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DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

ASSESSMENT OF ACCESS TO WELFARE SERVICES BY THE RESETTLED
POOR: A CASE STUDY OF SOLIO RANCH IN LAIKIPIA COUNTY

BY

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DECLARATION

DECLARATION BY CANDIDATE

I hereby declare that this research project is my original work and has not been presented for any other award at the University of Nairobi or any other university.

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DECLARATION BY SUPERVISOR

This research project has been submitted with my approval as the university supervisor.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research project to my mother Faith Gakenia Gakuru.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ASALs:	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
AU:	African Union
DPs:	Displaced Persons
EAC:	East African Community
EIA:	Environmental Impact Assessment
GOK:	Government of Kenya
HRW:	Human Rights Watch
IDPs:	Internally Displaced Persons
KLA:	Kenya Land Alliance
KNDR:	Kenya National Dialogue and Reconciliation
KPLC:	Kenya Power and Lightning Company
KRC:	Kenya Red Cross
OHCHR:	Office of the High Commission for Human Rights
ROK:	Republic of Kenya

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

STF: Settlement Fund Trustees

UN: United Nations

ABSTRACT

This study assessed the benefits and risks of resettlement using a case study of Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme, Laikipia County, Kenya. The study was guided by the following objectives to; among the resettled households, assess the availability and appropriateness of the welfare services in the Scheme, determine the risks experienced by the resettled households and, analyze the coping strategies adapted by the resettled households. The study adopted an exploratory descriptive research design and all the 517 households resettled by the Government in the Scheme participated in the study. Data were collected using a structured interview guide for household heads and an interview guide for key informants. An observation schedule was also used to gather relevant information related to the study. The data collected were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The study found that the main perceived benefits of resettlement among the resettled households are land ownership, engaging in crop farming, relative peace of mind and ownership of livestock. The findings revealed that majority of the respondents felt that they are readily accepted by the people they found in the Scheme. Most of the resettled households concurred that the resettlement land has soils of high quality while indicated that overall, their standards of living had improved. The available welfare services in the Scheme are schools, local administration, electricity and clean water supply. The study concludes that the perceived benefits of resettlement in Solio Scheme included land ownership. Land ownership enabled households to own a house, engage in crop farming and own livestock resulting to marginal improvement in economic status. Households resettled in the Scheme were gradually accepted by the people they found around there but experience inadequate social networks. Inadequate knowledge on farming practices result to households' inability to grow new crops in the area. The environment is also harsh resulting to poor health among some households. The study concludes that the Scheme has inadequate welfare services. It was also established that the households were at risk of joblessness, food insecurity, inaccessible and unaffordable health services, loss of access to common property such as grazing lands and declining land productivity. Among the positive coping strategies adopted by the residents, include seeking casual labour for an income, migrating to other areas, seeking relief food and borrowing soft loans from welfare groups. The negative coping strategies adopted by households are idling in social places, deserting families, resigning to fate, and chewing of khat among the youths. The study recommends that programme planners need to factor risks and livelihood reconstruction in implementing resettlement programs.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Displacement and resettlement are a global phenomenon (Evrard & Goudineau, 2004). In developed, developing and least developed countries, approximately fifteen million people are displaced annually because of large scale development projects demanded by rapid economic growth, exponential population growth, degradation of natural resources and the need for environmental conservation (Cernea, 2006; Cernea, 2008). Additionally, millions of households are displaced as a result of political conflicts, human rights violations, natural and human-induced disasters (Robinson, 2003). Displacement, whether voluntary or forced, results to physical departure of households from a stable and current habitat (Terminski, 2013). Displacement is also associated with the loss of existing economic and social facilities and of access to relevant resources (Yntiso, 2004). Depending on the redress mechanisms put in place by government agencies, displacement is a major cause of decline and deterioration in the standards of function of a population (Cernea, 2004).

Resettlement of displaced populations has therefore become a dominant sociological and developmental discourse in many parts of the world (Worku, 2011). Displaced populations require resettling in new areas where they can begin new trends of life by adapting themselves to the biophysical, social and administrative systems of the new environment (Mengistu, 2005). This is in line with World Bank (2004) view of resettlement. Accordingly, resettlement is not restricted to physical relocation. Resettlement can, depending on the case, include (a) acquisition of land and physical structures on the land, including businesses; (b) physical relocation; and (c)

economic rehabilitation of displaced persons in order to improve, or at least restore, incomes and living standards (World Bank, 2004).

Mengistu (2005) and World Bank (2004) conceptualization of resettlement resonates with the ideal situation in resettlement. However, this is not always the case. Kassa (2009) points out that resettlement schemes may have disruptive social experiences that uproot people from their place of residence only to leave them vulnerable both in economic and social terms. It is therefore not surprising that Cernea and McDowell (2000) advance that resettlement may epitomize social exclusion of the resettled households. It cumulates physical exclusion from a geographic territory with economic and social exclusion out of a set of functioning social networks.

De Wet (2004) argues that failure of resettlement programs is often due to lack of appropriate inputs into the resettlement program. Such inputs include national legal resettlement framework, policies, planning, consultation and monitoring; political willingness; adequate funding for pre-resettlement surveys; and careful implementation of the resettlement program.

The United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement established in 1998 provides a normative framework within the context of human rights law and international humanitarian law to address internal non – development and development induced displacement (Mehta, 2005). The Principles are explicit that every person has a right to protection from displacement and where displacement has been explored and deemed inevitable, the state actors are called upon to minimize the adverse effects of displacement. Such measures include providing adequate financial compensation as well as alternative accommodation of comparable value and use (Kälin, 2001). While the Principles are not binding, they have international acceptance culminating to the proposal, adoption, and implementation of numerous laws, policies, and

decrees addressing internal displacement in all regions of the world (Brookings Institution, 2008).

Despite the existence of legal frameworks to facilitate resettlement and rehabilitation of displaced persons, resettlement has often yielded mixed gains to the affected population (Kälin, 2006). In some cases, resettlement serves to promote the welfare of resettlers through provision of quality public physical infrastructure, compensation of all common properties, and rehabilitation of lost livelihood (Hoorweg, 2000). In other cases, resettlement disrupts social experiences by uprooting households from their place of origin or residence only to leave them vulnerable both in economic and social terms (Kassa, 2009). Terminski (2009) argues that in developed countries, the high standards of rights-protection institutions and the responsiveness of business to public opinion ensure that the rights of the displaced populations are guaranteed and upheld. Redress is mostly paid with surplus, which means it covers the economic and social costs of relocation. In the case of Africa and Asia, resettlement programs often result to homelessness, unemployment, food insecurity, social marginalization, and health problems.

Kenya has historically experienced displacement and resettlement of populations. Among the documented causes of displacement are dispossession of ancestral land by colonialists especially in fertile and productive highlands (Humanitarian Policy Group [HPG], 2008) and repeated outbreaks of ethnically-charged political violence closely linked to access to land and the failure to implement rights-based land policies (Human Rights Watch [HRW], 2008). In areas such as Kano plains, Budalangi, and lower parts of Tana River district, floods are a common cause of displacements. In arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) of North Rift Valley, North Eastern, Upper Eastern and Coast province which cover about 70 percent of the country, displacements often

arise from either drought as people move to areas where they can get food, water and pastures for their animals or conflicts over access to water and pasture (Kenya National Dialogue & Reconciliation [KNDR] Monitoring Report, October 2009). Communities have also been displaced as a result of Government strategies intended to preserve the forest cover (Kenya Red Cross [KRC], 2010). Populations have also been displaced in Kenya because of development projects such as hydropower generation, road constructions and the expansion of railway and airports (Metcalf, Pavanello & Mishra, 2011).

The resettlement of populations displaced by development projects in Kenya is covered by the Environmental Management and Coordination Act adopted in 1999 (Republic of Kenya [ROK], 1999) and took effect in January 2000. The Act commits the proponent of any project, programme or policy that leads to projects, which may have an impact on the environment, to undertake an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) study and prepare a report to the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA). The assessment study must, among other things, identify the anticipated environmental impacts; examine alternatives to the project; and put forward mitigation measures if the project is implemented. The Act also articulates that any person who has a legal interest in the land, which is the subject of an environmental assessment, is entitled to compensation commensurate with the lost value of the use of the land (ROK, 1999). The Kenya Environmental Management and Coordination Act serves as a legal instrument to protect and uphold the rights of persons displaced by development projects.

Resettlement of populations displaced for other reasons other than development in Kenya has been problematic often due to inadequate legal redress framework. A case to point is the

resettlement of populations displaced by colonial settlement. Often, efforts to resettle Kenyans displaced by the colonialist would end up benefitting middle class peasants.

Consequently, some freedom fighters, those whose family heads were away, and those who were not literate were disadvantaged and consequently missed the land allocations. They remained in the forest reserves (Smith, 2005). Some peasants also remained in reserves near townships that had been created to hold them during the emergency (Kanogo, 2005). Those who did not benefit from the allocations therefore ended up being squatter's illegally occupying public or communal land (Willis, 2009).

Thousands of families in Central Province who missed on allocation of land during the demarcation exercise in the late 1950s settled in Mt. Kenya and Aberdare forest areas until they were evicted in 1989 in order to conserve the forested water towers. Those who were affected were in areas such as Chehe, Hombe, Kagochi and Ragati in Mount Kenya region and Zaina, Kabage and Gakanga in the Aberdare Ranges (GOK, 2009). After their eviction from the forested areas, they lived by the roadside at a place called Muoroto in Mathira Division, which is on the way to State Lodge, Sagana. Saddened by the state of affairs and constant airing of the displaced persons plight by media houses, the former First Lady Lucy Kibaki initiated discussions with the Government in order to find a place to settle them. They were resettled in Solio Ranch Settlement Scheme. The Government allocated each of the displaced households 0.5 acre for housing and 4 acres away from the homestead for farming (GOK, 2009).

Apart from the households affected by the conservation efforts in Mt. Kenya and Aberdares, the Scheme also benefited vulnerable and needy people who lived on public land in Kieni, Othaya, slum areas of Nyeri Municipality, Mathira and Mukurweini. Landslide victims from Gakanga in

Kieni were also resettled in the Scheme (GOK, 2009). The Provincial Administration and the representatives of the beneficiaries oversaw the balloting for allocation of the plots. This was a pilot project where the residents lived in one area and farmed elsewhere (GOK, 2009). All those who were allocated land were given a 21-day notice to relocate to the settlement scheme. Social amenities and infrastructure were to be provided in the new settlement. Informed by this background, the current study sought to assess the level of access to welfare services by the households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights requires that states should create an enabling environment where everyone shall enjoy his or her economic, social and cultural rights (OHCHR-UNOG, 1996). According to Article 18 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights, the family shall be the natural unit and basis of a society and shall be protected by the state by taking care of its physical health and moral standards (African Union, 1986). Economic and social rights have been enshrined in Article 43 of the Constitution of Kenya (GOK, 2010). Displacement and resettlement yields mixed results on the realization of the economic, social and cultural rights of the affected households. In some cases, resettlement serves to promote the welfare of resettlers through provision of quality physical infrastructure, compensation of all common properties, and rehabilitation of lost livelihood. In other cases, resettlement disrupts social experiences by uprooting households from their traditional place of origin, or residence only to leave them economically and socially vulnerable.

Many cases have been reported where resettlers find themselves trapped in new residences with unfulfilled and empty promises. Some relocate to service friendly areas while others devise

negative coping mechanisms. In most cases, planners of resettlement projects consider risks like civil works, technical operations and monetary risks for investors in cases of induced displacement. Social risks are seldom highlighted in risk assessment of resettlement projects (Buzoianu & Toc, 2013). In some cases, implementers of resettlement projects fail to consider the social risks involved in these projects. Movement of people involves rehabilitating them and not merely changing their locality. In several studies conducted in various parts of the world, there seems to be a similar pattern of deliberately withholding and manipulating information on the quality of social life in resettlement programmes. All people are required to have a right to a general satisfactory environment, favourable to their development (African Union, 1986). This study sought to assess access to welfare services by households resettled by the Government in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme in Laikipia County, Kenya.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The overall objective of the study was to determine access to welfare services by the resettled poor in Solio Ranch, Laikipia County.

In particular, the study sought to:

- i. Assess resettled households' perceptions of benefits of Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme.
- ii. Determine the level of acceptance among households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme.
- iii. Assess the availability of the welfare services available in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme.

- iv. Determine the risks experienced by households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme.
- v. Analyze the coping strategies adapted by households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme.

1.4 Research Questions

The study sought to answer the following research questions:

- i. Are there perceived benefits of resettlement among households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme?
- ii. What is the level of acceptance among households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme?
- iii. What is the availability of welfare services in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme?
- iv. What are the risks experienced by households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme?
- v. What are the coping strategies adapted by households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Through empirical research, this study explores the living conditions of residents in settlement schemes initiated by the Government and analyzes the risks and benefits of resettlement.

This study may contribute to knowledge by generating and documenting information about the risks and the benefits of resettlement, particularly in Solio Ranch Settlement Scheme. The study could guide the government and other stakeholders in undertaking effective intervention strategies against risks experienced by resettled households. Other policy makers and planners may also find the study helpful in formulating appropriate policies and programmes to mitigate the risks of resettlement and rehabilitation of livelihoods of resettled populations.

Persistent exposure to resettlement risks is a major factor in sustainable socio-economic development. The findings could be of help to the non-governmental organizations, government agencies and departments that handle resettlement and rehabilitation of internally displaced persons in Kenya. This study may therefore inform policy makers, planners and implementers of resettlement schemes on how to create sustainable programmes while maintaining or improving the living standards of those resettled. The study may also contribute to scholarly and theoretical debate on planned resettlements and the challenges therein.

1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study aimed at assessing the level of access to welfare services among the households resettled in Solio Ranch Settlement Scheme. Solio Scheme has seven villages. Village 3 by the name Bahati was the focus of this study due to its diversity in many aspects. The village borders the railway line, and it is located 3 kilometers off the Narumoru-Nanyuki road. It comprises former forest evictees, reserve and township dwellers.

The residents are mainly from the Christian and Muslim religious background. The study sought to find out the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The purpose of this data was to profile and provide insights of the resettled households' characteristics.

The study focused on the perceived benefits of resettlement among households resettled in the Scheme. The study therefore did not focus on quantifying the benefits by comparing the status before and after the resettlement but focused on households opinions on the benefits they experience within the Scheme. The study also focused on the level of acceptance of resettled households in the Scheme. Specifically, the study focused on the acceptance from the host community and resettled households' acceptance of their new environment.

The study also focused on the availability and appropriateness of welfare services in the Scheme. This study was delimited to health and sanitation, clean water supply, education, shelter, transport network, commercial banks, local administration, electricity, security and safety, agricultural extension services, market and recreation facility. The study also focused on risks experienced in the Scheme. The risks involved joblessness, food insecurity, accessibility and affordability of health services, access to common property such as grazing land, forests, burial sites, general decline in land productivity, access to roads and electricity, adequacy of family house facility, loss of social networks through scattering and separation with family and friends, low self-confidence and a feeling of vulnerability.

Other risks included inadequate land for farming activities, insecurity, and access to educational facilities. The study also analyzed the coping strategies adapted by households resettled in the Scheme.

1.7 Definition of key Terms and Concepts

Resettlement - is a process by which individuals or households occupy a new locality and begin new trends of life by adapting themselves to the biophysical, social and administrative systems of the new environment.

Displacement - is a situation where individuals or households are voluntarily or involuntarily removed from their current and stable socio-economic base and as a result, their standards of functioning deteriorate significantly.

Coping strategies - are the methods used by households to survive when confronted with unanticipated livelihood failure.

Resettlement risks - are the various socio-economic challenges that individuals or households encounter upon being resettled in a new environment.

Acceptance - is a perception of friendliness of a new environment and the persons found in the new environment.

Resettled poor - A population without a means of livelihood or possessions relocated to a new environment.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed literature on the concept of displacement and resettlement, global overview on displacement and resettlement, displacement and resettlement in Kenya, policy framework and legislation on resettlement, acceptance of resettled persons, socioeconomic challenges in resettlement, coping strategies to impoverishment in resettlement, theoretical framework and finally, the conceptual framework for the study.

2.2 An Overview of Displacement

According to Terminski (2013), the term displacement is mostly applied to the situation of individuals, tribes and communities that have been cut off from their current socio-economic base and as a result, their standard of functioning deteriorate significantly. It is not just limited to the physical departure from a stable and current habitat but is mainly associated with the loss of existing economic and social facilities and of access to the relevant resources, with no benefits gained in return. Displacement can be categorized as voluntary or involuntary (Yntiso, 2004). Parnwell (1993) describes voluntary displacement as periodic movement between different areas and ecological zones at free will.

It is a feature of many parts of the third world, especially in the more remote and ecologically marginal areas, where human activity is largely controlled by nature. Communities will therefore periodically move in order to cope with the prevailing natural constraints while undertaking their

livelihood strategies. Some of the common forms of movement include hunting and gathering, shifting cultivation, nomadism, and transhumance.

On the other hand, Yntiso (2002) defines involuntary or forced displacement as people who are intimidated or forced to leave their habitual environment or place of origin. Often forced displaced is development induced. Terminski (2009) discerns many causes of development-induced displacement. Among them, eight are the most substantial: 1. the construction of dams, hydroplants, and large irrigation projects (e.g. Three Gorges Dam, SardarSarovar complex on the river Narmada); 2. the building of roads, highways, bridges, and railroad networks; 3. Urbanization and social services (e.g. urban transport, water supply);

4. The development of agriculture (e.g. creation of monoculture plantations); 5. Exploitation and transportation of mineral resources, 6. conservation of nature (the establishment of national parks, reserves, or other protected areas) and; 7. Population redistribution schemes. According to Cernea (2006), approximately fifteen million people are displaced because of large development projects every year.

Cernea (2004) fronts that development programmes are indisputably needed since they improve many people's lives, provide employment, and supply better services. However, the involuntary displacements caused by such programs also create major impositions on some population segments. They restrict that population's rights by state-power intervention and are often carried out in ways that cause the affected populations to end up worse off. This raises major issues of social justice and equity. The principle of the greater good for the larger numbers, routinely invoked to rationalize forced displacements, is, in fact, often abused and turned into an unwarranted justification for tolerating ills that are avoidable. The outcome is an unjustifiable

repartition of development's costs and benefits: Some people enjoy the gains of development, while others bear its pains.

2.3 An Overview of Resettlement

Displacement and resettlement are often intertwined. Resettlement is often seen as a planned effort to deal with the consequences of displacement (Terminski, 2013). Mengistu (2005) defined resettlement as the process by which individuals or group of people leave, spontaneously or unspontaneous, their original settlement sites to resettle in new areas where they can begin new trends of life by adapting themselves to the biophysical, social and administrative systems of the new environment. This is in line with World Bank (2004) view of resettlement. Accordingly, resettlement is not restricted to physical relocation. Resettlement can, depending on the case, include (a) acquisition of land and physical structures on the land, including businesses; (b) physical relocation; and (c) economic rehabilitation of displaced persons (DPs), to improve (or at least restore) incomes and living standards (World Bank, 2004).

While Mengistu (2005) and World Bank (2004) conceptualization of resettlement resonates with the ideal situation in resettlement, this is not always the case. Often, there is lack of appropriate inputs into the resettlement program. Such inputs include national legal resettlement framework, policies, planning, consultation and monitoring; political willingness; adequate funding and pre-resettlement surveys; and careful implementation of the program (de Wet, 2004). Kassa (2009) also points out that resettlement schemes may have disruptive social experiences that uproot people from their place of origin or residence only to leave them vulnerable both in economic and social terms. It is therefore not surprising that Cernea and McDowell (2000) advance that resettlement may epitomize social exclusion of certain groups of people. It cumulates physical

exclusion from a geographic territory with economic and social exclusion out of a set of functioning social networks.

2.4 Global Overview of Displacement and Resettlement

Displacement and resettlement is a global phenomenon (Evrard & Goudineau, 2004). According to Cernea (2008), during the last two decades of the twentieth century, the magnitude of forced population displacements entailed by development projects was estimated at about 10 million people annually or some 200 million people over two decades. Currently, in the first decade of the new century, the size of development-caused displacement is estimated at about 15 million people annually.

This occurs in both developed and developing countries. For instance, the National Research Center for Resettlement in China has calculated that over 45 million people were displaced by development projects in that country between 1950 and 2000 (Fuggle et al., 2000). Between 1967 and 1973, the U.S. and UK governments forcibly displaced the people of the Indian Ocean's Chagos Archipelago as part of the development of a U.S. military base on the island of Diego Garcia (Vine, 2006).

The Akosombo Dam in Ghana displaced 80,000 people, approximately 1 per cent of the country's population, while the Narmada Sardar Sarovar Dam in India displaced 127,000 people, roughly 0.013 per cent of the country's population (www.forcedmigration.org). The creation of Kibale National Park in Uganda displaced over 35,000 households. Over 10,000 households were displaced as a result of establishment of Cross River National Park in Nigeria (Terminski, 2013). In Ethiopia, displacement is prominent in development projects aiming at the extension of

irrigation and hydropower production referred to as dam-induced displacement, at the provision of better housing in urban centres, and at the conservation of forest or wildlife via national parks (Berisso, 2009). The construction of Jebba Lake dams in Nigeria resulted in the displacement and relocation of about 6,000 people who inhabited 42 villages and were resettled into 21 amalgamated but planned settlements (Olawepo, 2008). While displacement and resettlement are global, the experiences of the affected population vary across contexts.

Terminski (2009) argues that in developed countries, the high standards of rights-protection institutions and the responsiveness of business to public opinion ensure that the rights of the displaced populations are guaranteed and upheld. Redress is mostly paid with surplus, which means it covers the economic and social costs of relocation. In the case of Africa and Asia, homelessness, unemployment, social marginalization, or health problems are prevalent in resettlement programmes. The Kenya Power and Lighting Company (KPLC) recognizes this reality and reinstates that involuntary resettlement from development projects, if left unmitigated, often gives rise to severe economic, social and environmental deprivation.

These may result in production systems being dismantled, people facing impoverishment when their productive skills may be less applicable and the competition for resources, community institutions and social networks being weakened; kin groups being dispersed; and cultural identity, traditional authority, and the potential for mutual help are diminished or lost (KPLC, 2012).

2.5 Displacement in Kenya

Displacement of individuals and households is a recurring problem in Kenya's history. According to Metcalfe, Pavanello and Mishra (2011), the causes of displacement in Kenya include natural disasters, particularly droughts and flooding, political and ethnic violence, under-development and, in pastoral areas, localized violence including cattle-rustling and cross-border attacks by armed groups from Somalia. The Human Rights Watch (HRW) notes that the Post-Election Violence of 2007-2008 displaced over 660,000 people (HRW, 2008).

The Kenya Red Cross (KRC) reports that droughts and flash floods have resulted in significant displacement in northern Kenya. In early 2010, for example, floods affected around 30,000 people; more than 2,700 were displaced in Turkana district alone. Similar patterns are reported in areas such as Kano plains, Budalangi and lower parts of Tana River district where floods are a common cause of displacements (KRC, 2010).

Displacements also arise from either drought as people move to areas where they can get food, water and pastures for their animals or conflicts over access to water and pasture. Such conflicts are estimated to have contributed to the displacement of approximately 20,000 persons in Turkana, Baringo, Samburu, Isiolo and Kuria districts in 2009 (Kenya National Dialogue and Reconciliation Monitoring Report, October 2009). Partly in response to national and international pressure, the Government of Kenya has carried out a series of evictions from forest areas, of people deemed to be living there illegally. Between 2004 and 2006, a massive programme of evictions has been carried out in forest reserves of Kenya. Houses, schools and health centres have been destroyed, and many have been rendered homeless. Estimates indicate

that in six forests alone, more than a 100,000 persons were forcibly evicted between July 2004 and June 2006 (Amnesty International, 2007).

2.6 Resettlement Efforts in Kenya

Resettlement schemes have been in Kenya before and after independence. Majority of these settlement schemes were meant to deal with the landlessness problem brought about by the colonial government (Kanyinga, 2000). In addition, settlement schemes are often regarded as a means to increase agricultural production and to further rural development through optimal utilization of physical and human resources (Hoorweg, 2000). When independence became inevitable; the colonial government started the Million-Acre Settlement Scheme. The scheme was designed to comprise small- to medium-size holdings covering a total of 1.15 million acres to be sold to Kenyans who would be facilitated by a loan from the British government to buy out the departing settlers. The transfers were based on a willing-seller/willing-buyer principle, and the loans could only be given to those who qualified to repay or had the financial means to pay on cash basis (KLA, 2004).

After independence, the Kenyan Government established several settlement schemes for the landless and introduced a land purchase programme for the Kenyans to accede to the scheduled areas (Leo, 1984). This resulted to a total of 123 state-run settlement schemes, which generally ranged in size from five thousand to ten thousand acres (Harbeson, 1973). Notable among such schemes include the Magarini Settlement Scheme Complex in Coast (Kanyinga, 1998), Chepyuk settlement scheme in Kopsiro division, Mount Elgon district (Republic of Kenya, 1999), Kenyatta Settlement scheme in Mpeketoni Division of Lamu County (GoK, 2004) among others.

While such schemes were meant to ensure land redistribution, they have been affected by claims of corruption and tribalism which has resulted to deep rooted animosity characterized by instances of ethnic violence during and after general elections (Kimenyi & Ndungu, 2005) resulting to mass displacement of the affected individuals. This has resulted to establishment of other settlement schemes. For instance, the multi-party elections in 1992 and 1997 displaced hundreds of families in Nakuru County. About 700 families were resettled at Kapsitain, Elburgon (Refugee Consortium of Kenya, 2005). Following the post-election violence of 2007-2008, 660,000 people were displaced (Metcalf, Pavanello & Mishra, 2011).

Since then, steps have been taken by the government and other Non-governmental institutions to adjust the situation by trying to repatriate and resettle the victims. However, the programme of resettlement faces many challenges, which include fear of returning into the communities that allegedly caused harm upon the displaced people. Apart from persons displaced by land and election related violence majority of whom remain unsettled, there have also been displacements and some resettlement of conservation related efforts in Kenya. Solio Resettlement Scheme, which is the focus of this study, was established in 2007 to relocate approximately ten thousand internally displaced people. The residents had been evicted by the Kenyan Government from their previous homes in the Mount Kenya and Aberdare forests in 1992 due to environmental concerns of overpopulation in the areas, and since then had been living as squatters in the surrounding towns (Meinecke, Pandey, Wilson & Madalinskaf, 2012).

2.7 Policy Framework and Legislation on Resettlement in Kenya

Kenya, being a member of the United Nations, is also guided by International treaties and Conventions. The Universal Declaration of Human rights states that the ideal human being

should be free and the state shall create an enabling environment where everyone may enjoy his economic, social and cultural rights, as well as his civil and political rights (OHCHR-UNOG, 1996).The Government shall ensure that all people have the right to self-determination. By virtue of their right, they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development (EAC, 1999).The Prevention, Protection and Assistance to Internally Displaced Persons and Affected Communities Act (GOK, 2012) has various provisions for the welfare of internally displaced persons in Kenya.

The Act articulates that it is the mandate of the Government to create the conditions for and provide internally displaced persons with a durable and sustainable solution in safety and dignity. In addition, the Government shall respect and ensure respect for the right of internally displaced persons to make an informed and voluntary decision on whether to return to their initial settlements locally integrate or resettle elsewhere in the country. Specifically, the Act provides for the following provisions for internally displaced persons: (a) long-term safety and security;(b) full restoration and enjoyment of the freedom of movement;(c) enjoyment of an adequate standard of living without discrimination;(d) access to employment and livelihoods;(e) access to effective mechanisms that restore housing, land and property;(f) access to documentation;(g)family reunification and the establishment of the fate and whereabouts of missing relatives;(h) equal participation in public affairs and; (i) access to justice without discrimination (GOK, 2012).

The Act also specifies that the Government shall bear the primary duty and responsibility to(a) designate, where necessary, official areas for the resettlement of internally displaced persons in the Republic; (b) facilitate the administration of settlement areas for internally displaced persons;

(c) ensure adequate provision of basic social and health services in areas inhabited by internally displaced persons; (d) ensure, where necessary, the maintenance of public order, public security, and public health in areas inhabited by internally displaced persons; (e) safeguard and maintain the civilian and humanitarian character of settlements and; (f) ensure adequate provision of the social economic rights specified in Article 43 of the Constitution (GOK, 2012).

Principle 19 of the Act also refers to special and vulnerable groups. Accordingly, all wounded and sickly internally displaced persons as well as those with disabilities shall receive to the fullest extent practicable and with the least possible delay, the medical care and attention they require, without any discrimination. Where necessary, internally displaced persons shall have access to psychological and social services. Special attention should be paid to the health needs of women, including access to female health care providers and services, such as reproductive health care, as well as appropriate counseling for victims of sexual and other abuses. Special attention should also be given to the prevention of contagious and infectious diseases, including AIDS, among internally displaced persons (GOK, 2012).

Draft Eviction and Resettlement Guidelines and Draft Bill (GOK, 2012) proposes explicit guidelines for resettlement of displaced persons. If enacted, the draft Bill provides a framework for resettlement in Kenya. According to the Bill, following an eviction, the Cabinet Secretary shall facilitate the resettlement of the evictees. Measures shall be taken to ensure that; i. Families are not separated; ii. Households and their property are protected; iii. Essential medical services are accessible; iv. Counseling services are provided; v. Special attention is paid to people with special needs and vulnerable persons; vi. On-going medical treatment of any evictee is not disrupted as a result of relocation; vii. Prevention of the spread of contagious and infectious

diseases at the relocation sites is avoided; viii. Food, water and sanitation are provided; ix. Basic shelter and housing is provided; x. Education for children is guaranteed; xi. Other essentials of livelihood resources are availed (GOK, 2012).

The Constitution of Kenya (2010) guarantees the following in Article 43 on The Bill of Rights (Economic and Social rights). Every person has the right to: Health care services including reproductive health care; access to adequate housing and reasonable standards of sanitation; being free from hunger and to have adequate food of acceptable quality; access to clean and safe water in adequate quantities; access to social security and education. Finally, the state shall provide social security to persons who are unable to support themselves and their dependents (GOK, 2010).

Kenya is obligated under international, regional and national law to protect the rights of all of its citizens, including those who are internally displaced. However, despite being a state party to a wide range of international and regional treaties, and notwithstanding the development of national legislation and policy frameworks, implementation of law and policy on human rights in general, including the protection of displaced populations, has been consistently poor (Metcalf, Pavanello & Mishra, 2011). For instance, Diagne and Solberg (2008) report that efforts to resettle post-election violence victims in Kenya created a new emergency exacerbated by poor conditions in the transit sites characterized by lack of water, shelter, food, uneven access to humanitarian assistance and lack of access to basic public services. Resettlement is sometimes conducted in a haphazard manner. The Baring Foundation (2013) also notes that IDPs are not involved in the resettlement processes. This is against the Guiding Principles on Internal

Displacement which calls for special efforts to ensure the full participation of the internally displaced persons in the planning, management of their return, resettlement and integration.

2.8 Acceptance Levels of Newly Resettled Persons

Acceptance level can be viewed from two perspectives: Acceptance from the host community and the resettled persons accepting their new environment. According to Boege (2011), an obvious pitfall of resettlement is to conceptualize resettlement with an exclusive focus on the resettlers. Resettlement has to take into account the needs and interests of recipient communities and the relationship between them and newly arriving settlers.

This is especially important in the Kenyan context where land resource is valued and often scarce. Consequently, outsiders resettled with government assistance are often viewed as being favoured and benefiting from government intervention at the expense of the host community.

For instance, the Humanitarian Policy Group (2008) contends that resettlement in the White Highlands was to the advantage of certain communities, particularly the Kikuyu, who resettled in the fertile areas of the Rift Valley, at the expense of others, such as the Luo, the Maasai and the Kalenjin. The fact that part of the lands were given to immigrants is often cited as a cause of the land conflict in the Rift Valley Province (Daudeline, 2002).

It is also worth noting that resettlement in Kenya has a political dimension (Stewart, 2008). As a result, immigrants may be perceived as altering the political equilibrium of a constituency leading to animosity. This may be challenging for resettlers who have a different ethnic identity from the host community. According to Bratton and Kimenyi (2008) survey, Kenyans do not easily trust co-nationals who hail from ethnic groups other than their own. Additionally, political

conflict is often too common among people of different ethnic backgrounds, especially in the national political arena. It is therefore not surprising that The Judicial Commission on Tribal Clashes popularly known as the “Akiwumi Commission” indicated that host communities were not always receptive to settlement schemes in their areas (GOK, 1999). This is a major setback to resettlement efforts in Kenya where national cohesion and integration is a major challenge to long lasting inter-ethnic coexistence.

According to Schmidt-Soltau (2002), resettlement breaks existing social links within the group and in the group’s relations with others. This is explicitly articulated by Cernea (2000) who contends that displacement tears apart the existing social fabric. It disperses and fragments communities, dismantles patterns of social organization and interpersonal ties. Kinship groups become scattered as well. Life sustaining informal networks of reciprocal help, local voluntary associations, and self-organized mutual service are disrupted. This is a net loss of valuable social capital that compounds the loss of natural, physical, and human capital. McDowell (1996) noted that with resettlement, vital social networks and life-support mechanisms for families are weakened or dismantled. Authority systems collapse. Groups lose their capacity to self-manage. The society suffers a demonstrable reduction in its capacity to cope with uncertainty. It becomes qualitatively less than its previous self. The people may physically persist but the community that was is no more. This is especially common when existing social groups cannot resettle together. It may also occur even when groups stay together, but lose their ability to act effectively in the context of new social and political forces (Koenig, 2001). Resettlers may also be disillusioned with the existing natural conditions in new settlement (Melissa, Niehof & van der Vaart, 2012).

A study by Tadesse (2007) on the Boreda resettlement scheme in Ethiopia found that resettlers were uncomfortable with the sudden shift from a highland environment to a lowland one. They reported that the climate was hot compared to their place of origin. Mosquitoes and other insects were a problem at night.

The settlers also noted concerns with social organization and interaction, political structures, world view and ideology of the host community. In some cases, settlers are perceived by hosts as aliens. This is a socially degrading stigma (Cernea, 2000) and is evident in the ongoing International Criminal Cases for Kenya at The Hague where settlers are referred to as “madoadoa” or dirty spots on a class surface, connoting immigrants who live in the Rift Valley.

2.9 Socio-Economic Risks in Resettlement

When people are resettled, they are faced with various socioeconomic risks in adapting to the altered circumstances (Asrat, 2006). According to Carnea (1996), the shift from displacement to resettlement is characterized by joblessness, landlessness, homelessness, marginalization, food insecurity, increased morbidity, loss of access to common property resources and community disarticulation. To these challenges, Robinson (2003) added loss of access to community services, violation of human rights, while Bandopadhyya (2004) cites loss of educational opportunities. The socioeconomic challenges manifest in breakdown of complex livelihood systems results in temporary or permanent, often irreversible, decline in living standards leading to marginalization. Higher risks and uncertainties are introduced when diversified livelihood sources are lost. Loss of livelihood and disruption of agricultural activity can adversely affect household food security, leading to under- nourishment and largely, impoverishment (Cernea, 1998).

A study conducted by Vine (2006) among the Chagossians who were resettled in the western Indian Ocean islands of Mauritius and Seychelles found that the resettled households received no resettlement assistance and quickly fell into poverty. As a result, the Chagossians have struggled, protested, and held hunger strikes to gain the right to return to their homeland. According to Koenig (2001), finding jobs for people in developing countries is problematic, even when there is no involuntary resettlement. Involuntary resettlement makes the problem of finding employment even more difficult, since it disrupts access to productive resources as well as to the social networks that assure clientele in case of venturing into business upon resettlement.

According to Buzoianuand (2013), the possibility of creating a large number of jobs in the new community over a short period is low; therefore, the risk of joblessness in any resettled community is either chronic or temporary. Resettlement also often leads to loss of land (Cernea, 2000). This was evident in Dhakal, Nelosn and Smith (2011) study in Padampur Resettlement Scheme in Nepal.

The study found that the resettlers had to find off-farm labor because their landholdings had been reduced. In addition, some villagers experienced a change in employment from subsistence farming to more cash-based income-generating activities, such as dairy farming, mushroom farming, vegetable farming, wool spinning, and retail in street shops (Dhaka *et al*, 2011). In Chewaka Resettlement Scheme in Ethiopia, the resettlers complained that the area was overcrowded and some areas were severely degraded with the majority of new household formations rendered landless or shared small family lands to eke a living (Taye & Mberengwa, 2013).

Resettlement is often accompanied by loss of social amenities especially where prior planning to have sustainable provision of the services is not in place (Cenea, 2000). This is evident in Padampur Resettlement Scheme in Nepal where inadequate water supply was a major problem in the resettled community. More than fifty percent of the population reported that they did not have access to clean drinking water. In their previous location, there was sufficient drinking water because of easy accessibility to Rapti River (Joshi, 2013). According to Downing (2002), resettled households are vulnerable to health risks. This is worsened by stress and trauma as a result of displacement. Recurring problems are also reported with resettled populations gaining access to safe potable water and safe sewerage; increased diarrhea, dysentery and epidemic infections often result. As might be expected, the health impacts fall disproportionately on infants, children, expecting mothers and the elderly.

Cernea (2004) observes that displacement and relocation often cause a significant interruption in the functioning of schools and in children access to education during the year of transfer or for longer periods of time. A number of these children never return to school and instead join the labor force at an early age. The chaos of relocation distracts parents from focusing on the concerns of their children as they struggle to reconstruct their physical and productive environment. A study by Eng and Hirobata (2008) in Phnom Penh Resettlement in Cambodia found that the major threats in the resettlement scheme were crime, job opportunity, food insecurity, health and welfare.

2.10 Coping Strategies to Impoverishment in Resettlement

According to Ellis (2000), coping strategies are the methods used by households to survive when confronted with unanticipated livelihood failure. Snell and Staring (2001) view coping strategies

as all the strategically selected acts that individuals and households in a poor socio-economic position use to restrict their expense or earn some extra income to enable them to pay for the basic necessities such as food, clothing, shelter and cushion themselves against falling far below their society's level of welfare. The strategies pursued by households differ in several aspects; that is, within the household and between households (Rumbewas, 2005) as evidenced in empirical studies.

A study by Ayoade and Adeola (2012) found that 98.3% of poor households sell their farm produce, 96.7% pray to God in Church and Mosque and 84.2% have personal savings as their poverty coping strategies. Seventy percent of the respondents reportedly accept gift from better off members of the family while 58.3% deny themselves and family of food and clothing. Another 46.7% borrow from friends and relations, 18.3% deny themselves and family of proper medical care when needed and 13.3% eat starchy food without meat, 9.2% involve themselves in town development unions. Also 7.5% buy food on credit, 6.7% are local leaders, 5.8% take credit for benefits, 3.3% sell their assets, 0.8% pack leftover food at social functions and withdraw children from school.

Igbalajobi, Fatuase and Ajibefun (2013) found that poor households coped with their impoverishment by reducing the frequency of eating per day (10.7%), engaging in non-farming activities (10.5%), resulting to fasting and prayer (10.3%), seeking help from friends/relatives (9.8%), eating of less preferred food (9.5%), and borrowing money from cooperatives (7.5%).

Kishk (1994) reported that poor households pursue the following coping strategies: Producing large families; diversifying income sources; spending less, eating less and saving less; exploiting more family labour from wife and children; taking the children out of school starting with girls

followed by boys; migrating temporarily to urban centers or abroad; incurring debts to pay previous debt or just to eat; selling assets; starting small animals, then big animals husbandry, and selling pieces of their tiny land. When finally there is nothing left, they turn to negative coping strategies such as prostitution, small crimes and theft, and finally, begging.

Some of the coping strategies are consistent with Woldeamanuel (2009) assertion that if the poor lost every hope and without the intervention of other external body, there is a probability that one or more of the household members will involve in criminal activities like theft, robbery, cheating, prostitution among others. The last and critical stage is begging.

2.11 Theoretical Framework

This study sought to explore the levels to which the residents of Solio Ranch Settlement Scheme meet basic welfare needs by applying Haeckel's Human Ecology theory. Human populations have dynamic interrelationships with the physical, biotic, cultural and social environment that guide their behaviour and community organization. This was the basis of the Human Ecology Theory (Haeckel, 1986). Further, the basic premises of this theory are that families interact with their environment to form an ecosystem. For the good of the society, families exercise biological sustenance, economic maintenance and psychosocial and nurturance functions.

This theory assumes that families and the environment are interdependent, they are part of the total life system and adaptation is a continuing process in which families can respond, change, develop and act on and modify their environment. It also assumes that all parts of the environment are interrelated and influence each other; families interact with multiple environments and require matter-energy. These interactions are guided by two sets of rules:

physical and biological laws of nature and human-derived rules like social norms. Environments do not determine human behaviour but pose limitations, constraints as well as possibilities and opportunities for families.

Decision making is the central control process in families that directs actions for attaining individual and family goals. This theory will guide this study to measure economic adequacy, justice, freedom and peacefulness as well as the virtues that contribute to quality life: health, education and learning, loving and nurturing relationships, productive work and environments and symbiotic systems that enhance meaning and sense of community.

The total view perspective compliments the Human Ecology theory. It states that people's behaviors are guided by psychological and social life circumstances composed of family relationships, social and cultural attributes, economic status, age, gender employment, physical and mental health, religion and self-esteem.

2.12 Conceptual Framework

As illustrated in Figure 1, Governments and non-state actors are tasked with providing welfare and basic human services to resettled households. Provision of these services is informed by constitutions and international treaties. In advanced democracies such as Canada, the Charter of rights in the constitution was enshrined in 1982 (Heard, 1997). In the Constitution of Kenya (2010), the Bill of rights is a legal reference point regarding the upholding of human rights including the provision of welfare services. The services must be provided to a reasonable extent. Kenya is not a welfare state and this guides her level provision of services. Basic and human services should assure survival, improve quality of life and sustain natural resources.

Individuals are entitled to services that prevent them from pain, maintain integrity, enable them cope with realities, stimulate personal growth and promote a satisfying life (Harris & Maloney, 1999). In the absence or inaccessibility of these services, human beings are forced to adapt coping mechanisms to bridge the gaps.

In Kenya for instance, people collectively contribute in cash or in kind, in aid of family members or friends who are unable meet their basic needs.

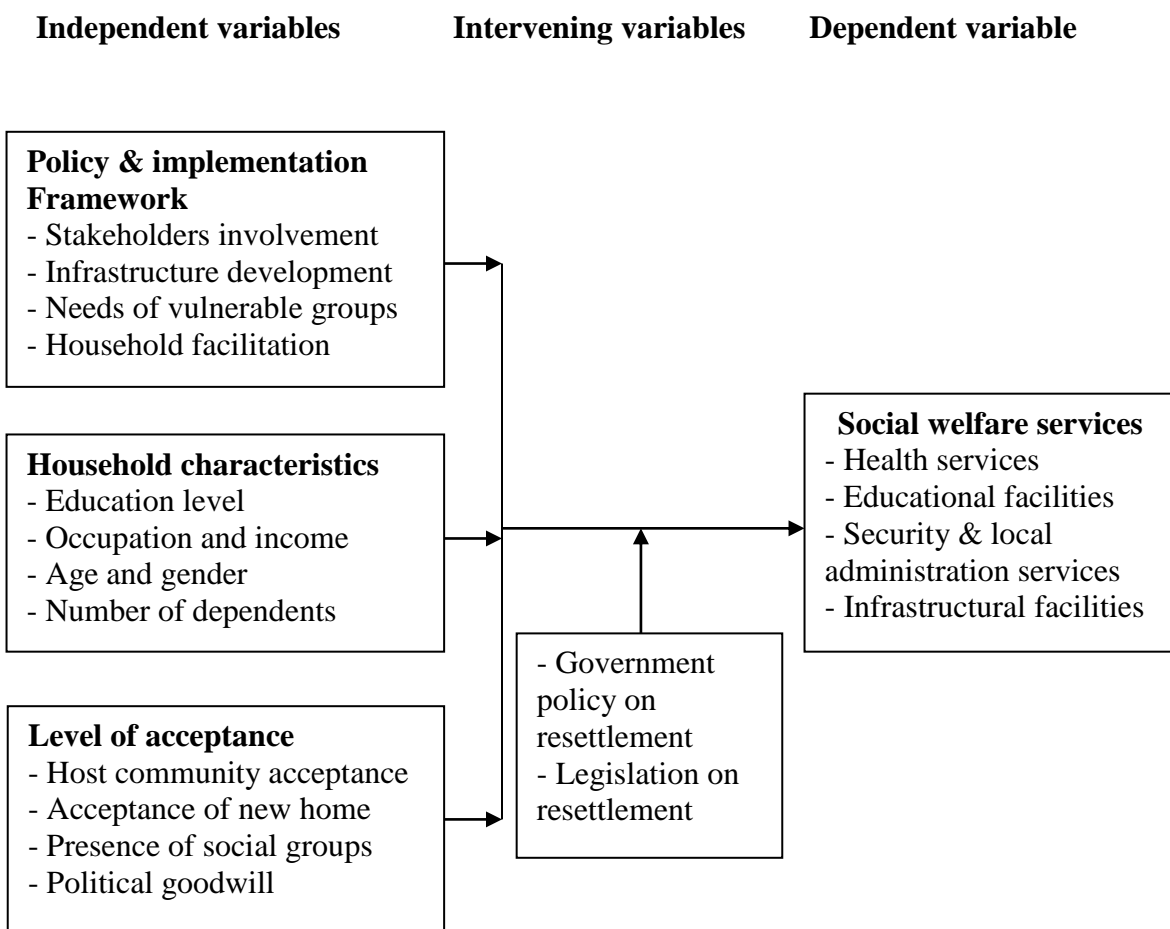


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for the Study

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology to be applied in the study. This includes description of the study area, research design, target population, sampling procedures, methods and tools of data collection, analysis and presentation.

3.2 Site Selection and Description

The study was carried out in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme in Laikipia East constituency, Lamuria District, Laikipia County. There are 7 villages in the Scheme namely; Village 1 (Furaha), Village 2 (Rehema), Village 3 (Bahati), Village 4 (Tetu), Village 5 (Mathingira), Village 6 (Mukandamia) and Village 7 (Baraka). Specifically, the study focused on Village 3. Village 3 was purposively selected as its residents came from diverse regions and religions while the others were settled according to their areas of origin. There are 517 households in Village 3. This village comprises of former forest evictees from Ragati and Kogochi and township dwellers from Narumoru and Majengo in Nyeri Town. Both Christians and Muslims are represented in this village.

3.3 Study Design

This study adopted an exploratory descriptive research design. Exploratory research is inquiry conducted to gain new insights, discover new ideas and/or increase knowledge of phenomenon (Burns & Grove, 2003).

Exploratory design is used when the study topic is either new, or when relatively little has been known about it (Neuman, 2003) as in the case of the current study. The researcher therefore enters the research field with curiosity from the point of not knowing and to provide new data regarding the phenomenon in context (Cresswell, 2003). While gaining familiarity with the research phenomenon, the study also aimed at accurately portraying the characteristics of persons and situations in the resettlement Scheme hence the need to adopt an exploratory descriptive research design.

The research design was therefore chosen as the most effective to answer the research questions of the study. The research questions were: Are there perceived benefits of resettlement among household resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme? What is the level of acceptance of households resettled in the Scheme? What is the availability and appropriateness of welfare services in the Scheme? Are there risks experienced by households resettled in the Scheme? What are the coping strategies adapted by households resettled in the Scheme? This was carried out by collecting primary data from respondents using qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection.

3.4 Units of Analysis and Observation

A unit of analysis is the item or entity that is being analyzed or described in a study. This could include relationships, social roles and organizations and individuals (Yurdusev, 1993). The unit of analysis in this study was the household from which access to welfare services was analyzed.

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a unit of observation is an entity, item, subject or object whose characteristics are measured in a research study. In this study, the units of observation were the household heads facing challenges in accessing welfare services.

3.5 Sources of Data

Primary data were used in this study. The data were collected structured interview guide for household heads, semi-structured interviews with key informants and non-participant observation through direct interaction with respondents. Data collected enabled the researcher to explore and describe the research problem.

3.6 Target Population

A population is the entire group of events, individuals or items with an observable characteristic (Mugenda, 2003). Characteristics of population are generally stable (Peil, 1995). Due to the explorative nature of this study, the target population of the study comprised all the 517 households resettled in Village 3.

3.7 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The sampling design of this study was based on Kothari's (2004) hypothesis which postulates that a sample of 100% of the target population is used when the target population is small. Therefore, all the 517 households resettled in Village 3 formed the sample size of the study. The study applied census sampling procedure to select the 517 households resettled in Village 3 as the study units. Cooper and Schindler (2011) indicate that census sampling procedure frequently

minimizes the sampling error in the population. This in turn increases the precision of any estimation methods used.

3.8 Methods and Tools of Data Collection

The following methods of data collection were used in the study:

3.8.1 Structured Interview Schedule for Solio Ranch Residents

The researcher used a structured interview schedule to obtain information, which responded to pertinent questions in the study. The structured interview schedule contained questions based on the study objectives. The reason for choosing the structured interview schedule as the data collection instrument for this study was primarily due to its practicability, applicability to the research problem and the size of the population. It was also cost effective (Denscombe, 2014).

3.8.2 Interview Guides

Both structured and semi-structured interview guides were applied in this study. In semi-structured interviews, which were administered to key informants, the researcher had a list of specific topics to be covered (Bryman, 2004). Even in the presence of an interview guide, the interviewee responses were not restricted. More questions that were not initially in the guide were picked as the interviewee continued with the session.

The key informants who participated in the study included a social worker, a head teacher of a secondary school, two religious leaders, a village elder, a community mobilizer, and a chief. A structured interview guide based on the research objectives was used to collect data from the households. Some advantages of this method are; the interviewee may raise complementary

issues that will further inform the study, they are fairly interactive and not rigid. The interviewee can be at ease answering the questions in the manner they are comfortable.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis refers to the examining of what has been collected in a survey or experiment in making deductions and inferences. It involves uncovering underlying structure, extraction of important variables, detecting any anomalies and testing any underlying assumptions. It also involves scrutinizing the acquired information and making of inferences (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). The study collected both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data was collected using structured interview guide for household heads. The researcher first edited the collected quantitative data. This was done by administering interview guides per day, assigning them numbers and codes, then editing them to ensure the data was clear and precise. It was then coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) for quantitative analysis using descriptive statistics. The statistics calculated included frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation. The data was presented in frequency tables, bar graphs and pie charts.

3.10 Research Ethics

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) define ethics as that branch of philosophy, which deals with ones' conduct and serves as a guide to one's behaviour. Since researchers are people genuinely concerned about other peoples' quality of life, they must be people of integrity who will not undertake research for personal gain or research that will have a negative effect on others. In order to obtain the required information, it was therefore necessary to guarantee respondents' anonymity where possible. Sensitivity in approaching questions to the respondents was also

maintained. The names of the respondents were not recorded in this project report. The researcher also did not promise any material gains to the respondents as a result of participating in this research or the outcome of the research. The researcher also committed herself to release accurate research findings irrespective of the findings from the study.

3.11 Challenges Encountered in the Field

This research was carried out at a time when there was conflict between large land owners and the villagers over grazing rights. The tension in the area made it difficult to find plot owners especially male ones to avail themselves for the interview. Many of them, especially livestock owners, spent time at the social centres in negotiations with the security chiefs from the county. The researcher had to disguise herself as a journalist so that she could be part of the meeting. Due to numerous studies carried out in the project, some residents were apprehensive about the mission of the research team.

The respondents lamented frustrations at having given out information with the promise of better things to come, which were not fulfilled. They felt used by those who had gone to conduct studies there. A few of the respondents were openly hostile. In one household, the researcher had to hurriedly complete an interview for fear of being reprimanded by a brother in law of an interviewee. The researcher also encountered problems while communicating with some villagers for purposes of the interview.

While most people spoke the mother tongue of the researcher, it was a bit challenging to frame the questions in their vernacular for them to respond appropriately. The weather was also not friendly. The researcher was not used to this kind of climate. The wind was too strong, the

scorching sun and fine dust had the researcher nursing a cold and sun burns. In addition, there were no nearby shops where one could buy water so they had to do with the provisions bought from the nearby town. The researcher also felt it was not morally right to take a break to eat while many families went hungry and instead had to buy some snacks to give to the children that they met.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyzes and discusses data generated from Solio Ranch, Village 3. Data were collected from household heads of all resettled households. Key informants who included a social worker, a headteacher of a secondary school, two religious leaders, a village elder, a community mobilizer, and a chief were involved in the study. The obtained data is represented using tables, graphs, percentages and pie charts. The researcher also used an observation schedule to gather relevant information related to the study. The analysis, interpretation and discussion were made in reference to research objectives.

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate

The researcher targeted 517 households resettled by the Government in Village Three of Solio Resettlement Scheme. Out of these, 285 households responded to the questionnaire. This translated to a questionnaire return rate of 55.1%. Failure to secure a 100.0% return rate was due to unoccupied plots in the village. The questionnaires were administered with the help of 10 research assistants who the researcher trained at Bahati Primary School. These research assistants were 6 primary and secondary school teachers, 1 education officer, 1 land valuer and 2 college students. The exercise was completed in 4 days.

An interview with the Community Organizer - a person nominated by the community to oversee the affairs of the resettled households - revealed that out of the 517 households allocated plots in the Scheme, only 300 households were actively settled. The rest, 217 households, had structures erected on their plots to indicate ownership but nobody lived there. The finding may suggest that not all the households' allocated plots in the Scheme were keen on resettling in the area. In addition, some of the resettled households may have found the new environment hostile and decided to stay away from the Scheme.

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The study sought the general demographic characteristics of the respondents in order to provide an in-depth understanding of the profile of the households. These characteristics comprises of family headship; age of household head; level of education, occupation, main source of income, average monthly income, ownership of bank account, and membership to a welfare group of both the head of household and spouse.

In addition, the study also analyzed data on number of children in the household, presence of dependants, initial place of residence before resettlement and characteristics of the family house. The data is analyzed using frequencies and percentages and is presented in the following sections.

4.3.1 Family Headship in the Scheme

The description of family headship in the Scheme is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Family headship in the Scheme

Category of respondent	Frequency	Percentage
Male head	118	41.5
Female head (husband away)	87	30.5
Female head (single mother)	50	17.5
Female head (windowed)	30	10.5
Total	285	100.0

From Table 1, it is evident that majority of the households (58.5%) are headed by a female head. Male headed households account for 41.5% of the resettled households. Interviews with key informants revealed that male heads sometimes disserve their families when they cannot provide for them or migrate to other towns in search for employment. Given that Kenya is a patriarchal society, this finding implies that majority of the resettled households suffered a leadership vacuum which led to indecisiveness on the part of the female heads as they were overwhelmed with multiple roles. According to Chant (2003), female headed households are often vulnerable to poverty because of single handed management of income-generation, housework and childcare which compromises economic efficiency and well-being. Additionally, Kiriti and Tisdell (2003) argue that female headed households in a patriarchal society experience inequality in access to basic social services such as education and health, unequal opportunities for participation in political and economic decision making, high poverty rates and possible violence against the women.

Thus, a substantial number of households in the Scheme having a female head may have an impact on the families' socio-economic adjustment in a new environment, access to social services and coping mechanisms adopted by members of a household in the resettlement scheme.

4.3.2 Age of the Household Head

The respondents were asked to provide data on the age of the head of the family. The data is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Age of the household head

Age of the family head	Frequency	Percentage
30 years or less	46	16.1
31-40 Years	85	29.8
41-50 Years	49	17.2
51-60 Years	48	16.8
Above 60 Years	57	20.0
Total	285	100.0

Majority (63.2%) of the family heads are aged 50 years or less. This shows that majority of the family heads are still in active and productive age bracket. It would therefore be expected that they readily adapt to a new environment and harness the environment to their economic advantage including engaging in agricultural activities such as crop farming and animal husbandry.

However, interview with the key informants revealed constraints to the productiveness of the resettled households. An interviewee noted:

Almost everybody in this Scheme is trying farming. However, sometimes we experience long periods without rain. Some of us lack money to buy seeds and fertilizer during the planting period (Social worker, Solio Scheme).

Another respondent reported:

Some of the elderly people in this scheme are not strong enough to cope with the adverse weather conditions experienced in Solio (Community mobilizer, Solio Scheme).

Those aged above 60 years lacked the energy to engage in productive activities and therefore lacked a means of livelihood. The Government program on monthly stipend for the elderly had not been initiated in the Scheme. The aged persons were vulnerable to high levels of poverty which meant that they could not feed well and lacked the means to be able to access quality health care services. In cases where families were split during the resettlement, the elderly whose families were far away lacked social networks. From the study, this group was found to be lonely, without support and susceptible to ill health. This concurred with the view of Snel and Staring (2001) who argued that family social networks give a certain level of protection against poverty and suffering after resettlement as people help each other through sharing of whatever little that they make.

Comments from the key informants therefore suggest that adverse weather conditions, lack of capital to purchase farm inputs, and age of some of the resettled persons are major setbacks to full realization of the economic productivity of individuals in the Scheme.

4.3.3 Level of Education of the Household Head and Spouse

The respondents were asked to provide data on the level of education of the head of the family and the spouse. The data obtained is presented on Figure 2.

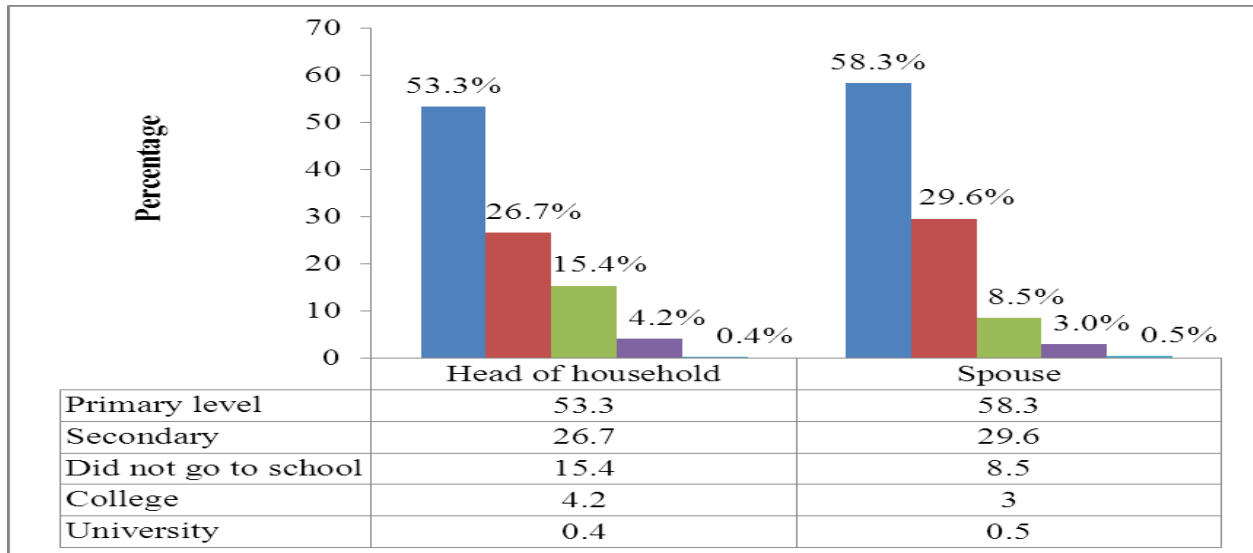


Figure 2: Level of education of the household head and the spouse

Data presented on Figure 2 show that the majority (53.3%) of the heads of households and spouses (58.3%) have primary level of education. The majority of the households therefore have limited human capital beyond primary education and with a sizeable portion of the population not having any formal schooling.

Among the possible causes of low levels of formal education among the household heads may be factors in their initial places of residence considering that the population resettled in the Scheme originated from forests and native reserves. Constant threats of eviction could not allow them to settle down and pursue education. In addition, opportunities for schooling may have been scarce. Even where schooling opportunities existed, poverty may have constrained their participation

and transition to higher levels of learning. This was confirmed by the principal of a school in the Scheme who noted that the few high school graduates in the Scheme originally came from townships where they could have benefitted from financial aid to enable them pursue additional education beyond primary schooling.

According to Soderbom, Teal, Wambugu and Kahyarara (2004), education is often seen as the main policy instrument for reducing poverty. Indeed, Schultz (2003) maintains that human capital acquired through formal schooling contributes to improved quality of life for the citizens. Suri, Tschirley, Irungu, Gitau and Kariuki (2008) analysis on rural incomes, inequality and poverty dynamics in Kenya, concluded that primary education of household heads is not always enough to protect a household from poverty but education beyond the primary level has a much more robust effect on keeping a household out of poverty. Low levels of education observed in the resettlement scheme may therefore affect the quality of life, including access to welfare services, adaptation to new environments that the resettlement scheme presents and coping strategies for the resettled households.

4.3.4 Main Occupation of the Head of the Household and the Spouse

The study also sought to establish the main occupation of the family heads and the spouses. The data are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Main occupation of the head of the household and the spouse

Occupation	Head of the household		Spouse	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Peasant farmer	199	69.8	140	70.4
Casual labourer	30	10.5	29	14.6
Business	28	9.8	16	8.0
Formal employment	14	4.9	9	4.5
Skilled trade	10	3.5	4	2.0
Religious leader	4	1.4	1	.5
Total	285	100.0	199	100.0

Data presented in Table 3 reveal that the majority (69.8%) of the household heads and spouses (70.4%) are peasant farmers. It would therefore be expected that among the key consideration in choosing Solio Ranch as the place to resettle the households is the suitability of soils for farming and a rainfall distribution pattern that would guarantee sustainable agricultural activities. A sizeable proportion (10.5%) of the household heads and spouses (14.6%) are casual labourers. A key informant noted the following:

The Government allocated 4.5 acres of land to each of the resettled households assuming that everybody would engage in farming. However, those from townships had a difficult time coping with farming that is not sustainable due to unreliable rainfall. They just engage in farming since they have no other alternatives (Social worker, Solio Scheme).

The implication of this finding is that a sizeable portion of the population was not properly integrated in the Scheme in terms of economic activities. The assumption that all resettled

households would engage in farming was therefore misplaced as it ignored the sources of livelihood for some of the households before resettlement.

4.3.5 Main Sources of Income for the Head of the Family and the Spouse

The main sources of income of the family heads and spouse are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Main sources of income for the head of the household and the spouse

Occupation	Household head		Spouse	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Sale of farm produce	190	66.7	119	59.8
Business	37	13.0	23	11.6
Wages	24	8.4	36	18.1
Salary	21	7.4	9	4.5
Supported by children	7	2.5		
Donations	6	2.1	4	2.0
Supported by spouses			8	4.0
Total	285	100.0	199	100.0

Data in Table 4 show that the majority (66.7%) of the head of family and spouses (59.8%) depend on sale of farm produce as their main source of income with little or no diversification in income. This finding concurs with Suri, Tschirley, Irungu, Gitau and Kariuki (2008) analysis which concluded that the majority of rural households in Kenya rely on farming as their main economic activity.

Asked about the sources of income for the households resettled in the Scheme, a key informant noted the following:

Most of the households get some little money from farming activities. But this is only during the rainy seasons. It has not rained for the last two years and we had to be given relief food by the Government (Village elder, Solio Scheme).

4.3.6 Average Monthly Income of the Head of the Household and Spouse

The study also sought to establish the average monthly income for the head of the family and that of the spouse. The data are summarized in Figure 3.

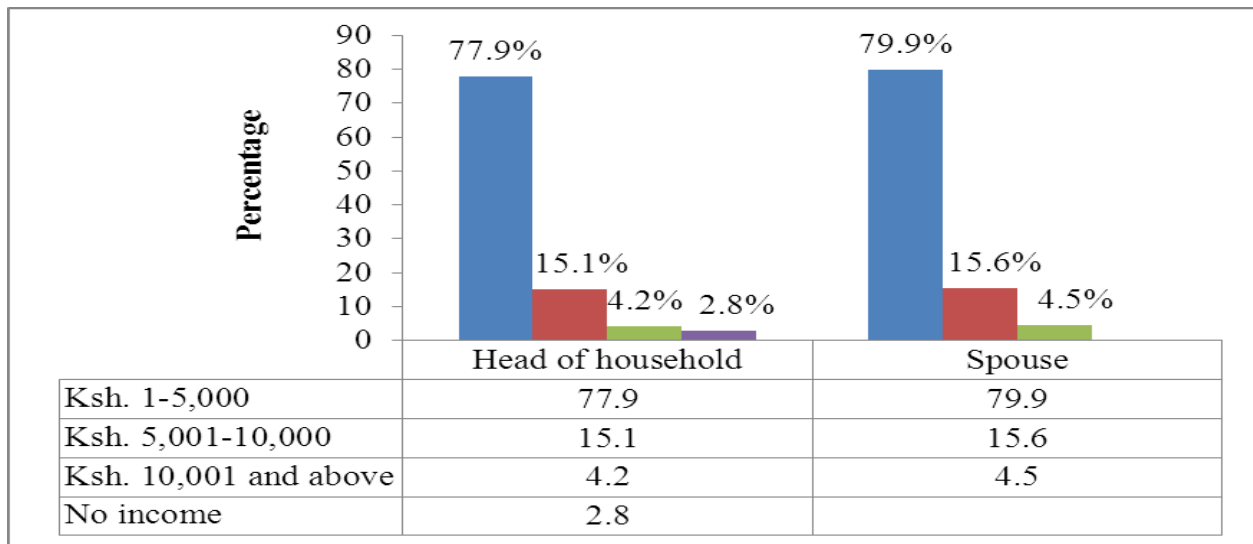


Figure 3: Average monthly income of the family head and the spouse

Data in Figure 3 show that majority (77.9%) of the heads of family and spouses (79.9%) have an average monthly income of Ksh. 1-5,000. The 2005/06 Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (GOK, 2007) estimated that the absolute poverty line in a household is Ksh. 2,913 for urban areas and Ksh. 1,562 for rural areas. The findings of this study therefore suggest that majority of the households resettled in Solio Scheme were above absolute poverty. However, a report by Society for International Development (2004) contends that rural households engaging in agriculture in Kenya constitute 70.0% of the lowest income group compared to households

employed in professional and managerial activities, sales and services sectors. The households in Solio Scheme may therefore be classified as rural poor though not in absolute terms.

4.3.7 Head of Household and Spouse Ownership of a Bank Account

Data on head of family and spouse ownership of a bank account is summarized in Figure 4.

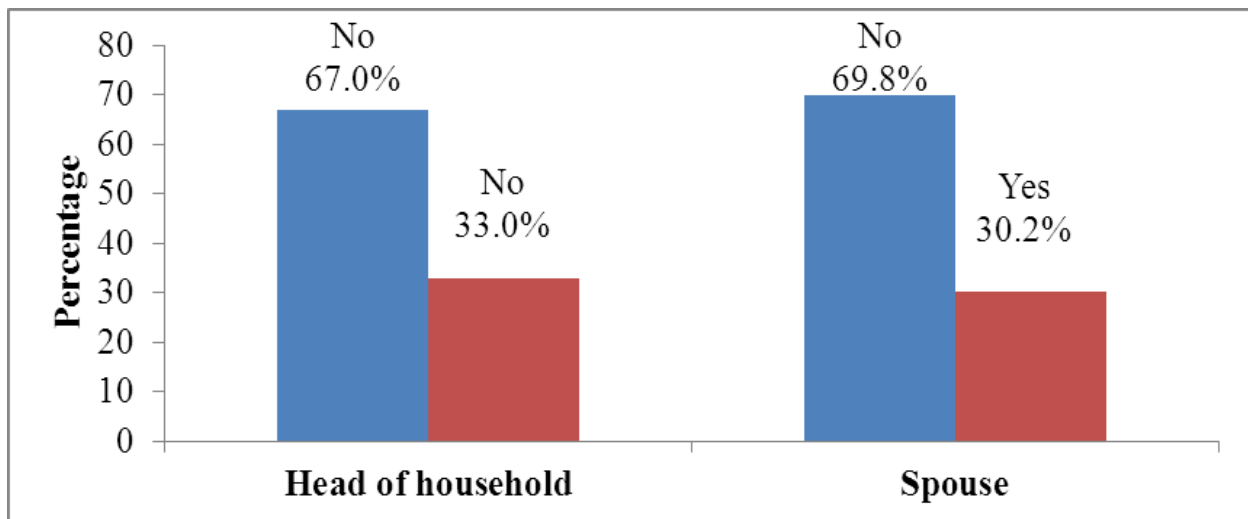


Figure 4: Head of family ownership of bank account

Data presented in Figure 4 revealed that 67.0% of the heads of households do not own a bank account. Only a small parentage (33.0%) of the household heads has a bank account. Majority (69.8%) of the spouses do not have a bank account. Only 30.2% of the spouses have a bank account. The majority of the respondents in the resettlement Scheme therefore do not own a bank account. Some of the residents indicated that they sold their farm produce to middle men and immediately used the money for household needs or to buy farm inputs. They therefore were left with little or no money to save and therefore no need for a bank account.

According to Dupas, Green, Keats and Robinson (2012), it may be very difficult for a household to take advantage of high return investments of many types without a safe place such as a bank account to save money.

Without a safe place to save money for emergency, vulnerability to shocks in households might be very high. Failure of the households to have a bank savings account, may therefore suggest that majority of the households resettled in Solio Scheme may not benefit from loan facilities which would enable them improve their farming activities or diversify their income sources. Additionally, they may lack buffers against unforeseen calamities in their households such as famine. This largely and negatively affects the well-being of resettled households.

4.3.8 Head of Household and Spouse Membership to a Welfare Group

The study sought to establish whether household heads and spouses were members of welfare groups. Data on membership to a welfare group are summarized in Figure 5.

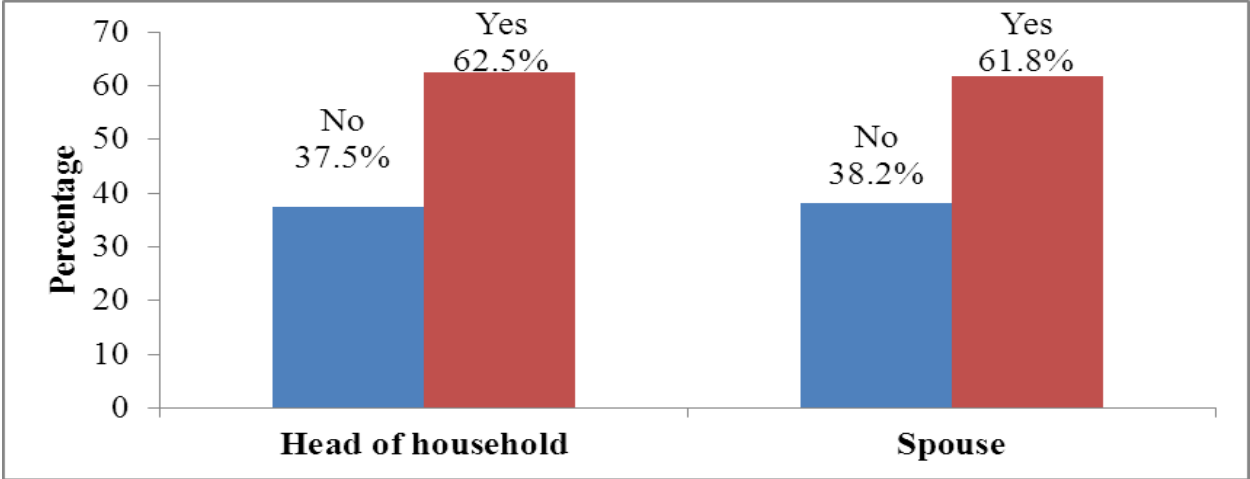


Figure 5: Head of household and spouse membership to a welfare group

Data presented in Figure 5 revealed that majority (62.5%) of the heads of households and spouses (61.8%) are members of a welfare group. Interviews with the household heads revealed that the welfare groups are often composed of households who originated from a common area prior to resettlement. The groups are mainly for helping members in purchasing household items, giving small loans, and social activities such as funerals and weddings. The welfare groups are not for business ventures.

According to Molyneux, Hutchison, Chuma and Gilson (2007), welfare groups provide an opportunity for strong bonding relationships and connect people from the same immediate group such as family members, neighbours', close friends and business associates sharing similar socio-demographic characteristics. The findings therefore suggest the importance of welfare groups in bringing members of the Scheme together and helping members attend to common challenges that they may be encountering in the Scheme.

4.3.9 Number of Children in the Households

The respondents were asked to provide information on the number of children in their households. The data obtained are summarized on Table 5.

Table 5: Number of children in the households

Number of Children	Frequency	Percentage
Up to 2 children	83	29.1
3 children or more	202	70.9
Total	285	100.0

Data presented on Table 5 revealed that the majority (70.9%) of the households have 3 children or more and 29.1% have up to 2 children. The average number of children in the households is 3.78 with a standard deviation of 2.35. Families with a large number of children found it strenuous to adequately provide for their basic needs such as food, shelter, education and health. The finding concurs with Meinecke, Pandey, Wilson, Sørensen and Thant (2012) who found that the mean household size in the Scheme was 3.8 persons.

4.3.10 Dependants in the Households

The number of households with dependants and the category of dependants are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Dependants in the households

Presence of dependants			Category of dependants		
	Frequency	Percentage		Frequency	Percentage
Yes	76	26.7	Grandchildren	29	38.2
No	209	73.3	Orphans	7	9.2
			Siblings	11	14.5
			Parents	29	38.2
Total	285	100.0		76	100

Data on Table 6 shows that 26.7% of the households have dependants. Majority of the dependants are either grandchildren (38.2%) or parents (38.2%). Other categories of dependants are siblings (14.5%) while orphans make up 9.2% of the dependants. Majority of these dependants could not fend for themselves. Presence of dependants in the households therefore

suggest additional burden to the households and where the households are not able to meet their needs, support mechanisms were needed.

4.3.11 Initial Place of Residence before Resettlement in the Ranch

The study also sought to establish the initial place of residence of the households resettled in Solio Scheme. The data obtained from the respondents are summarized in Figure 6.

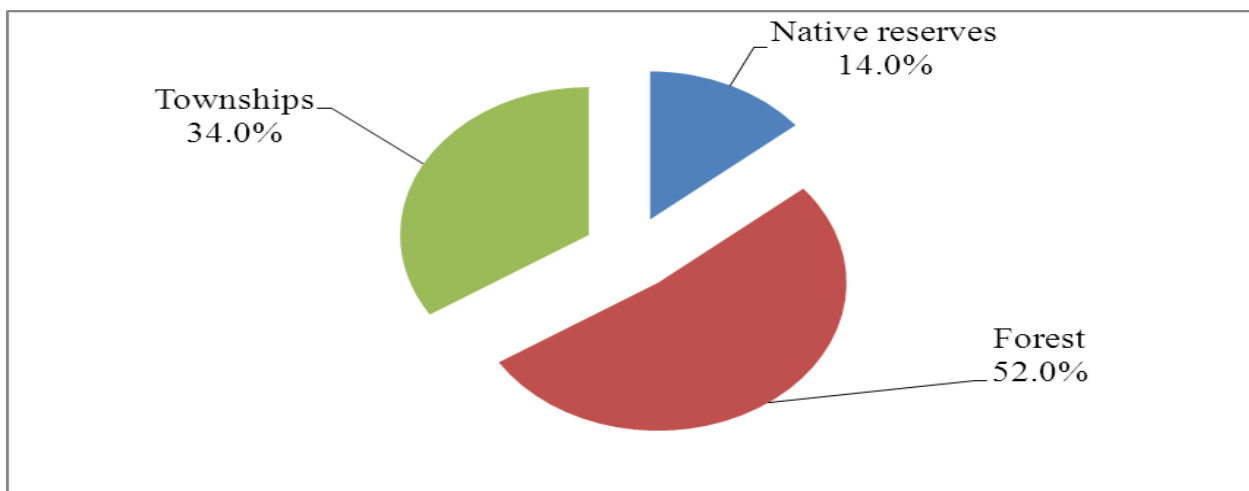


Figure 6: Initial place of residence before being resettled in the Ranch

Data presented in Figure 6 show that the majority (52.0%) of the households resettled in Solio Scheme originated from the forest, 14.0% are from native reserves and 34.0% are from townships. The finding confirms the intention of the resettlement scheme, which was to settle the squatters from forest and native reserves and vulnerable populations from neighboring townships.

4.3.12 Characteristics of the Family House

The respondents were requested to provide information on the characteristics of the family house such as the type of building materials used, type of roof, availability of toilet facility, source of drinking water, and sources of cooking and lighting energy. The data obtained from the households are tabulated in Table 7.

Table 7: Characteristics of family house

Indicator	Frequency	Percentage
Building material for walls		
Timber	241	84.6
Iron sheets	22	7.7
Stones	13	4.6
Bricks	8	2.8
Plastic papers	1	.4
Total	285	100.0
Roofing materials		
Iron sheets	277	97.2
Thatch	5	1.8
Plastic paper	3	1.1
Total	285	100.0
Number of rooms in family house		
	Frequency	Percentage
Two to three rooms	217	76.1
One room	41	14.4
Above three rooms	27	9.5
Total	285	100
Toilet facility		
Pit latrine	265	93.0

None	20	7.0
Total	285	100.0
Main source of drinking water		
Borehole	281	98.6
Well	2	.7
Harvested rain water	2	.7
Total	285	100.0
Main source of cooking energy		
Firewood	153	53.7
Charcoal	72	25.3
Cow dung	29	10.2
Gas	10	3.5
Sawdust	10	3.5
Paraffin	7	2.5
Grass	2	.7
Electricity	2	.7
Total	285	100.0
Main source of lighting		
Kerosene lamp	226	79.3
Solar lamp	31	10.9
Electricity	23	8.1
None	5	1.8
Total	285	100.0

The study findings reveal that the majority of the houses in Solio ranch are constructed from timber (84.6%) and iron sheets (92.7%) as Plate 1 shows.

Plate 1: Houses found in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme



While the findings suggest that majority of the households are well sheltered and protected from adverse weather conditions, this was not the case. As Plate 1 reveals, some of the houses were in deplorable conditions despite being made of timber and iron sheets while others were in a presentable state.

Almost all the households (93.0%) have a toilet facility meaning hygiene is well observed. Majority (98.6%) of the households obtain water for domestic use from a borehole. Tree products – firewood (53.7%) and charcoal (25.3%) - are the main source of cooking energy. Majority of the households (79.3%) use kerosene as the main source of lighting suggesting that they cannot afford solar lamps and electricity, which are cleaner sources of energy. It was evident that majority of the houses are constructed of timber and households largely depend on firewood and charcoal as a source of energy. Environmental degradations evident in the Scheme leading to scarcity of vegetation cover. Vegetation cover increases water retention, which is essential for farming and reliable underground water supply in the boreholes. Sustainable environmental development may therefore be lacking in the Scheme.

4.4 Perceived Benefits of the Resettlement Scheme

The first objective of the study was to assess resettled households' perceptions of the benefits of Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme. The respondents were asked to outline the various ways the Scheme had benefited the resettled households. The data obtained from the households are summarized in Figure 7.

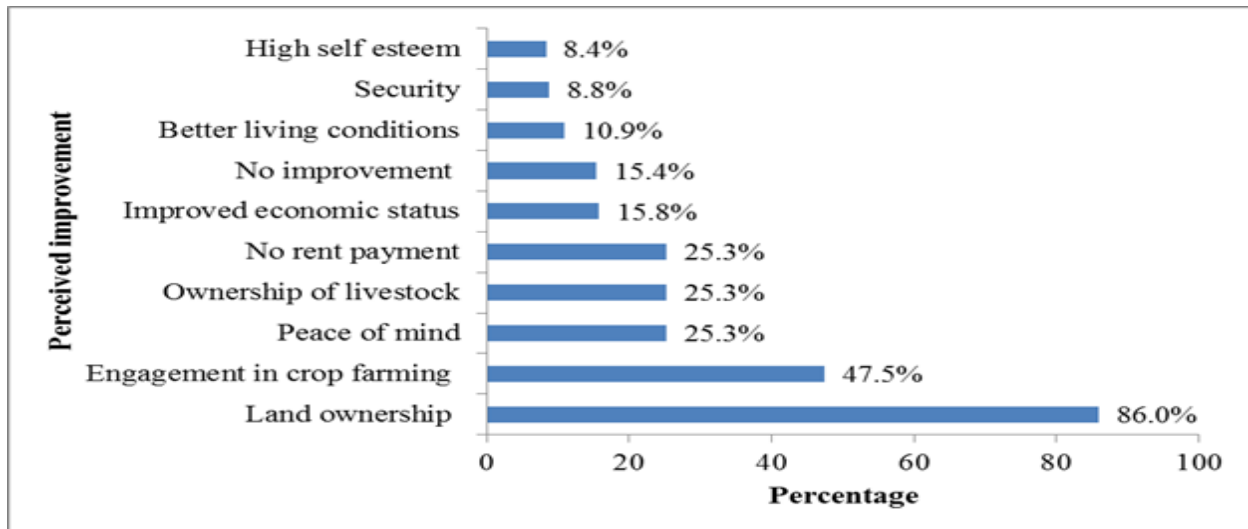


Figure 7: Perceived benefits of the resettlement scheme

As data presented in Figure 7 show, majority (86.0%) of the respondents indicated land ownership. According to Syagga (2013), land in Kenya, as elsewhere, is a resource that sustains many livelihoods by providing means for earning incomes, improving the wellbeing of people and enhancing food security. Land is required for shelter, subsistence and commercial productivity. Access to land leads to both increase in growth and reduction in poverty. It was therefore not surprising that ownership of land was the main benefit perceived by households resettled in the Scheme considering that they had historically been denied access to ancestral land through colonial displacement and post-colonial resettlement efforts.

A key informant noted the following:

This land may appear a dessert. But honestly, the residents are proud to own the land. Those who lived on the roadside in Muoroto after forest eviction are especially proud land owners. However, very few people here have title deeds for the land they were allocated but they have the allotment letters. They say the process is too expensive (Chief, Solio Scheme).

Despite the lack of title deeds for a majority of the households, land ownership culminates to other economic benefits. For instance, 47.5% report engaging in crop farming and 25.3% own livestock. Land ownership also leads to having a place to put on shelter and therefore relieving the households the burden of paying rent as reported by 25.3% of the households. Ownership of land, engagement in economic activities and ownership of shelter may be construed to contribute to relative peace of mind as reported by 25.3% of the households. Other perceived benefits of the Scheme include improved economic status (15.8%), improved security (8.8%) and a sense of high self-esteem (8.4%). However, a portion of the population, 15.8%, reports that there was no improvement.

4.5 Level of Acceptance of the Resettled Residents of Solio Ranch

The second objective of the study was to determine the level of acceptance of households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme. The respondents were provided with statements which they were expected to indicate whether they agreed (yes) or disagreed (no) in reference to their experience at the Scheme. Guttman scalogram method was used to analyze the data. The results of the analysis are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8: Guttman scalogram analysis on level of acceptance of the resettled households

1. Overall, the resettlement programme was well implemented	2. Overall, our standards of living have improved	3. The resettlement area has friendly environment	4. The resettlement land has soils of high quality for growing new crops	5. The resettlement has resulted to other opportunities	6. We view ourselves as strangers in this area	7. The social networks we got here are inadequate
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Y	Y	-	Y	Y	Y	Y
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Y	Y	Y	Y	-	Y	Y
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	Y
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	-
Y	-	Y	Y	Y	Y	-
-	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-
-	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	-
Y	-	Y	Y	Y	-	-
Y	-	Y	Y	Y	-	-
Y	-	Y	Y	Y	-	-
-	Y	Y	-	Y	Y	-
Y	Y	Y	-	-	-	-
Y	Y	-	Y	-	-	-
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Y	Y	-	-	-	-	-
Y	Y	-	-	-	-	-
-	Y	-	Y	-	-	-
Y	Y	-	-	-	-	-
Y	Y	-	-	-	-	-
Y	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	Y	-	-	-	Y	-

The items in the matrix were sorted from those who most agreed (Y) to those who disagreed (-) the fewest to the statements. As show in the matrix, the scale is nearly cumulative when one reads from left to right across the columns (items). As per the matrix, if the respondent agreed with certain items, he/she would agree with another or vice versa. In this study, the matrix shows that the cumulateness of the scale is not perfect. There are sixteen (16) inconsistencies in the matrix out of a total of 161 responses.

According to Guttman, where there are inconsistencies, the following formula is used to compute the coefficient of reproducibility:

$$\text{Rep} = 1 - \frac{\text{Total number of inconsistencies}}{\text{Total number of responses}}$$

From the matrix,

$$\text{Number of inconsistencies} = 16$$

$$\text{Total number of responses} = 161$$

Substituting:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rep} &= 1 - \frac{16}{161} \\ &= 0.901 \end{aligned}$$

If the coefficient of reproducibility is 0.90 and above, the scalogram is considered reproducible. Since the calculated coefficient of reproducibility is 0.901, this study concludes that the scalogram is reproducible.

The findings therefore suggest that largely, the resettled households feel a sense of acceptance despite finding themselves in “new” environment but that which offers new opportunities in terms rich agriculture soils. The sense of acceptability in the settled area may be attributed to the fact that the settled households share similar ethnic backgrounds. If otherwise, as Bratton and Kimenyi (2008) observe, there could have been mistrust and therefore non-acceptability.

Another possible explanation for acceptability is that the host community has been benefiting from the labour provided by the resettled households. Interview with key informants revealed that labour is expensive in the areas surrounding the Scheme. The establishment of the Scheme resulted to an influx of cheap labour from the resettled households. The symbiotic relationship between the resettled households and the hosts therefore contributes to a feeling of acceptance among the resettled households.

Despite the perceived acceptance, a few resettled households were of the opinion that the social networks they have in the resettlement Scheme are inadequate. This concurs with Cernea (2000) who contends that displacement tears apart the existing social fabric. It disperses and fragments communities, dismantles patterns of social organization, interpersonal ties and scatters kinship groups. The breakdown of social networks explains the majority membership to welfare groups among the resettled households. It serves as a compensatory mechanism for social networks lost after resettlement.

The findings also reveal that the soils in the resettlement Scheme are of high quality. This implies that the Scheme has fertile soils suitable for crop production. However, the respondents were of the opinion that the resettlement Scheme had resulted to joblessness and poverty. According to Meinecke et al. (2012), livelihood insecurity among resettled rural households is

not always as a result of unfavorable soils but because of interplay of factors that determine livelihood reconstruction. This may suggest that the resettlement Scheme, despite having fertile soils, may not result to improved livelihood for the resettled households. The households have limited capacity in terms of agricultural production or are constrained by other factors such as unreliable rainfall or lack of enough water for irrigation. This may suggest that the implementation of the programme lacked capacity building for the households in terms of harnessing the new environment for crop production and improved livelihood.

There was acceptability on the item on the environment, owing to the fact that the area has rich soils. However, there were those who felt that the environment was not conducive as it posed new challenges. During data collection, the researcher experienced strong winds compounded by dust. It was also observed that there was minimal tree cover that would arrest the winds. The winds therefore settle fine dust in households resulting to respiratory ailments with children and the elderly being the most affected group. Interview with key informants also revealed that the Village is infested with ticks which are a threat to human and animal health.

The presence of the ticks is explained by the fact that the Scheme was carved out of Solio Wildlife Conservancy and there was no fumigation before human habitation. Environmental discordance upon resettlement is not unique to Solio Scheme. A study by Tadesse (2007) on the Boreda resettlement scheme in Ethiopia found that the resettlers were uncomfortable with the sudden shift from a highland environment to a lowland one. They reported that the climate was hot and very different from their place of origin.

Despite the infrastructure inadequacies experienced in the Scheme, majority of the respondents felt that their standards of living have improved and that overall, the resettlement Scheme

has been well implemented. According to Cotula, Toulmin and Quan (2006), land is an asset of enormous importance to all rural dwellers in the developing world. In countries such as Kenya where agriculture is the main economic activity, access to land is a fundamental means whereby the poor can ensure household food supplies and generate income. This therefore may partially explain the contentment among the resettled households. The Scheme provides the households with a piece of land with security, a shelter to house the family and dependants, and a piece of land to engage in animal and crop production. Indeed the land is an invaluable gift to households that previously lived as squatters. Other issues in the Scheme may be overshadowed by land ownership.

4.6 Access to Welfare Services in the Scheme

The respondents were asked to indicate the availability of welfare services, adequacy and distance covered to access the services.

The data tabulated on Table 9 reveals that the Scheme does not have adequate social services. Out of the eleven examined welfare services, only 4 are available in the scheme. The available welfare services include schools (100%), local administration (99.6%), electricity (98.2%) and clean water supply (100%). However, out of the four services that are available, only two services are rated as adequate and easily accessible. Schools are rated as adequate by 100% of the respondents with majority (83.2%) of the respondents indicating that they travel 1 Kilometer or less to access the services. Plate 2 shows a primary school found in the Scheme.

Table 8: Access to welfare services in Solio Scheme

Welfare service	Available		Adequate		Distance to access the service (in Kms)
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Hospital/health facility	3 1.1%	282 98.9%	1 0.4%	284 99.6%	6Kms or less 12.3% Above 4 Kms 87.7%
Schools	285 100%		285 100%		1 Km or less 83.2% Above 1 Km 16.8%
Recreational facility	2 0.7%	283 99.3%	1 0.4%	284 99.6%	6Kms or less 11.2% Above 6 Kms 88.8%
Commercial banks	2 0.7%	283 99.3%	2 0.7%	283 99.3%	6Kms or less 12.3% Above 6 Kms 87.7%
Police station/post	16 5.6%	269 94.4%	15 5.3%	270 94.7%	6 kms or less 5.6% Above 4 Kms 94.4%
Local administration	284 99.6%	1 0.4%	284 99.6%	1 0.4%	1 Km or less 83.2% Above 1 Km 16.8%
Electricity*	280	5	26	259	Connected 7.4%

*The last mile connectivity programme started in 2015. The residents pay Kshs 1,100 to get connected.

	98.2%	1.8%	9.1%	90.9%	Not connected 92.6%
Clean water supply	285		1	284	1 Km or less 83.2%
	100%		0.4%	99.6%	Above 1 Km 16.1%
Market Center	1	284		285	6Km or less 13.0%
	0.4%	99.6%		100%	Above 6 Kms 87.0%
Agricultural extension services	1	284		285	6Km or less 12.3%
	0.4%	99.6%		100%	Above 6 Kms 87.7%
Transport network	2	283		285	6Km or less 38.2%
	0.7%	99.3%		100%	Above 6 Kms 61.8%

Plate 2: A Primary school found in Solio Scheme



As shown in Plate 2, the primary school is well build. The Headteacher of the school noted the following:

The school is well build and equipped with learning resources. We also have a school feeding programme that serves to ensure that hunger does not keep children out of school resulting to drop out (Headteacher, Solio Scheme).

A head of a household observed:

When school are in progress and there is famine, our children are sure of getting at least one meal a day. But over the weekends and during school holidays, children experience hunger because the school feeding programme is not there (Household head, Solio Scheme).

Another head of house hold noted the following:

My family barely gets a meal a day. I felt relieved when the school feeding programme was started. Six out of my eight children go to school. I'm there for left with two to feed during the day (Household head, Solio Scheme).

Some parents also reported that they find it difficult to pay Kshs. 300 per child per term for salaries of non-teaching staff. A head of a household who also worked as a non-teaching staff in the school revealed that he had not being paid for months despite offering services to the school. The findings therefore suggest that while schooling facilities were available and adequate, there were factors that impede children's participation in education. Such factors include hunger in households and illegal user fees on the poor households.

In terms of local administration services, almost all (99.6%) of the respondents rate the service as adequate and 83.2% report that they cover 1 Kilometer or less to access the services. The findings suggest that local administration services were available and easily accessible. However, interview with the local chief revealed that they were constrained by lack of adequate number of police officers in the post. The post has only two police officers and is inadequate for

day and night patrols since normally, two police officers are required for a patrol. A police officer cannot go for patrol alone.

While water was available in the Scheme, 99.6% rate the service as inadequate despite that majority (83.8%) of the households' cover 1 Kilometer or less to access the services. The findings may therefore suggest that the Scheme had inadequate water supply for both household consumption and for farming purposes. This may largely contribute to poverty in households. Plate 4 shows residents fetching water from a borehole in the Scheme.

Plate 3: Residents fetching water from a borehole in the Scheme



Although electricity is available and accessible in the Scheme – majority (75.4%) is within 1 Kilometer radius of the power line grid – only 7.4% of the households are connected with electricity. This may be explained by poverty in the households and therefore majority cannot afford to pay for the connection fees. In the Scheme, services such as health facility, recreational facility, commercial banks, police station/post, market Center, transport network, and

agricultural extension services are not available and households have to travel for 6 or more kilometers to access the services in the nearest town.

The Constitution of Kenya (2010) Bill of Rights is explicit that every person, irrespective of status such as resettlement, has the right to health care services, access to clean and safe water in adequate quantities, access to social security and education among other social services. The Constitution also explicitly states that where individuals cannot exercise or realize these rights, it is the fundamental duty of the Government to observe, respect, protect, promote and fulfill the rights. Accordingly, the only right that appears to have been adequately facilitated is the right to education with the right to access clean and safe water being partially facilitated. Poor provision of social services in the Scheme may also be explained by the lack of framework to guide eviction and resettlement in Kenya. The existing framework – the Draft Eviction and Resettlement Guidelines and Draft Bill (GOK, 2012), has not been approved to date despite having provisions that would guarantee access to welfare services among resettled households.

The findings of this study are supported by Metcalfe et al. (2011) who contend that while Kenya is a state party to a wide range of international and regional treaties, and notwithstanding the development of national legislation and policy frameworks, implementation of law and policy on human rights in general, including for the protection of displaced populations, has been consistently poor. Similarly, Diagne and Solberg (2008) report that effort to resettle post-election violence victims created a new emergency exacerbated by poor conditions in the transit sites (lack of water, shelter, food), uneven access to humanitarian assistance and access to basic public services. The findings of the current study therefore suggest that the resettlement Scheme may

have been planned haphazardly and hurriedly implemented resulting to minimal access to welfare services.

The study further sought the concerns of the respondents on the welfare services they were receiving in the Scheme. The findings are summarized in Figure 8.

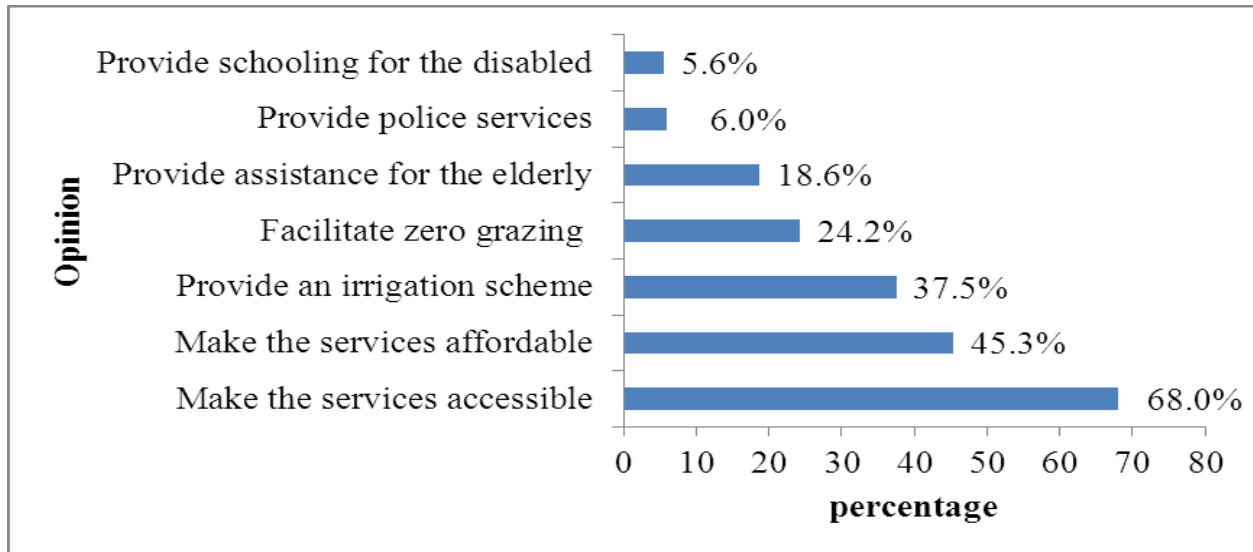


Figure 8: Respondents Opinions on welfare services in the Scheme

Data presented in Figure 8 indicates that the majority (68.0%) of the responded are of the opinion that welfare services should be made accessible, 45.3% report that the services should be made affordable, 37.5% wish for an irrigation scheme in the area, 24.2% are of the opinion that zero grazing should be facilitated, and 18.6% indicate that the elderly should be provided with assistance. A portion of the respondents, 6.0% are of the opinion that there should be a police post in the area and 5.6% report that the disabled should be provided with schooling.

Based on the findings, it is evident that apart from accessibility and affordability of welfare services, there are other concerns with the findings suggesting that water shortage in the Scheme

could be resolved by providing an irrigation scheme. The majority of the respondents indicated that zero grazing should be facilitated. This may suggest limited livestock husbandry practices, which the respondents wished improved. It may also be explained by lack of agricultural extension services to empower households on sustainable farming practices. Of concern among the respondents is the need for assistance for vulnerable groups such as disabled children and the elderly. The disabled and the elderly may not easily cope in a new environment without adequate support from the Government and households.

4.7 Risks Faced by Households Resettled in Solio Scheme

The respondents were provided with a list of possible challenges that they may have experienced in the resettlement Scheme. They were asked to rate the extent to which they experienced a challenge using the following key: 1 = Can be ignored, 2 = To a less extent, 3 = To a moderate extent, 4 = To a large extent, and 5 = To a very large extent. The frequencies and percentages of each of the examined challenges are tabulated in Table 10.

Table 9: Risks faced by households resettled in Solio Scheme

Challenge	Rating					Total	
	Can be ignored	To a less extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent	%	N
Joblessness	7 (2.5%)	13 (4.6%)	42 (14.7%)	92 (32.3%)	131 (46.0%)	100	285
Food insecurity	0 (0.0%)	17 (6.0%)	60 (21.1%)	101 (35.4%)	107 (37.5%)	100	285
Accessibility and affordability of health services	2 (0.7%)	34 (11.9%)	67 (23.5%)	115 (40.4%)	67 (23.5%)	100	285
Access to common property	18 (6.3%)	48 (16.8%)	57 (20.0%)	92 (32.3%)	70 (24.6%)	100	285
General decline in land productivity	10 (3.5%)	41 (14.4%)	85 (29.8%)	96 (33.7%)	53 (18.6%)	100	285
Access to roads and electricity	6 (2.1%)	72 (25.3%)	114 (40.0%)	67 (23.5%)	26 (9.1%)	100	285
Inadequate family house facility	11 (3.9%)	115 (40.4%)	82 (28.8%)	54 (18.9%)	23 (8.1%)	100	285
Loss of social networks	29 (10.2%)	117 (41.1%)	45 (15.8%)	58 (20.4%)	36 (12.6%)	100	285

Low self-confidence and a feeling of vulnerability	45 (15.8%)	93 (32.6%)	62 (21.8%)	54 (18.9%)	31 (10.9%)	100	285
Inadequate land for farming	9 (3.2%)	160 (56.1%)	44 (15.4%)	40 (14.0%)	32 (11.2%)	100	285
Insecurity	87 (30.5%)	161 (56.5%)	28 (9.8%)	6 (2.1%)	3 (1.1%)	100	285
Access to educational services	150 (52.6%)	85 (29.8%)	31 (10.9%)	18 (6.3%)	1 (0.4%)	100	285

The data obtained and summarized on Table 10 reveal that 78.3% of the respondents are affected by joblessness in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. Majority of the resettled households are therefore at risk of joblessness. According to Koenig (2001), finding jobs for people in developing countries is problematic, even when there is no involuntary resettlement. Resettlement makes the problem of finding employment more difficult, since it disrupts access to productive resources as well as to the social networks that assure job networks.

While concurring with Koenig (2001) proposition, the current study advances that joblessness among the resettled households may have been aggravated by low levels of education observed in the households and therefore they may not secure jobs in a competitive job market. In addition, low levels of education reduce self-confidence and innovativeness when an individual is presented with a challenging environment.

The data also reveal that 72.9% of the respondents perceive that food insecurity affects them in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. The finding therefore suggest that majority of the resettled households are at risk of food insecurity. This is explained by Cernea (1998) who advances that displaced and resettled households often experience breakdown of complex livelihood systems results in temporary or permanent, often irreversible, decline in living standards leading evidenced by joblessness, food insecurity and poverty. As Table 10 reveals, 63.9% of the respondents perceived that inaccessibility and Unaffordability of health services affects them within the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. Majority of the resettled households are therefore at risk of inaccessibility and Unaffordability of health services. This is evidenced by lack of a health facility in the Scheme despite the households being vulnerable to respiratory infections due to adverse weather conditions such as strong winds and dust. The data also reveal that 56.9% of the respondents perceive access to common property such as grazing land, forests, and burial sites affects them in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”.

Resettled households are therefore at risk of loss of access to common property. In Solio Scheme, access to grazing land and water for livestock occasionally led to conflict. During the fieldwork, the researcher encountered conflict over grazing land between the residents and “unknown” landlords who owned huge parcels of land of even up to 200 acres. The land was reportedly axed from the original 15,000 acres purchased by the Government for the resettlement exercise. The axed land is a corridor leading to river. It is well fenced as shown in Plate 4. The residents tried to forcefully gain entry leading to a confrontation with representatives of the large land owners. Government officers from Laikipia County were called in to quell the disturbance.

Plate 5 shows a meeting between police officers and the conflicting groups. The researcher was present during the discussions where the officers implored upon the residents to respect private property. However, the talks were not successful and the residents tried to drive their livestock into the disputed land only to find the land on fire and well-guarded by armed youths.

Plate 4: Fencing around land that is a corridor to the river in the Scheme



Plate 5: A Meeting between Government officers and locals over access to common resources



Majority (52.3%) of the respondents perceive that declining land productivity affects them in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. Majority of the resettled households are therefore at risk of experiencing declining land productivity. While the respondents were of the opinion that soil in the area are generally fertile and suitable for agriculture, the risk of decline in land productivity may be explained by unreliable rainfall pattern in the area, lack of an irrigation scheme that could sustain farming in the Scheme and lack of access to agricultural extension services. Decreasing land productivity is a catalyst for household food security leading to under-nourishment and impoverishment in households.

The data further reveal that 72.6% of the respondents perceived that access to roads and electricity affects them in the range of “To a moderate extent” and “To a very large extent”. The resettled households are therefore at moderate risk of inaccessibility of roads and electricity. Table 10 further reveal that 55.8% of the respondents are affected by inadequate family housing

in the range of “To a moderate extent” and “To a very large extent”. The resettled households are therefore at moderate risk of inadequate family housing facility.

In addition, the study established that 70.2% of the respondents perceive that loss of social networks affects them in the range of “Can be ignored” and “To a moderate extent”. The finding suggests that resettled household may be at low risk of loss of social networks through scattering and separation with family and friends. According to Sarojini (2014), displacement and resettlement dismantles kinship grouping and disrupts long established residential social organizations.

These results to undermining livelihoods in ways not recognized and not measured by settlement scheme planners, and results in disempowerment and further impoverishment (Cernea, 2004). However, the study noted that there was a strong inclination to joint welfare groupings in the Scheme in an effort to compensate for lost social networks.

The study also established that 70.2% of the respondents perceive that low self-confidence and a feeling of vulnerability affects them in the range of “Can be ignored” and “To a moderate extent”. The finding therefore implies that the resettled households were at low risk of waning self-confidence and a feeling of vulnerability. Low self-confidence may be as a result of poverty and limited access to welfare services which might have made the households feel incapable of handling crises that may befall them while at the Scheme. The data also reveal that majority (56.1%) of the respondents perceived that inadequate land for farming activities affected them “To a less extent”. A similar percentage (56.1%) also perceived that insecurity affects them “To a less extent”. A majority (52.6%) of the respondents perceived that the educational services in the Scheme were adequate as the challenge in accessing the service “Can be ignored”.

Households resettled in the scheme were therefore at minimal risk of inadequate land for farming activities, insecurity and inaccessibility of educational services.

4.8 Coping Strategy Adopted by Residents of Solio Scheme

Guided by possible existence of risks in the Scheme, the study sought to establish the various coping strategies adopted by household members.

The respondents were asked to provide information on the various coping mechanisms adopted by men, women, youth, children, the elderly and special groups such as HIV/AIDs victims and the disabled. The data obtained from the respondents are presented in the following sections.

4.8.1 Coping Strategies Adopted by Men in Solio Scheme

Data on the reported coping strategies adopted by men are presented in Figure 9.

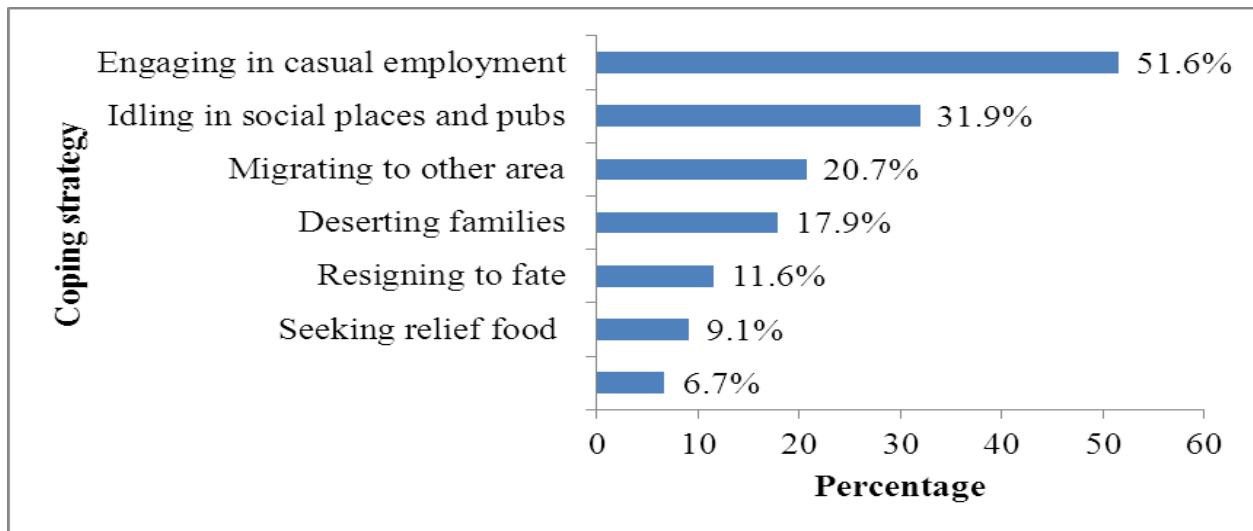


Figure 9: Coping strategies adopted by men in Solio Scheme

Data presented in Figure 9 revealed that 51.6% of men engage in casual labour inside and outside the Scheme as a coping mechanism, 31.9% of men idle in social places and pubs, 20.7% migrate to other areas, 17.9% desert families, 11.6% resign to fate, 9.1% seek relief food from the Government and 6.7% borrow soft loans from welfare groups. Interview with the community mobilizer revealed that beyond deserting families, domestic violence is also a coping strategy adopted by men. At the time of collecting data, the researcher witnessed a victim of domestic violence.

The victim had been chased away by her husband and was in a fit of rage. She had taken her cooking wares and children to her neighbor's residence and was preparing a meal from there.

4.8.2 Coping Strategies Adopted by Women in Solio Scheme

Data on the reported coping strategies adopted by women in the Scheme are presented in Table 11.

Table 10: Coping strategies adopted by women in Solio Scheme

Coping strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Look for casual employment	170	59.6
Borrowing soft loans welfare groups	150	52.6
Attend church service	49	17.2

Data presented in table 11 reveal that the majority (59.6%) of women seek casual employment as a coping mechanism, 52.6% borrow soft loans from welfare groups and 17.2% resort to

attending church service. It was also found that women perpetuate domestic violence as a coping strategy. Interview with a key informant revealed that men are also victims of domestic violence.

The interviewee noted:

Some of the women who are telling you that they are single are single mothers by choice. They chased away their husbands for failure to provide for their families. Some men also drink too much alcohol and are chased away when they cannot fend for their families (Household head, Solio Scheme).

4.8.3 Coping Strategies Adopted by Youth in Solio Scheme

Data on the reported coping strategies adopted by youth in the Scheme are presented in Figure 10.

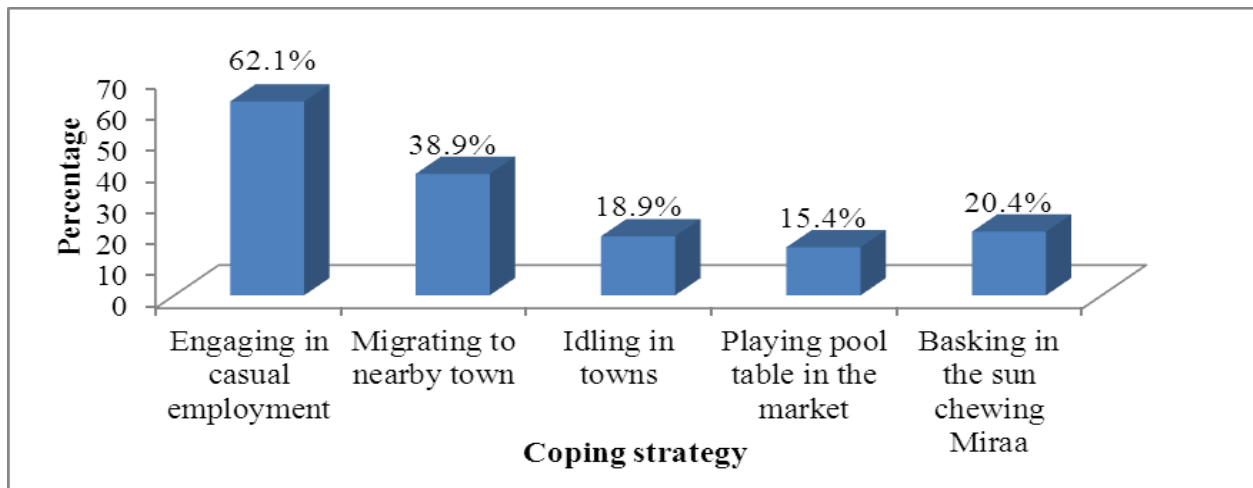


Figure 10: Coping strategies adopted by youth in Solio Scheme

Data presented in Figure 10 revealed that the majority (62.1%) of the youths, engage in casual labour as a coping strategy, 38.9% migrate to nearby towns, 18.9% resort to idling in towns, 15.4% play pool table in the market, and 20.4% end up basking in the sun and chewing khat or ‘miraa’. Plate 6 shows some of the youths in the Scheme engaging in casual labour.

Plate 6: Youth in Solio Scheme engaging in casual labour



4.8.4 Coping Strategies Adopted by Children in Solio Scheme

Data on the reported coping strategies adopted by children in the Scheme are presented in Table 12.

Table 11: Coping strategies adopted by children in Solio Scheme

Coping strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Playing at home	140	49.1
Engage in casual labour	65	22.8

Data presented in table 12 shows that majority (49.1%) of the children, stay at home and play as a coping strategy. Plate 7 shows happy children of Solio Scheme.

Plate 7: Happy Children of Solio Scheme



However, a significant portion (22.8%), are engaged in child labour in the Scheme. According to Cernea (2004), child labour often causes significant interruption on children's participation in education. In the case of the current study, child labour in some of the resettled households may prevent children from enjoying the only welfare service that was rated as available, adequate and accessible in the Scheme.

4.8.5 Coping Strategies Adopted by the Elderly in Solio Scheme

Data on the reported coping strategies adopted by the elderly in the Scheme are presented in Table 13.

Table 12: Coping strategies adopted by the elderly in Solio Scheme

Coping strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Depend on family and well wishers	176	61.8
Resign to fate	147	51.6

Data presented in table 13 show that the main coping mechanisms adopted by the elderly is depending on family and well-wishers (61.8%) and resigning to fate (51.6%).

4.8.6 Coping Strategies Adopted by HIV/AIDS Victims and the Disabled in Solio Scheme

The study also sought to establish the coping strategies adopted by individuals who the respondents knew were HIV/AIDS victims and also the disabled. The reported coping mechanisms are presented in table 14.

Table 13: Coping strategies adopted by HIV/AIDS victims and the disabled

Coping mechanism	Frequency	Percentage
Enrolling for medical help from health based NGOs	72	25.3
Resign to fate	57	20.0
Capacity building from NGOs	55	19.3
Assistance from family and friends	39	13.7
Financial help for business from NGOs	22	7.7
Capital for tree nurseries from the National Council for People with Disability	22	7.7

Data presented in table 14 revealed that special groups of the HIV/AIDS victims and the disabled cope with their challenges by enrolling for medical help from health based Non-Governmental

Organizations (25.3%), 20.0% resign to fate, 19.3% benefit from capacity building offered by NGOs, 13.7% are assisted by family and friends, 7.7% receive financial help for business from NGOs and 7.7% indicated that the disabled are assisted with capital to establish under tree nurseries from the National Council for People with Disability.

Findings on coping strategies adopted by residents of Solio Scheme demonstrate that confronted by risks upon resettlement, households may adopt positive and negative survival strategies. Among the positive coping strategies adopted by the residents include seeking casual labour for an income, migrating to other areas, seeking relief food, borrowing soft loans from welfare groups and seeking God's intervention especially among women.

These findings concur with Ayoade and Adeola (2012) and Igbalajobi et al. (2013) studies on coping strategies adopted by households faced with unforeseen livelihood failure. Among the negative coping strategies adopted by households were idling in social places, deserting families, resigning to fate, and chewing of 'miraa' among the youths. However, it was evident that the negative coping strategies were more prevalent among men and youth than among women. In addition, child labour existed in some households contrary to the Children's Act.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to assess access to welfare services by resettled households using a case study of Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme, Laikipia County. The study sought to answer the following questions: Are there perceived benefits of resettlement among household resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme? What is the level of acceptance of households resettled in the Scheme? What is the availability and appropriateness of welfare services in the Scheme? Are there risks experienced by households resettled in the Scheme? What are the coping strategies adapted by households resettled in the Scheme? The study adopted an exploratory descriptive research design. The target population was 517 households resettled by the Government in the Scheme. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, all the households participated in the study. Data was collected using a structured interview guide for household heads. The key informants who participated in the study include a social worker, a Headteacher of a secondary school, two religious leaders, a village elder, and a chief. The researcher also used an observation schedule to gather information related to the objectives of the study. The data collected were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. This section therefore presents a summary of the findings, conclusion and recommendations based on the research questions.

5.1 Summary of Findings

5.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The study found that a higher proportion (58.5%) of respondents are female as their husbands are either away, are single mothers, or are windowed. The majority (79.0%) of the households are

headed by a male, reflecting the patriarchal nature of the Kenyan society where even in their absence, men will retain family headship. Majority of the family heads (80.0%) are aged 60 years or less.

A substantial portion of the household heads (43.3%) and their spouses (58.3%) have primary level education with a sizeable portion of the population not having any formal schooling.

A high proportion (69.8%) of the household heads and spouses (70.4%) depend on peasant farming for sustenance. Majority (66.7%) of the heads of family and spouses (59.8%) rely on sale of farm produce with little or no diversification in sources of income. The majority (77.9%) of the heads of family and spouses (79.9%) have an average monthly income of between Kshs. 1-5,000 and can therefore be classified as rural poor though not in absolute terms. Only a small portion of the household heads (33.0%) and their spouses (30.2%) have a bank account. However, the majority (62.5%) of the household heads and their spouses (61.8%) are members of welfare groups in the Scheme. Majority (70.9%) of the household's have 3 children or more with the average number of children in the households being 3.78.

A sizeable portion (26.7%) of the households have dependants who were either grandchildren, parents, siblings or orphans. The majority (52.0%) of the households resettled in Solio Scheme originated from forest.

5.1.2 Characteristics of the Households' Family House

The majority (84.6%) of the family houses in Solio Ranch Scheme are constructed from timber. The main roofing materials are iron sheets (97.2%). Almost all the households (93.0%) have toilet facility indicating that hygiene is well observed. The majority of the households (98.6%)

obtain water for domestic use from a borehole. Tree products – firewood (53.7%) and charcoal (25.3%) - are the main source of cooking energy. Moreover, the majority of households (79.3%) use kerosene as the main source of lighting.

5.1.3 Perceived Benefits of Resettlement

The reported benefits upon being resettled in the Scheme include land ownership (86.0%), engaging in crop farming (47.5%), relative peace of mind (25.3%), ownership of livestock (25.3%), no demands for rent payment (25.3%), improved economic status (15.8%), security (8.8%), and high self-esteem (8.4%).

5.1.4 Level of Acceptance of Household Resettled in Solio Ranch Scheme

The majority (81.4%) of the respondents do not view themselves as strangers in the resettlement scheme. Additionally, 94.7% of the respondents reported that the people they found around the Resettlement Scheme readily accept them.

However, the majority (54.0%) of the resettled households feel that they have inadequate social networks. Majority (88.1%) of the respondents are of the opinion that the soil in the resettlement Scheme are of high quality. Despite the reported soil fertility, the majority (56.1%) of the respondents are of the opinion that it is difficult to learn how to grow new crops in the Scheme. The majority (55.8%) of the respondents indicated that the resettlement Scheme has resulted to joblessness and poverty. The majority (52.6%) of the respondents reported that the environment in Solio Scheme is difficult to cope with. The majority (70.5%) of the respondents indicated that the Scheme has inadequate infrastructure. Almost all the respondents (84.9%) felt that their

standards of living have improved. In addition (80.7%) reported that overall, the resettlement Scheme was well implemented.

5.1.5 Availability and Appropriateness of Welfare Services in the Scheme

Out of the eleven examined welfare services, only 4 are available in the scheme. The available welfare services include schools (100%), local administration (99.6%), electricity (98.2%) and clean water supply (100%). However, out of the four services that are available, only schools (100.0%) and local administration (83.2%) are rated as adequate and easily accessible. Almost all the households travel for 1 Kilometer or less to access the services. While water is available in the Scheme, 99.6% rated the service as inadequate despite that majority (83.8%) of the household's cover 1 Kilometer or less to access the services. Although electricity is available and accessible in the Scheme as majority (75.4%) are within 1 Kilometer radius of the power grid line, only 7.4% of the households are connected with electricity.

Services such as health facility, recreational facility, commercial banks, police station/post, market Center, transport network, and agricultural extension services are not available in the Scheme and households have to travel 6 or more kilometers to access the services in the nearest town.

Majority (68.0%) of the respondents are of the opinion that welfare services should be made accessible, 45.3% reported that the services should be made affordable, 37.5% wished for an irrigation scheme in the area, 24.2% are of the opinion that zero grazing should be facilitated, and 18.6% indicated that the elderly should be provided with assistance. A portion of the

respondents (6.0%) are of the opinion that there should be a police post in the area and 5.6% reported that the disabled should be provided with schooling.

5.1.6 Risks Faced by Households Resettled in Solio Scheme

The study found that 78.3% of the respondents are affected by joblessness in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. Majority (72.9%) of the respondents perceive that food insecurity affects them in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. In addition, 63.9% of the respondents perceived that inaccessibility and Unaffordability of health services affects them within the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. A high proportion (56.9%) of the respondents perceive access to common property such as grazing land, forests, and burial sites affects them in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”.

Majority (52.3%) of the respondents perceive that declining land productivity affects them in the range of “To a large extent” and “To a very large extent”. The data further reveal that 72.6% of the respondents perceived that access to roads and electricity affects them in the range of “To a moderate extent” and “To a very large extent”. In addition, 55.8% of the respondents are affected by inadequate family housing in the range of “To a moderate extent” and “To a very large extent”. The resettled households are therefore at moderate risk of inadequate family housing facility. Further, the study established that 70.2% of the respondents perceive that loss of social networks affects them in the range of “Can be ignored” and “To a moderate extent”.

The study also established that 70.2% of the respondents perceive that low self-confidence and a feeling of vulnerability affects them in the range of “Can be ignored” and “To a moderate

extent”. The study also found that majority (56.1%) of the respondents perceived that inadequate land for farming activities affected them “To a less extent”. A similar percentage (56.1%) also perceived that insecurity affects them “To a less extent”. A majority (52.6%) of the respondents perceived that the educational services in the Scheme were adequate as the challenge in accessing the service “Can be ignored”.

5.1.7 Coping Strategy Adopted by Households Resettled in Solio Scheme

The findings revealed that 51.6% of men engage in casual labour inside and outside the Scheme as a coping mechanism, 31.9% of men idle in social places and pubs, 20.7% migrate to other areas, 17.9% desert families, 11.6% resign to fate, 9.1% seek relief food from the Government and 6.7% borrow soft loans from welfare groups. The majority (59.6%) of the women seek casual employment as a coping mechanism, 52.6% borrow soft loans from welfare groups and 17.2% resort to attending church service. Majority (62.1%) of the youths engage in casual labour as a coping strategy, 38.9% migrate to nearby towns, 18.9% resort to idling in towns, 15.4% adopt to playing pool table in the market, and 20.4% end up basking in the sun and chewing ‘miraa’.

The majority (49.1%) of the children, stay at home and play while a significant portion (22.8%) are engaged in child labour in the Scheme. The study findings revealed that special groups of the HIV/AIDs victims and the disabled cope with their challenges by enrolling for medical help from health based Non-Governmental Organizations (25.3%), 20.0% resign to fate, 19.3% benefit from capacity building from NGOs, 13.7% are assisted by family and friends, 7.7% receive

financial help for business from NGOs and 7.7% indicated that the disabled are assisted with capital for starting tree nurseries from the National Council for People with Disability.

5.2 Conclusions

From the findings of the study, it is concluded that one of the ultimate perceived benefit of resettlement in Solio Scheme included land ownership. Land ownership enables households to own a house, engage in crop farming and own livestock resulting to marginal improvement in economic status.

Resettlement also results to relative peace of mind and high self-esteem among the resettled households. The study concludes that the indigenous people the resettled households found in the Scheme readily accept them but they experience inadequate social networks. Despite soil in the Scheme being fertile for agricultural activities, inadequate knowledge on farming practices results to households' inability to grow new crops in the area. This contributes to poverty and food insecurity in the households. The environment is also harsh resulting to poor health among some households.

The study concludes that the Scheme has inadequate welfare services. Out of the eleven examined welfare services, only schools and local administration are adequate and easily accessible. Water is available in the scheme but it is inadequate for household consumption and for farming purposes. Similarly, electricity is available but households cannot afford connection fees. Services such as health facility, recreational facility, commercial banks, police station/post, market Center, transport network, and agricultural extension services are not available in the

Scheme and households have to travel six or more Kilometers to access the services in the nearest town.

The study concluded that households resettled in Solio Scheme are at risk of joblessness, food insecurity, inaccessibility and unaffordability of health services, loss of access to common property such as grazing lands and declining land productivity. In addition, the households are at risk of inadequate family house facility, loss of social networks through scattering and separation with family and friends, risk of low self-confidence and a feeling of vulnerability and inadequate land for farming activities. The resettled households are at minimum risk of insecurity and lack of access to educational services.

The study concludes that, confronted by risks upon resettlement, persons in the resettled households have adopted both negative and positive coping strategies. Among the positive coping strategies adopted by the residents include seeking casual labour for an income, migrating to other areas, seeking relief food, borrowing soft loans from welfare groups and seeking God's intervention especially among women. The negative coping strategies adopted by households are idling in social places, deserting families, resigning to fate, and chewing of 'miraa' among the youths. However, it was evident that the negative coping strategies are more prevalent among men and youth than among women. In addition, child labour exists in some households. The study also concludes that while there is some assistance from NGOs for the special groups of HIV/AIDS victims and the disabled, it is inadequate and therefore the victims either depend on family and friends or resign to fate.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions from the study, the following recommendations are made:

- a. Resettlement programme planners need to incorporate risks and livelihood reconstruction strategies while settling internally displaced persons.
- b. The County government should implement a training programme to empower households on sustainable crop production practices.
- c. The County government may use the existing welfare groups to channel funds for environmental conservation and livelihood diversification.
- d. When allocating resettlement land in dry, arid and semi-arid areas, it would be appropriate to reserve the riparian river source for common use rather than use the centre line of the river as a boundary for individual land owners who in some cases, deny the herders rights of way to the natural watering points.
- e. Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme has vast areas with no trees typical of savannah grassland that allows wind to blow at high speeds. Energy from these winds can be tapped by way of wind mills to benefit locals as source energy.
- f. The County Government of Laikipia should initiate an irrigation programme for the resettled households by harnessed water from irrigation from Aberdare Mountains.
- g. The Ministry of Environment, in collaboration with the County Government, should sensitize the resettled households on the need to plant trees. The Government should give resettled households incentives in order to promote environmental conservation. Some NGOs were supporting the disabled with startup capital for tree seedlings nurseries but more needs to be done.

- h. The Government needs to give incentives to school going children in order to increase retention at school. While most provisions are provided by the Government, parents are required to contribute Ksh. 300 for each child to cater for support staff salaries. Most of the households in the Scheme could not afford such costs.
- i. Laikipia County government needs to upgrade access roads to the scheme to all weather roads to facilitate transport of farm inputs and produce to the market.
- j. Due to the current state of insecurity in the country, the Ministry of Interior security should establish a police post or patrol base in the Scheme to boost the few administration officers in the area. Even though crime levels are low, a unique kind of crime happened to a local administration officer who was kidnapped over a year ago.
- k. The residents have found ways of minimizing the cost of cooking fuel by using cow dung. In its raw form however, cow dung emits unrefined smoke that can cause respiratory problems and residents have also associated eye problems to this smoke. NGOs and the Ministry of Energy can provide technical aid to the residents to upgrade the cow dung to biogas.
- l. The County government should ensure that the Scheme has an operational medical facility.
- m. The Ministry of Devolution and Planning that caters for special interest groups can provide monthly stipend to the elderly in Scheme.
- n. While the stipend is being provided to elderly persons in other parts of the country, the elderly in the Scheme were yet to benefit.

5.4 Suggested Areas for Further Research

The following areas were recommended for further research:

- i. Exploration of livelihood reconstruction strategies among households resettled in Solio Ranch Resettlement Scheme would provide insights on what may be done to empower the resettled households.
- ii. Research on the resettlement process adopted for non-development induced displacements would provide insights on factors contributing to poor implementation of such resettlements and what may be done.
- iii. Since the research focused only Solio Ranch Resettlement, there is need to replicate the study in other resettlement schemes in Kenya.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Structured Interview Schedule for Solio Ranch Residents

Section A: Background Information

1. This questionnaire was filled by?

Male head []

Female head (husband away) []

Female head (Single mother) []

Female head (Windowed) []

Child head (both parents not alive) []

2. Initially, where were you before you were resettled in this area? _____

3. How can you describe the headship of your family

Male headed [] Female headed (Single mother) []

Female headed (windowed) [] Child headed (both parents not alive) []

4. What is your highest level of education?

Did not go to school [] Primary level [] Secondary level []

College level [] University level []

5. What is the highest level of education for your spouse (where applicable)?

Did not go to school [] Primary level [] Secondary level []

College level [] University level []

6. What is your main occupation? _____

7. What is your main source of income? _____
8. On average, what is your monthly income? _____
9. Do you have a bank account? Yes [] No []
10. Do you belong to any welfare group? Yes [] No []
11. What is the occupation of your spouse? _____
12. What is their main source of income? _____
13. On average, what is their average income? _____
14. Do they have a bank account? Yes [] No []
15. Do they belong to any welfare group? Yes [] No []
16. How many children do you have? _____
17. Please provide the following details concerning your children:

Child	Gender (M/F)	Age	Occupation	Level of education
1 st born				
2 nd born				
3 rd born				
4 th born				
5 th born				
6 th born				
7 th born				
8 th born				
9 th born				
10 th born				

18. Do you have other dependants? Yes [] No []
19. Please provide a description of the persons who depend on you

20. Characteristics of family house

a. Building materials? Stones [] Bricks [] Timber [] Iron sheets [] Mud []

b. Roofing materials?

Iron sheets [] Thatch []

Plastic cover [] Any other (specify)_____

c. Number of rooms in the family house? One [] Two [] Three [] Four []

d. Toilet facility? Pit latrine [] None []

e. Source of drinking water? Well [] River [] Piped [] Stream []

Borehole [] Harvested rain water []

f. Cooking energy source? Firewood [] Charcoal [] Grass [] Electricity []
Gas [] Paraffin [] Any other (Specify)_____

g. Lighting source? Kerosene lamp [] Electricity [] None []

Perceived benefits of the resettlement scheme

21. How would say the settlement scheme has benefited those who were resettled here?

22. In what areas have you improved in terms of your wellbeing since you were resettled here?

22. In what areas have you worsened in terms of your wellbeing since you were resettled here?

Access to social facilities and amenities

23. How would you rate availability and adequacy of the following social facilities:

Social service	Availability			Adequacy			Distance covered to access the service (in Kms)
	Yes	No	Not sure	Yes	No	Not sure	
Hospital/health facility							
Schools							
Recreational facility							
Commercial banks							
Police station/post							
Local administration							
Electricity							
Clean water supply							
Market centre							
Agricultural extension services							
Transport network							

24. What is your opinion regarding availability and adequacy of social services in this area?

Level of acceptance of the resettlement programme

25. Consider where you were resettled from. Respond to the following statements by inserting a tick (✓) in an appropriate response

Statement	Yes (Y)	No (-)
1. Overall, the resettlement programme was well implemented		

2. Overall, our standards of living have improved		
3. The resettlement area has friendly environment		
4. The resettlement land has soils of high quality for growing new crops		
5. The resettlement has resulted to other opportunities		
6. We view ourselves as strangers in this area		
7. The social networks we got here are inadequate		

Social economic challenges encountered

26. To what extent do the following challenges affect you in the resettlement scheme? Use the following key to answer: **1- To a very large extent 2: To a large extent 3: To a moderate extent 4: To a less extent 5: Not at all**

Challenge	1	2	3	4	5
General decline in land productiveness					
Inadequate land for farming activities					
Joblessness					
Food insecurity					
Inadequate family house facility					
Lack of self-confidence and a feeling of vulnerability					
Access to forests and forest products, to water bodies, and to grazing lands (Common property)					
Loss of social networks through scattering and separation with family and friends					
Access to infrastructure : roads and electricity					
Health : Accessibility and affordability					

Access to education facilities					
Insecurity					
Social evils/vices					

27. Are there any other challenges encountered in the scheme apart from the ones stated above? _____

28. How do the following groups cope with the various socio-economic challenges encountered in the scheme?

a) Men _____

b) Women _____

c) Youth _____

d) Children _____

e) The elderly _____

f) HIV/AIDS victims and the disabled _____

29. Which are the various organizations that promote the welfare of the households living in the scheme and what are their roles? _____

Thank You for Your Participation and Cooperation

Appendix II: Key Informant Interview Questions

1. Name of key informant
2. Your occupation
3. No of years lived or interacted with the area residents
4. How would you assess the success of the settlement project?
5. What services have you accessed in the scheme?
6. What are your comments about service delivery and accessibility?
7. Have you been involved in any community outreach or welfare programmes?
 - b) What was the mandate of this programme?
 - c) How would you measure its success?
8. How would describe the resettles interaction with the locals?
9. How would you describe the resettles' opinion about the natural environment in this scheme?
10. What are the various challenges encountered in the scheme?
11. How do the following groups cope with the various socio-economic challenges encountered in the scheme?
 - Men_____
 - Women_____
 - Youth_____
 - Children _____
 - The elderly _____
 - HIV/AIDS victims and the disabled_____
12. Which are the various organizations that promote the welfare of the households living in the scheme and what are their roles?