

Evaluating the Effects of Refugees' Settlement on Land Use in Host

Communities: a case study of Rwamwanja host

Community, Kamwenge, Uganda

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DEDICATION

This academic work is dedicated to the almighty father who has protected and blessed me during the duration of this course and throughout my life. It is also dedicated to my wife and family for their support, love and care given to me during my studies. Thank you so much and may the almighty father continue to bless you abundantly.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ECRE:	European Council on Refugees and Exiles
FAO:	Food and Agriculture Organization
GOU:	Government of Uganda
ICARA:	International Conference on Refugees in Africa
ILO:	International Labor Organization
IRD:	Integrated Rural Development
NGOs:	Non-governmental organizations
OPM:	Office of the Prime Minister
UN:	United Nations
UNHCR:	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNPD:	United Nations Procurement Division
WFP:	World Food Programme

ABSTRACT

This study sought to evaluate the effects of refugees' settlement on land use in host communities using Rwamwanja host community as the case study. The study was guided by three objectives which included indentifying Land conflicts between refugees and host communities, determining infrastructure developments on land of host communities and determining the effect of refugees on host communities on land and forest cover in Rwamwanja camp.

The study adopted a case study design with a cross sectional time dimension and data collected from a sample of 115 respondents. Semi structured questionnaires, interview guide and documentary review guide and focus group discussions were used in the study. Data was analysed and findings were presented in a tabular format displaying frequencies, percentages, Qualitative findings were presented in themes in a narrative form.

The study findings revealed that the refugee settlements in Rwamwanja were characterized by planned rural settlement with the nature of settlement mainly directed through official assistance by the Government of Uganda.

The study also established that refugee settlements had a positive infrastructural impact in the Rwamwanja community reflected by improvement in earnings from business and trade, employment, improved security and social relations.

It was also established that some negative social impacts of refugees' settlement were noted such as conflicts on land with local people. Furthermore, the study established that majority of the host community lost land and forest cover upon the arrival of refugees. The study therefore recommends that the Government of Uganda put in place stringent measures against environmental damage by refugees, it should implement mechanisms to ensure that host community take advantage of facilities availed and cost effective energy efficient cooking devices are utilized to curb on environmental degradation.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Backgrounds to the study

Most refugee situations are found in the world's poorest and unstable regions especially Africa (Kandoh 2014). Similarly, Grindheim (2014), in a study to explore the impacts of refugee camps on host communities noted that in most cases the refugee camps are located in the most remote poor and undesirable parts of the community; given the example of Kakuma refugee camp in Turkana Kenya where nothing grows agriculturally. He asserted that while refugees receive international aid, the Turkana who are equally poor do not; thus creating an imbalance that has resulted in the host community feeling hostile and blaming their problems on refugees. Thus, in an effort to host refugees, many host communities face various forms of challenges that require further investigation.

Uganda is one of the countries that is faced with refugee influxes (UN, 2016). She is located in the center of a region that has experienced many internal and internationalized civil wars and enormous extent of destruction and human suffering over the last half century (Kreibaum, 2014 p.5). She is currently hosting over 392,000 refugees and asylum seekers. Of these the majority, 47% are from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), 37% from the Republic of South Sudan and many other countries. Most of these refugees reside in refugee settlements provided by the Government of Uganda. Currently, the Congolese and South Sudanese fleeing to Uganda are granted prima facie refugee status while other nationalities are granted refugee status through an eligibility process (JAM, 2014 p.3).

Uganda had initially accommodated refugees with popular support until when their situation became increasingly protracted and return to their home countries was unconceivable.

Reluctance by the Ugandans was developed because the refugees were perceived to become a burden on public infrastructure and a competition in the labor market.

Haider (2014 p.12) also noted that the refugees have an effect to host communities in different ways. They include participating in attacks, changing the demographic composition and imposing heavy economic and social impacts on local communities. Similarly, Kandoh (2012 p.10) had earlier expressed concern that the host nations of refugees are challenged with regards to hosting, feeding, sheltering, educating, employing, identifying and utilizing the refugee human resource. Such conditions may create resentment of refugees among the host populations and could together with extreme refugee deprivation create a background for future clashes and conflicts.

Land use and benefits associated with the presence of refugees in an area. They include easy access to food, transport and market to buy and sell their goods, expansion of educational facilities and provision of clinics to the community (Boamah- Gyau 2010 p.20).

Uganda is one of the African countries faced with the influx of great number of refugees from South Sudan, Rwanda and Democratic Republic of Congo among others. These are mainly hosted in different camps found in various parts of the country. In Uganda, Kwangwali, Bidi, Rhino Camp, Nakivale, Kyaka and Rwamwanja are the major refugee settlement camps.

Rwamwanja is one of the oldest refugee camps in Uganda. The camp has hosted a diversity of refugees ranging from Rwandese in 1969 and 1994 and is currently occupied by those from the Democratic Republic of Congo. Therefore, this host community is believed to have a lot of experiences from hosting the refugees. Since they have hosted refugees from different countries they are believed to have rich information and perceptions on hosting the refugees. The refugees

are also believed to have a variety of implications on this community. Therefore, it is an appropriate and relevant target for the study

However, in 2012, the Ugandan government faced resistance and violence from such people in an attempt to re-open the camp to accommodate the Congolese refugees fleeing from political conflicts in the Democratic Republic of Congo. The government used forceful eviction though up to around 14,000 nationals remained. Thus it's against this background that the researcher what to investigate the effects of refugee settlement on land use in the host communities of Rwamwanja refugee camp.

1.1 Problem statement

Peaceful co-existence with a host population is important if refugees are to be accepted and live meaningful lives (Miledzi and Awusabo-Asare, 2011). The role of host populations in stabilizing the refugees is usually overlooked on assumption that hosts are supposed to submit to the overall political authority of the country. Understanding the implications of refugees on host communities on the refugee camps could be one of the ways to ensure a peaceful coexistence in the area.

In most cases, studies and international attention focus on refugee camps, the needs and problems of the refugees themselves but not effects the refugees have on the host community is often overlooked (Grindheim, 2017).

According to OXFAM (2016) Rwamwanja settlement camp has been experiencing land challenges between refugees and host communities and they have failed to recognize. The immediate effect of refugees on host communities is reduced to food accessibility and availability, pressure on land, competition for labor and wages, health and education. (United

Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, UNHCR, 2012). However there is little and less exhaustive research on the effects of the presence of refugees in host communities. Thus the researcher therefore attempted to investigate the effects of refugee settlement on land use in the host communities of Rwamwanja refugee camp.

Objectives of the study

1.1.1 General objective

To investigate the effects of refugee settlement on land use in the host communities of Rwamwanja refugee camp.

1.1.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives were;

- To indentify Land conflicts between refugees and host communities of Rwamwanja;
- To determine infrastructure developments on land of host communities of Rwamwanja;
- To determine the effect of refugees on host communities on land and forest cover in Rwamwanja camp.

1.1.3 Research Questions.

- What are Land conflicts between refugees and host communities of Rwamwanja?
- How are infrastructure developments on land of host communities of Rwamwanja?
- What are the effects of refugee settlement on land and forest cover in Rwamwanja camp?

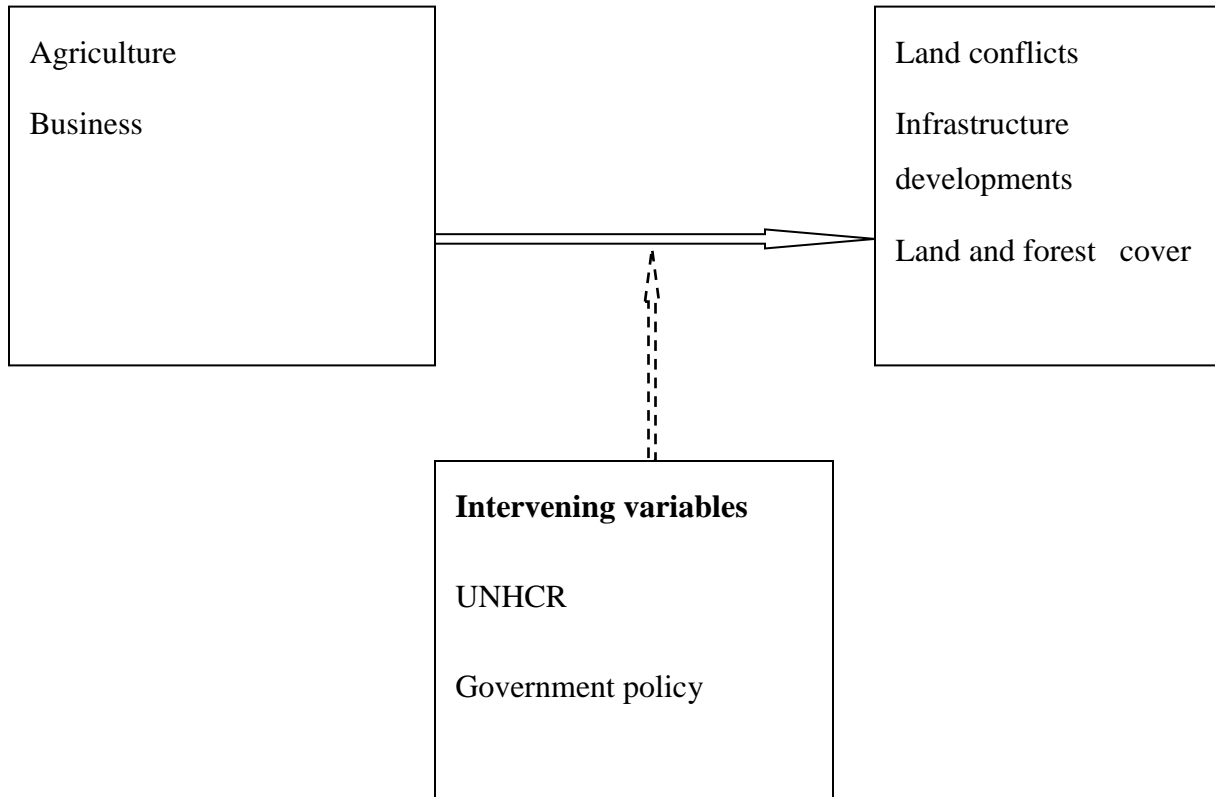
1.3 Conceptual Framework

Independent variable

(Refugee settlement)

Dependent variable

(Land use in the host communities)



Source: Developed From Literature Review

From the above Conceptual framework, it is clear that Refugee settlement as an Independent variable (as they can be measured by Agriculture, Business) affects Land use in the host communities a dependent variable (as measured by Land conflicts, Infrastructure developments, Land and forest cover). However, there are also moderating factors like UNHCR, Government policy).

1.4 Significance of the study

It is expected that the findings of this study will be beneficial to all the stakeholders concerned with resettlement of refugees. The study will inform them of the potential positive and negative

effects of refugee camps on land use in an area and will highlight mitigation measures for negative impacts of refugee camps in advance in a bid to improve the situation of hosts and refugees. It is also expected that the findings will be beneficial to the central and local government structures where the findings of the study will be utilized to improve future policy development and public interventions with regards to refugee settlements.

1.5 Justification of the Study

Numerous studies have been conducted and have highlighted the need of providing refugees with the necessary assistance such as food, water and temporary shelters. Rohwerder (2016) measured Sustainable livelihoods in Ugandan refugee settings and concluded that refugees located in rural settlements, whether on community-owned or gazetted lands, are able to access basic services, receive physical protection, and cultivate land provided to them for self-sustenance. His study, however does not point out the effects of refugees' settlement on land use in host communities. Little and less exhaustive research has been done to examine the implications of refugees' settlement on land use especially in Uganda, which has some of the largest camps in the world.

This study is therefore justified in the sense that it highlighted the effects of refugees' settlement on land use in host communities.

1.6 Scope of the study

1.6.1 Subject Scope

The study focused primarily on examining the effects of refugee settlements on land use in the host communities. Refugee settlement was used as the independent variable whereas effect on land use was the dependent variable. The study objectives included characterizing the pre-refugee resettlement status of Rwamwanja host community, to identify socioeconomic impacts

of Rwamwanja refugee camp on the host community and to examine the role of Rwamwanja host community on refugees' settlement.

1.6.2 Time Scope

The research study considered a period of study for 5 years ranging from 2012-2017. This is because in the last five years, influx of refugees from Congo into Rwamwanja settlement has been witnessed and therefore it provided enough and reliable data regarding refugee settlements and land use practices.

1.6.3 Geographical Scope

The study was carried out in Rwamwanja refugee settlement host community. The settlement is located in Kamwenge District in southwestern Uganda. It is home to nearly 70,000 refugees from different countries. It is managed by the UNHCR and the Ugandan Office of the Prime Minister's Department of Refugees (OPM). This community is of interest because Rwamwanja is one of the oldest refugee camps in Uganda.

1.7 Operational Definition of Key terms

Refugees: This refers to the people who due to political instabilities or other natural catastrophes have been forced to move from their original home areas to other areas seeking refuge,

Host communities: These are areas where the refugees have been settled waiting for stability of their original home areas

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Understanding the Refugee Settlements in Uganda

The World Bank, (2016) noted that for numerous decades, Uganda has been charitably hosting refugees and asylum seekers from over 13 countries, many conflict affected, in its neighborhood, including the Democratic Republic of Congo, Somalia, South Sudan, Rwanda, Eritrea and Burundi. Currently, there are more than 550,000 refugees and asylum-seekers in Uganda in nine host districts located mainly in the Northern, Southern, and Southwestern regions of the country. The most recent conflict in South Sudan witnessed a refugee inflow of an extra 50,000 refugees within a month. Uganda's refugee laws are among the most progressive in the world. In Uganda, refugees and asylum seekers have an entitlement to work; have freedom of movement in the country and can access Ugandan social services, such as health and education.

According to Rohwerder, (2016), refugees in Uganda are either self-settled or live in organized planned rural settlements that encompass almost 350 square miles of land set aside by the government of Uganda. Many refugees, especially in the northern districts, are in protracted displacement. Some refugees have the option of returning to their country of origin and some can resettle in a third country often in the West but doing so is expensive and not viable at a large-scale. Ugandan Constitution however, prohibits the naturalization of an offspring of a refugee, even if he or she is born in Uganda and even if one parent is Ugandan. The Uganda refugee policy, exemplified in the 2006 Refugees Act and 2010 refugees' regulations, contains numerous aspects: opening Uganda's door to all asylum seekers irrespective of their nationality or ethnic affiliation, granting refugees relative freedom of movement and the right to seek employment,

provision of prima facie asylum for refugees of certain nationalities, and allocating a piece of land to each refugee family for their own exclusive agricultural use.

World Bank, (2016) notes that the Social impacts are constrained by the underlying poverty and vulnerabilities exacerbated by weak basic social services delivery, poor infrastructure, and limited market opportunities in the refugee hosting settlement areas that impact refugees and host communities alike. However, refugees located in rural settlements, whether on community-owned or gazetted lands, are able to access basic services, receive physical protection, and cultivate land provided to them for self-sustenance. Refugees with some income or ability to fend for themselves are self-settled in urban centers. A commendable level of peaceful coexistence is evident between refugees and host communities in all of the settlements while intermarriages are reported in many settlements, contributing to improved relationships between the local host community and refugees.

Refugees in terms of employment, formal and informal, and access to productive capital varies in both rural and urban areas. More than 78 percent of refugees in rural settlements are engaged in agricultural activities compared with 5 percent in urban areas. The refugee labor force participation rate is at an average 38% compared with Uganda's 74 percent. A variety of nonfarm activities supplement agriculture, including trade, which is facilitated by the freedom of movement and right to work per the Ugandan Refugees Act. Business enterprises such as bars, hair dressing, milling, transportation, money transfers, and retail are run by refugees. In terms of employability and economic integration of refugees, almost 43 percent are actively engaged in the labor market of their host communities: 12 percent in the formal sector and 31 percent self-employed, (World Bank, 2016).

According to the United Nations, (2017), the number of South Sudanese refugees sheltering in Uganda has reached over 1 million, this has been described as an ugly milestone for what has become the world's fastest growing refugee crisis. The largest settlement hosting refugees from South Sudan is Bidi. It is comprised of roughly 230 square kilometers (88.8 sq. miles) and houses at least 272,000 refugees, making it the largest settlement of its kind in the world. Numerous NGOs and local organizations are supporting over 280,000 refugees with emergency food, clean water, and sanitation services such as toilets, activities and information to help people stay healthy and work and training to help people earn a living. Ugandan officials noted that they are overwhelmed by the flow of people fleeing South Sudan's civil war and the U.N. refugee agency urges the international community to donate more for humanitarian assistance.

According to UNHCR, (2017), an average of 1,800 South Sudanese refugees have been arriving in Uganda daily over the past 12 months, with another 1 million or more South Sudanese sheltering in the countries of Sudan, Ethiopia, Kenya, Congo and the Central African Republic. The number of people fleeing rose steeply after deadly fighting erupted once again in South Sudan's capital, Juba, in July 2016. Recent refugee arrivals continuously speak of inhuman violence, characterized with armed soldiers supposedly burning down houses with civilians inside, people being murdered in front of family members, sexual assaults of both women and girls and kidnapping of boys for forced recruitment. With refugees still arriving in their thousands, the amount of aid Uganda needs is continuously increasing and therefore, there is need to understand how these refugees can be integrated to settle and participate in sustainable livelihood activities such as agriculture. However, it's important to note that most of the refugees are women and children fleeing violence, often along ethnic lines, since the world's newest country erupted into violence in December 2013 and the conflicts in Congo. Ugandan refugee

officials have repeatedly warned the arrival of refugees is straining the country's ability to be generous to the refugees, who often are given small plots of land for building temporary shelters and planting crops when they arrive.

Rwamwanja Refugee Settlement is a refugee camp in Kamwenge District in southwestern Uganda. It is home to nearly 70,000 refugees, (Revolve, 2017). Rwamwanja Refugee Camp hosts refugees mainly from the Democratic Republic of Congo. The camp is situated on 41.9 square miles of land of which each refugee household is allocated a small portion of land for housing and agricultural activities to generate livelihood means. The Rwamwanja refugee settlement was initially opened for Rwandan refugees in 1964 and closed in 1995. It was reopened again in the year 2013 in response to the latest inflow of refugees due to the ongoing conflict in the Democratic Republic of Congo. With increased community participation in identifying the refugee's needs, many organizations have responded by supporting an integrated programme of food security, education, water and sanitation and environment and that also benefits Ugandan nationals living in the refugee hosting areas. However, there is needed to understand how these refugees can be integrated to settle and participate in agriculture for a sustainable livelihood.

Therefore, the government of Uganda through the office of the prime minister and UNHCR strive to reduce poverty and mitigate the risk for vulnerable refugees and their host communities. The close involvement of key stakeholders, such as local community leaders, district leadership, sector ministries, host communities, and refugees, are therefore imperative. A shift in the philosophy of refugee assistance is also crucial: refugees should be viewed as economic actors in charge of their destiny rather than as beneficiaries of aid. To ensure impact, the focus should be

on transformative investments that will address the pressing needs of refugees and host communities alike and that will jump-start local economies

Uganda has a long history of hosting refugees that dates back to the 1940s, when it hosted Polish refugees; Rwandese and Sudanese in the 1950s. Refugees were placed in gazetted areas in close proximity to the local populations such as in the settlements of Nakivale, Oruchinga, Kyaka 1 and II in Southwestern Uganda; Rhino Camp, Imvepi and Ikafe in the West Nile region; Acholi Pii, Parolinya and Adjumani settlements in Northern Uganda; and Kiryandongo and Kyangwali settlements in Central Uganda.. As a producer of refugees, the expulsion of the Indians by Idi Amin government in the early 1970's and subsequent persecution of the ethnic opponents (Acholi and Langis) marked the beginning of large outflow of Ugandans to seek asylum elsewhere.

Uganda hosts a multi-ethnic group of refugees who include the Rwandese, Congolese, Ethiopians, Kenyans' Sudanese and Burundians. These co-exist with nationals in the host areas where they share the infrastructures and services provided by the government, UNHCR and WFP. Today, active settlements include:-Kyaka II, Nakivale, Oruchinga, Kyangwali, Kiryandongo, Parolinya, Rhino Camp, Imvepi, Madi Okollo and the integrated camps of Adjumani

A number of refugees reside in Uganda under the protection of the government. These include Somalia, Sudan, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Burundi, Eritrea and many others. These have been given accommodations and land for those that can practice farming to meet some of their extra needs. The department also ensures the refugees are catered for until they return to their home countries when peace prevails..

The government of Uganda has maintained strong cooperation and collaboration with all stakeholders to provide a series of services to the refugees. In the implementation, a number of stakeholders have intervened to provide an array of services for sector specific activities for a noble cause. These include UNHCR, URC, AHAA, WFP, GIZ, the beneficiaries and the locals among others. The cooperation has enhanced social harmony, planning and execution of various activities.

The GoU generally believes that refugees are a potential source of political unrest, who need to be supervised, and should be settled in refugee settlements (Control of Aliens Refugee Act, ch.64) in order to avoid endangering national security and overburdening the infrastructure. However, the GoU also seems to have a fairly open mind about the presence of refugees; it allows some professional refugees, and in general those with means to cope, to settle in urban.

Theoretical Framework

Social Change

Social change is the significance alteration of social structures (that is patterns of action and interaction), including consequences and manifesting of such structures embodied in norms (rules of conduct), values, and cultural products or symbols.

Patterns of social change fall under two categories: cultural and societal forms. In cultural forms we have evolution, diffusion and acculturation. Revolution, modernization industrialization, urbanization and bureaucratization fall in the societal forms. My study only employed what the evolutionary, diffusion, acculturation and revolutionary change theorists posits.

The evolutionary change theorists focus on culture and technology to show how evolutionary changes take place in society. They demonstrate that the major source of change is a shift in a society's basic means of subsistence—for instance from agricultural to industrial. Because each subsistence level is more productive than its predecessor, the result is a greater economic surplus through which larger populations, more affluent, greater cultural diversity, the emergence of new statuses and roles, faster economic development and an ever increasing complexity and efficiency is made possible.

Bellah 1970 as cited by Vago⁴² views "evolution" as a process of increasing differentiation and complexity of organization which endows the organism, community, or whatever the unit in question with greater capacity to adapt to its environment than were its less complex ancestors.

Diffusion as the other pattern of change is the process by which innovations spread from one culture to another or from a subculture into the larger culture. This theory developed an alternative to evolutionary theories in positing that social change was the result of contact and diffusion among societies. Thus in my case values and norms of the refugees could have been diffused to and adopted by the host community. In Kroeber's words, a U.S. anthropologist of the mid-1940s as cited by Vago "whatever else diffusion does or does not involve, it does always involve change for the receiving culture. The total part played by diffusion in human culture is almost incredibly great." Murdock (1934) as cited by Vago estimated that about 90 percent of every culture known to history has acquired its elements from other peoples. Anthropologists have estimated that in world history about 4,000 different human societies have existed in which there has been a considerable amount of borrowing amongst them.

Diffusion is not always a one-way process, it can be reciprocal as well but in my study I will consider it in relation to the receiving culture. Another pattern of change that I will subject my study to is acculturation. Acculturation refers to taking on material and non-material attributes from another culture as a result of prolonged face-to-face contact. War, conquest, military occupation, or colonization; or it may be through missionaries or cultural exchanges are a few among the several ways such contact may come about. Migration, transportation of labour through slavery or penal deportations, trade, technical exchange, spread of institutions for the exchange of ideas are other sources that may generate contact. Acculturation usually brings about greater similarities between two or even more cultures in my case.

Acculturation plays a role in a variety of activities and behavior ranging from language use, frequency of sexual partners and condom use among the adults, delinquency among the adolescents and living arrangements in the later life.

In the problem of study, acculturation starts with the arrival of the refugees, aid workers, donors and administrators. The result therefore is the disorganization of the ecological, economic, and political bases of traditional tribal life. Vago asserts that at times acculturation can be both forced and planned. A good example is the colonial British office's attempt to "civilize" the "backward" native Africans. This entailed the teaching of the English language and the transmission of the rudimentary skills and technologies.

Petersen, as cited by Vago⁴³ also sees acculturation as the interaction between a constant and a variable- that is, between an essentially stable receiving culture and an adapting immigrant group. And lastly, acculturation is a form of change that is regulated by various degrees of convergence among cultures. It is not always disruptive and painful only that it is faster than

other forms of change but it may be well upsetting than gradual change. Another pattern responsible for social change is *revolution*. Goldstone as cited by Vago" sees a *revolution* as a fundamental, rapid and violent change in political organization, power relationships, stratification, economic property control and the predominant myth of a social order within a society. It is considered the most radical form of social change that entails forcible transfer of political power from one group of contenders to another in a society. Revolutions are capable of inducing changes of the largest scope involving all levels and dimensions of society including the economy, polity, culture, and social organization; the changes in these areas are radical.

There are two ideal types of revolutions: the left wing and the right wing. In the former, the goal is to change major social and political institutions. It involves redistribution of resources and wealth between the rich and the poor, provision for basic services such as health and education, land reform, and the nationalization of industries and commerce.

In the latter form of revolution, restoration of traditional institutions is its objective. Rather than try to achieve greater social equality through institutional change they lay emphasis on maintaining social order and traditional authority. The primary sources of major social upheavals are: economic fluctuations, increasing illegitimacy of the existing government, "relative deprivation", or rising expectations, economic conflict between classes, economic decline and status crises, military pressure, large scale corruption, and conflict among the elite among others.

While revolutions have many positive outcomes like redistribution of land, elimination of oppressive systems of land tenure and of hereditary privileges of traditional aristocracy, they too have brought about increases in literacy, improvements in education, medical care, greater equality, economic opportunities and independence to many. They have in most cases not fully

met their promises of greater freedom, equality for all and significantly improved material well being. They are responsible to some extent for the high price of wars, severe economic dislocations, internal strifes that have resulted in deaths of millions of people and even refugee outflows. It is within the framework of social change theories that this study was carried out.

There has been little academic research about the impact of refugees on host populations, although the issue has caused growing concern on the part of the international community and host governments (Callamard 1994). Since the 1980s, refugee aid and development (RAD) theories called for strategies linking refugee relief programs with local development policies (Betts 1981, 1984; Gorman 1993). The second International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa (ICARA II) in 1984 asserted that refugee assistance should be development-oriented and should take into account host population needs. Nevertheless, a number of factors impeded effective integration of refugee aid and development policies, including lack of support in donor and host countries, weak coordination between refugee and development bureaucracies, and difficulties integrating increasing numbers of refugees into development plans (Gorman 1994)

While RAD theories managed to draw attention to the situation of host populations, they were based on the fundamental assumption that refugees represent a problem or a burden, rather than an opportunity (Harrell-Bond 1986). Recently, it has been recognized that refugee migrations bring both costs and benefits to host countries (Kuhlman 1994; Sorenson 1994; Baker 1995). Refugees generally impose a burden on local infrastructure, environment, and resources. Refugees can also benefit hosts, though, by providing cheap labor to local producers, expanding consumer markets for local goods, and justifying increased foreign aid. Thus, the reception of

refugees can sometimes be seen as part of a government's broader development plan (Daley 1993)

In the end, though, these conceptualizations about the host country impact of refugee populations are too broad. Rather than asking whether or not the host country as a whole benefits, one should disaggregate the question: who benefits and who loses from refugee influxes and why? Refugees are assumed to have a different impact on diverse classes, genders, sectors, and regions within the host country (Chambers 1986; Kuhlman 1990;

Sorenson 1994), but little empirical research has been done on this issue. In addition, the situation is expected to be dynamic over time; what starts out as a liability may turn into a resource, and vice versa. This research seeks to contribute to this line of inquiry by examining not only the costs and benefits associated with the refugee presence, but also their variations among host populations over the past several years

One village in Ngara district with a local population of 10,000 people hosted more than 400,000 refugees within its boundaries. This paper is part of a larger project which explores the socioeconomic and political implications of the refugee presence for host communities in western Tanzania. The project examines the rational ways in which local populations responded to unforeseen changes in their lives. The research highlights the ways in which this local political context fits into an increasingly interconnected global environment. The current paper focuses on changing opportunities faced by host communities. The influx of refugees created a new context in which hosts devised strategies to gain access to incoming resources and to maintain access to their own resources. Differing strategies and structures allowed some hosts to benefit, while

others became worse off. In the end, Tanzanian hosts developed ways to cope with negative aspects of the refugee presence while taking advantage of positive opportunities.

The sudden presence of refugees and relief resources in western Tanzania significantly altered the lives of people who lived there. The opportunities available to host communities changed in both positive and negative ways. Although hosts experienced the changes differently, those variations are discussed in subsequent sections of the paper. This section focuses on the broad patterns which emerged during the course of the research. Changing opportunities were experienced in five areas in the local context: agriculture, environment, market economy, infrastructure and development resources, and way of life.

Agriculture is the primary occupation for more than ninety percent of the residents of western Tanzania, and also for the large majority of refugees who arrived in recent years. The sudden population increase most immediately affected food security in local villages, particularly at the beginning of the refugee influx. At first, villagers sympathized with the plight of the newly arrived refugees and contributed their own food. Hungry and tired refugees also helped themselves to local farmers' crops, especially along the main entry paths. One elderly man from the border area explained his experience:

I myself had one acre of sugar cane, but that year [1993] the whole farm was cut down because of all the people coming in along that route from Burundi. I had six acres of cassava, but it was all cut down by people who camped out there until they came up here to the camps. But there is nothing one can do about it. After all, war does not have eyes.

Even after refugees started receiving rations through the international relief operation, though, they continued to depend on local crops and livestock. Refugee rations consisted primarily of beans, maize, cooking oil, and salt. In order to diversify their diets, refugees sought other types of food, including meats, vegetables, and grains. They generally preferred their own staples of cassava, cooking bananas, and sweet potatoes, which were also produced by local farmers. Refugees therefore used a variety of strategies to gain access to these foods, including trading, purchasing, and stealing. With this huge increase in the market for local crops, the prices of foods such as cassava and especially cooking bananas skyrocketed. In response to these market forces, many Tanzanian farmers sold dangerously high portions of their own food stocks, thereby further threatening the food security of their own households (FAO 1995; NRI 1996).

Although beans and maize are also produced in western Tanzania, the World Food Programme (WFP) did not purchase these products from local farmers to distribute to refugees. A local-purchase system would have allowed farmers to benefit explicitly from the refugee presence, but it would also have pushed up prices, encouraged farmers to sell even more of their crops, and thus in a sense created famine within local communities. In order to avoid artificial scarcity of commodities, therefore, WFP bought its supplies from other regions of Tanzania and neighboring countries. This likely prevented the food security situation in western Tanzania from becoming worse. Nevertheless, in some areas, prices for these items plummeted as refugees sold their rations, and local farmers were unable to sell their own surplus beans and maize for any profit at all.

2.1 Land conflicts between refugees and host communities.

Generally, it is vital to place refugee - host population conflict over land in the context of Uganda's land tenure system. Land tenure is the mode of land holding, together with terms and conditions of occupancy. It is about 'the bundle of rights' held and enjoyed in the land resource. The relative degree to which individuals can profit from land resources is influenced by three factors: utilisation, duration of occupancy and relocation rights (Nuwagaba et al, 2015). It is important to note that ambiguities exist in land tenure systems in Uganda as a result of its colonial history. For instance, at independence in 1962, there were three land tenure systems: Mailo tenure, a system that was exclusive to the kingdom of Buganda and traced its origins in the Buganda agreement of 1900; Freehold tenure, a system created under the Crown Land Ordinance of 1903; the native freeholds, where the community control over land was woven into a number of land rights (Nuwagaba et al, 2015).

According to (Holborn, 1975:1212), the degree of enjoyment of the land resource has become a point of contention between host populations and refugees. At first, refugees were settled in sparsely populated areas and enjoyed good relations with the host populations. However, population increase and the advent of a cash economy increased the value of land, leading to strained social relations between refugees and nationals (Kasfir, 1988:158). Moreover, refugees are regarded as non-citizens who should not have any rights over land.

Land conflicts between refugees and host population can be attributed to two main factors, that is, exceeding of field or residential boundaries (encroachment) and acquisition by nationals (sometimes in the form of land loans). Land conflicts in the refugee hosting areas are partly attributed to lack of clear refugee settlement boundaries (; Nuwagaba, 2015; Bagenda, 2016).

The lack of clarity can be traced to reluctance of the Ankole kingdom to favour permanent settlement of refugees in 1962 when they were first given land to settle (Holborn, 1974:1223). As a result there has been increased encroachment on refugee land by nationals, a practice exacerbated by weak administration systems. For instance, some encroachers have even acquired land titles on gazetted land, since the procedure of acquiring a land title is very simple and open to abuse. All one needs is to fill out an application form from the district land board and take them to Local Council 1 (LC1) and have a 'neighbour' sign for confirmation.

After the District Land Board has confirmed, land is surveyed and a land title issued. The system has also been exploited by refugees, especially those of the 1959 caseload who have acquired land titles⁴ on settlement land. For instance, there is a case of a Rwandan refugee with a title for seven square kilometres of settlement land. Interestingly, it was also found out that the camp commandant of Nakivale refugee settlement has had to appear in court on charges of distributing land to refugees in the settlement.

Furthermore, there have also been disagreements between district administration officials and the government over land in refugee settlements. Part of the disagreements is because the government has refused nationals to use refugee land. One district official interviewed said that government has not always agreed with the district on matters pertaining to land conflicts in refugee settlement. The findings of the study revealed that in fact, some of the district officials are themselves encroachers on settlement land. Institutional responses are further hindered by migration of nationals from other areas, such as Nyabushozi and Bushenyi, because of land shortages. This migration is caused by anticipation that refugees will repatriate especially to Rwanda, DRC and leave vacant land in the settlements. On the other hand, refugees from

Rwanda are coming to Uganda because there is land for settlement (Bagenda et al, 2016). In response, government is in the process of resurveying the land and cancelling all land titles acquired on refugee land.

To further analyze the land conflicts, one also needs to understand the land problem in Rwanda. According to Hajabakiga (2014) Rwanda has a population of 9 million and a population density of 308 inhabitants per square kilometre. On a whole, this places pressure on land leading to landlessness. Limited access to land in Rwanda has also had an influence on the repatriation of Rwandese in that they prefer to stay in areas where they have access to land for their own livelihoods. For instance, it is this lack of land in Rwanda that has partly led to secondary refugee movements from Tanzania to Uganda.

Even some of the refugees who had repatriated after the genocide in 1994 returned to Uganda to repossess their land holdings in refugee settlements. When asked about their repatriation, Rwandan refugees indicated that they had no land to return to in Rwanda. Indeed, Hajabakiga (2004) observed that between the 1950s and 1980s many people in Rwanda lost their land rights for politically and ethnically motivated reasons. This, according to her, caused a problem when Rwandese repatriated after 1994 since they had no lands to repossess, and some of them ended up taking up the lands of those who had fled that same year.

Generally, conflicts over land in Nakivale can be perceived as ‘livelihood clashes’ between refugees and nationals, since land is a critical resource for supporting livelihoods (Mugerwa, 2017). Hence it is important to understand the interplay of various factors that influence access to and utilisation of land by both host communities and refugees. For instance, despite settlement size, each refugee household is given 0.04 hectares (20m x 20m) of land for homestead

establishment and 0.15 as agricultural plots. This leaves a large part of the land under-utilized providing room for encroachment by nationals in need of grazing land.

Quite often, animals stray into refugees' agricultural plots leading to a conflict between refugees and local populations. Usually, conflicts arise when livelihoods are threatened and this threat can be internal (within the households or communities) or external-from outside the households or communities (Mugerwa, 2017). At the centre of land conflicts are questions of ownership, access to and control over natural resources. Land is regarded by locals as belonging to Ugandans with refugees having no rights whatsoever. Regarding their interests in land, locals accuse the government of placing refugees' above those of the national population.

For refugees, access is determined by legislation, as land is allocated for a settlement. Paradoxically, settlements are sometimes established in non-agricultural productive areas, limiting livelihood opportunities. Furthermore, the government confines the refugees in the settlement, allowing them only limited freedom of movement. Refugees have had to devise survival strategies such as spontaneous movement out of settlements with no permission to do so.

Access to and control of land to a greater extent determines refugee's livelihood assets such as physical capital, natural capital, human capital, financial capital and social capital. Unfortunately, as Wengi (2014) points out, access and control are limited by their lack of resource rights. For instance, in most of Sub Saharan Africa, refugees do not own land and even what they produce on the land, is controlled by the hosts (World Bank, 2016; Verma, 2013).

Because of land conflicts and depletion of resources such as trees and arable soils refugees have been forced to look beyond the settlement for other sources. For instance, interviews with refugee revealed that they collect firewood and water five to seven kilometres away from the settlement. Travelling such long distances makes them vulnerable to sexual exploitation and gender based violence from both refugees and host populations. The distances also take away their valuable time to engage in income generating activities or to participate in skills training.

It was also established that women do not control proceeds from surplus food sold in the markets nor independently use the surplus from other household income generating activities. As a result, they are dependent on men for their daily needs a fact that greatly disadvantages them. For instance, because of their low income, women are denied access to dispute settling mechanisms in the settlements. For example in the case of land conflicts, Refugee Welfare Committees demand fees before they can settle a dispute. (World Bank, 2016).

On the whole, placement in rural settlements was based on an assumption that the refugee problem was temporal and would end as soon as the circumstances that led to their flight had ceased (Pincwya, 1998:8-25). However, this has not been the case and the government was not prepared for a protracted refugee situation exacerbated by an increase in the population of both refugees and nationals. Land conflicts between refugees and nationals are a result of government policy of settling refugees in gazetted areas (Kalyango & Kirk, 2002). Placement in rural settlements is based on the assumption that majority of refugees are of a rural background and can support themselves through agriculture until their repatriation (Kibreab, 1989; UNHCR, 2000, Jacobsen, 2001). Host populations first welcomed refugees as those in need of protection and also as would-be beneficiaries of infrastructure to be left behind on their repatriation (Harrell-Bond, 1986; 2002). However, as the refugee situation became protracted, hospitality

gave way to a competition for resources such as agricultural and grazing land, water and forest resources (Pirouet, 1988; Bagenda et al, 2002; Jones, 2002). This has not been helped by persistent refugee flows from Rwanda and the Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Somalia, Burundi and Ethiopia resulting in increased xenophobia against refugees and a call for them to repatriate.

Land is central to the sustainable livelihoods of rural households. For them it is not just land perse but arable and grazing land on which they depend for their livelihood. As a result, any conflict over land impacts the households directly, and this impact is gender differentiated (Verma, 2001:3-4). The impact of land conflicts on refugee women's livelihoods has to be situated in the larger context of land problems in Sub Saharan Africa.

These include but are not limited to growing land concentration and scarcity; competition over land use and environmental and land degradation. Other problems include corruption in land markets, indeterminate boundaries of customarily held lands, a weak land administration system, and a lack of equity in land systems (Tshikaka, 2004). Women's interests in land were eroded by colonial policies and agrarian change that never addressed the core issues of gendered accessibility and equity. For instance, processes of differentiation and individualisation of land rights and land shortages have resulted in the concentration of land rights in men.

While refugees receive international aid, the Turkana (who are just as poor) do not. Unfortunately this causes an imbalance that has resulted in the host community feeling hostile and blaming their problems on refugees. It also raises fundamental questions about human rights and equality since, in this case, the refugees who receive free shelter, food, firewood and healthcare, have better conditions than their hosts.²⁹ Similarly, in Chad and Darfur, "where there

are large congregations of displaced persons in an arid environment, there are huge demands on the scarce local water resources and this gives rise to friction with the local communities.

In Ghana, Liberian refugees are widely cited by Ghanaians as the cause of recent armed robberies and wife stealing. In addition, the Ghanaian population says that Liberians engage in illegal activities such as prostitution, drugs robbery and gambling.³¹ In Iran, the Iranian government claims that illegal Afghans pose threats to its national security especially given their possible contact with insurgents and narcotic traffickers near the Afghan border.³² In order to ease this tension, „refugee-affected area“ programmes have been established in Dadaab, their purpose being to ensure that local people derive some tangible benefits from the presence of so many refugees.

In Dadaab, locals claim that the major source of conflict between them and refugees is over grazing land and wood resources. Refugees graze their camels, cattle, donkeys and goats in community land since there is no grazing land in the camps. This refugee-affected“ programme has helped reduce this type of conflict and acts as compensation to the local population. Conflict between the refugee and host government is also evident. In January 2009 for example, several Somali refugees were arrested, particularly in Eastleigh in Nairobi for illegally being in the Kenya. Most of them were Somali refugees, from refugee camps, who had found their way to the City of Nairobi.

This was after several Muslims demonstrated against the arrest of Jamaican cleric Abdulla al-Faisal causing violence in Nairobi city. Given this general relationship between the locals, refugees and host governments, the issue of security becomes paramount. With these existing tensions around Dadaab refugee camps, the presence of arms around the region poses a real danger to Dadaab area as a whole. The easy proliferation of arms from Somalia is a big security

issue in the region and a possible solution has to be sought before the bitter reality dawns. With the presence of small arms and light weapons in the region, and with the ever-souring relationship between the locals and the refugees, the security of Dadaab and that of Northeastern and Kenya in general is of major concern. Relations between refugees and the surrounding host population often sour with increasing insecurity and environmental degradation being blamed on the refugee influx.

The Dagahaley, Hagadera and Ifo camps in Dadaab comprise the largest refugee site in the world. As of 5, July 2009, the site hosted an estimated 284,306 refugees, mainly from Somalia.

2.2 Infrastructure developments on land of host communities.

According to RAD theories managed to draw attention to the situation of host populations, they were based on the fundamental assumption that refugees represent a problem or a burden, rather than an opportunity (Harrell-Bond 2009). Recently, it has been recognized that refugee migrations bring both costs and benefits to host countries (Kuhlman 1994; Sorenson 1994; Baker 1995). Refugees generally impose a burden on local infrastructure, environment, and resources. Refugees can also benefit hosts, though, by providing cheap labor to local producers, expanding consumer markets for local goods, and justifying increased foreign aid.

Thus, the reception of refugees can sometimes be seen as part of a government's broader development plan (Daley 2013)

In the end, though, these conceptualizations about the host country impact of refugee populations are too broad. Rather than asking whether or not the host country as a whole benefits, one should disaggregate the question: who benefits and who loses from refugee influxes and why? Refugees are assumed to have a different impact on diverse classes, genders, sectors, and regions within

the host country (Chambers 2016; Sorenson 2014), but little empirical research has been done on this issue. In addition, the situation is expected to be dynamic over time; what starts out as a liability may turn into a resource, and vice versa. This research seeks to contribute to this line of inquiry by examining not only the costs and benefits associated with the refugee presence, but also their variations among host populations over the past several years.

In addition to overburdening the existing infrastructure, the refugee presence led to the diversion of development resources to the relief operation. In 1994, for example, contractor's equipment for a major highway in Ngara district was moved instead toward camp construction (Green 2014) before eventually returning to its original purpose.

The diversion of resources also included local human resource capacities. Throughout the area, people's time and resources were directed toward dealing with the refugee situation. The Ngara District Commissioner estimated that 75 percent of his office's time was used for 'refugee business,' i.e. receiving high-level international delegations, attending meetings, etc. In border areas, village and ward-level officials worked 24-hour days during the initial influx in their attempts to meet basic food, medical, and housing needs for the refugees. The work force dropped in many villages as people conducted business and worked in the camps. In villages closest to the camps, a number of children stopped going to school and instead conducted petty businesses. In a sense, the refugee presence put a hold on long-term development activities in host communities.

In response to these various negative consequences of the refugee situation for local infrastructure and development resources, international and local NGOs initiated development projects for host communities in water, health, education, natural resources, and infrastructure.

Early in the relief operation, the government and donors made a deliberate decision that Tanzanian hosts would not be compensated individually for damage related to the refugee presence. Instead, they decided to pursue a social compensation approach which would benefit host communities as a whole through rehabilitation of infrastructure and improvement of social services. The intent was to compensate Tanzanians collectively for the burden of hosting refugees, and to mitigate the impact.

Rarely do most policy-makers and programme implementers view the environmental impact of displaced persons in a positive light. A number of cases suggest that the intervention of donor agencies, host governments and the displaced persons themselves invariably impacts positively on the environment, and not least, economic, social and political aspects of the local community.

Self-settled refugees are often in constant contact with their hosts and in the process develop a strong modicum of co-existence in a variety of ways. In western Tanzania, refugees became a source of cheap agricultural labour for the villages thereby increasing the food base; their presence enhanced economic activity which provided new economic opportunities; the increased value of trees gave rise to reforestation by the host local population; the formerly sleepy district headquarters became beehives of economic activity and local trade increased substantially; and the new economic impulse created employment opportunities for the local people (Whitaker, 1999). In agricultural settlements in northern Uganda, refugees and locals not only intermarried but also engaged in livestock and land negotiations (Hoertz, 1996, quoted in Jacobsen, 1997: 26). Ethiopian and Eritrean refugees in Sudan had tremendous economic benefits for both themselves and their hosts (Harrel-Bond, 1986, quoted in Whitaker, 1999). These positive outcomes both for refugees and their hosts suggest that the presence of refugees in a host community is by no means retrogressive; invariably, it spurs socio-economic activities thereby benefiting both

parties. These benefits are likely to be replicated in different host communities of refugees in sub-Saharan Africa, especially where there is ethnic affinity between refugees and the hosts, as is the case with ethnic groups divided by a common international border, to belong to different countries.

Under the Refugees Act 2006, refugees in Uganda enjoy the same right to work as nationals. Refugees are allowed to set up businesses with a license from the local municipality, Kampala City Council Association (KCCA). However, registration with KCCA requires a substantial amount of fees. According to the research by Women's Refugee Commission in 2011, a license costs 108,000-280,000 Ugandan Shillings (UGX, about 54-140 USD) depending on the market location, which is a major reason why many refugees are keeping their business non-registered. With respect to the formal employment of refugees, different sectors of the government have different views on whether refugees do or do not need to apply for work permits (Bernstein 205: 28). The Refugees Act 2006 states that refugees have the right to work just like 'aliens in similar circumstances'. There is however confusion about the interpretation of the statement; while the Immigration Department interprets this to mean that refugees require work permits for formal employment, the Office of Prime Minister asserts that refugees do not need one (Women's Refugee Commission 2011: 9). During the fieldwork, I checked with some Ugandan government officials about this interpretation but their opinions were varied. There is a wealth of literature on the livelihoods of refugees in Uganda (for example, Kaiser 2006 & 2007; Werker 2007; Jacobsen et al. 2006). Given the increasing recognition of self settled refugees in the capital, recent years have seen burgeoning research on the livelihoods of Kampala-based refugees (Women's Refugee Commission 2011; Hovil 2007; InterAid 2009; Dryden-Peterson 2006). These studies on urban refugees paint the diversity of their subsistence and considerable differences in their economic

status. For instance, according to a study conducted by InterAid, a UNHCR Implementing Partner in Kampala, a large number of refugee respondents are making only sporadic income through petty trading, begging, and provision of services such as hair-dressing and translation (InterAid 2011: 18). On the other hand, while presenting a wide range of commercial activities employed by self-settled refugees in Uganda, Hovil underlines that some of these refugee enterprises are thriving (2007: 610).

With very limited access to arable land, few studies identified farming as a subsistence activity for refugees in Kampala. Previous research presents mixed findings about the relationship between refugees and Ugandan people in Kampala. Whereas many acknowledge the existence of xenophobia towards refugees in host communities, the levels of discrimination differ from mild to acute (Macchiavello 2003; Sandik 2011; Women's Refugee Commission 2011).

The need for expanding the food base induced refugees to cultivate and develop new irrigation schemes with local farmers in a number of villages in the Senegal River Valley, supported by the UNHCR (Black and Sessay, 1997: 64). This suggests that given opportunities to be proactive, refugees can provide impetus for the host-community development.

The responsibility of taking charge of refugees' welfare and more recently IDPs has for long rested with the UNHCR, humanitarian agencies, host governments, NGOs and even individuals. In many instances, the strategies of multiple agencies remain uncoordinated and duplication becomes renders them expensive and unsustainable.

Donor agencies tend to develop strategies for handling displaced persons within their own mandates. For example, the World Food Programme draws attention to lessons learned from multi-donor strategies by the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), UNHCR, the World Bank and development agencies of several developed countries. The eight lessons include: displaced persons as a threat to food

security; the need for environmental screening for development to take place; the need for relief agencies to become increasingly subject to environmental review; proper understanding of the food basket items (e.g. type and age) which affect fuel requirements and resource use; the need for stronger inter-agency coordination during relief and recovery; requirement for technical expertise to help avoiding environmental threats; the need for WFP country offices to have guidance on the use and disposal of chemicals; and the need for recycling and green procurement procedures throughout the WFP World Food Programme, 1998). It is not known the extent to which such vital recommendations have ever been implanted through inter-agency arrangements.

2.3 Land and forest cover of refugee settlement on host communities.

Impact on the lithosphere: Land, in particular its utilisation for farming and other uses, has an important place in displaced persons' survival strategies. Where land is a source of contestation between agriculturists and livestock keepers or between refugees or IDPs and the local population, it has generated heightened tension, often resulting in skirmishes or even precipitating civil war. As the tendency is to locate refugee camps in semi-arid or ecologically fragile regions, most camps are overpopulated, resulting in rapid land degradation. Jacobsen (2017) observes that the resulting soil degradation triggers overuse of resources, including cultivated fields that have to suffer shorter than usual fallow period, overgrazing by refugees' livestock and long-term soil fertility or degraded rangelands became things of the past. In western Tanzania, the same trend took place and land usage rights arose as refugees farmed the land without rotation which the locals had observed before the refugees came (Whitaker, 2009).

Impact on the hydrosphere: Displaced persons have a major impact on surface and ground water bodies, water being a necessity in human life. Poor sanitation infrastructure led to waste dumps all over villages in Guinea and lack of pit latrines led to cholera and meningitis epidemics, which induced UNHCR, UNICEF and the European Union to develop potable water for villages

adjacent to refugee camps (UNEP, 2016: 14-5), thereby benefiting both refugees and the local population. As relief camps are constructed under emergency conditions where haste rather than careful planning matters, wells are dug before the capacity of the aquifer feeding them is assessed, resulting in rapid depletion rates and/or decline in water quality (Hoerz, 1995a, quoted in Jacobsen, 2017). There have been instances where refugees competed for scarce water resources, depleting the water sources and forcing the diversion of river courses to the camps, away from the villages (Whitaker (2009).

Impact on the Atmosphere: Several activities by refugees result in interference with the equilibrium of atmospheric conditions. Unfortunately, this is a topic yearning for research, especially in SSA where the possibility of such research is rather remote given the divide that persists between natural and social scientists in the region.

The most often cited cause of climate change is deforestation which results in the escape of greenhouse gases on which trees rely. Conventional wisdom has underlined the point that increased levels of Carbon dioxide (CO₂) allowed rainforests to grow more quickly, locking away extra carbon in wood or soil mulch. However, recent evidence from the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute on Barro Colorado Island in the United States, suggests the opposite: that the tropical forests or the so-called “lungs of the planet”, are starting to grow more slowly, which implies that they may already be suffering from climate change and might not be able to lock away our CO₂ (Fox, 2007: 42). Thus research is not conclusive on what the past literature has underscored as conventional wisdom and further research might provide even more

The burning of forests and bushes, to provide room for settlement or farming results in the emission of gases that are harmful to human life. In the case of refugees and IDPs, it can be a great health threat as these displaced persons often live in crowded settlements. Moreover, in the absence of viable waste disposal facilities or carefully designed dumping sites, mountains of waste are a risk to environmental sanitation and a health hazard.

Refugees are settled in several possible ways, but there are two most preferred: first, “self-settlement” or spontaneous settlement amongst the local community where they remain unregistered and depend on unofficial assistance from the local people; and second, “camp settlement” either voluntarily or relying on the support of the host government and relief agencies where they are registered, receiving official assistance (Zetter, 1995, quoted in Jacobsen, 1997: 21). The impact of spontaneously settled refugees is different from those formally settled because their responses in the environment are different. Jacobsen (1997: 23-26) observes that camp settlement precipitates environmental problems, initially with “start-up” costs of bulldozing to clear land for the camp and thereby destroying the resources in site; insatiable basic need of the camp population that depends on resources in the vicinity; the difficulty of satisfying the day-to-day operation of camps through the control of disease-carrying vectors (rats, mosquitoes and other parasites), using insecticides and pesticides that contaminate the soil and water for human beings and animals(Gurman, 1991, quoted in Jacobsen, 1997: 24); and water accessibility constrained by poorly planned supply sources.

In areas where large numbers of refugees reside, their impact on the environment can be substantial. The positive implications of this impact are not well documented and can depend on the situation in which refugees reside. However, information on this subject can still be gleaned. For example, the productive capacities of refugees increases significantly when they have

adequate access to land and natural resources (World Bank, 2010, p. 15). This leads to increased crop production and access to water and firewood, which in turn leads to a reduced burden on host communities and aid agencies that support refugees (World Bank, 2010, p. 15). Unfortunately, this increase in access to natural resources means the negative implications still exist, one of the largest of which is a depletion of trees in areas heavily populated with refugees. In Sudan, along the border of Eritrea, the presence 66,000 refugees have stripped the area bare of trees. To combat this, the UNHCR has planted 19 million trees in the Kassala region as part of its efforts to assist and protect refugees in that area. UNHCR also trains and recruits refugees and locals alike to plant donated seeds with materials given to them for this purpose. Additionally, UNHCR helps to provide cultivated farmland to achieve environmental and economical sustainability. The forestation and farmland cultivation helps to provide for 15,000 locals and refugees alike. It also helps to protect the environment in which the refugees reside (UNHCR, 2011). Initiatives such as these help transform disastrous environmental consequences that often result from the presence of refugees into positive assets that everyone can benefit from Burden.

The burden of refugees is well known around the world. Aid agencies and governments alike work to help relieve their burden. Celebrity ambassadors such as Angelina Jolie with UNHCR and Scarlett Johansson with Oxfam bring awareness to the plight of refugees by advocating for improved conditions among refugees A central component of this improvement lies in understanding the burden that refugees pose on their host countries. Knowing how refugees are a burden helps to pave the way for policies, programs and initiatives that help to alleviate the suffering of refugees and improve their quality of life.

Arrival of refugees adversely impacts infrastructure and development resources. A case in point is western Tanzania where the refugee influx forced refugees to sleep in the classrooms of border-area schools, burning desks as firewood, filling the available latrines and overstressing local health facilities (Whitaker, 1999). As people in dire need of help which often arrives late, refugees help themselves to anything that would make them survive, even if precariously.

The presence of refugees has been associated with an influx of diseases, as in western Tanzania where there were outbreaks of measles, high-fever malaria and intense dysentery, skin disease like scabies and worms and sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) including HIV/AIDS after refugees arrived (Whitaker, 1999). However, such associations could be spurious, especially because the area had epidemics of these diseases before refugees moved in. Like all other migrants, refugees bear the blame about things for which they are hardly responsible.

Pollution is another environmental problem occasioned by displaced persons. Determined to subsist at any cost, displaced persons deliberately or inadvertently pollute surface water, in the process giving rise to infectious diseases that threaten both human life and wildlife (Kalpers, 2001;6).

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One of the major effects that refugees have on the host country is economic impact. The extent to which refugees supply the economy is relative to how much they take from it, is one of the most contested issues surrounding asylum policy. It is frequently thought that refugees are of little economic value and make initial demands upon arrival on the host government that end up being at the taxpayer's expense.

The economic impacts that refugees have on the host countries have both positive and negative contributions. The first positive contribution is that refugees can provide their skills and knowledge that can be used towards the benefit of local people. For example well-educated Iraqi refugees living in Jordan can work as staff at hospitals and universities. These Iraqis do indeed contribute to the Jordanian economy. The second positive contribution is associated with refugee's access to transnational resources provided by other refugees or co-nationals living abroad, which includes social networking. Finally, the presence of refugees can somewhat contribute to the creation of employment benefiting the local population, directly or indirectly.

On the other hand, there are some negative contributions of refugees. First, when refugees arrive, the people who live in the host state that lack access to resources, education or power can be further marginalized. Second, the demand for food and other commodities will increase, which will lead to price rises in the host state's market. The rise of prices will somewhat affect the local citizens. In the case of Jordan, one of the reasons for the price hike that we see today occurred because of the increasing number of Syrian refugees entering the country each day. According to varying studies assessing the economic indicators on a host country by arrivals of refugees are: per-capita GDP, inflation, wages, employment, government expenditure, or living costs.

The dynamics and challenges of armed conflict and insecurity in a refugee environment is a complex. As it emerged, insecurity as a result of armed conflict in the refugee camps is a complex one and difficult to deal with because of the interests of UNHCR as a refugee protection agency and those of GoK as the host state. The attachment of refugees to their home countries complicates it even more and political events in those countries have often affected the stability of refugee camps. The location of refugee camps near the border of their home countries has

sometimes exposed the neighbouring countries into danger of aggression. The fact that refugees are under UNHCR mandate, while at the same time subject to Kenyan law calls for a closer collaboration between GoK and UNHCR in dealing with armed conflict of any kind. Although refugees are a matter of humanitarian concern, there is need to understand the political implication of hosting refugees-the threat to national and international security. There is therefore the need of striking a balance between obeying international obligations and that of protecting national interests. A proper analysis of refugee security dynamics may lead to the development of policies guaranteeing sustainable peace and security in the refugee camps and in the host state at large.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 Research design

The study embraced a case study design with a cross section dimension employing both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. According to Amin (2005), a case study provides an in-depth study of the problem with limited time scale. Quantitative data was gathered from the study sample which was explained and interpreted for analytical purposes while qualitative data elicited the views and perceptions of the sample population on study. Primary data was collected through household interviews and focus group discussions while secondary data was collected through document review.

3.1 Area of the Study

The study was done in Rwamwanja refugee host community. The camp is located in Kamwenge District in southwestern Uganda. It is home to nearly 70,000 refugees from different countries. It is managed by the UNHCR and the Ugandan Office of the Prime Minister's Department of Refugees (OPM). This community is of interest because Rwamwanja is one of the oldest refugee camps in Uganda. The camp has hosted a diversity of refugees ranging from Rwandese in 1969 and 1994 and is currently occupied by those from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). Therefore, this host community is believed to have a lot of experiences from hosting the refugees. Since they have hosted refugees from different countries they are believed to have rich information and perceptions on the refugees.

3.3.2 Sampling procedure

According to Trochim (2006), sampling is a process of selecting elements from a population of interest so that judgments may be drawn about the whole population from a study of the sample.

The researcher employed a combination of simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques in selecting the sample of the respondents. Simple Random Sampling was described by Creswell and Clark, (2011) as the selection of elements from a sampling population where each unit has an equal chance of being included in the sample while Purposive Sampling as a technique that involves recognizing and selecting individuals that are mostly knowledgeable about a subject of interest. Simple random sampling was used to select respondents for the household survey while purposive sampling was used to select key informant interviews.

3.4 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

The type and nature of data often determines the methods of data collection. The study utilized both primary and secondary data. Primary data is data observed or collected from first-hand experience for a specific purpose (Saunders *et al*, 2007). Secondary data collection was done to obtain literature on the study and supplement findings from the primary data.

3.4.1 Data collection instruments

3.4.1.1 The interview guide

An interview guide containing structured and semi structured questions was used. It contained questions designed basing on the 5 Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The open ended questions invited free responses to the questions therefore helping the researcher to get unbiased information and the closed ended questions allowed respondents to choose from the different alternatives. This enabled the researcher to obtain accurate information from the households in the host community.

3.4.1.2 Checklist of questions for key informant interviews

Interview with key informants was by use of checklist of questions which were administered to them while the researcher was taking notes. The key informants targeted for the interviews include Local council 1 (LC1) chair persons of the host community. Five villages were visited and five chair persons were interviewed. These leaders were preferred because they were thought to interact directly with the refugees and therefore believed to have firsthand information on refugee-host interactions and relationships.

3.5 Quality Control Methods

Quality control was done to ensure that the questions in data collection tools collected the right data and consistently. This was done through testing validity and reliability.

3.5.1 Validity

Validity is concerned with whether data collection tools will give actual or right information which could answer the objectives (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003). To ensure Validity, the researcher administered a questionnaire to a sample; 10% of the respondents in order to determine whether the questions were appropriate and generated the required information. The researcher used the coefficient of validity index method (CVI) to determine the validity of the questionnaires.

Where; CVI = Coefficient of validity index. A CVI of 82.9% from the questionnaire items was determined. Bryman and Bell (2011) noted that for an instrument to be valid, it has to have a percentage of above 50% or 0.5. The CVI of 82.9% implied that the research tools were valid in their measurement of constructs.

3.5.2 Reliability

Reliability is the measure of the degree to which the research instrument yields the same results after repeated trials (Amin, 2005). It is intended to establish whether data collection tools will yield consistent data. To ensure reliability in the study, the household interview guide was subjected to internal consistency reliability. The internal consistency reliability was utilized because it is estimated after only one test administration and therefore eliminates the need and cost of retesting over multiple time periods. Cronbach's alpha was used to estimate the reliability of the measures used in the household survey tool with items designed based on the 5 Likert scale. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.781 was obtained. Mugenda (2008), states that reliability values greater than 0.7 are acceptable therefore the questionnaire tools were found to be reliable.

3.6 Data analysis

After collecting all the necessary data, these data was coded and edited, analyzed and rephrased to eliminate errors and ensure consistency. It involved categorizing, discussing, classifying and summarizing of the responses to each question in coding frames, basing on the various responses. This was intended to ease the tabulation work. It also helped to remove unwanted responses which would be considered insignificant. Data collected from the field with the use of study instruments was classified into meaningful categories. This enabled the researcher to bring out essential patterns from the data that would organize the presentation. Data was entered into a computer and analyzed with the use of statistical packages for social science (SPSS). Finally, a research report was written from the analyzed data in which conclusions and recommendations were made.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Permission was sought from the University to carry out the research. The researcher sought permission from the Local authorities and obtained informed consent from the participants in the study. To ensure confidentiality, information was used only for the purpose of research. All the names of respondents were kept anonymous and their responses during data collection were treated with utmost confidentiality.

3.8 Limitations of the Study

The researcher faced some difficulties such as being limited by the reluctance of some respondents to answer the questions promptly. In this case the researcher ensured patience and probed for more information in order to get satisfied with the responses. Another challenge the researcher faced was the busy schedule of the respondents who were working in their gardens. The researcher therefore found the respondents in their gardens and interviewed them without necessarily having to first stop them and be interviewed.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.0 Response Rate

From the study, out of the sample 127 respondents that were targeted, 115 respondents were obtained and interviewed. This represented a response rate of 90.5% and as Amin (2005) suggested, a response rate equivalent or more than 50% is acceptable.

4.1 Background Information on the Respondents

General characteristics of the respondents were explored as shown in tables 4.1. They include Gender, Age group, Marital Status and level of Education.

4.1.1 Demographics of Respondents in Rwamwanja Host Community

Results from Table 4.1 show that 62.2% of the respondents were females while 37.8% were males. This could partly indicate that most of the households are female headed compared to the few male headed households. Also to note is that since some interviews were done while respondents were in their gardens, it could be possible that more females than men were reached. This could be true because in African setting, most of agricultural activities are done by wives and their children while Business is left for men.

Table 4 1: Showing Demographics of respondents (N=127)

Response	Percentage
Gender	
Male	37.8
Female	62.2
Age of respondents	
35 years and below	53.1
Between 36 and 55 years	17.3
56 years and above	29.6
Education Levels	
Never attended school	14.3
Attended Primary school	25.5
Attended at Secondary School	48
Attended University	12.2

Source: Data Analysis, 2017.

The study also considered the age of the respondents. From Table 4.1, majority (53.1%) of respondents were aged below 35 years while the minority (17.3%) were those aged between 36 and 55 years and (29.6%) were aged 56 years and above. This thus shows that majority of the respondents fall in the youth age group that is; 35 years and below. Therefore, Rwamwanja host community mainly composed of the youth and this is a characteristic of a fast growing population.

Furthermore, from Table 4.1, the majority (48%) of the respondents had attended secondary education while (25.5%) had attained primary education. The minority (12.2%) of the respondents had attained an undergraduate degree from a university and only a few respondents (14.3%) never attained any education. Most of the people in Rwamwanja host community had at least attained education. This indicates that this population could have benefited from education services that were put in place in order to educate the refugees. The educational level of the respondents was also important indicator of their knowledge on the study topic.

4.2 Presentation of Findings

This section portrays the findings as per the objectives of the study. The findings are summarised into tables.

4.2.1 Land conflicts between refugees and host communities

Results in Table 4.2 show that before refugees' settlement in Rwamwanja, most of the land was utilized for agricultural purposes (80.3%) and only 19.7% was forested grassland. Most of the Ugandan population depends on subsistence agriculture for food and income so it is obvious that the biggest percentage of land where the refugees were resettled was put to agricultural use before they came in. However, the results showed that most of the land (494.21 acres) was owned by government. Interviews with key informants revealed that the government land was demarcated from the natural equatorial rain forest vegetation of Kibale and Kitaka forests and rich natural grasslands. It was also revealed that each household possessed at least an average of 3.1 acres of land prior to the refugee's settlement. This presented an opportunity for more land for the native people to engage in agriculture. This could explain the major cause of conflicts (67.2%) that was revealed by respondents which are between refugees and host communities.

Table 4.2 Land conflicts between refugees and host communities of (N=127)

Responses	Percentage response
Land Use before Refugee Settlement	
Agricultural land	80.3
Forested land	19.7
Levels of conflicts on land	
High	67.2
Low	23.0

Source; Data analysis, 2017.

4.2.2 Infrastructure developments on land of host communities of Rwamwanja.

Table 4.3: Infrastructure developments on land of host communities of Rwamwanja; (N=127)

Responses	Percentage (%)
Infrastructure developments	
Business and trade	50.8
Hospitals	10
Roads	4
Network coverage	16

Source; Data analysis, 2017.

From Table 4.3, it was revealed that different developments on host community (50.8%) of the respondents revealed that there was development in Business and Trade because different trading centers evolved due to the coming of refugees, this was followed by those (16%) who revealed that telecommunication networks improved in the area, (10 %) revealed an improvement Hospitals

Table 4.3 again shows that most of the respondents (42.9%) had stayed in Rwamwanja host community more than 8 years while they were closely followed by 25.5% who had stayed in the host community for 6-7 years. The minority; 3.1% had stayed in the host community for 4-5 years. While this reveals that there are still a number of people flocking to the Rwamwanja refugee host community, some of the reasons for this could be fertile soils for agriculture since

the majorities in this area are engaged in farming involving the growth of crops. Another reason could be trade or business opportunities with the refugees because a relatively big number of respondents (37.8%) are engaged in business.

Table 4.3 also shows that Rwamwanja is composed of refugees from different areas. The majority are from Congo (87.7%) and a few from Rwanda (7.2%) and Burundi (5.1%). Discussions with the community leaders revealed that the Rwandan nationals left Rwamwanja after the ethnic conflicts had ended in the 1990s and the camp was closed. However, the onset of the war in Congo increased the influx of refugees into Uganda and the camp was reopened to accommodate them and as such, they form the majority of refugees in the camps today. This is in line with the arguments of Deng, et al., (2010) who noted that ethnic conflicts often lead to refugees in Africa for example this type of migration was visible with the Congolese and Rwandans who ended up in Rwamwanja Refugee Settlement in Uganda. In Congo and Rwanda, the majority of the refugees were displaced by political and ethnic conflicts. This therefore implies that pre-refugee settlement is characterized by refugees fleeing situations of insecurity arising from political instability and civil wars such as the recent war in Congo, the genocide in Rwanda from 1990-1994 and more recently the political unrest in Burundi drove majority of the refugees to leave their countries of Origin into refugee camps like Rwamwanja in Uganda.

Results in Table 4.3 above show that 61% of respondents had lost land to the refugee settlement. However, though the majority had lost land to the refugees, only an average of 0.8 acres (Table 4.3) of land was lost from each of the households in the host community. However, since the lost land was agricultural, it should not be ignored that to some extent, this affected the availability of viable land for agriculture, thereby affecting agricultural production in the host community. The current average land ownership is 2.1 acres (Table 4.3). However, the results from key informant interviews revealed that when land was being identified by the government for the resettlement of the refugees, land owners in the host community were compensated for the land lost. But in most cases, the money given to the host was not used to acquire more land somewhere. Thus, a lot of agricultural land was lost to the refugee resettlement permanently. Therefore, it can be concluded that refugee settlement affects the availability of Land in the host community.

4.2.3 The role of host communities on refugees' settlement in Rwamwanja.

In this section, the role played by Rwamwanja community in resettling refugees in the area was examined in a multiple response analysis whose results are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Nature of Host community participation (N=127)

Nature of participation	Percentage response
Offering land / shelter	56
Offering food items	34
Employment	10
Offering other relief aid items upon arrival	3
No participation	5

Source: Data analysis, 2017.

The results in Table 4.5 show that upon arrival of refugees, most of the community members offered land (56%) and food items (34%). Results from the key informant interviews revealed that on the arrival of refugees, the then community leaders held consultations with the government of Uganda for land to be allocated for resettlement of the refugees fleeing ethnic conflict from Rwanda in the 1990s as well as the Congolese. It was agreed that government land and small portion of individually owned land should be allocated for the refugee resettlement.

Results in Table 4.5 further revealed that a relatively big number of households (34%) participated in offering relief food items including water, cooked and un cooked food to the refugees who were begging for anything available to eat at the time of their arrival. Equally important, a number of households (10%) offered employment opportunities to the refugees. It was revealed from the results of key informant interviews that most of the refugees were

employed as casual laborer, digging in the natives' gardens for money or food. Other relief items in form of utensils, fire wood, clothes, and blankets among others were offered to the refugees by a few respondents (3%). On the other hand, some members of the community (5%) had nothing to offer to the refugees up on arrival. Therefore, Rwamwanja host community offered a good and conducive environment for survival and settlement in the area. The findings are in line with Mackreath, (2014), who noted that host communities play a significant role in assisting refugees as they may support a number of shelter strategies at the same time, either directly, or indirectly as a by-product of the other shelter strategies for the refugees.

Results from key informant interviews also revealed that the host community participated in the identification of refugee needs after interaction with them on arrival. It was noted that the host community were better suited to identify the needs of the refugees because they interacted and lived with them. It was noted that the identification of refugee needs has enabled organizations especially Humanitarian and relief aid organizations to provide support geared towards addressing specific needs of refugees. The findings were in line with Jacobsen (2009), who asserted that there is increased local host community participation in identifying the refugee's needs and therefore many organizations have responded the plight of refugees by supporting integrated programmes of food security, education, water and sanitation and environment and that also benefits host country nationals living in the refugee hosting areas. From the findings, it can therefore be concluded that the host communities play an important role in the identification of refugee needs at the time of their arrival.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following conclusions and recommendations were derived from the results of the study.

5.1 Conclusions of the Study

The main objective of this study was to examine the impact of refugee's settlement on land use in host communities. From the findings therefore, the following conclusions were drawn;

The study established that Rwamwanja refugee settlement in Kamwenge district was planned rural settlement by the government of Uganda to accommodate refugees from the neighboring countries of Congo, Rwanda and Burundi amongst others. Official assistance from the government of Uganda was primary way in which refugees are settled into the Refugee settlement. It can therefore be concluded that pre-refugee settlements are characterized by planned rural settlements and official assistance from the hosting government.

The study established that refugee settlement in host communities improved earnings from business activities, employment opportunities increased, social amenities like health facilities were improved albeit inadequate to cater for the whole community. It was also established that the community is secure from external threat while refugees and host community members live in peace and harmony. Social relations were improved however environmental resources were being depleted. It can therefore be concluded that refugees' settlement has to a great extent had a positive impact on the socioeconomic status of the host communities. It is also important that the negative impacts of refugee's settlement on the socioeconomic status of the host communities are not overlooked.

From the findings, it was found that refugee's settlement in Rwamwanja led to land loss, majority of which was meant for agricultural purposes and therefore it can be concluded that refugee settlement in host communities affects the availability and access to land for major activities such as farming and agriculture.

The study also established that the host community played a major role in the refugees' settlement through the allocation of land for settlement and construction of shelters, coupled with the provision of relief aid and participation in the identification of refugee needs for humanitarian and relief agencies. It can therefore be concluded that the host community plays a significant role in the settlement of refugees.

5.2 Recommendations of the study

From the conclusions of the study drawn, the following recommendations were suggested;

It is recommended that the stakeholders for refugee settlement including the government of Uganda have to put mechanisms in place to ensure that the local host community takes advantage of the facilities availed to the refugees in a bid to improve the social economic development of the host community, for example; taking advantage of amenities such as schools, hospitals

Both the refugees and host community members desire to live in a peaceful co-existence. Therefore, for this to effectively occur, Non-governmental organizations and international agencies should create and implement strategies for incorporating the local community in the existing education, skills-building, medical and psychosocial projects in the refugee camp. They should designate a better part of their annual spending towards projects that will nurture peaceful co-existence amongst the refugees and host communities.

Similarly, the government of Uganda should implement stringent measures against the criminal offences by the refugees. This can be through instituting mechanisms to ensure broad based legal protection for the local community that include could possibly include the increase in the security personnel in the camp.

It is also recommended that a participatory needs assessment be undertaken where both the refugees and local host community member are involved in the whole process right from identification of their needs, prioritization, planning, implementation and evaluation of such programmes. More importantly, the refugee agencies should raise resources aimed at offering services that are at par with those that are directed to the refugees.

It is also recommended that the refugees consider using alternative cost-effective energy efficient cooking devices to curb on the consumption of firewood for domestic needs. Energy and fuel supply seems to be the most serious environmental issue associated with refugee settlements therefore refugees should embrace the use of energy saving practices.

5.3 Suggestions for further research

A number of key issues were identified during the course of the study but they were not sufficiently investigated or discussed. These issues require further investigation:

There is need for a more detailed research to be conducted on the role of humanitarian agencies as a response to the plight of refugees in Host Communities.

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APPENDICES

List of Appendices

Appendix 1: Krejcie and Morgan (1970) Table for sample size determination.

TABLE 1
Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384

Note.—*N* is population size.
S is sample size.

Appendix 2: Household interview guide

Dear Sir/ Madam,

The researcher is in his final year of study pursuing MSc. Monitoring and Evaluation from Uganda Martyrs University. He is undertaking a research study entitled: *Evaluating the effect of refugees' settlement on Land use in Host Communities*. You have been identified as one of the respondents and are kindly requested to respond to the questions as honestly as possible. Please note that the researcher respects your privacy and the information you provide is confidential and strictly for research purposes.

SECTION A: HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

1. Age
2. Gender:
3. Level of education
4. Length of stay in the area?
5. How much land do you own in acreage?
6. What is the origin of the refugees?
 - a. Reasons that forced them to come to Rwamwanja?
Insecurity.... Natural disasters..... Education..... Others, Specify.....

SECTION B: Pre-refugee Settlement Characteristics in Rwamwanja

1. What was the nature of Land use before refugee resettlement?
Agriculture..... Residential Settlement..... Other.....
2. What was the nature of land ownership before refugee settlement in the host community?
Government Owned..... Individually Owned..... Communally owned.....Others.....
3. What acreage of land is Government owned?
4. What was the average size of land owned before settlement of the refugees?
5. What were the major crops grown in the area?
6. What were the main types of animals reared?

**SECTION C: Socioeconomic impacts of refugee settlements on the host community of
Rwamwanja.**

1. What are the major sources of Income of the host community?

.....

2. Indicate which degree you agree with the following aspects of career management. Please use the scale below to answer the following questions by ticking. 1- Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree 3-Not sure, 4 Agree, 5-Strongly Agree

Economic Activities	1	2	3	4	5
Earnings from my business activities have improved					
Employment opportunities have increased					
Social amenities have been improved					
Social amenities are sufficient for all					
The community is secure from external threat					
The community and refugees live in peace and harmony					
Social relations have been improved					
The environmental resources in the community are still intact					

1. Have you lost land to the resettlement of refugees?

If so, what type of land was it and what acreage?

2. What can you comment about the prices of goods in the market now and then)?
3. How have you benefited from the refugees’ stay in this area?
4. Do you have any other comments on the effects of the refugees on your community?

SECTION D: The role of Rwamwanja host community on refugees' settlement.

Did you or any member of your household participate in helping the refugees resettle in this area?

If yes, in which way did you participate?

1. None
2. Offering land /shelter
3. Offering food
4. Employment
5. Offering other items

If employment, what kind of jobs were given by members of this community to the refugees?

.....
.....

Do you have any other comment to make?

.....

The end.

Thank you

Appendix 3: Key Informants Interview Guide for Local Leaders

1. What are the economic activities in this area?
2. What is the contribution of refugees with regards to these activities?
3. How has influx of refugees influenced the wellbeing of this area in terms of:
 - a) Security
 - b) Income
 - c) Health
 - d) Culture
 - e) Use of natural resources
 - f) Infrastructural developments
4. What notable changes in Land use have occurred since the refugees settled in?
5. Any conflicts with regards to access and the use of resources?
6. What are the negative effects of refugees to this community?
7. To what extent has this community benefited from the presence of refugees?
8. What form of services have come up as a result of refugees?
9. What do you think should be done to enable to enhance the refugee –hosts relationships?
10. What form of humanitarian services do the organizations offer to the refugees?
11. What form of services do they offer to the hosts?
12. What should be done to make their services better?
13. Any other comments to make