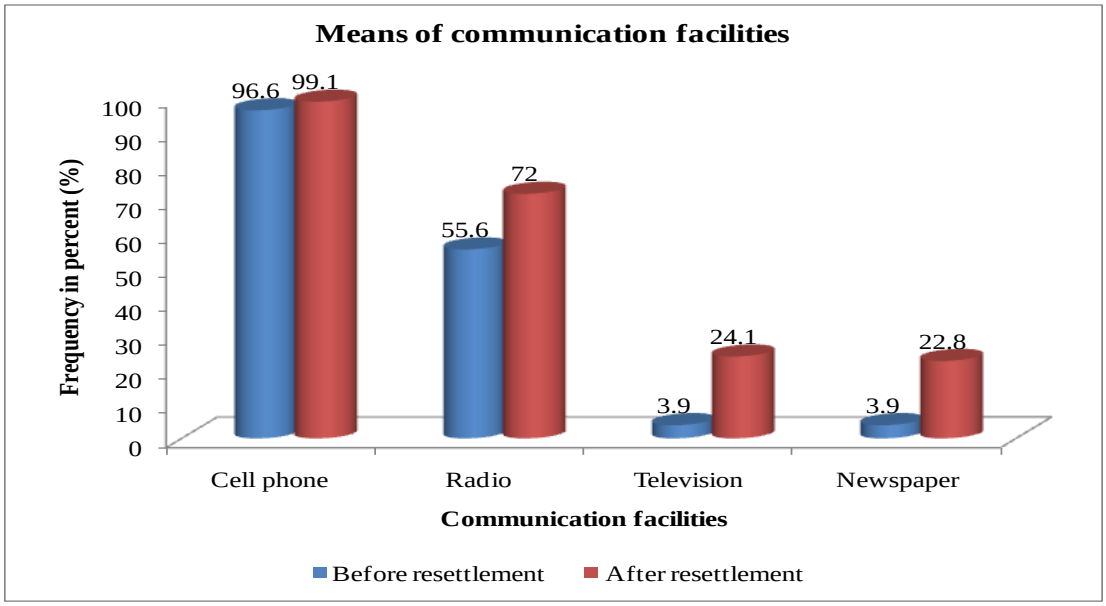

Figure 4.12: A bar graph representing the main means of communication
Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)

The main means of communication according to majority of the respondents both before resettlement (96.6%) and after resettlement (99.1 %) was the cell phone. Newspapers were the least used source of information by the respondents both before resettlement (3.9 %) and after resettlement (22.8 %). There was a slight increase by 6 persons (2.5 %) in the number of people who used the cell phone and a considerable increase by 47 persons (20.2 %) in the number of people who used television. This could be due to loss of mobile phones and television sets before resettlement caused by the PEV and that later people bought new ones after resettlement.

The ownership of the communication facilities used by the resettled persons was established and the results were presented in the Table 4.22 below:

Table 4.22: Ownership of communication facilities

Ownership of communication facility	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Self / spouse	204	87.9	213	91.8
Owned by relative	13	5.6	12	5.2
Owned by neighbour / friend	15	6.5	7	3.0
Total	232	100.0	232	100.0

Source: Field data (2017)

It was noted that 204 of the 232 respondents (87.9 %) with their spouses were the owners of the communication facilities before resettlement while after resettlement 213 persons (91.8 %) reported that they were the owners of the communication gadgets. Few respondents reported using a communication facility that was owned by a relative, neighbour or friend both before resettlement and after resettlement. Through informal interviews, it was revealed that residents experienced problems with mobile communication networks and services offered in Kenya (Safaricom, Airtel and Orange) as it more easily switched to MTN Uganda which was more expensive. This is because the resettlement schemes are close to the Kenya-Uganda border and suffered strong signal interference from the neighbouring country.

4.4.10 Participation in public and community activities

Participation in public and community based activities such as weddings, religious celebrations, funeral gatherings and community based organizations promotes social integration between the resettled persons and host communities. This generates the requisite social capital for growth. The findings on the involvement of resettled persons in community activities were indicated in Table 4.23 below.

Table 4.23: Participation in community activities

Participation in community activities	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	167	72.0	196	84.6
No	65	28.0	36	15.4
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

It was revealed that 7 in every 10 respondents (72.0%) participated in community activities before resettlement while after resettlement 8 in every 10 respondents (84.6%) reported that they were participating in community activities. This implies that there was an increment (12.6 %) in the number of people participating in community activities like weddings, burial ceremonies and church meetings among others.

The ability to seek leadership posts by resettled persons in areas regarded as new to them indicates that they have fully integrated with the host community. Leadership positions in the study area were religious-based and community-based as shown in Table 4.24 below:

Table 4.24: Taking of leadership positions

Type of leadership position	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent (%)
Community based groups	119	51.3	143	61.6
Religious based	42	18.1	48	20.7

Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Does not total 100%)

It was noted that a majority of the respondents were leaders in community based groups both before resettlement (51.3%) and after resettlement (61.6 %). A few were

leaders in religious organizations both before resettlement (18.1%) and after resettlement (20.7 %). This indicates that the number of persons who were in leadership positions increased by 24 people (10.3%) in community based groups and the number in religious based leadership increased slightly by 6 individuals (2.6 %) after resettlement. However, it was revealed through interviews that the former IDPs were side-lined in the formation of community committees like Constituency Bursary Committees and committees for vetting of people for employment after resettlement.

Citizenship and enfranchisement are essential rights of any persons aged eighteen years in Kenya. The study sought to establish whether the IDPs had acquired National Identity and Voter registration cards and the inquiry got results as shown in Table 4.25 below. It was established that there was open opportunity to secure National Identification and voters' cards among the respondents both before resettlement (78.9 %) and after resettlement (87.1%). However, the ability to obtain National ID and voters cards improved slightly by 19 people (8.2 %) after resettlement.

Table 4.25: Owning of National Identification and Voters cards

Own National ID and Voters cards	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	183	78.9	202	87.1
No	49	21.1	30	12.9
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

Community based self-help groups are important in promoting social cohesion and provision of social and financial support. It was established that some of the respondents were members of self-help groups while others were not, as shown in Table 4.26 below;

Table 4.26: Membership to self-help groups

Belong to help group	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	78	33.6	129	55.6
No	154	66.4	103	44.4
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data (2017)

It was revealed that 78 out of 232 respondents (33.6 %) belonged to self-help groups before resettlement and 129 out of 232 respondents (55.6 %) were members of self help groups after resettlement. The number of respondents that participated in self-help groups increased by 51 persons (22.0 %) after resettlement. From the above revelations, it is acceptable that resettlement led to increased participation in social activities that would promote the livelihoods among the settlers.

4.5 Challenges facing resettled persons

4.5.1 Food shortage

Inadequate food security undermines livelihood promotion and is a hindrance to rebuilding of livelihoods which manifests in form of food shortage. This study sought to establish the level of food shortage among the resettled persons.

Table 4.27: Experiencing of food shortages

Experiencing of food shortages	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	204	87.9	147	63.4
No	28	12.1	85	36.6
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

It was noted that 204 respondents (87.9 %) reported to have experienced food shortages before resettlement while 147 respondents (63.4 %) reported that they were experiencing food shortages after resettlement. This implies that the number of people experiencing food shortages reduced substantially by 57 households (24.6 %) after resettlement. This finding is contrary to Kassie *et al*., (2014) who revealed that several years after resettlement the settlers were still encountering challenges of food insecurity in North-western (Ethiopia).

Food shortages are ameliorated by promoting access to food supply which takes various approaches as shown in Table 4.28. It was revealed that 194 respondents (83.6 %) bought food stuff to curb food shortage before resettlement while 136 respondents (58.6%) bought food after resettlement.

Table 4.28: Ways of curbing food shortages

Ways of curbing food shortage	**Before resettlement**		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
By buying	194	83.6	136	58.6
Borrowing from relatives	68	29.4	35	14.9
Borrowing from neighbours	42	17.9	17	7.3

Source: Field data (2017) Multiple response (Does not add to 100%)

This represents a significant drop of 49 households (20.9%) in the number that bought foodstuff after resettlement. The number of people that borrowed food stuff from relatives reduced from 68 (29.4 %) before resettlement to 35 after resettlement. There was also a drop in the number of households that obtained food by borrowing from neighbours from 42 (17.9 %) before resettlement to 17 (7.3 %) after resettlement.

Through interview, the respondents recommended that in order to promote food security, the soils should be drained efficiently to remove excess water and allow crops to grow in Canaan Scheme during rainy season. Also, they suggested that the government should research on the best food crops that could be grown in the area and the farming households should be trained on the best farming practices. The farmers in Amani Scheme indicated that they needed to diversify their crops and venture into agribusiness and horticultural farming.

4.5.2 Farming constraints

Some of the respondents that were engaging in agriculture were facing various challenges that hampered production. The study investigated the challenges which the resettled persons who engaged in farming faced in the study area. Results are shown in Figure 4.13 below:

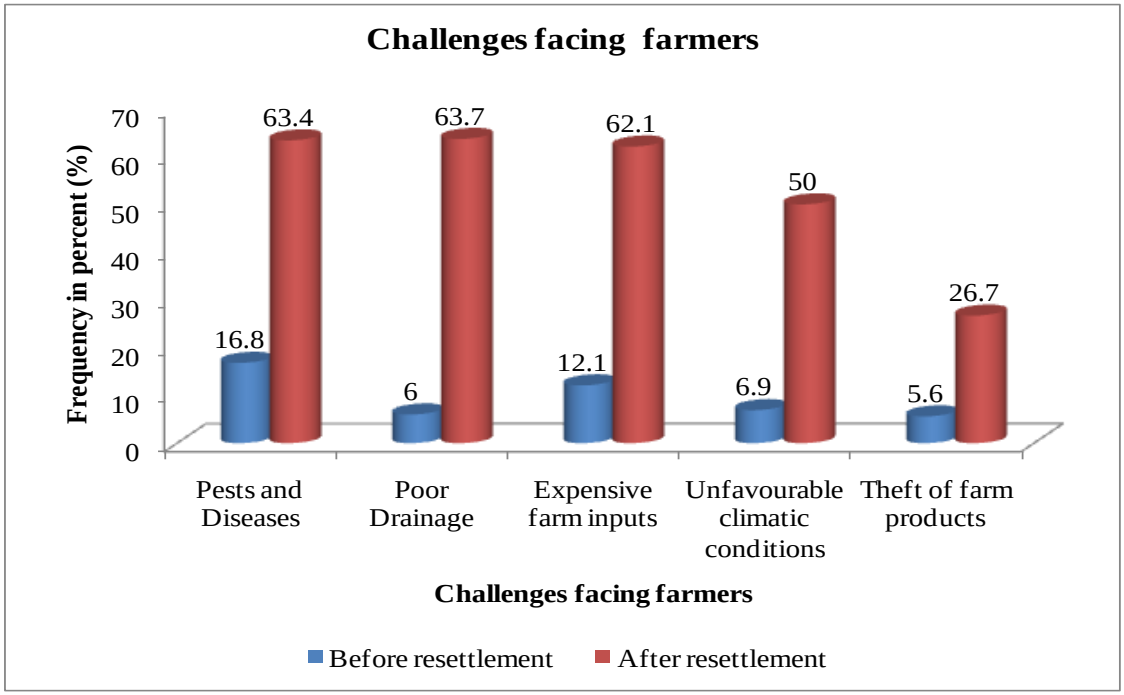

Figure 4.13: A bar graph representing the challenges facing farming
Source: Field data (2017) Multiple responses (Does not add to 100%)

It was found that a majority of the respondents experienced the problems of pests and diseases (16.8 %) and expensive farm inputs (12.1 %) before resettlement. After resettlement, the main challenges facing the respondents were; poor drainage (63.7 %), pests and diseases (63.4 %) and expensive farm inputs (62.1 %). This indicates that the main challenges both before resettlement and after resettlement the main challenges were pests and diseases and expensive farm inputs. Asgary *et al* (2006) while explaining why there was a decline in the farming households noted that inadequate farming resources were the main reason.

The farmers reported that they solved the problems they encountered in various ways as shown in Table 4.29 below:

Table 4.29: Ways of solving some of the challenges facing farming activities

Ways of solving farming challenges	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Making drainage channels	14	6.0	149	64.2
Agrochemical spray	31	13.4	116	50.0
Use of farm manures	39	16.8	64	27.6

Source: Field Data (2017) *** Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)**

It was revealed that the problem of poor drainage was solved by making drainage channels both before resettlement (6.0 %) and after resettlement (64.2 %), pests and diseases were controlled by spraying agrochemicals both before resettlement (13.4 %) and after resettlement (50 %). Since the soil in one of study area (Canaan resettlement scheme) was black cotton soils, it was susceptible to flooding during the rainy season hence one of the main problem facing farmers after resettlement. Expenses on farm

inputs were reduced by use of farmyard manure before resettlement (16.8 %) as well as after resettlement (27.6 %). However, these challenges are unique to the once experienced by returnees in South Sudan who revealed that their crops were mainly destroyed by wild animals, domestic animals, birds, insects and diseases (Shanmugaratnam, 2010).

Plate 4.6: Drainage ditches at Amani Scheme during wet season and dry season

Drainage ditches were common because flooding in the settlement was one of the main problems facing the resettled persons during the rainy season which coincided with the time when this research was carried out.

4.5.3 Constraints to accessing medical facilities

The resettled persons faced challenges when seeking medical services in the study area as shown in Table 4.30 below.

Table 4.30: Facing of challenges when seeking medical services

Facing of challenges in accessing medical services	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	215	92.7	155	66.8
No	17	7.3	77	33.2
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

From Table 4.30, 215 respondents (92.7 %) reported that they faced challenges in accessing medical services before resettlement while 155 respondents (66.8 %) noted that they were facing challenges in relation to access to medical services after resettlement. The challenges faced by respondents in seeking medical services were as shown in Figure 4.14 below:

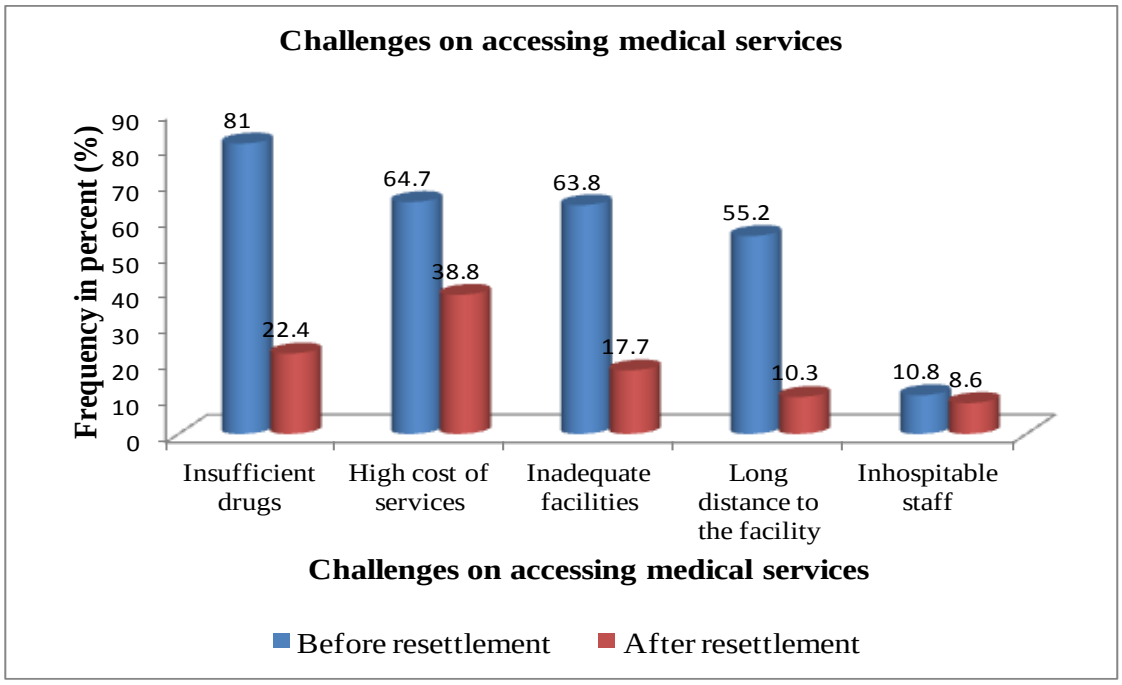

Figure 4.14: A bar graph representing the challenges on accessing medical services
Source: Field data (2017) * Multiple responses (Does not total to 100%)

From Figure 4.14, 188 out of 232 respondents reported that insufficient drugs as the main challenge to accessing medical services before resettlement. Also, before resettlement the major challenges to accessing medical services included; high cost of services (64.7 %, n = 150), inadequate medical facilities (63.8 %, n = 148), long distance to the facility (55.2 %, n = 128) and inhospitable medical staff (10.8 %, n = 25) in that order. After resettlement, 90 out of the 232 (38.8 %) persons reported high cost of drugs as the main problem to accessing medical services. Also, 52 persons (22.4 %) said that the problem was insufficient medical drugs, 41 respondents (17.7

%) noted that the constraint was inadequate facilities and 20 persons (8.6 %) noted that it was inhospitable medical staff after resettlement. Also, it could be seen from the Figure 4.14 above that the number of people facing problems related to accessing medical services significantly reduced after resettlement. This could be attributed to the increased access to the medical facilities.

The resettled persons devised various ways of solving the problems which they encountered while seeking medical services as indicated in Table 4.31:

Table 4.31: Ways of solving challenges related to medical facilities

Ways of solving the challenges related medical facility	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Buy drugs from chemists	142	61.2	46	19.8
Use of herbal medicine	30	12.9	35	15.1

Source: Field data (2017) *** Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)**

It was established that six in every ten respondents (61.2 %) bought drugs from chemists before resettlement while two in every ten respondents (19.8 %) obtained drugs from chemists after resettlement. Also, it was revealed that 30 households (12.9 %) used herbal medicines before resettlement while 35 households (15.1 %) did so after resettlement.

4.5.4 Challenges related to house quality

From the field observations, it was noted that some of the respondents were facing some challenges related to housing. The findings were as indicated in Table 4.26 below: It was revealed that eight in every ten persons (79.7 %) problems with housing before resettlement while six in every ten persons (57.8 %) faced problems with

housing after resettlement. It could be deduced that the number of people facing problems with housing decreased by 21.9 % after resettlement.

Table 4.32: Challenges to housing

Problems with housing	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Yes	185	79.7	134	57.8
No	47	20.3	98	42.2
Total	**232**	**100.0**	**232**	**100.0**

Source: Field data (2017)

From field observations in Canaan settlement, the clay soil holds water for a very long time and contributes to the collapse of most of the houses during flooding and underground seepage, which was rampant.

It was established that the respondents faced two main challenges related to housing as shown in Table 4.33. From the table, 165 of the respondents (71.1%) reported that their houses were of poor quality before resettlement while 64 respondents (27.6 %) noted that the quality of their houses had deteriorated after resettlement. It is clear from Table 4.33 that the number of respondents living in small-sized houses reduced from 132 persons (56.9 %) before resettlement to 77 persons (33.2 %) after resettlement. This suggests that the houses that were constructed after resettlement were of better quality and had fairly large occupational space.

Table 4.33: Nature of challenges related to housing

Nature of challenge related to housing	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Poor quality	165	71.1	64	27.6
Small size	132	56.9	77	33.2

Source: Field data (2017) *** Multiple responses (Does not add to 100%)**

However, some of the houses had collapsed as shown in Plate 4.7 and 4.8 below:

Plate 4.7: Collapsed house walls

Plate 4.8: Waterlogged house floors due to underground seepage

Further, some of the building sites had poor drainage which led to damp floors during the rainy season. This rendered these houses uninhabitable as indicated in Plate 4.8. According to Agba *et al*., (2010) the resettlers in Bakassi resettlement scheme in

Nigeria were facing challenges of accommodation because the houses that were provided were few.

The resettled persons were solving the challenges related to housing in various ways. Some of the strategies they used to ameliorate the challenges to housing were as shown in Table 4.34 below:

Table 4.34: Ways of solving challenges to housing

Ways of solving the challenges to housing	Before resettlement		After resettlement	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Strengthening the walls	42	18.1	149	64.2
Construction of more rooms	23	9.9	168	72.4
Relocation to neighbours'	178	76.7	23	9.9

Source: Field data (2017) *** Multiple responses (Total does not add to 100%)**

In order to solve the problem of housing, 42 respondents (18.1 %) revealed that they improved the quality of the house before resettlement by strengthening the walls while 149 (64.2 %) said that they strengthened the walls of their houses after resettlement. It was noted that 23 persons (9.9 %) constructed more rooms before resettlement while, after resettlement, 168 persons (72.4 %) constructed more rooms. Moreover, 178 households (76.7 %) relocated to neighbours' houses before resettlement while 23 households did relocate to neighbours houses after resettlement. Through field observations, in effort to solve the challenge of housing, some of the resettled persons had to construct new and bigger houses of different design from the initial planned standard houses to increase the space for occupation as shown in Plate 4.9 below:

Plate 4.9: Reconstruction of houses with bigger rooms and improved quality

Some of the respondents, on the other hand, reinforced the walls of their houses using stones as shown in Plate 4.10 below:

Plate 4.10: Reinforcing of house walls using stones in Amani

During interview with the village elder / chairman of Canaan scheme he suggested that the resettled persons should be assisted to obtain a machine for making bricks or construction blocks that would facilitate construction of permanent houses. While commenting on ways of improving the housing quality, the village elder / chairman of Amani settlement scheme emphasised the need to strengthen the structures by reinforcing the walls using the readily available stones.

4.5.5 Challenges faced by school going children

Children going to school encountered various challenges when seeking education services and facilities within the study area. The challenges were analysed and presented as shown in Figure 4.15 below:

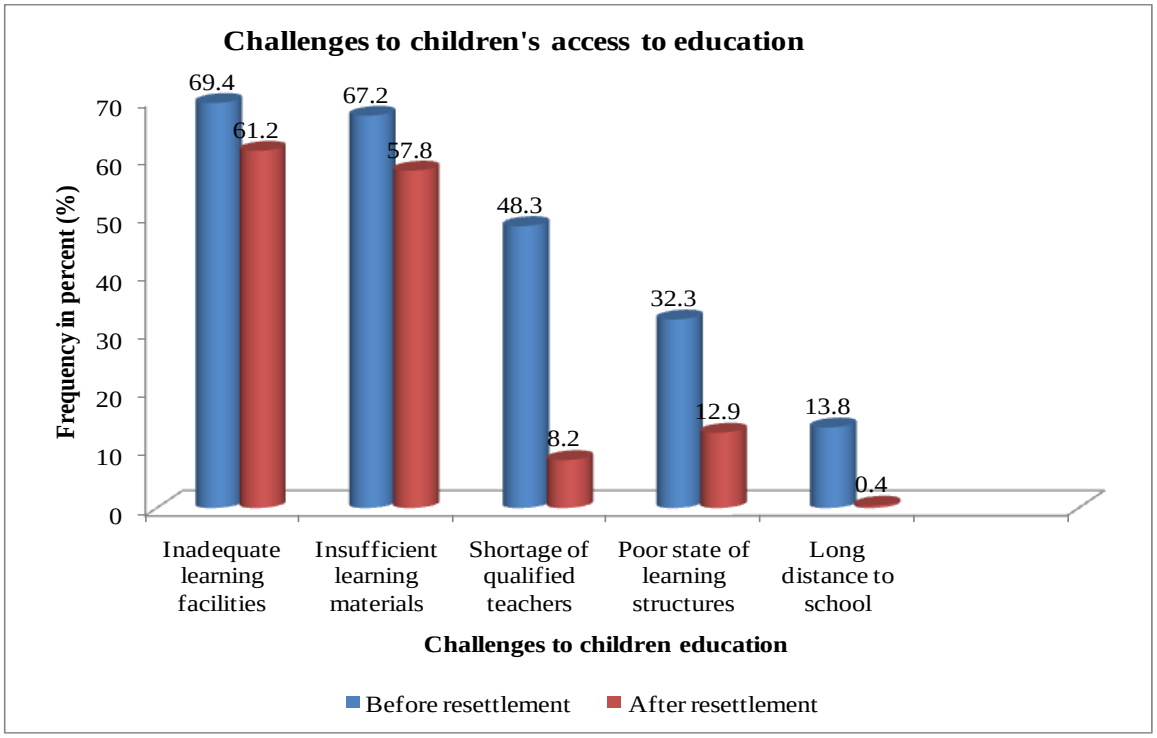

Figure 4.15: A bar graph representing the challenges to children's access to education
Source: Field data (2017)

The main challenge to children's access to education as indicated by 161 respondents (69.4 %) was inadequate learning facilities before resettlement but 156 respondents (67.2 %) reported the same problem after resettlement. There was a decrease in the number of respondents that observed that the problems of shortage of teachers, poor infrastructure and long distance to school reduced after resettlement. This indicates that the main challenges to children's access to education after resettlement were: inadequate learning facilities and insufficient learning materials. According to Shanmugaratnam (2010) there was a serious shortage of teachers that made schools to

rely on voluntary and untrained teachers in the resettlement scheme in Magwi County (South Sudan).

To solve some of these challenges, the local administrators (Chief of Chepchoina, Chief of Kapomboi, village elders / chairman of Canaan and Amani schemes) recommended that: more teachers should be posted to the schools to improve the teacher to pupil ratio, adequate learning facilities should be enhanced and seminars should be arranged to sensitize the parents on the importance of education.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter includes the summary of the findings, the conclusion of the study and the recommendations for policy and further research.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

This section entails the summary of the study findings. It includes the demographics of the study, livelihood strategies of the resettled persons, level of access to services, impact of resettlement on rebuilding of livelihoods and challenges to the rebuilding of livelihoods.

5.1.1 Livelihood strategies

There was an increase in the number of households that engaged in farming after resettlement. Maize was the main crop grown both before resettlement and after resettlement while millet, sweet potatoes, fruits, cassava, vegetables and sorghum were the least grown crops by the resettled people. Poultry was the most common livestock kept by the resettled people both before resettlement and after resettlement. Most of the farmers that reared poultry, cattle, sheep, goats and rabbits had specific rooms for the animals.

Some of the households used the farm produce entirely while others sold part of it to get additional income. The money obtained from the sold produce was used to pay for subscription to self-help groups, paying of church tithes and buying of basic household needs like sugar and salt. Farm labour was mainly provided by the family

members both before resettlement and after resettlement while other sources of labour included neighbours, friends and hired labourers.

Most of the household heads were engaging in trading activities before resettlement while a majority of the people were employed on other peoples' farms after resettlement. A few of the respondents were salaried employees both before resettlement and after resettlement. The respondents engaging in trading activities mainly engaged hawking of household items before resettlement while a majority were selling grocery after resettlement. Furthermore, operating of food kiosks was the least practised trading activity before resettlement while tailoring was the least practised economic activity after resettlement. Money obtained from non-farming economic activities were used to buy household items, catered for other bills and was invested in other businesses at the household level.

5.1.2 Level of access to services

There was an increase in the number of respondents accessible to agricultural extension services after resettlement. However, a majority of the respondents did not receive agricultural extension services both before resettlement and after resettlement. The number of respondents that were accessible to medical services increased after resettlement. The people receiving extended medical services after resettlement increased. More than 70 % of the resettled people had received adequate services from the local administrators and security agents. The number of the people who received support from the elected leaders increased after resettlement. Also, a majority of the resettled person had received support from elected leaders who set up public facilities both before resettlement and after resettlement.

5.1.3 Impact of resettlement on rebuilding of livelihoods

Majority of the resettled people were tenants on the plots owned by land lords before resettlement while most of the resettled persons owned land after resettlement. This implies that the resettlement program on land promoted land ownership among the resettled persons as well as their spouses. There was improvement in the level of access to food by the resettled persons as indicated by a reduction in the number of people experiencing food shortages after resettlement. It could be deduced that resettlement led to increased access to food among the resettled persons. In order to curb food shortages some of the resettled persons bought food while others borrowed food stuffs from relatives and neighbours both before resettlement and after resettlement.

Although a majority of the respondents were unable to access loans both before resettlement and after resettlement due to inadequate collateral to secure the loans, there was a slight decrease in the number of resettlers that were unable to secure financial assistance from credit facilities after resettlement because of the absence of title deeds to secure loans. With regard to sources of water, there was an increase in a number of resettlers that obtained water from shallow wells, rain water harvesting and springs or rivers after resettlement. Although, majority of households obtained water from sources located less than two kilometres away both before resettlement and after resettlement, the number of people who obtained water from beyond two kilometres away decreased after resettlement.

The resettlers indicated that access to sanitation facilities was high both before resettlement and after resettlement. But, there was an increase in the number of people that were accessible to sanitation facilities after resettlement. Pit latrines were

the only sanitation facilities in the settlement area and the number of households sharing sanitation facilities with one household increased after resettlement.

Majority of the respondents were able to access to medical facilities both before resettlement and after resettlement. The number of respondents that were not able to access to medical facilities dropped slightly after resettlement. Also, there was a slight increase in the number of respondents that were able to access public facilities after resettlement while there was a reduction in the number of households that got medical services from private/ mission medical facility after resettlement. In addition, the number of households travelling shorter distances to access hospitals increased after resettlement.

Before resettlement, a majority of the households lived in houses owned by landlords while most of the households were living in their own houses or houses owned by spouses after resettlement. This indicates that there was an increase in the number of respondents that owned the houses after resettlement. Some of the respondents revealed that the quality and adequacy of house rooms was very good both before resettlement and after resettlement.

The resettled persons' children were able to access education facilities and services both before resettlement and after resettlement. Also, there was a slight increase in the number of children accessing to education facilities and services after resettlement. This was attributed to decreased distance to reach school after resettlement and more schools in the areas of resettlement.

A large number of the respondents said that the status of the means of transport was 'fair' before resettlement as well as after resettlement. The means of transport both before resettlement and after resettlement included human portage, motor cycle,

bicycle and motor vehicles. Before resettlement and after resettlement the household heads used cell phones, radio, television and newspapers as means of communication which were owned by self, spouses, relatives, neighbours or friends.

It was noted that the resettlers participated in community activities both before resettlement and after resettlement although there was an increase in the number of people participating in community activities like weddings, burial gatherings and church meetings after resettlement. Majority of the respondents were leaders in community based groups both before resettlement and after resettlement while a few were leaders in religious organizations both before resettlement and after resettlement. It was established that there was open opportunity to secure National Identification and voters' cards among the respondents both before resettlement and after resettlement. Moreover, the ability to obtain National ID and voters cards increased slightly after resettlement.

5.1.4 Challenges facing resettled persons

The main problems facing the farmers before resettlement was attack by pests and diseases and expensive farm inputs while after resettlement the main challenges facing the farmers were; poor drainage, pests and diseases and expensive farm inputs. Drainage channels or ditches were dug to improve the drainage, agrochemicals sprayed to control pests and diseases and farmyard manure used to reduce the expenses on farm inputs.

The households experiencing constraints while accessing medical services decreased after resettlement. The challenges encountered included high cost of services, insufficient medical drugs, inadequate medical facilities, long distance to the facility and inhospitable medical staff especially before resettlement. Some of the challenges

were solved through seeking medical services from other hospitals, buying of medicines from chemists while other households used herbal medicines both before resettlement and after resettlement.

Some household heads revealed that the houses they were living in were of poor quality both before resettlement and after resettlement. These problems were solved by strengthening the walls of the houses, construction of more rooms and relocation to neighbours' houses.

The learners encountered problems such as inadequate learning facilities, insufficient learning materials, shortage of qualified teachers, poor state of learning structures and long distance to school both before resettlement and after resettlement.

5.2 Conclusion

From the results and discussions above, it was concluded that there was a great shift from non-farming livelihood strategies to farming livelihood strategies after displacement. This could be attributed to increased access to land and gaining control of the choice of land use activity by the displaced persons. In contrast, the resettled persons engaged less in non-agricultural activities after resettlement. It is noteworthy that the proceeds from the farm and other livelihood options were used for rebuilding of livelihoods. This suggests that land-based resettlement in rural areas such as Amani and Canaan resettlement schemes encourages agricultural practices while limits involvement in other economic activities.

It can be pointed out clearly that the level of access to agricultural extension services was generally low both before and after resettlement. Also, the number of resettlers who had access to extended medical services reduced greatly after resettlement. This

could be due to few public health workers in the study area. It could be concluded that most of the resettled people had received adequate services from the local administrators and security agents both before resettlement and after resettlement. Support for the resettled people from elected leaders included building of public amenities such as schools and giving of education bursaries.

With regard to land ownership, the resettled persons were given allotment letters pending further processing of title deeds. The level of accessing credit facilities from financial institutions before and after resettlement was relatively low due to lack of collateral in form of physical assets or title deeds to enable them secure loans. Therefore, resettlement programs did not help much in enhancing access to credit services. There was increased accessibility to safe water for drinking after resettlement since most resettled persons got water from springs and boreholes. Similarly, the level of access to sanitation facilities after resettlement was high since few households shared sanitation facilities such as latrines after resettlement.

Resettlement programs enhanced access to public and private medical facilities. This explains why the number of people facing problems related to accessing medication after resettlement was lower than those before resettlement. There was increased ownership of houses after resettlement. Concerning the level of access to education services and facilities by school going children, there was an increase in the number of children who could access education facilities and services after resettlement.

After resettlement the main sources of domestic were firewood and paraffin. Although there was availability to electricity in the study areas for lighting and powering electronics, the number of resettlers who had installed it in their houses was low after. Generally, the transport network in the study area was poor since the roads

were dry weather and the main means of transport apart from human portage was motor cycles. Incidentally, the number of household members owning communication facilities especially mobile phones increased after resettlement. The number of resettled people that were engaging actively in community activities and leadership after resettlement was on the upper trend.

Although the resettled persons continued to encounter the problem of food shortage, incidences of low food availability had declined after resettlement. Cases of food shortage were resolved through buying and borrowing from neighbours and friends. Since the resettled persons engaged more in farming, a large number of them noted that they experienced farming constraints after resettlement. Some of the challenges related were controlled while others continued to be a bottleneck to their livelihood activities. After resettlement, low access to medical services prevailed as one of the main risks to impoverishment and rebuilding of livelihoods. Although resettlement led to house ownership, some of the houses that were built were smaller in size while others poorly constructed. The school going children of the resettled persons were experiencing various challenges in school due to inadequate infrastructure and insufficient learning materials.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 Recommendations on policy

The benefits of resettlement programs on the livelihoods of displaced persons could be realised if the following strategies are employed. First, it was revealed that farming was the main livelihood activity that was carried out after resettlement. However, the resettled persons identified various constraints that hampered effective engagement in both crop and livestock farming. Owing to this revelation, the researcher therefore

recommends that the Ministry of Devolution and the County Government of Trans Nzoia should prioritise helping the resettled persons to curb challenges such as expensive farm inputs by subsidizing the prices. Also, the local elected leaders (Member of County Assembly), Members of Parliament in collaboration with the County Government should develop the transport network in Endebess and Kwanza Constituencies generally. This is would be essential for easy transportation of farm produce to the market and farm inputs to the resettled areas.

Secondly, it is apparent that the resettled persons had limited access to essential services such as agricultural extension and public health. Since these services are to be provided by the County Governments in Kenya, I recommend that the County Government of Trans Nzoia should deploy agricultural extension officers, public health workers and medical officers in the study area. This will help to enhance access to agricultural information and technologies and improvement of health among the resettled persons.

Thirdly, resettlement programs have enhanced access to critical livelihood assets such as land, housing and water. The Ministry of Lands should facilitate faster provision of title deeds to the resettled persons so that they can use them to secure financial assistance from credit institutions. The Non-Governmental organizations such as the World Bank that supports the installation of electricity in the study area should also support the resettled persons to construct better houses. Furthermore, the County Government of Trans Nzoia through the Department of Environment and Natural Resources should ensure that the water that is available for drinking is safe. This can be done through encouraging and supporting the resettlers to consume treated spring water or rain harvested water to reduce incidences of waterborne diseases in the short term but develop piped water systems in the study area in the long term.

Lastly, it is crystal clear that provision of education services within the study area experiences numerous hurdles. The local leaders should spearhead the construction of schools and avail sufficient learning facilities for the school going children. Also, both the County and National Governments should ensure that pre-primary, primary and secondary schools in the study area are adequately staffed with well trained teachers.

5.3.2 Recommendations on future studies

Future studies should be carried out on the impact of resettlement on the rebuilding of livelihoods in other resettlement areas in Kenya and other countries, to establish its efficacy and effectiveness in enabling the former IDPs to reconstruct their livelihoods. Further, post-election resettlement researchers should attempt to adopt a Case Study research design to evaluate the long term effect of the various livelihood strategies and the sustainability of resettlement programmes in Trans Nzoia County. A Sustainable Livelihood Approach should be used to study the livelihoods of the resettled IDPs in Trans Nzoia County to quantify the actual benefits of resettlement on the former IDPs in the region. The effectiveness of the eco-village settlement in the area of this study would perhaps be an interesting research theme. Other theoretical framework models should be used in settlement studies in other resettlement areas as well.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Research Schedule

	PHASE/ACTIVITY	PERIOD	DURATION (MONTHS)
A	Research topic identification	May, 2013 – October, 2014	5
B	Literature review & problem definition	November, 2014 – September, 2015	9
C	Proposal development & reconnaissance	May, 2015- July, 2016	14
D	Proposal Presentation	July , 2016	-
E	Developing the research instruments and piloting the instruments	September 2016 - April, 2017	7
F	Data collection and organization	July - August, 2017	2
G	Data analysis and interpretation	August – December, 2017	5
H	Report writing, typing and editing	January 2018 - April, 2018	3
I	Submission of final draft	May, 2018	-

Source: Author (2018)

Appendix 2: Household questionnaire

TITLE: IMPACT OF RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMS ON REBUILDING OF LIVELIHOODS AMONG RESETTLED FORMER INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN TRANS NZOIA COUNTY, KENYA.

PREAMBLE:

I am Daniel W Mwaturo, a post graduate student at Moi University Main Campus undertaking a Masters of Arts degree in Geography in the School of Arts and Social Sciences.

I am conducting a study on the influence of resettlement programs on rebuilding of livelihoods among resettled former IDPs in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya.

This study is conducted purely for academic reasons. It is meant to evaluate your opinion and not to demean you in any way whatsoever. Your identity will not be revealed to any one unless by your permission and that your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

In view of this therefore, I humbly request you to respond to the questions in the questionnaire as shall be put to you by the research assistants to the best of your knowledge.

Thank you.

A: RESPONDENT'S IDENTIFICATION

A1: Sub-County_____

A2: Ward_____

A3: Resettlement scheme_____

B: DEMOGRAPHICS OF RESPONDENTS

B1. Age_____

B2. Gender: 1 = Male 2 = Female ☐

B3. Marital status: 1 = Single 2 = Married 3 = Divorced 4 = Widowed 5 = Separated ☐

B4. Ethnic background: 1= Luhya 2 = Luo 3= Kalenjin 4= Kisii 5= Kikuyu ☐

6 = other (specify) _____

B5. Level of Education: 1 = Primary 2 = Secondary 3 = College = University ☐

5 = Non formal education 6 = Other (Specify) _____

B6. Where were you displaced from?

1=Urban Area 2=Rural Area 3=other (specify) _____ ☐

C: LIVELIHOOD STRATEGIES OF RESTTLED IDPS

C1. Have you been engaging in farming:

(**a) Before resettlement** 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

(b) After resettlement1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

C2. If you have been engaging in crop farming, which crops have you been growing?

Before resettlement: 1 = Maize 2 = Vegetables 3=Bananas

4=Beans 5= other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Maize 2 = Vegetables 3=Bananas

4=Beans 5= other (specify) _____ ☐

C3. If you have been engaging in livestock farming, which types of livestock have you been keeping? **(Multiple responses apply)**

Before resettlement: 1 = Cattle 2 = Poultry 3=sheep and Goats

4=Rabbits 5=other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Cattle 2 = Poultry 3= Sheep and Goats

4=Rabbits 5=other (specify) _____ ☐

C4.If you have been engaging in farming, what have you been using the produce for?

Before resettlement: 1=Food 2=Sale 3= other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Food 2=Sale 3= other (specify) _____ ☐

C5. If you engage in farming, where do you get labour for your farm?

Before resettlement: 1 = Family members 2 = Neighbours 3 = Friends

4 = Relatives 5 = hired labourers 6 = other (specify) ____ [ ]

After resettlement: 1 = Family members 2 = Neighbours 3 = Friends

4 = Relatives 5 = hired labourers 6 = other (specify) ____ [ ]

C6. Which other livelihood activities have you been engaging in?

Before resettlement: 1 = Trade 2 = Permanent employment 3 = Temporary employment4=others (Specify)_____ [ ]

After resettlement: 1 = Trade 2 = Permanent employment 3 = Temporary employment4=others (Specify)_____ [ ]

C7. If you have been engaging in trade, what trading activities have you been carrying out?

Before resettlement: 1=Hawking 2 = Shop keeping 3 = Grocery

4=Other (Specify) _____ [ ]

After resettlement: 1=Hawking 2 = Shop keeping 3 = Grocery

4=Other (Specify) _____ [ ]

C.8.What do you use the income from the above activities for?

Before resettlement: 1= Buying household items 2 = Investment in other business 3 = Payment for other bills 4 = others (Specify)_____ [ ]

After resettlement: 1= Buying household items 2 = Investment in other business 3 = Payment for other bills 4 = others (Specify)_____ ☐

D: LEVEL OF ACCESS TO SERVICES

D1.Have you been receiving agricultural extension services?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2=No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

D2. Have you been receiving any extended medical services?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2 = No ☐

After resettlement: 1=Yes 2 = No ☐

D3.Which services you got from local administrators and security agents?

Before resettlement: 1 = Obtain National ID cards 2 = Delivery of information 3 = Resolving conflicts ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Obtain National ID cards 2 = Delivery of information 3 = Resolving conflicts ☐

D4. Have you ever received the elected local leaders support you?

Before resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

After resettlement: 1= Yes 2 = No ☐

D5. What kind of support have you been receiving from the elected local leaders?

Before resettlement: 1= Financial support 2 = Setting up public facilities

3 = Fees for the children 4 = Employment 5 = other (specify)_____ ☐

After resettlement: 1= Financial support 2 = Setting up public facilities

3 = Fees for the children 4 = Employment 5 = other (specify)_____ ☐

E: REBUILDING OF LIVELIHOODS THROUGH RESETTLEMENT

E1. Who is the owner of the land on which you have been living on?

Before resettlement: 1 = Self 2 = Spouse 3 = Parent 4 = Relative

5= land lord/ lady 6 = other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Self 2=Spouse 3=Parent 4=Relative

5= land lord/ lady 6 = other (specify) _____ ☐

E2. Have you been accessing loan facilities from Micro finance institution or Bank?

Before resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

E3. Have you been accessible to clean water for domestic use?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2=No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

E4. Where have you been obtaining the water for domestic use from?

Before resettlement: 1=Piped water supply 2=Village Spring 3=River/stream

4=Water vendors5=other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Piped water supply 2=Village Spring 3=River/stream

4=Water vendors5=other (specify) _____ ☐

E5. How far has the source of water been in Kilometres (give estimate in kilometres?

Before resettlement: _____

After resettlement: _____

E6. Have you been accessible to a toilet/latrine?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2=No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

E7. How many households have you been sharing the toilet with?

Before resettlement: 1=1 2=2 3=3 4=4 5= 5 and more ☐

After resettlement: 1=1 2=2 3=3 4=4 5= 5 and more ☐

E8. Do you have access to a medical facility/hospital?

Before resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

E9. If yes in E8 above, what type is the facility? Multiple responses apply

Before resettlement: 1=Public/Government 2=Private/Mission ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Public/Government 2=Private/Mission ☐

E10. How far has the facility been in kilometres?

Before resettlement: _____

After resettlement: _____

E11. Who is the owner of the house in which you have been living in?

Before resettlement: 1 = Self / spouse 2 = Parent 3 =Relative 4= Neighbours

5 = other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Self / spouse 2 = Parent 3 =Relative 4= Neighbours

5 = other (specify) _____ ☐

E12. How would you rate the quality and adequacy of house you have been living in?

Before resettlement: 1 = Very Good 2 = Good 3= Fair 4 = Poor ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Very Good 2 = Good 3= Fair 4 = Poor ☐

E13.Have your children had access to education facilities and services?

Before resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

E14. How far has been the school your children attend in Kilometres?

Before resettlement: 1=Less than 2km 2=More than 2km ☐

After resettlement: 1=Less than 2km 2=More than 2km ☐

E15. What have you been using for cooking, heating and lighting?

Before resettlement: 1=Electricity 2=Firewood 3=Paraffin 4=Solar energy

5=other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Electricity 2=Firewood 3= Paraffin 4=Solar energy

5=other (specify) _____ ☐

E16. What has been your means of transport?

Before resettlement: 1=Motor cycle 2=Motor vehicle 3=Trekking

4 =Bicycle 5 = other (specify)_____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Motor cycle 2=Motor vehicle 3=Trekking

4 =Bicycle 5 = other (specify)_____ ☐

E17.How do you rate the state of transport networks?

Before resettlement: 1=Very good 2=Good 3=Fair 4=Poor ☐

☐

After resettlement: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Fair 4 = Poor

E18. What is your usual means of communication?

Before resettlement: 1=Cell phone 2=Newspaper 3=Radio 4=Television

5=other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Cell phone 2=Newspaper 3=Radio 4=Television

5=other (specify) _____ ☐

E19. Who has been the owner of the facility?

Before resettlement: 1=Self / spouse 2= Relative 3 = Neighbor

4 =other (specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Self / spouse 2= Relative 3 = Neighbor

4=other (specify) _____ ☐

E20. Have you been participating in public and community activities together with the host community?

Before resettlement: 1= Yes 2 = No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

E21. Have you taken leaderships positions in public and community activities?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2=No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

E22. Have you been allowed to obtain National ID cards and voter registration cards?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2= No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

F: CHALLENGES FACING RESETTLED PERSONS

F1. What challenges have you been experiencing in your farming activities?

Before resettlement: 1=Pests and diseases 2=Expensive inputs 3=Theft

4=Climatic hazards 5=Poor drainage 6= Other (Specify) _____ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Pests and diseases 2=Expensive inputs 3=Theft

4=Climatic hazards 5=Poor drainage 6= Other (Specify) _____ ☐

F2. What steps have you been taking to deal with the challenges in F1 above?

Before resettlement: 1=Chemical spray 2=Making drainage channels

3=Use of manures 4= other (specify) _____ _ ☐

After resettlement: 1=Chemical spray 2=Making drainage channels

3=Use of manures 4= other (specify) _____ ☐

F3.Have you been experiencing food shortages?

Before resettlement: 1 =Yes 2=No ☐

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

F4. If yes in F3 above, how have you been solving the problem?

Before resettlement: 1= Buying from the market 2 = Get some from neighbors 3 =Get some from relatives 4=other (specif ☐

After resettlement: 1= Buying from the market 2 = Get some from neighbors 3 =Get some from relatives 4=other (specif ☐

F5. If No in F4 above, why are you not accessing loans?

Before resettlement: 1=I do not want 2=Lack of collateral 3=Lack of loan facilities 4=Lack information

After resettlement: 1=I do not want 2=Lack of collateral 3=Lack of loan facilities 4=Lack information

F6. Have you been experiencing the challenges in obtaining medical services from the facility?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2=No

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No

F7. If Yes in F6 above, what challenges have you been experiencing on accessing medical services?

Before resettlement: 1=Long distance 2= Inadequate facilities 3=High cost 4= Insufficient medicines 5=Inhospitable staff 6=other (specify) _____

After resettlement: 1=Long distance 2= Inadequate facilities 3=High cost 4= Insufficient medicines 5=Inhospitable staff6=other (specify) _____

F8. How have you been solving the challenges above?

Before resettlement: 1=Seek medical attention in another hospital 2= Buy drugs from chemists 3 = Use herbal medicine 4= other (specify) _____

After resettlement: 1=Seek medical attention in another hospital 2= Buy drugs from chemists 3 = Use herbal medicine 4= other (specify) _____

F9. Do you face any problem with the house in which you are living?

Before resettlement: 1=Yes 2=No

After resettlement: 1 = Yes 2 = No

F10. Which kind of the problem is you been facing?

Before resettlement: 1=Small size 2=Poor quality

After resettlement: 1 = Small size 2 = Poor quality

F11. How do you solve the problem in F10 above?

Before resettlement: 1=Construction of more rooms 2= Renovating the walls 3 = Relocation at sleeping time 4= other (specify)_____

After resettlement: 1=Construction of more rooms 2= Renovating the walls 3 = Relocation at sleeping time 4= other (specify)_____

F 12.What challenges have your children been facing in obtaining quality education services?

Before resettlement: 1=Poor state of structures 2=Inadequate structures 3=Inadequate Learning materials 4=Shortage of qualified teachers 5=other (specify) _____

After resettlement: 1=Poor state of structures 2=Inadequate structures 3=Inadequate Learning materials 4=Shortage of qualified teachers 5=other (specify) _____

Appendix 3: Interview schedule: key informants.

I am Daniel W Mwaturo, a post graduate student at Moi University Main Campus undertaking a Masters of Arts degree in Geography in the School of Arts and Social Sciences.

I am conducting a study on the influence of resettlement programs on the rebuilding of livelihoods among resettled former IDPs in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya.

This study is conducted purely for academic reasons. It is only meant to evaluate your opinion and not to demean you in any way whatsoever. Your identity will not be revealed to any one unless by your permission and that your responses will be treated with uttermost confidentiality.

In view of this therefore, I humbly request you to respond to the questions in the questionnaire as shall be put to you by the research assistants to the best of your knowledge.

Thank you.

1. In your opinion, is the water supply adequate for the newly settled former IDPs in your Community

1= Yes 2=No ☐

2. If No in 1 above, what do you think should be done to enhance access to adequate water?

_____

_____

3. Do you think the newly settled community has access to adequate health facilities and Services?

1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

4 If no in 3 above, what do you think should be done to access adequate health facilities and services?

_____

_____

_____

5. In your opinion, do the resettled former IDPs have access to adequate and quality education facilities and services for their children? 1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

6. In No 5 above, what do you think should be done to improve access to quality education for their children?

_____

_____

_____

7. Do you think the resettled community has access to suitable sanitation facilities and services?

1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

8. If no, what should be done to improve the quality of sanitation facilities and services in the resettlement scheme?

_____

_____

_____

9. Do the households in the settlement scheme have sufficient and quality housing?

1 = Yes 2 = No ☐

10. If No in 9 above, what do you think should be done to improve the quality of housing for the households in the scheme?

---

11. In your opinion, do the families in the settlement scheme have adequate and balanced nutrition?

1 = Yes, 2 = No ☐

12. If No. in 11 above, what in view, should be done to improve the food security situation in the resettlement scheme?

_____

_____

_____

13. How would you rate the relationship between the host community and the resettled persons?

1 = Good 2 = Poor ☐

14 If poor in 13 above, what do you think should be done to enhance co-existence between the new settlers and host community?

_____

_____

---

15 Have any of the former IDPs sold out their land and out migrated? ☐

1=Yes 2=No

16 If yes in 15 above, how many households may have sold out their land and out migrated? _____

_____

17 If yes in 15 above, what could have been the cause of their out migration?

1=Inability to exercise cultural rites and practices ☐

2=Disinterest in agriculture ☐

3=Search for employment and trade opportunities ☐

4=Inadequate social amenities and services ☐

5=Other (specify) _____ ☐

Multiple responses apply

18 Is there land set aside for public utilities such as school, market, cemetery, hospital, church, administrative offices etch? 1=Yes 2=No ☐

19 Is yes in 18 above, list the public/communities facilities for which land was set aside and briefly state how far the facilities have been developed and/or used

_____

_____

20 What direct roles is the County Government playing in uplifting the livelihoods of the resettled people?

_____

_____

_____

_____

21 What direct roles is the Central Government playing in rebuilding the livelihoods of the resettled people?

_____

_____

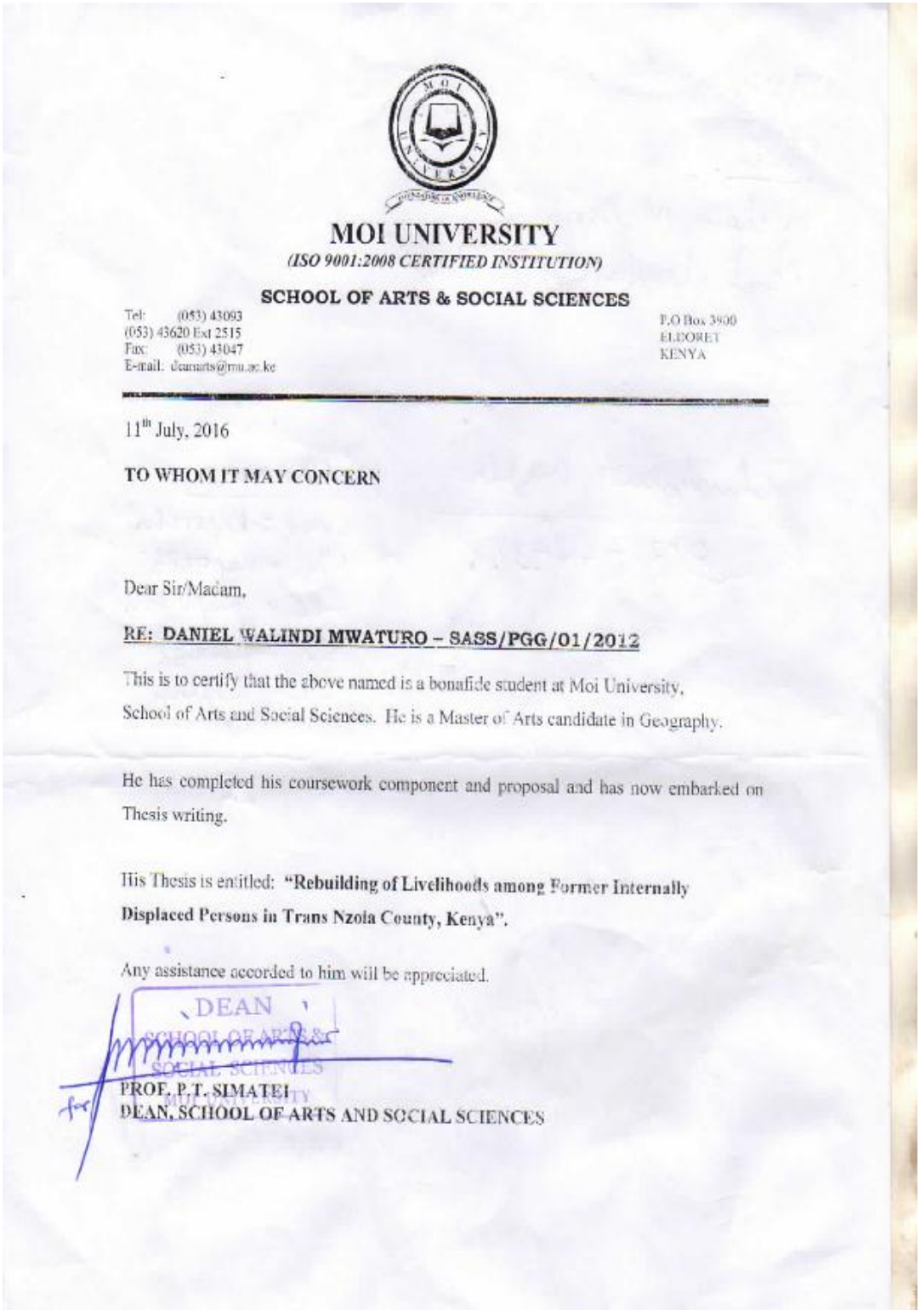
_____

_____

Appendix 4: Logical Matrix

Objective	**Data collection tool**	**Diagnosis tool**	**Data presentation**
Livelihood strategies	Structured questionnaire, Interview schedule Photography	Thematic analysis.	Quantitative Qualitative Pictorial
Level of access to services	Structured questionnaire, Interview schedule Photography	Thematic analysis	Quantitative Qualitative Pictorial
Rebuilding of livelihoods	Structured questionnaire, Interview schedule Photography	Mean and standard deviation Thematic analysis	Quantitative Qualitative Pictorial
Challenges facing resettled persons	Structured questionnaire, Interview schedule Photography	Thematic analysis	Quantitative Qualitative Pictorial

Appendix 5: Letter of Permission to Carry out Research



MOI UNIVERSITY
(ISO 9001:2008 CERTIFIED INSTITUTION)

SCHOOL OF ARTS & SOCIAL SCIENCES

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Fax: (053) 43047
E-mail: deanarts@mu.ac.ke

P.O Box 3900
ELDORET
KENYA

11th July, 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: DANIEL WALINDI MWATURO – SASS/PGG/01/2012

This is to certify that the above named is a bonafide student at Moi University, School of Arts and Social Sciences. He is a Master of Arts candidate in Geography.

He has completed his coursework component and proposal and has now embarked on Thesis writing.

His Thesis is entitled: **"Rebuilding of Livelihoods among Former Internally Displaced Persons in Trans Nzoia County, Kenya".**

Any assistance accorded to him will be appreciated.

DEAN
SCHOOL OF ARTS &
SOCIAL SCIENCES
MOI UNIVERSITY

for

PROF. P.T. SIMATEI
DEAN, SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

Appendix 6: Letter of Authority

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone:+254-20-2213471,
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Email:dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
when replying please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No. **NACOSTI/P/16/28540/13281**

Date: **20th January, 2017**

Daniel WalindiMwaturo
Moi University
P.O. Box 3900-30100
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on ***"Rebuilding of livelihoods among resettled former internally displaced persons in Trans Nzoia County,"*** I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Trans-Nzoia County**for the period ending **5th December, 2017.**

You are advised to report to**the Principal Secretary, Ministry of Land, Housing and Urban Development, the Chief Executive Officers, selected agencies,the County Commissioner, the County Director of Health andthe County Director of Education,Trans-Nzoia County**before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf**of the research report/thesis to our office.

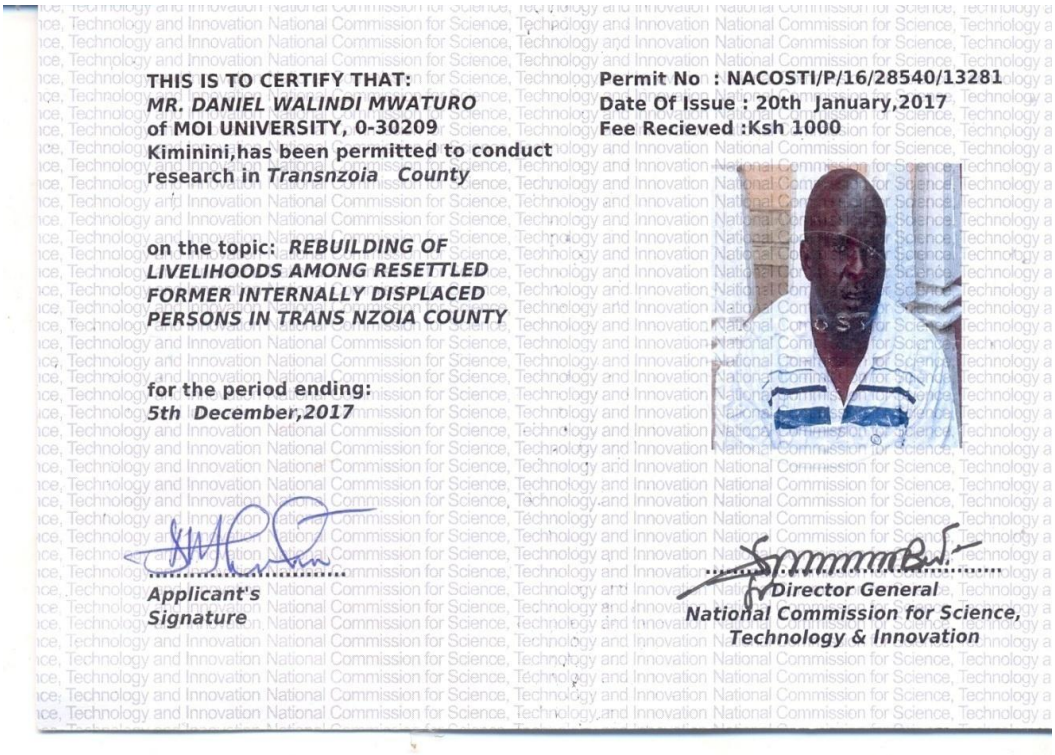
BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The Principal Secretary
Ministry of Land, Housing and Urban Development

The Chief Executive Officers
Selected Agencies.

Appendix 7: Research Permit



THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MR. DANIEL WALINDI MWATURO
of MOI UNIVERSITY, 0-30209
Kiminini,has been permitted to conduct
research in *Transnzoia County*

on the topic: *REBUILDING OF LIVELIHOODS AMONG RESETTLED FORMER INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN TRANS NZOIA COUNTY*

for the period ending:
5th December,2017

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/16/28540/13281
Date Of Issue : 20th January,2017
Fee Recieved :Ksh 1000

.....
Applicant's Signature

.....
Director General
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation