

**ASSESSING THE EFFECTS OF VOLTA RIVER AUTHORITY
RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMME ON THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC
DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL COMMUNITIES: A STUDY OF THE
ASUOGYAMAN DISTRICT.**

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By

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my work towards the Master of Science degree and that to the best of my knowledge it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been presented for the award of any Degree of the University except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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ABSTRACT

Large dams are constructed mainly for creation of waterways, flood control and provision of water for agricultural activities. In the case of Akosombo dam, it was constructed with the purpose to generate hydroelectricity. Despite the fact that a number of factors are advanced to justify the construction of large dams, experience has shown that the concerns emanating from their construction are sometimes irreversible and painful, for instance resettlement. The research was undertaken to assess the effects Volta River Authority Resettlement Programme (VRARP) on the socio-economic development of rural communities. The study assessed the various socio-economic activities for which the VRARP has been designed. It focused on health, education, agriculture, water and sanitation, housing and finance. The study also tried to find out how the resettlement communities have been integrated into the VRARP. Case study approach was adapted to assess the effects VRARP on the socio-economic development of five resettlement communities at Asuogyaman district in the Eastern region of Ghana. These resettlement communities are Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Mpakadan, Aadjina and new Senchi. These resettlement communities were selected because even though there are other resettlement communities in the area these are the communities under the Volta River Project. The study used eclectic approaches of personal observation, questionnaire survey and key informant interviews to obtain data. By way of quantitative and qualitative analyses, the study showed that there have been positive improvements in many facilities with the exception of sanitation and housing. The study revealed that, majority of the people were not adequately involved in the programme activities and as a result most of the people are not satisfied with the level of rehabilitation. The study concluded that resettlement schemes should receive serious attention in developing countries.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

VRA	Volta River Authority
VRARP	Volta River Authority Resettlement Programme
SMC	School Management Committee
BPA	Bui Project Authority



CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Background to the Study

Dam projects have been implemented to provide single or multiple benefits such as provision of hydroelectricity, creation of waterways, flood control and provision of water for agricultural activities, especially in drought-prone regions (Biswas et al, 2012;Terminski,2013; Yu'ksel, 2009). Nevertheless, worldwide studies of dams and other watershed development projects have shown that their implementation often comes with negative environmental, social and economic impacts (McManus et al., 2010). Perhaps the most serious of these impacts are the displacement and relocation of people who live within and around the proposed dam sites (Terminski, 2013)

The main purpose for dam constructions in most African countries is to provide hydroelectric energy (Yewhalaw et al, 2014). However, some of these projects come without any negative ecological and socio-economic influences, and seldom have they been able to improve the living conditions of the affected population (Zeitoun et al, 2013).Dam constructions in Africa have not been able to achieve it's goal of improving the wellbeing of the people but has rather left most of them poorer (Gwazani et al, 2012). This can be as a result of stake holders not considering the negative effects that come along with development (McCartney et al, 2007). The effects of dam construction on the affected areas comes in different dimensions (Mehta, 2001).

In the 1880's, the introduction stage of industrialization, was broadly discussed whether or not companies should be socially responsible (Carlsson and Akerstom, 2008). Nowadays, it is becoming increasingly necessary for companies to

communicate their corporate social responsibility (CSR) (APCO, 2004). According to Löhman & Steinholz (2003), companies have always been part of society, but the companies of yesterday have grown and the proportions between the public and private sector have changed and in fact it is now common to talk about the balance between three values; social, environmental and financial.

In the African context, there is often a lack of capacity in government and civil society to enforce compliance with formal standards, and few incentives, beyond the general sense of responsibility to „give something back,“ through resettlement for companies to extend their corporate social responsibilities. Building capacity for the oversight functions, creating opportunities for the sectors to develop a shared understanding to fit African realities are important tasks to be undertaken to strengthen the private sector's contribution to Africa's development (Kivuitu et al, 2005).

In Ghana, eighty thousand (80,000) people had to be resettled in 52 communities as a result of the construction of the Akosombo dam on the Volta River in 1964 (Kalitsi, 1970; Yeboah, 1999). A further three thousand (3,000) are being resettled as a result of the construction of the Bui Dam (BPA, data). An inventory of major dams in Ghana undertaken by Gordon in 2007 indicates that there are seven (7) dams being operated by the Ghana Water Company . which supply potable water to mainly urban communities (Gordon, 2007) .

The largest is the Weijsa Dam [volume (10 6 m³): 116.04] on the Densu River which serves the city of Accra. There are 22 irrigation schemes some of which have their own dams and managed by the Ghana Irrigation Development Authority of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (GIDA-MOFA). The Volta River Authority operates the

hydropower dams of Akosombo (1020 MW) and Kpong (160 MW) on the Volta River (Gordon, 2007).

In view of the problems and challenges associated with dam construction, particularly large ones, opposition to dams grew and became more widespread as dam building accelerated after the 1950s (WCD, 2000). Such protests and resistance have been organized by dam-affected communities, conservationists, NGOs and civil society in general.

These protests particularly the one resulting from the construction of the Akosombo Hydroelectric Dam yielded dividend when in 1995, the Volta River Authority (VRA), the managers of the Dam in collaboration with the Ghana Government, represented by the then Ministry of Mines and Energy, established a special fund known as the VRA Resettlement Trust Fund. With an annual amount of the Cedi equivalent of Five Hundred Thousand United States Dollars (US\$500,000.00), the fund is expected to be shared among the 52 resettlement townships created as a result of the construction of the Akosombo Dam. According to the VRA this money is to be expended on developmental projects of the communities' choices (Briefs and Activities of the VRA Resettlement Trust Fund, 2007).

The mission of the VRA Resettlement Trust Fund is to contribute to the improvement of the quality of life in the 52 Resettlement Communities through the carrying out of socio-economic projects such as provision of educational, social, health and sanitation facilities, reliable and potable water supply as well as the economic empowerment of the people through income generating activities and any other projects and needs that are approved by the Managing Trustee (Briefs and

Activities of the VRA Resettlement Trust Fund, 1996).

However, there is a very fine line between trust fund that creates dependency and trust fund that develops a community or region in a sustainable way through development. The challenge for some companies therefore is to develop trust fund programmes that maintain good will for the company and address the long-term developmental needs of communities in a sustainable way, without creating a culture of dependency (Anaman, 2008).

The study focuses on bringing out exhaustive assessment of the socio economic development of the Volta River Authority resettlement communities found in the Asuogyaman district.

1.2 Problem Statement

Land acquisition for big projects has been a source of worry to many people, agencies and organizations. It has often been dealt with in a haphazardous and adhoc manner. Absence of clear objectives, consistent procedures and adequate resources for addressing resettlement issues had resulted in serious negative effects on the people displaced, and on the host population (WCD, 2000). The ultimate aim of construction of dams over the world has been to improve public wellbeing. In contrast however, the construction of dams for development has contributed in the broadening of poverty gaps in most countries (Gordon, 2007).

One noticeable aspect of Volta River project embarked on in the early 1960s resulted in the relocation of about 80,000 individuals. The homes of these communities were

inundated following the Volta river project. For over forty years after this resettlement programme was implemented, these individuals who gave up their homes and lands were still living in hardship and poverty. In the words of Nyarko

Kwasi “The VRA started moving the people of Dukomang to our new township, Kwahu-Amanfrom in June 1964 and completed the move in the middle of July. I was in the last lorry with my father and some of his sub-chiefs. The town was as quiet as a cemetery. There were tears in the eyes of many as my father poured libation at the outskirt. Every physical entity left behind was to be slowly but surely inundated by the impounding reservoir.

The new town was a big disappointment to us, especially we the children. We thought there would be electricity in the town. We didn’t know it was something that was going to happen in the future. There was more disappointment in store for the whole population. The houses built were meant to be three bedroom houses as we later found out but at the time, only one bedroom was completed. Families who were living in big compound houses in the old town found they were allocated a one bedroom house. There were no bathrooms or kitchens. Just imagine one bedroom for a household of say 4, 6, 10, 15 or more people! There was nowhere to keep our belongings, cooking utensils etc. People were forced to sleep anywhere. It was horrible. There were four public toilets for a population of about four thousand. Our parents and adults could only wash at night since there were no bathrooms. They later had to make do with improvised bathrooms built with palm branches. How could people who had given up so much for the good of the country be treated like that?”(My joy online, 2000)

A resettlement trust fund was introduced by the Volta River Authority (VRA) to help in achieving the goal of the resettlement programme (Agbemabiese, 2002). After 18 years of setting up the new programme, this research has been aimed to assess the Volta River Authority's resettlement programme (VRARP) and its socio-economic development of rural communities in the Asuogyaman district.

1.3 Research Questions

In order to be guided to undertake what this study seeks to achieve, the following questions serve as the guide:

- i. Have the VRAP helped resettlers to secure income, education, employment and other resources in comparison to their lives before the RTF?
- ii. How has the Volta River Authority resettlement programme promoted the socio-economic activities of the resettlers?
- iii. What is the level of involvement of the resettlers in the Volta River Authority resettlement programme?

1.4 Objectives

1.4.1 Broad objective.

To assess the Volta River Authority's resettlement programme and its socioeconomic development of the resettlement townships.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

- i. To assess the various socio-economic activities for which the Volta River Authority's resettlement programme has been designed.
- ii. To examine the level of involvement of the resettlers in the Volta River

Authority's resettlement programme iii. To analyze how the Volta River Authority's resettlement programme has promoted the socio-economic well-being of the resettlers.

1.5 Overview of the Research Methodology

This section basically discusses how the research was carried out, including the choice of research methods, data to be collected, sampling techniques and instruments that were used in carrying out the research.

1.5.1 Research Design

A case study approach was used because the study focuses on one particular geographical area. This design helped to gain in-depth knowledge into the factors which explain the complex nature of the relationship between socio-economic development and the Volta River Authority Resettlement programme in the Asuogyaman District. Again, because a particular geographical area was selected for detailed studies, it allowed for the collection of very extensive and detailed data

1.5.2 Variables of the Study

Variables measured were Public health, education, electricity, water and sanitation, housing, agriculture and land conditions in the area. Accessibility to some of these socio-economic indicators was measured in terms of distance.

1.5.3 Population /Sample Frame/Unit of Analysis

The population for this research covered all the resettled communities in the study area. These resettled communities are Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan, Adjina and New senchi. The sample frame for this research comprises of all the resettled households in

the selected communities for the purposes of this research. The units of enquiry were household heads.

1.5.4 Sampling

Different techniques such as systematic, random sampling and purposive sampling in the choice of respondents. Systematic sampling was used to select the households for the study. However, some of the households selected earlier were dropped and others brought on board, because of most of the household heads were not willing to talk. This was done by repeating the systematic sampling method until the required number was found. In the final stage, the first household I met in a house was randomly selected.

The mathematical formula was used to determine the sample size at 95 percent Confidence Level and 5 percent margin of error with a total population of 1,156 households. From the calculation, a total of 297 households were determined as the minimum sample size. The ratio method was adopted to distribute the sample among the settlements. The selected communities which are Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan, Adjina and New Senchi having 55, 39, 57, 44 and 102 as their sample size respectively.

1.5.5 Methods of Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data were collected from the field to appropriately address the research questions. Surveys, observations and semi - structured questionnaires were used for the primary data collection from the field and the selected sample. Some

participatory (PRA) tools such as checklist and key informants' interviews were also employed to generate primary data.

Secondary data was collected from the works of others on the foundations and magnitudes of relocation, proficiencies of other nations and evaluations of documents in the area. The process of the primary data collection first involved the administration of questionnaires. In this research, both structured and semi-structured questionnaires were carefully prepared for the primary data collection.

Afterwards, I tried to observe the resettlement towns fairly well by direct observation, focusing on social amenities and the population and living conditions in the area. Following the questionnaire survey, interviews were conducted. I used an interview guide to gather information from my key informants. They include officials of VRARTF, as well as stakeholders of Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan, Adjina and New senchi. Using this strategy I interviewed fifteen persons discussing the same topics.

1.5.6 Methods of Data Analysis and Presentation

The data gathered were analyzed qualitatively via the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS V.16.0). Tables, charts, and percentages of the data gathered were used to present findings. Cross tabulation (relating one variable to another) was also done to determine relationships between variables. The qualitative data generated from the interviews were transcribed and interpreted according to the set objectives. Since most of the interviews were conducted in a local language, they were translated into the English language

1.6 Justification of the Study

Allan and Randy (2005) stated that, the institutional purpose of every thesis is to ensure that, the researcher has made an influence to the study and to uphold an honored academic tradition. This study would bring to the fore the Volta River Authority's resettlement programme and socioeconomic development of the study area. The findings of this research when published would make available by way of knowledge, how the resettlement programme affect the socio-economic activities in the study area.

The research findings will help policy makers to amend impending benefit sharing mechanism processes in the form of resettlement programmes such that it will leave the affected people better off as promised. The research finding will also add to variations in the people who work in unrestricted and secretive sphere, in the logic that as soon as the staffs are well-informed of the shattering effects of unintentional relocation, that information can be very beneficial in altering their frame of mind, intentions and attitudes in their pronouncements.

1.7 Scope of the Study

Geographically, the study was conducted in the Asuogyaman District of Eastern Region. More specifically, the study concentrated on the resettlement townships that are under the Volta River Project. In examining the resettlement townships in depth, the study was limited to five communities purposively selected. These are Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan, Adjina and New Senchi. These are all the communities that were resettled during the Volta River Projects in the District.

Contextually, the study considered the effects of the VRA the resettlement programme on the socio-economic development of the communities in the Asuogyaman district.

The variables of interest were the various socio-economic activities for which the VRARP has been designed, an examination of the level of involvement of the settlers in the VRARP and an analysis of how the Volta River Authority's resettlement programme has promoted the socio-economic wellbeing of the resettlers. The period for the study spanned from 1996 to 2015.

1.8 Limitations to the Study

The study is obviously limited in terms of its level of generalization to all Resettlement Townships. This difficulty is logically due to the fact that the study was conducted as a case Study in order to understand in depth the unique situations of the Resettlement townships in the Asuogyaman district. Although it may be limited in generalization it can still offer useful recommendations for all other resettlement programmes of this nature. The unwillingness of some respondents to answer questions posed to them by the researcher for fear of leaking their vital information to third parties was another challenge. This difficulty was overcome after they were given the full assurance that the data were purely for academic purposes and therefore their confidentiality was guaranteed.

1.9. Organisation of the Study

The study is systematized into five chapters. The first chapter consists of the general introduction of the topic under study. It includes the background to the study, the problem statement, research questions and research objectives. The scope of the research, justification of the study and limitations to this study are also discussed in chapter One. Chapter Two focused on the review of relevant literature and the

conceptual framework. Chapter Three was on the profile of the study area and the research methodology that was employed to undertake the research. Data presentation, investigation, clarification and discussions of outcomes are contained in Chapter Four. Finally, Chapter Five presents the key findings from the explanation and discussion of analyzed data as well as conclusions and recommendations.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

According to Boote and Beile (2005), one cannot write a good research without a thorough and well developed literature. The framework of literature review is made up of the demonstration of an author's understanding in an area of study as well as models, language, phenomena, important variables and its techniques and account or history (Randolph, 2009). Literature is reviewed in order to state the underlying context of the topic, to identify key variables significant to the topic under study, compare and combine different ideas and knowledge on a topic including theoretical and empirical evidence and also to establish the relationship between those ideas (Hart, 1980). Based on the above description of literature review, this chapter is dedicated to the discussion of conceptual and theoretical issues relevant to the study.

2.2 Theoretical Models of Resettlement

Most resettled individuals experience the worst economic loss after being resettled and have the most difficult time recovering their pre-impact economic status (Fothergill & Peek 2004). Many individuals experience job loss while others lose weeks of critical wages when they are unable to attend their hourly paid jobs for days or weeks after the event (Elliot & Pais 2006). These individuals are also more reliant upon assistance programs to help them regain their pre-impact economic status. Unfortunately, most of them have a difficult time qualifying for, accessing, or negotiating disaster assistance programs.

Indeed, after Hurricane Andrew many individuals were prohibited from seeking government assistance due to the fact that aid offices were located in distant areas of

the city that were inaccessible via public transportation. (Morrow 1997:153) In addition, researchers have documented instances in which need-based individuals were denied recovery assistance by institutions whose eligibility requirements were based on a nuclear family model such as FEMA's head of household rule (Fothergill, 2004). In addition to issues of class, many scholars argue that a person's racial identity similarly impacts their ability to economically recover from a disaster event (Bolin, 1986). Not surprisingly, scholars observed that individuals of minority racial groups had a more difficult time recovering their pre-disaster economic status than similarly affected white residents (Phillips 1993). Researchers cite a variety of reasons why economic recovery is more difficult for resettlers.

Some scholars argue that these resettlers are more "vulnerable" because they have a greater tendency to live in poorly constructed homes (Cutter et al, 2006). These "vulnerable" locales often bear the brunt of a disaster's wrath and area residents are likely to incur more damage to their homes and material possessions than individual who live in less hazardous areas (Pettersen et al, 2006).

Disaster research also illustrates that these resettlers face a greater number of financial, social, and transportation constraints causing many to rely heavily on assistance (Barnshaw, 2006).

In contrast to individuals who possessed the financial means to evacuate before resettlements, institutionally evacuated individuals were often housed, or resettled in, communities that were not of their choosing and that were geographically farther away from their homes (Pettersen et al 2006). Distance from one's home proved to be an important variable in determining who was likely or able to return home and begin

rebuilding. In the case of Hurricane Katrina, Petterson et al (2006) argues that institutionalized evacuations will likely result in the “permanent dislocation” of African Americans from their communities of origin causing cities like New Orleans to undergo a possible demographic transition. Moreover, disaster research indicates that resettlers frequently draw upon a different pool of resources to help them financially reconstitute their lives than do similarly affected white residents. Research shows that resettlers are more likely to rely upon government assistance programs to help them with their immediate housing and financial needs (Bolin 1986, Phillips 1993).

In a research study conducted in a tornado ravaged community in Texas, sociologist Robert Bolin discovered that a greater proportion of black residents relied upon government assistance programs than whites, who ensured their economic recovery through SBA loans for which few black residents qualified. Likewise, other scholars report that government sponsored housing assistance is one of the best sources of aid available to disaster-affected minorities who may be unable to afford sudden and steep increases in rent due to the destruction or elimination of an area’s affordable housing stock (Morrow, 1997).

2.2.1 Forms of Capitals

Bourdieu maintains that contemporary models of the economy adhere to a very narrow definition of capital in which economic capital is thought to exist exclusively as a material entity best represented by money. For Bourdieu (2001), this conceptualization of exchange and capital are problematic because they divorce the social from the economic and create a false dichotomy within which only one type of exchange and

one form of capital are defined as being interested and economic. Similarly, Bourdieu disproves the assumption that all people are equally likely or able to accumulate and profit from a said capital provided they work hard and exhibit a requisite level of skill. In general, he contests the idea that capital is distributed equally throughout society and he situates his theory of capital within an inequality framework. Bourdieu encourages people to overcome the “ethnocentric naiveties of economism” and to embrace a more expansive definition of capital in which anything of value is considered to be a type of capital from which individuals can profit (1977:178). By expanding the definitions of economy and capital, he argued, it would become easier to understand how inequality was systematically produced and reproduced throughout society. Furthermore, he thought it would help to make visible the unequal distribution of capital throughout society. In addition, Bourdieu hoped his revisions would illuminate the reasons why certain individuals or groups of people found it easier to accumulate capital or transcend their current class position. Bourdieu advocated for the development of a general science of the economy of practices” in which capitalist exchange and economic capital were recognized as one of a number of different types of exchange and capital available to people.

The three types of capital Bourdieu discusses in his general theory include: economic capital, social capital, and cultural capital. Each of these capitals possess its own unique characteristics and set of benefits, however; no capital exists in isolation of another. Under the right circumstances, all capitals are meant to be “mutually convertible,” however; research has shown that some individuals may have a more difficult time converting one of their capital resources into another, especially if the said individual is a cultural, racial, or ethnic minority (Fernandez-Kelly, 1995)

2.2.2 Types of Capital

Bourdieu defines capital as “accumulated labor” (2001), and he advocates for the development of a more inclusive definition of capital whereby “all goods, material or symbolic...that present themselves as rare and being worthy of being sought after” are recognized as a type of capital that people strive to accumulate and profit from (1977:178). According to Bourdieu, all capitals, regardless of type, are investments that require significant expenditures of time and energy in order to develop. Few people immediately profit from their investments but they continue to devote their time and energy to these ventures in the hope that their work will yield future profits. Unfortunately, the possession of capital is not wholly determined by the efforts or willpower of an individual or group.

Indeed, Bourdieu emphasizes that capital is unevenly distributed throughout society. By thus framing his ideas around the problem of social inequality, Bourdieu argues that it is not equally likely or possible for all people to acquire different types or amounts of capital. He acknowledges that an individual’s ability to develop or accumulate capital is in many ways influenced by that person’s social structural position in society and the class standing of their natal families. For Bourdieu, the class status of an individual’s family serves as a powerful predictor for the type and quality of capital an individual is likely to inherit from their families. Following this line of reasoning, it is much more likely that individuals of higher class backgrounds will inherit and accumulate different forms of capital than poorer, lower class individuals.

2.2.3 Economic Capital

According to Bourdieu, contemporary economic theory popularized current conceptions of economic capital as a material good that is “directly convertible into money” or “institutionalized in the form of property rights” (2001:98). Bourdieu criticizes commonly accepted definitions of economic capital which he argues are too narrow and reductionist to adequately account for the complexities of the social world. He reminds readers of the existence of other types of capitals but he also acknowledges that economic capital is the most influential and important of all the capitals available to people. Indeed, Bourdieu concedes that economic capital is the “root of all other forms of capital,” (2001: 105). The implications inherent in this bold pronouncement are twofold. First, Bourdieu asserts that it is possible to convert all forms of capital into economic capital. However, he also acknowledges the impossibility of fully reducing social or cultural capital into economic capital (2001: 105). Despite the distinctive nature of each practice, Bourdieu suggests that all forms of capital be they social, cultural, or symbolic, exist as “disguised” forms of economic capital (Svendsen et al, 2003: 617). Yet, Bourdieu is quick to warn that not all opportunities or benefits can be acquired with economic capital alone. Indeed, he writes that some opportunities or benefits can only be accessed through the possession of specific social connections, academic qualifications, or social *savoirfaire* (Portes, 1998:4).

2.2.4 Cultural Capital

Bourdieu first developed the idea of cultural capital while he was conducting a research project on the uneven academic success of school children from different class backgrounds in the French educational system. During his research, Bourdieu hypothesized that academic success could in large part be measured by the “specific profits that children of different classes and class fractions can obtain in the market”

and the “distribution of cultural capital between the classes and class fractions” (2001: 98).

Bourdieu rejected “commonsense” ideas that purported there to be a causal relationship between an individual’s academic success and their innate mental skills or abilities. He also criticized economists for limiting their measurements of academic success to those most directly convertible into economic capital, such as the amount of money a family invested in a child’s schooling or the total number of hours they spent on homework, lessons, or other types of tutelage (2001: 99). According to Bourdieu, families make diverse investments in the education of their children, and often, he says, the endowments of cultural capital that families invest in their youth are the “best hidden and most socially determinate educational investment” that children receive from their parents (2001: 98-9).

Bourdieu defined cultural capital as a set of skills, tastes, and behaviors that people unconsciously adopt throughout their lifetime. These inherited dispositions, he argued, arm people with a distinctive set of skills or behaviors that may facilitate or hinder an individual’s interactions with dominant institutions and society at large. Cultural capital is not a homogenous resource. Nor is the value of cultural capital easy to quantify. There are three distinct varieties of cultural capital that Bourdieu identified within a given society: embodied, objectified, and institutionalized cultural capital (2001: 98).

Throughout his writing, Bourdieu allocates the most attention to his concept of embodied cultural capital which he describes as “external wealth converted into an

integral part of the person, into habitus” (2001: 99). Embodied cultural capital manifests itself in the “natural” dispositions, opinions, movements, and mannerisms a person unconsciously absorbs and learns throughout their lifetime. People spend an inordinate amount of time, energy and labor trying to cultivate these taken-for-granted dispositions, yet rarely do they perceive their efforts as being linked to any type of capital investment. Instead, people generally suppose that an individual’s skills or talents are the result of innate aptitude or biological genes that predispose certain individuals to excel at activities that many others may fail (2001: 100). While not explicitly stated by Bourdieu, it is also important to note the role place plays in the creation of embodied cultural capital. Place informs the type and variety of embodied cultural capital a person develops. Writing on Bourdieu’s theory of *Habitus*, Waterson argues that „the worlds of meaning that cultures create grow out of time and space. In their interactions with local environments humans shape the landscape around them...over time, as meaning becomes sedimented into landscape, so people themselves become embedded or implicated in the landscape (2005: 334). Place-bound capitals such as embodied cultural capital or social capital have a difficult time being transferred to a new locale because their “value” has not been determined by an institution such as the U.S. government, world financial markets, or an accredited university. As such, it is infinitely more challenging, if not impossible, for an individual to attain an equivalent value for their embodied cultural capital upon moving to a different area of the country or world.

Unfortunately, not all embodied cultural capital is valued equally by society.

According to Bourdieu, that which ranks the highest among people is that which is also considered to be the most rare. Not all individuals possess the time or money to afford

the luxury of extending their children's education or helping them to develop certain skills or behaviors. Hence the individuals who cultivate the most valued forms of cultural capital are also those whose families possess the greatest amount of economic or cultural capital.

Bourdieu elaborates upon this point as follows: It can immediately be seen the link between economic and cultural capital is established through the mediation of time needed for acquisition. The length of time for which a given individual can prolong the acquisition process depends on the length of time for which his family can provide with free time from economic necessity (2001:101). Conversely, individuals who hail from capital-poor families are unlikely to develop an embodied cultural capital that will prove particularly profitable amidst wider society. For Bourdieu, the capacity to acquire capital is thus often, a direct consequence of an individual's class position in society. Bourdieu argues that it is not uncommon for individuals to become entrenched in the class positions of their natal families and he suggests that it may be difficult or unlikely for an individual to rise out of the class position into which they were born.

2.2.5 Social Capital

In recent years, scholars and practitioners have enthusiastically employed Bourdieu's ideas about social capital in order to explain a diverse array of social phenomenon. The premise of social capital demonstrates that "social networks are a valuable asset" that can be used in order to gain access to important information or resources (Field 2003: 12) Scholars debate what combination of relationships are most effective for cultivating social capital; however, most scholars agree that social capital

is likely to form amongst network members who share similar values and norms, engage in relationships of reciprocity, and trust one another.

2.2.6 Bourdieu's Concept of Social Capital

A number of scholars have cited Bourdieu as one of the first social scientists to embark upon a complete and full rendering of the concept of social capital (Field 2003, Portes 1998). In contrast to other social capital scholars, Bourdieu situated his insights about social capital within a framework of structured inequalities. Bourdieu defined social capital as “the aggregate of actual or potential resources that are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance” (Bourdieu, 2001: 103). Bourdieu understood social capital to provide an individual with potentially important benefits and opportunities depending upon the type and quality of resources the members of a person's network possessed. Bourdieu was quick to remind readers that the development of social relationships was no easy feat. Social relationships do not materialize overnight nor do they develop of their own accord. Instead, the creation of social relationships requires people to develop “investment strategies” aimed at cultivating new relationships and maintaining old ones (2001: 103).

In particular, Bourdieu identified two specific strategies people adopted when attempting to create or maintain social relationships. The first type of investment strategy discussed by Bourdieu was the ability to socialize. Bourdieu writes that the “reproduction of social capital requires an unceasing effort of sociability” wherein people expend a significant amount of time and energy visiting acquaintances, attending social events, and meeting new people (2001: 104). Reciprocity between and among network members was the second type of investment strategy Bourdieu

elaborated upon. Perhaps inspired by the work of scholars like Marcel Mauss (1990), Bourdieu writes that regular acts of exchange and reciprocity help to strengthen and cement relationships among people who may or may not be well acquainted. Like Mauss (1990), Bourdieu asserts that acts of delayed reciprocity help to create relationships of indebtedness among network members.

Contrary to popular belief, the presence of debt among network members may be one of the main factors that help people to establish trusting relationships with one another. Individuals may or may not trust one another at the outset of an exchange but it is through the process of waiting for a return gift that trust is fostered between individuals, groups, or parties. Over time, feelings of trust continue to deepen among network members who regularly exchange goods and services. Hence, the development of trust may be understood as a direct consequence of the amount of indebtedness that exists among network members. Bourdieu acknowledges that both investment strategies are costly; however, he posits that people willingly accept the costs in the hope that their efforts will yield future profits or rewards (2001: 103). Bourdieu argues further that it is possible to calculate the economic value of an individual's social connections. According to Bourdieu, one can measure the social capital of an individual by looking at three interrelated factors: the number of social connections a person possesses, the time it took to create and maintain those relationships, and the relative "worth" of those connections based upon the quality of resources a particular association generates. Bourdieu argues that well connected and economically prosperous individuals are more valuable network members than individuals who possess few social connections or economic resources. In contrast to later social capital theorists, Bourdieu contends that social capital is an elite resource

cultivated and maintained by powerful and affluent society members in order to advance their interests and exclude non-elites from accessing privileged economic or social resources (Field 2003).

Like embodied cultural capital, social capital is another “place-bound” resource that most often develops in a very specific social and spatial environment. In an effort to elaborate upon this idea, Dovey argues that “buildings and neighborhoods both ground and structure social networks, enabling and constraining the development of social capital whether in housing enclaves, shopping precincts, sporting venues, community centers or university departments” (2005: 287). As a “place-bound” resource it is important to remember that it is not always possible to transfer an individual’s social capital to a new place.

2.2.7 Robert Putnam

According to John Field (2003) Putnam has become “the dominant voice” within social capital theory, in part because his work has breached the high and often inaccessible walls of academia and found a wider audience within the realms of government and policy as well as among the general public. Putnam defines social capital as “the features of social life- networks, norms, and trust that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives” (Putnam 1995: 664-665). Like Coleman, Putnam argues that social relationships can become a source of capital if people establish relationships in which social norms are shared and trust is present.

Unlike Bourdieu and Coleman, Putnam is most concerned with determining the social capital of a *population* rather than that of an individual and he seeks to understand how

social capital is created and sustained through civic engagement and participation in political organizations, clubs, or recreational associations. Putnam similarly stresses the importance of associational participation within communities. Putnam endorses a Tocquevillian inspired ideal that high levels of community involvement teach “people how to cooperate across civic life” and encourage the development of democratic ideals within a community (Field 2003: 30). Interestingly, Putnam found that communities with the highest level of civic engagement were characterized by high levels of employment, middle to lower class residents, and a greater proportion of African Americans (1995). Putnam posits that it is also possible to measure the social capital of a population by analyzing a number of different variables including the time one spends socializing, attending club meetings, or participating in community events.

2.3 Nature of Development Induced Resettlement

Force or compulsory spatial change might cause people to move from one location to another. This movement might not necessarily lead to development (De Wet, 1997). as noted by Quetulio-Navarra, et al (2012), irrespective of the coverage of the resettlement, the lesser groups such as the underprivileged are vastly affected. According to Fujikura et al (2009). Conflicts always arise between the affected people and the state during forced resettlement and this can be solved through participation. Furthermore, Turton, (2009, p.29) concluded that resettlement is not always a gain to the entire society. Resettlement projects in Africa have often been characterized by political programmes, shortages of resettlement officials and technicians, it is not startling that many resettlement projects have been branded by insufficient consultation and participation” (Bessey, & Tay, 2015).

Bessey and Tay (2015), further argues that achieving an effective resettlement is not merely having precise inputs such as sound legal and guiding principle agendas, acceptable administrative drive, and the necessary economic and decision-making ability as in the case of china yet, the resettlement programme was disastrous. Therefore it can be seen that the input is not an end but rather a means to embark on a positive resettlement (Fujikura et al, 2009).

Also, Agrawal & Redford (2009) came up with the term policy practice where he suggests that we see policy and its implementation as one process but not as two separate segments. He went further to argue that policy is considerably transformed in the implementation process. Successful resettlements are challenged by numerous threats which stems from the individual, community, nation or regional and international levels (McDowell & Morell, 2007). Furthermore, the threats characterized by the resettlement will be experienced differently by the different sections and respectively be more or less likely to give way to them (de Wet & Leibbrandt, 1994). Situations where the concluding stage of the scudder model could not apply, it affects the environment in which people find themselves (McDowell & Morell, 2007).

2.4 Resettlement and Participation Process

2.4.1 The Concept of Participation

Despite the numerous deliberations on the model of participation with regard to its theoretical foundations, historical background, and real world applicability it still remains a significant concept in development cooperation. Participation as we see it may mean different things at different situations and hence might depend on the

development researcher or practitioner to determine what participation means in the context which it is being employed. This nature of the concept of participation is what makes it challenging and therefore should be treated with care (Reed, 2008).

2.4.2 Participation

The choice of involvement cloaks the deliberate and typical or self-governing relationship of persons in backing to progress determination, equivalent dissemination of assistances and facilitating in resolution. It also take account of the origination of strategies and using these strategies to plan and implement socioeconomic growth (Shrestha, 1987). The concept of participation highlights that it is crucial for there to be a considerable divergence between practitioners and scholars of development and also there is the need for people involved to have significant control over decisions regarding their institutions or organizations. To some people without this significant control over decisions, participation makes no sense (Kardam, 1993).

For people to participate effectively, it is key that the people involved are made to understand what they are about to do so that they can voluntarily make an informed decision to participate or not but in cases where there is absence of the willingness to participate, effective participation cannot take place. In a nutshell there will be no participation at all.

2.4.3 Minority Groups/ Indigenous People and Participation.

The perception of “minority” has been regularly employed to define any social group which distinguishes itself from the national majority. This differentiation may manifest through religion, traditions, nationality, language and sexual orientation

(Colchester, 2004). It is also widely accepted that the word “minority” can also be used to refer to sections of people that undergo or suffer some level of prejudice and authority by more influential or numerous groups (Haye et al, 2010). Also in Tinguery (2014) and Purcell & Onjoro (2002), it was noted that the first settlers of a place be referred to as native people. In his argument, Larson (2008) indicated that with respect to worldwide ethics, inhabitants uphold the norm of personality documentation which they view as an integral trait of their right to self-determination. It is only in agreement to countrywide decree that people belonging to the marginal and inhabitants can be moved or evacuated. These people can only be displaced for reasonable purposes some of which may be for their own health benefits, issues involving national security and purposes of economic development.

2.4.4 Planning and Participation of Re-Settlers.

When the people are not allowed to voluntarily participate in resettlement decisions, it may result in situations that may not promote peace or healthy relationship between the authorities of resettlement. A typical example is the riot that arose in 1958 due to the attempted apprehension of a headman and in his village by the authorities of the Kariba resettlement because the headman and his people refused to move. This riot resulted in the shooting of 8 Gwembe Tonga people (Colson, 2003). However, studies have shown that it is not only the smaller groups with little power that often not consulted or allowed to participate in decisions vis-à-vis relocation. On the subject of the Orange River circumstances, majority of the farmers were not consulted about their upcoming displacement nor were they given the opportunity to partake in the planning of projects that would affect them despite the fact that they were members of a powerful agricultural lobby (de Wet, 2001). Instances of fruitful participation have also been recorded in many areas. There have been instances where committees have been

set up by the community to oversee their own resettlement such as was seen in the case of Nangbet. (Francis & Jacobs, 1999). There have also been instances where resettlement programs allow and emphasize an impressive level of participation but execution has been a problem due to the nature of the time structures drawn up. According to Fink (2005) and Ofori (2006) the extent of communities participation is not necessarily related to how their concerns are being addressed. A typical example will be the situation experienced at Mantali where there was a high level of participation yet still realization of the planned activities became a problem because of the nature of the time structure involved (de wet, 2000). From the above, it is seen that the success of a resettlement program is based on efficient participation and proper time frame.

The Volta River project, one of the significant projects in Africa experienced challenges during its execution due to lack of time this led to the modification of activities and several tasks to fit the little time available (Kofi, 1963). The initial stage of the Akosombo relocation program was hectic due to time constrictions. Unlike the Akosombo resettlement that had time trials, the Kpong relocation did not see any such contests as assessments were piloted and finalized within the allotted time frame which certified the outcomes to be premeditated and useful to the preparation procedure in time (Lumsden, 1973). Similarly, the people in control of the Nangbet resettlement program had an adequate amount of time as the artificial lake was due to fill in three years' time.

Successful resettlement has been experienced in several cases where the people were allowed to participate in the planning and preparation of the program. This made them so comfortable with the resettlement that it was recorded that some households were

even ready to move to the resettlement sites before being asked to. In other cases the people preferred to move as communities which they were permitted to (Otiso, 2002). Notwithstanding the insignificant trials and awkwardness that took place for the period of the first resettlement implementation at Aswan and Mantali as some of the people were not primed to move in time, the others were up-and-coming (Koenig & Diarra, 1998.; Berg, 1999). Resettlement exercises in Kainji and Nangbeto saw very little disturbances and were not executed under pressure (Dukiya, 2014). The same cannot be said about the Akosombo resettlement exercise since the resettlement sites were still not cleared by the time the resettlers were moved to the place (Mills-Tettey, 1989). One cannot help but imagine the stress and discomfort these resettlers were put through as compared to other resettlement cases where there was sufficient amount of time for the planning and implementation of the program such as in the case of Nangbeto, the challenge in the Nangbeto case was that no room was made for rehabilitation (de wet, 2000). The encounters that were confronted in the Kainji relocation exercise was due to the poor supervision in capacities of public health (Gyuse & Gyuse, 2008). The occurrences in different communities that have undergone resettlement programs show that these programs have had striking social and economic impacts on the people involved as well as the host communities.

2.5 Practices of Resettlement Schemes

One of the main aims of resettlements is to organize resources and labor to help in achieving equal and efficient allocation of income. It is therefore key to introduce activities that enable income generation and also see to it that lands and other resources are redistributed reasonably as this can lead to the decline in the inequity in the rural areas even if the rate of growth of rural income as compared to that of urban income is very slow (Asthana, 2012). Social impacts realized in Tanzania during the year 1967

was that the set targets which were mainly to improve upon the basic education and health services together with the provision of clean water for the people were soundly achieved. This helped improve upon the living standard of the people. This improvement can be seen as the average life expectancy rate of the people was raised from thirty seven years to fifty years in the years 1967 and 1981 respectively (Bose et al, 2001) . An additional case in point of collective assistance arising from relocation can be seen in the circumstance of Somalia where there was enhancement in the conception of unrestricted arrangement that came with its own consequences in the expanses of training, rations and nourishment and also public health or disinfection. The health status of the people as well as educational facilities was upgraded to a point beyond average in the community (Dubie and Ababa, 2005).

The Kainji resettlement project was studied to ascertain whether the relocated people were better off or worse off at their new location. It came out that majority of the respondents were better-off with their new site. Only four percent of the respondents said they had been made worse off by the resettlement exercise. The success of this exercise and the level of security achieved can be credited to the smooth participation allowed during the program as the citizens were permitted to sustain their social and cultural traditions and were given the rights to own the new compounds as their properties also public infrastructures were provided for the people at their new location (De Wet, 2000).

Some resettlement programmes turn to leave the affected people to be worse off than they were before .circumstance like this was documented in India for the period of the Dandakaranya resettlement scheme where it was apprehended that majority of the villages had not been electrified, only 8 villages out of 381 villages were electrified.

Another terrible outcome of the project was that the resettlers were not given adequate water supply at their new location and their basic education was not improved upon as, as many as 169 primary schools were housed in provisional structures (Magadza, 2010).

In addressing present resettlement projects, Laura and Bezaeit pointed out those present resettlements still experience infrastructural problems in the end (Mulugeta & Woldesemait, 2011). The attainment of economic development is one of the principal aims of every government when embarking on a resettlement project. The objective of the programme is the attainment of self-sufficiency in the area of food production as a directive to regulate the discomfort that developing countries and the world as a whole face in that particular area (Obour et al, 2015). In Ethiopia, during the Dergue Regime experienced food shortage which urged the government to tackle the issue of drought and hunger with programs that were designed to solve those problems at that time and also ensure that these problems do not occur in future. Thus solutions that were to lead to self-sufficiency were employed in dealing with the subject of food insecurity in the country (Kloos & Aynalem, 1989).

In the case of the Ujaamaa resettlement villages, the people were initially using outmoded methods of farming practices. This resulted in low yields until the government introduced new methods of farming practices (Misana et al, 2012). It was also revealed that almost 90% of the households lived largely on aids and contribution as only about 8.8% were self-supporting (Zelege & Asfaw, 2014). In Kloos, et.al, (1990). They called the attention of policy makers, organizers and implementers to issue that it is essential that the consistency of low agricultural productivity be addressed especially when drawing up suitable policies for future resettlement programs.

The absence of long term development plans in resettlement policies seem to limit the concept of resettlement to mere relocation of the people as the people are just moved from their original location to a new place without improvement to their livelihoods (Letitia 1977).

2.6 Compensation and Benefit Sharing Related To Dam Projects

The emergence of collected works on benefit sharing in hydropower dams started from the deliberations on unconscious relocations associated with dam projects in the works of the WCD (Dombrowsky et al, 2014). it has therefore become obligatory for countries to come out with detailed social impact analyses and resettlement action plans (RAPs) in order to reduce poverty that comes along with the negative effects of involuntary relocation (Égré et al, 2007). According to Mirza (2011). Participation is not just a compulsory practice but an adequate one when it comes to relocation. Additionally, planning compensation processes comes along with challenges which ranges from how to value substantial and non-substantial resources, the scheduling of the resource appraisal and the method of amends (Caspary, 2009; Tilt et al, 2009). The dispute with features to cash benefit is that most of the pastoral people use them to service their depts. rather than using them to refurbish their means of support. Hence, compensating them with lands is regularly deliberated the enhanced alternative (Cernea ,1996).On the other hand, Cernea (2003) argued that irrespective of how well compensation have been designed, it cannot single handedly solve the poverty of the affected people and it cannot make them better off than they were before.

Benefit sharing in hydro power projects is defined by Wang & Tian (2012) as „the organized efforts by project advocates to sustainably benefit local communities

affected by hydropower investments".in the traits of beneficiaries, bases of capital and era, profit allocation contrasts from compensation .With respect to the beneficiaries, it is commended that both the host communities and the resettled communities should benefit (Wang & Tian, 2012)). Also, benefit sharing can be regarded as monetary and non-monetary mechanisms (Van Wicklin, 1999; Cernea, 2000; Roli, 1996; Dombrowsky et al, 2014). The argument made by Cernea (2007) is that benefit sharing should be funded from the operating income of the hydro power project to enable the communities benefit as long as the project exists; in divergence to compensation which is typically paid from the investment budget.

Following Roli (1996), monetary benefit sharing has three different objectives. First, it may offer continuing compensation to the project-affected people by from the benefits created by the development, accordingly making up for ordinary reparation practices. Second, a resettlement development fund may be provided with part of the fund being provided for by the benefits or revenue from the project. Third, monetary benefit sharing may aim at establishing a long-term partnership in the form of a partnership agreement between developers and local communities. The aim of such a partnership agreement would be to recognize the community's entitlement to a share of the economic rent generated by the project during the operational phase of the project and thus to foster the acceptance of the project by local communities. The study of most areas and people affected by the construction of hydro power projects has revealed that many of the dams that were built before the WCD report did not have benefit sharing in mind (Jackson & Sleight, 2000: Dombrowsky et al , 2014).

2.7 Conceptual Framework

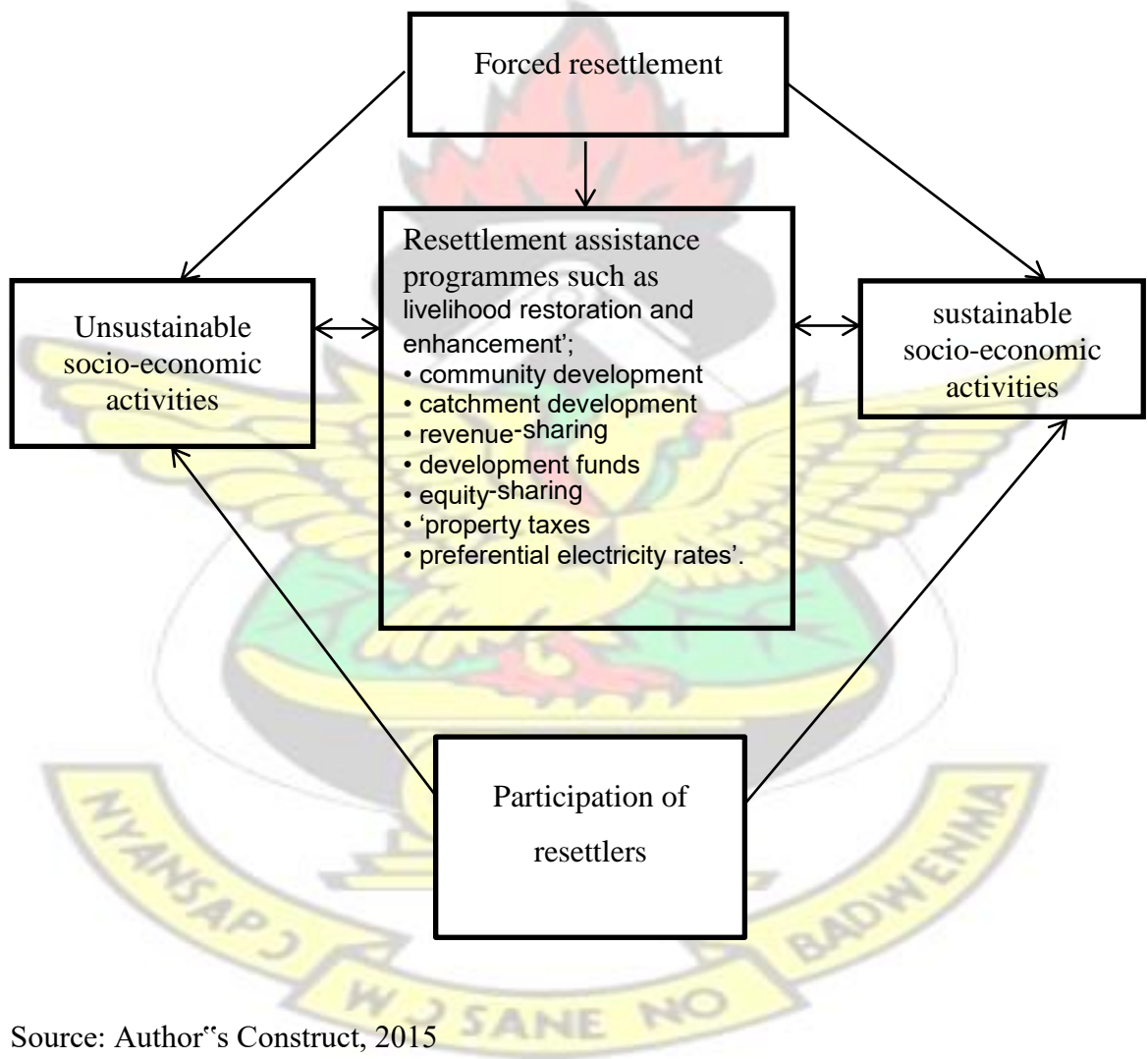
From the literature review and conceptual framework, forced resettlement could lead to majority of the resettlers and the resettlement townships being more reliant upon resettlement assistance programs to help them regain their pre-impact economic status. Unfortunately, majority of these resettlers have a difficult time accessing, or negotiating these assistance programs. It is not automatic that all resettlers are equally likely or able to accumulate and profit from a said resettlement assistance programme. These resettlement assistance programmes are to provide an individual with potentially important benefits and opportunities depending upon the type and quality of resources the members of the resettlement townships possess. Such benefits are created and sustained through civic engagement and participation.

The sustainability or unsustainability of socio economic activities during displacement and resettlement depends on the compensation package given and the level of participation of the affected people. Compensation packages and the process of participation is the only resource left for affected people after being forcibly ousted.

Hence, the way the affected people are able to participate regardless of the stresses and encounters of forced resettlement, will determine whether they will have sustainable socio economic activities in the future or not. Thus, sustainable socio economic activities would be achieved if affected people are able to participate efficiently to influence decisions to drive home adequate compensation as replacements of their lost assets. On the other hand, unsustainable socio economic activities may result if the assets dispossessed of the affected persons are not replaced through adequate compensation by the efficient use of their ability to participate. According to Cernea

(2000) if compensation is planned to run as long as the project exists it will reduce the adverse effect of the displacement on the resettlers to a considerable extent.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Author's Construct, 2015

2.8 Conclusion

In this review it came out clearly that; the reactions of the institutions responsible for the resettlement projects concentrate much on the benefits of the project as against those who will be affected by the project. These reasons may include, not considering the coverage of resettlement undertakings, absence of comprehensive plans, overestimating the prices of land and other social amenities. An additional difficulty is the planning of the resettlement programme. at this stage the ideas and concerns of the affected people are often ignored by the associations answerable to these developments. Activists of hydro power developments ponder on resettlement and compensation of the affected people as against the sustainability of their livelihood. Most of the resettlement townships are initially better off when compared to similar rural towns but their up keep is very poor.



CHAPTER THREE

PROFILE OF STUDY AREA AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented the theoretical and conceptual frameworks on the effects Volta river authority resettlement programme on the socio-economic development of rural communities. The review explained the capital theory in relation to resettlement. The review highlighted the Nature of Development Induced Resettlement, Resettlement and Participation Process and Compensation and Benefit Sharing Related to Dam Projects. It emerged that benefits from resettlement assistance are created and sustained through civic engagement and participation. It was therefore important to collect primary data to ascertain the real issues in the study area.

This chapter is devoted to the research methodology of the study as well as a brief overview of the profile of the study area. It describes and justifies the methods and processes that were used to collect data in order to answer the research questions. This section includes the research design employed, the sampling method applied in this research, the sources of data, unit of analyses, methods of data collection and the methods of data analyses and presentation.

3.2 Profile of the Study Area

3.2.1 Location and Size and Population

The Asuogyaman District Assembly is one of fifteen districts in the Eastern Region which is located approximately between latitudes $6^{\circ} 34' N$ and $6^{\circ} 10' N$ and longitudes $0^{\circ} 1' W$ and $0^{\circ} 14' E$. It is about 120m above Mean Sea Level (MSL). It covers a total estimated surface area of 1,507 sq. Km, constituting about 5.7 percent of the total area

of Eastern Region. Asuogyaman is a traditional district located between the Volta and Eastern Regions which share borders to the east with Kpando, Ho and the North Tongu Districts of the Volta Region. Manya Krobo District borders the Asuogyaman district to the north and the Afram Plains to the south and west Asuogyaman district assembly (2015).

The resettlement communities in this study refer to five selected settlements that are sited close to the Volta River in Asuogyaman District (see map in Appendix II showing locations of the study communities). The settlements spread on the west bank of the river in the North Tongu District of the Volta Region. The communities are Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Mpakadan, Adjina and New Senchi. The communities vary in size and are independent of each other. Three of the communities (New Senchi, Apegusu and Adjina) are ruled by chiefs, one by a regent and each of the other two by a headman (someone appointed by a community or village to lead them but does not have a title and stool).

Like the rest of the district, the communities in the study area are not easily accessible to one another.

The 2000 Population and Housing Census (2000 PHC) put the population of the district at 74,142 With a population growth rate of 1.7%. The district's growth rate of 1.7 percent is lower than the national growth rate of 2.7 percent. The low population growth rate is attributable to the construction of the Akosombo Dam and the inundation of farmlands leading to out-migration of the people to other part of the country especially the Brong Ahafo, Ashanti and Greater Accra region.

3.2.2 Relief and Drainage

The topography of the district is generally undulating. It is mountainous, interspersed with low lying plains to the west and the east. The mountainous terrain is rugged and characterized by the configuration of several summit and steep slopes of hard sandstone and quartzite ridges many rock out crops and scarps. Rain water is drained by the Volta River and other tributaries that cut through such ridges to create a gorge ideal for the construction of the Dams such as the Akosombo and the Kpong (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

3.2.3 Climate

The District lies within the dry equatorial climate zone, which experiences significant amount of precipitation. This is characterized by a double maxima rainfall seasons, which reaches its peak rainfall period from May to July. Annual rainfall usually starts in April with the peak month in June and ends in November. The annual rainfall is between 670mm and 1130mm. The dry season sets in NovemberDecember and ends in March. The temperature is warm throughout the year with maximum mean monthly reaching 37.2 degree and a minimum of 21.0 Celsius.

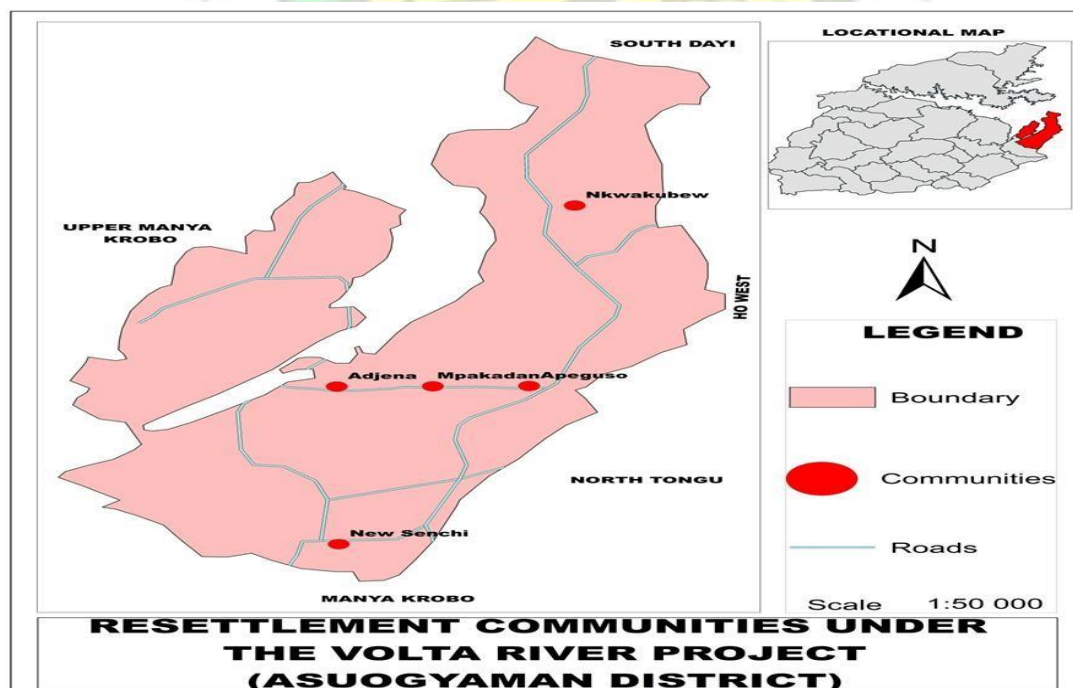
3.2.4 Vegetation

The vegetation of the area is belonging to the semi/ Deciduous Rain Forest and the coastal savannah zone of Ghana. The vegetation is predominantly dry semideciduous forest and savannah woodland. The natural bio-physical environment appears rather vulnerable to farming and other forms of environmental stress.

3.2.5 Economic Activity

Analysis of the 2010 Population and Housing Census shows that agriculture is the major economic activity in terms of employment and rural income generation in the district. About 81% of the working population is engaged in this sector, which constitutes the main source of household income in the district. There are three prominent types of farming activities in the district. These are livestock farming, food cropping and cash cropping. The most predominant of these is food cropping with more than 78% of farmers in the district taking to this activity. Livestock farming is carried out on a limited scale employing only about 8% of farmers while cash cropping also employs about 12% of the farming population. As mentioned earlier agriculture is the most common form of employment with 52% of the total labor force, with the majority of them being in the rural area. The second major employer in the district is the service sector while the industrial sector is in its initial stage (Medium Term water and Sanitation Plan 2004-2008).

Figure 3.1: A Map of Asuogyaman District showing the Study Area



3.3 Research Design

The contention in good research is that the choice of research methods (instruments) for satisfying various research needs should be appropriate, reasonable and explicit. Discounting these nitty-gritties can lead to very unfortunate inquiry (Denscombe, 2008). Moreover surveys, case studies, and experiments are anticipated to be the best idyllic as the inquiry scheme (Ahadzie et al, 2007).

Conversely, experiments would not be an applicable prime for the reason that they are accepted habitually in a test center background where the private eye can influence actions unswervingly, specifically and analytically. In surveys, samples are examined while case studies involve an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary occurrence within a real life context (Yin, 2003). Thus, in view of the nature of investigation associated with this research, experiment was discounted as an appropriate option. In surveys, samples are examined while case studies involve an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary occurrence within a real life context (Yin, 2003).

In order to choose between these two research methods, (i.e. case studies and surveys), the research questions were also drawn upon by matching them to the choice of potential research instruments. The key research questions involved in the study suggested that either surveys or case studies could have been suitable as the research method (Yin, 2003; Ahadzie et al, 2007). A case study design was used because a particular geographical area was selected for detailed studies

Furthermore, people have thought that the case study method required them to embrace ethnography or participant observation as data collection methods (Yin, 1994, p. 32).

On the contrary, the method does not imply any particular form of data collection- which can be qualitative or quantitative (Yin, 1993, p. 32). Eisenhardt (1989) converges with Yin (1994) when he pointed out that case studies typically use data collection methods such as archives, interviews, questionnaires, or observations, or a combination of these. This design helped to gain in-depth knowledge into the factors which explain the complex nature of the relationship between socio-economic development and the Volta River Resettlement programme in the Asuogyaman district. Again, because a particular geographical area was selected for detailed studies, it allowed for the collection of very extensive and detailed data.

3.4 Variables of the Study

According to Winter (2000) a variable can be defined as a balanced entity of inquiry that can take responsibility of any number of labeled arrays of standards. The Volta river resettlement programme and the assessment of its socio-economic development in the study area will be the variables that will be measured. Socioeconomic assessment examines how an act of development could potentially affect a community, the social and economic aspects of the potential effect, and the community's attitude towards resulting changes (Freudenberg et al., 2005). Wouldbe aftermaths take account of: demographic ups and downs in the open, alterations in service and lodging market, request for open facilities, occupation and revenue levels, and appealing worth for the public ((Freudenberg et al, 2005). My study consider the social and economic principles of the VRA resettlement programme along with the major experiences by the indigenous economy. The selected indicators were drawn from the projects to be undertaken by the VRA for the benefit of the resettlement townships. Utilizing the socio-economic assessment methodology combined with relevant indicators from the

VRA resettlement programme, the following socioeconomic indicators were selected for the research: Public health, education, electricity, water supply and sanitation, housing, agriculture and land conditions.

3.5 Criteria for Selecting the Study Areas

The construction of the Akosombo Hydroelectric Dam resulted in the creation of one of the largest man-made lakes in Africa. This led to the resettlement of people into 52 townships across four regions and located in 17 districts in Ghana. These regions are Volta Region, Northern Region, Eastern region and Brong Ahafo Region. Time and financial constraints will not allow the consideration of all the four regions and 17 districts and so choice had to be made on one of the districts. The one considered was randomly chosen from the seventeen districts. The study concentrated on the Asuogyaman district. More importantly the study concentrated on five resettlement townships which are under the Volta River Project. These communities Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Mpakadan, Aadjina and new Senchi.

3.6 The Concept of Population, Sample Frame and Unit of Analysis

3.6.1 Population

Shao (1999) defines population as the complete set of subjects that can be studied: people, objects, animals, plants, organizations from which a sample may be obtained. A population can thus be taken as all people or items with the characteristic one wish to understand. In this regard, the population for this research covers all the selected communities that are along and across the Volta Lake in the study area.

3.6.2 Sample Frame/Unit of Analysis

A sample frame refers to a list that includes every member of the population from which a sample is to be selected. In most cases the population and sample frame are not identical because it is often impossible to draw a sample directly from population. As such this frame is often constructed by a researcher for the purpose of his study (Kothari et al, 2009). The sample frame for this inquiry comprised all the resettled households of those who were resettled in the relocated communities.

Kumekpor (2002) asserts that, the units of analysis in any investigation is used to refer to the actual empirical units, objects and occurrences which must be observed or measured in order to study a particular phenomenon. The units of enquiry were household heads of the various households that were sampled. It was expected that, these household heads have knowledge about the issues that pertain to the family ranging from household welfare through to socio economic wellbeing of family members.

3.7 Sampling Design

3.7.1 Sample Size Determination

In aggregation, 1,156 households represented the sampling frame. The selected communities were Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan Adjina and New senchi. The mathematical sample determination model by Yamane (1967) was then employed to determine the sample size. This model was used for being more scientific to cater for margin of error and distribution of the sample over the frame. The mathematical sampling model below was used:

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

Where; $n =$

Sample Size

$N =$ Total Population

$\square =$ Error Margin (0.05) at 95% confidence level

When the figures are substituted into the model the result is as follows:

$$n = \frac{1,156}{1 + 1,156(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = 297$$

After a clear delimitation of the study sites, 297 sample households were selected from the total household of 1,156 from the five communities.

3.7.2 Sampling Procedure

Sampling is vital in any research because it is rarely the case that a researcher has sufficient time and resources to conduct research which will include all members of the population (Bryman and Cramer, 1994). For better representation, multi-stage sampling method was used to select respondents. Most of the houses were empty and others rented this is because majority of the resettlers have relocated in search of greener pastures. As a result of that all the households of the available resettlers were marked out and numbered.

The next stage was to determine the number of household heads from each of the selected communities. This was done with respect to population proportion to size.

The percentage of the sample frame of each community was calculated as: the total number of households of all the selected communities divided by the number of households of a community multiplied by 100%. The number of households for each

selected community was calculated as: the percentage of the number of a community's household divided by 100 multiply by the sample size (297).

Table 3.1: Sample Size Distribution by Communities.

Community	Total households	Ratio	Sample
Nkwakubew	216	0.187	55
Apegusu	150	0.129	39
Npakadan	223	0.193	57
Adjina	170	0.147	44
New senchi	397	0.343	102
Total	1,156		297

Source: Author's construct with data from the 2010 VRA Estate office

Systematic sampling was used to select the houses for the study. Sampling interval was estimated for each community. This was done by dividing the total sample size by the sample size of each selected community. The starting point was randomly selected through balloting and houses were chosen at regular interval until the required number was obtained. Systematic sampling procedure was used to select the sample units from among household heads for the study. The total of 1,156 households in the five Communities and the estimated sample of 297 were used to determine a common sample fraction ($k=N/n$, where N =target population: 1,156; and n =sample size: 297. Therefore $1,156/297=3.892$ which is approx. =4).

The first names of resident household heads were compiled in alphabetical order and given serial numbers to form a sample frame for each of the five communities.

Four (4) was randomly selected from a set of 1, 2, 3 and 4 (sample fraction range) and used to determine the first sample unit from each of the six sample frames. The subsequent sample units were identified by adding the sample fraction (4) until the

sample frames got exhausted. Corresponding names of the numbers drawn were located on the sample frames of the household heads and gathered to constitute the sample populations for the study communities.

However, some of the households selected earlier were dropped and others brought on board, because of most of the household heads were not willing to talk. This was done by repeating the systematic sampling method until the required number was found

In the final stage, the first household I met in a house was randomly selected. For the purpose of this study, a household is defined in accordance with OSS (2000) as "a person or group of persons who live together in the same house or compound, share the housekeeping arrangements and are catered for as one unit." The emphasis is on living in the same place and having common provision for food and necessities for living, irrespective of size and relationship. By the use of a questionnaire, data was collected from the heads of the selected households.

In the field, I used the purposive sampling technique which involved accessing and achieving specific targets whether population or goals (Kitchin & Tate, 2000). With this technique I interviewed fifteen key informants. They include seven officials of the VRARTF and eight stakeholders including elders, chiefs and resettlement development committee chairmen from Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan Adjina and New Senchi. Their interest in sharing their experiences and explaining the situation of forced resettlement made it easy to undertake my interviews.

3.8 Data Collection Techniques and Instruments

Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected for this research. The data gathering procedure engaged was face-to-face conversation and surveillance. Questionnaires and interview guides were tools used for data collection. There were both structured and semi-structured questions to which answers were sought from the respondents.

3.8.1 Sources of Data

Generally, there are two sources of data for social research. These are primary and secondary data sources (Yeboah, 2005; Ahuja, 2007). Both sources were extensively used in this research. Both primary and secondary data were collected from the field to appropriately address the research questions. According to Laws et al (2006:283), primary data are, the data that lie closest to the source of the Ultimate Truth underlying a phenomenon. Beyond the region of primary data lies the region of secondary data. Bebelleh (2008) argues that both sources when extensively used by the researcher tend to validate the outcome of information generated. Secondary data sources were also explored. Surveys, observations and semi - structured questionnaires were employed for the primary data collection from the field and the selected sample. Some participatory (PRA) tools such as checklist and key informants' interviews were also employed to generate primary data.

Below, I discuss the tools and techniques that were applied to collect primary and secondary data for the study. To start with, the secondary data was collected from the works of others on the foundations and magnitudes of relocation, proficiencies of other nations and evaluations of documents in the area. The number of households in the communities under study was gathered from the VRA estate office whereas

information such as the most occurring disease in the district was gathered from the Ghana Health Service in the district to help measure health services in the selected communities).

The process of the primary data collection first involved the administration of questionnaires. Questionnaires consist of well-formulated questions to probe and obtain responses from respondents (Twumasi, 2001). It may be structured, semistructured or both. The questionnaire approach was adopted and used for household data collection.

The household heads were selected to respond to the questionnaire. Such a person however had the free hand to seek for some responses or clarifications from other members of his unit who might have been part of the processes of participation or are part of issues relating to the dam. In this research, both structured and semistructured questionnaires were carefully prepared for the primary data collection. The questionnaire was designed in line with the objectives of the study stated earlier. It has four (4) sections labeled A to D. Section A was designed to generate information on socio-economic data of respondents. Section B was designed to assess the various socio-economic activities for which the VRARP has been designed. It dealt with health, education, agriculture, water and sanitation, housing and finance. Section C tried to find out how their communities have been integrated into the VRARP. Finally, section D dealt with suggestions on how communities, institutions and government should deal with resettlement.

Afterwards, I tried to observe the resettlement towns fairly well by direct observation, focusing on social amenities and the population and living conditions in the area. In relation to Silverman's (2007) argument about conducting qualitative research, it is the data gathering technique, which helped produce my own data. The observations helped me contextualize information given by the resettlement officers and the settlers in relation with the topic under study.

Following the questionnaire survey, interviews were conducted. I used an interview guide to gather information from my key informants. They include officials of VRARTF, as well as stakeholders of Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan, Adjina and New senchi. Using this strategy I interviewed fifteen persons discussing the same topics. This increased my ability to compare responses and reduced possible bias towards particular issues. It equally gave me a natural basis for organizing my work.

Table 3.2: Summary of Data Sources and Collection Tools

Objectives	Variables	Sampling technique	Data sources	Data collection tools
To assess the various socioeconomic activities for which the fund is used by the resettlers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Income✓ Education✓ Housing✓ Health✓ Primary Infrastructure	Systematic Purposive	Household heads, Key informants.	Questionnaire survey and interview guide
To examine the level of involvement of the resettlers in the administration of the VRA RTF	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Community Involvement✓ Concern (S) Of The Communities	Purposive systematic	VRA RTF members, Household heads, Key informants	Questionnaire survey and interview guide
To analyse how the fund has promoted the socio-economic activities of the resettlers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Rehabilitation	Purposive systematic	VRA RTF members, Household heads, .	Questionnaire and interview guide

Source: Author's Construct, 2015

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3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis involves arranging, organizing, examining, recombining the evidence to address the propositions and objectives of the study. Data analysis can also be regarded as a practice whereby raw data are ordered and organized in order to extract useful information geared towards achieving the objectives of the study. The data gathered were analyzed qualitatively using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS V.16.0).

Tables, charts, and percentages were used to present statistics. Cross tabulation (relating one variable to another) were done to decide interactions concerning variables. The deliberations of the outcomes from the scrutinized data were presented in the subsequent chapter. The qualitative data generated from the interviews were transcribed and interpreted according to the set objectives. Since most of the interviews were conducted in a local language, they were translated into the English language. This was used to complement the quantitative data. The processed data were then discussed with views supporting or conflicting literature determined.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF FIELD DATA

4.1 Introduction

After the understanding of different viewpoints on the models of resettlement, the nature of resettlement, various resettlement practices, compensation and benefit sharing and the design of methodology to undertake the research, data was collected from the field and analysis was undertaken. This chapter examined and analyzed the data gathered from the questionnaire administered to the respondents of the resettled

townships in the Asuogyaman district. The analysis was done in sections; starting with the background information of respondents, discussions of the respondents used in the survey and discussions of the key issues of the study which were captured in the questionnaires.

4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of respondents

4.2.1 Sex Distribution of Respondents

Table 4.1 shows that, 66.67 percent of the respondents are male whilst 33.33 percent are female. This shows that household heads in the study area are male dominated. This distribution should not be surprising in such traditional societies where females are given little room in leadership. This respectively agrees with the findings of the Ghana Statistical Service (2013) that male headed households largely dominate household headship in Ghana. All the respondents from the VRARTF officers were female, representing 100.0%. The planning activities of the VRARP could be gender bias as there is no male among the officials.

Table 4.1: Sex of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	198	66.67
Female	99	33.33
Total	297	100.00

Source: Field Data, 2015

4.2.2 Age Distribution of Respondents

Table 4.2 shows that, all the respondents are 28 years and over. This implies that all the respondents are older than the resettlement programme that was implemented and

were witnesses to the socio-economic conditions in the study communities before and after the resettlement programme..

Table 4.2 shows that there was a fair distribution with regards to the respondents and the age categories as the respondents were not skewed towards a specific age group, but ranges from 28 years to 71 years and above. This allowed responses from people of different ages to give their perception on how the VRARP has affected their socioeconomic development.

Table 4.2: Age of Respondents

Age range	Frequency	Percentage
28-38	76	25.59
39-48	89	29.97
49-59	55	18.52
60-70	49	16.49
71+	28	9.43
TOTAL	297	100

Source: Field Data, 2015.

4.2.3 Ages and Marital Status of Respondents

The results of marital status of respondents according to age group, as revealed by the analyses are presented in Table 4.3. All the married respondents fall within the age groups from 38-70 which constitute 36.70 percent. This may partially explain why the communities have large household sizes. Out of these respondents, 29.29 percent and 23.57 percent represent single and widowed respondents respectively. The potential effect of such distribution is that large household sizes may mean that any intervention policy should take into consideration the livelihood outcomes of the people.

Table 4.3: Ages and Marital Status of Respondents

Age	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Total	Percentage
28 – 38	40	13	-	10	63	21.21
39 - 48	14	30	25	-	69	23.23
49- 59	26	46	13	16	101	34
60 – 70	7	20	22	5	54	18.18
71+	-	-	10	-	10	3.4
Total	87	109	70	31	297	
Percentages	29.29	36.70	23.57	10.44		100

Source: Field Data, 2015

4.2.4. Educational Levels of the Respondents

Educational training affects the nature of people's traditional socio-economic activities, perception, attitude to changes and the adoption of new knowledge and technologies as well as the possibility of changing occupations and livelihood systems (Colclough, Rose and Tembon, 2000). Therefore, the educational backgrounds of the respondents were assessed.

Table 4.4: Educational Levels of the Respondents

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
Basic	213	71.72
SHS	68	22.89
Tertiary	16	5.39
Total	297	100

Source: Field Data, 2015.

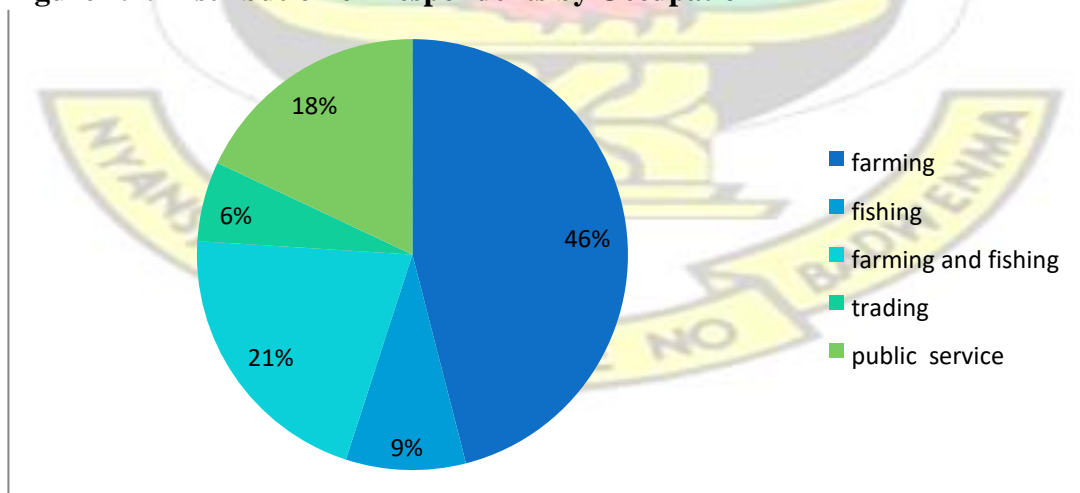
Table 4.4 shows that 71.72 percent schooled up to the basic school level, 22.89 percent have Senior High School education and 5.39 percent schooled beyond Senior High School level. Therefore, the percentage of respondents who had higher level of education is less than those who had only basic level of education. Mostly, in such

instances, ability to sustainably manage modern resources is very low. The result of such situation could be low levels of productivity which becomes disadvantageous if the cycle should continue. This is because it would be difficult to support the children on incomes from economic activities which are meager due to low productivity hence setting in motion a vicious cycle of poverty.

4.2.5 Distribution of Respondents by Occupation

The distribution of respondents by occupation revealed that agriculture (mainly farming and fishing) is the most dominant profession within the resettled communities (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Occupation



Source: field data, 2015

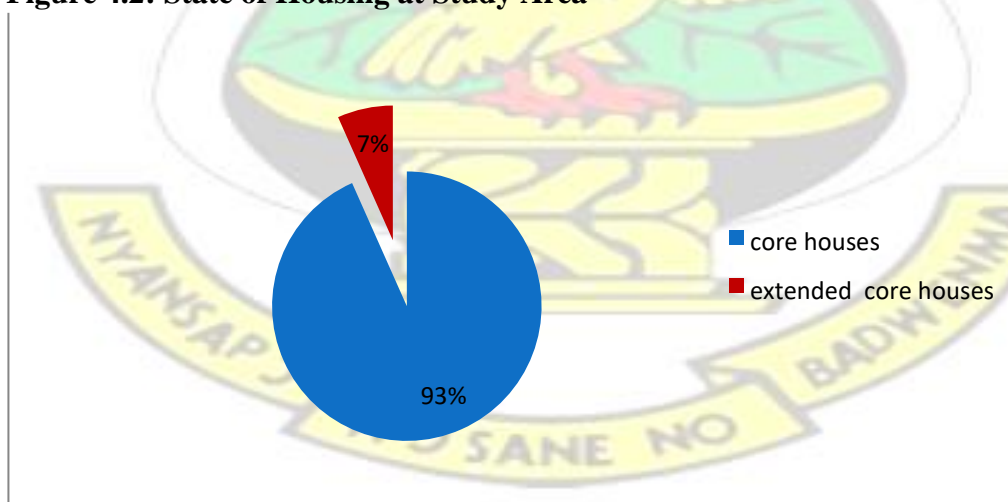
Figure 4.1 shows that 76 percent of the respondents are engaged in agriculture, 6 percent and 18 percent are into trading and public (civil) services respectively.

4.3 Socio-Economic sectors of VRA Resettlement Programme

4.3.1 Housing

The policy adopted under the VRARP with regards to housing was to make available an average plot of 30 by 30 meters to every household for housing. The policy was also to provide the sites with “core” houses. These had solid floors and aluminum roofing for two rooms and two porches. However only one room (12 by 12 meters with kitchen and porch) was completed before relocation. It was premeditated that additional rooms and two porches would be completed by the settlers themselves with materials and technical aids provided on arrival at the new site. Materials were to be provided to the settlers who were to supply their own labour.

Figure 4.2: State of Housing at Study Area



Source: Field Data, 2015.

Figure 4.2 shows that 93 percent of the surveyed houses were still in the core housing state, whilst only 7 percent of the core households have been extended.

It is important to point out that 93 percent of the respondents whose houses are still in the core housing state indicated that VRA was not able to provide the households with the materials and technology they promised. Also, the respondents lacked the means to put up the walls for the second and third rooms. According to them the VRA is both their central and local government. Following from that they expect the Authority to handle „everything“: from the repairing of building cracks up to the provision of modern infrastructure after over 30 years of creating the town.

The study revealed that the average room occupancy ratio is 1:6 which is one room is to six people. For the purpose of the sizes of plots allocated to each household all the respondents confirmed they were given an average plot of 30 by 30 meters.

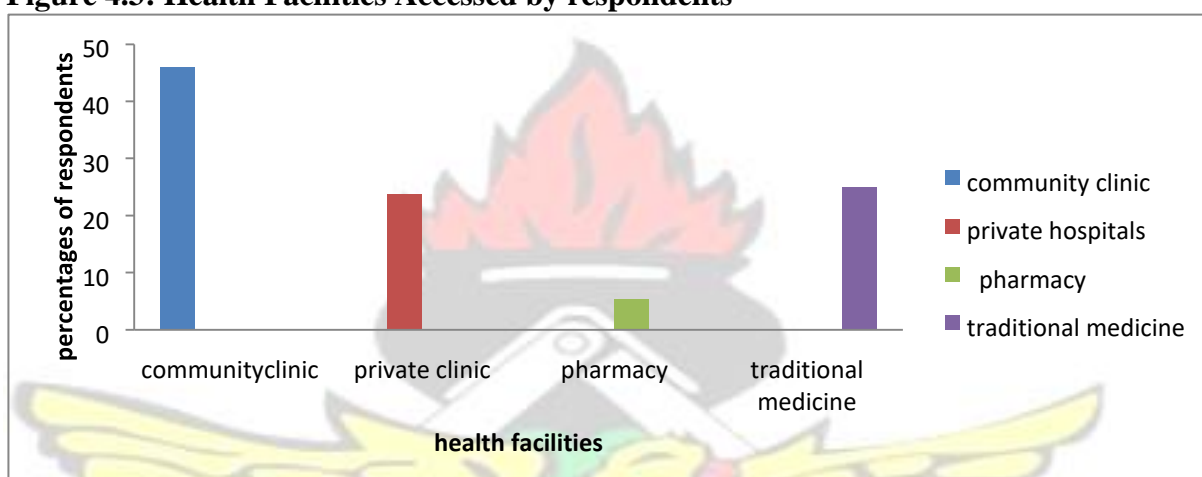
Interviews conducted at the VRA Resettlement office indicated that funds were limited for them to be able to build additional houses for the resettlers. That is the main reason why most of the houses are still in their core states. The result of majority (93 percent) of the respondents still living in these core houses with respect to population growth is overcrowding which can lead to conflicts and unacceptable social behaviors like stealing, prostitution etc. Also, the inability of the settlers to extend their houses affects their ability to be hospitable. This is similar to the argument of scholars that these resettlers are more “vulnerable” because they have a greater tendency to live in poorly constructed homes (Cutter et al, 2006).

4.3.2 Health

According to Gulliford et al. (2002), access to health care is a vital element of any health care delivery system because the opportunity to acquire health care exists if there is availability and adequate supply of services.

The policy adopted under the VRARP with regards to health was to provide each resettlement township with health services to take care of their health needs.

Figure 4.3: Health Facilities Accessed by respondents



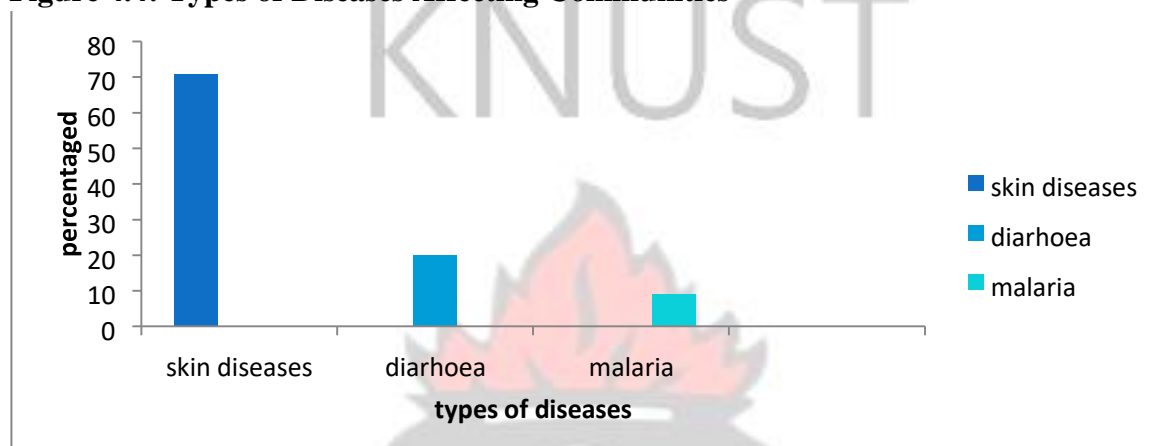
Source: Field Data, 2015

Figure 4.3 shows that, the major type of health facility accessed by majority (46.0 percent) of the respondents is the community clinics provided by the VRA, 25 percent use traditional medicines because they cannot afford the others, whilst 23.7 percent of respondents visit private clinics. Guagliardo (2004) indicated that, distance from a health care facility is a factor capable of affecting access to health care services. Thus, a population's health care needs can be affected negatively by the distance that they need to cover to access health care facility. The households' access to a health facility is based on their ability to cover the distance.

The study sought to find out the means through which they access their health care needs and the distance covered. It was revealed that, 20.87 percent of the respondents

cross the Volta River to access health care services while 79.13 percent walk 10km to access health care. The long distance covered to access health facility can lead to death since they cannot afford the bills of the private clinic.

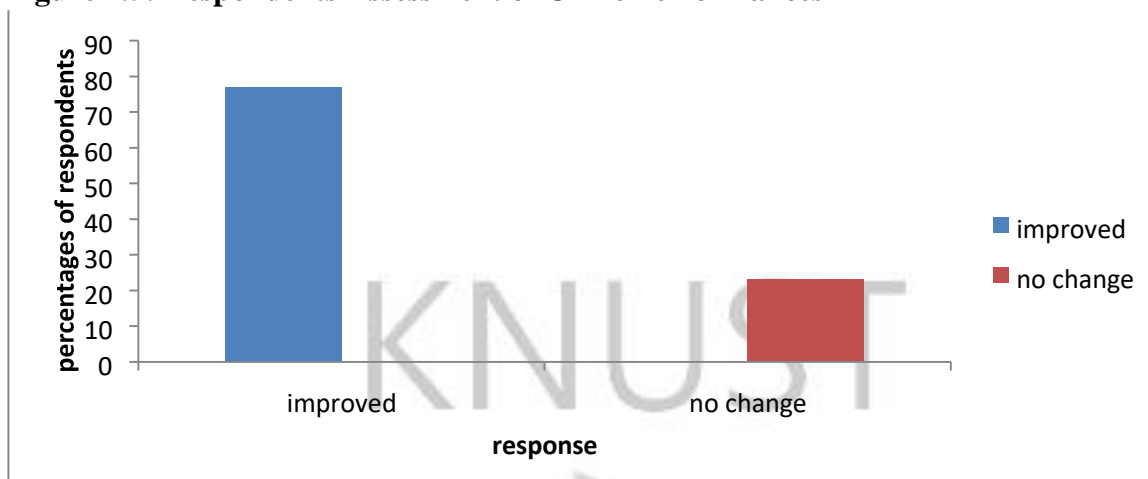
Figure 4.4: Types of Diseases Affecting Communities



Source: Community Clinics (Nkwakubew, Apegusu, Npakadan Adjina and New Senchi)

Figure 4.4 above shows the various diseases common in the district. As noted Skin diseases (measles, smallpox and yaws) account for 70.9 percent of the population that reported at the health institutions. This can be as a result of overcrowding, which creates conditions for the spread of communicable diseases such as yaws, measles and smallpox.

Figure 4.5: Respondents Assessment of Clinic Performances



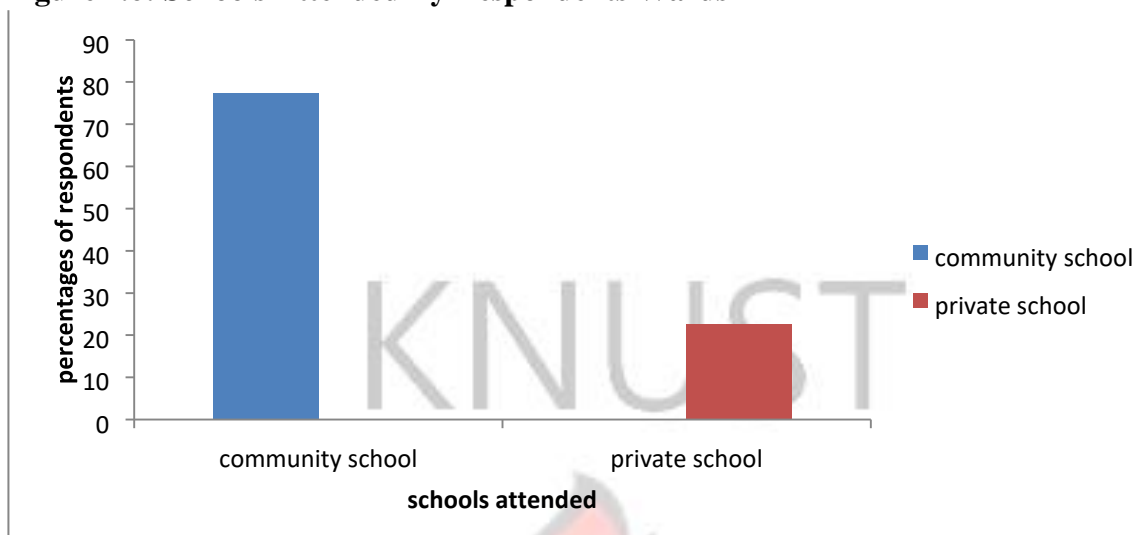
Source: field data, 2015

For the purpose of assessment of clinics performance of all the surveyed clinics, majority (76.9 percent) of respondents said the clinics performance have improved as a result of increased number of medical officers at post and increased number of working hours from 12 to 24 hours. (Figure 4.5)

4.3.3 Education

The policy adopted under the Volta river resettlement programme with regards to education, primary school allocation was calculated on the basis of one school block for every thousand population. Middle school was based on wherever there was one in the old settlement or within a new township and with reasonable access. They also promised the resettlers scholarships for their children. On the whole 82 school blocks were constructed for the 52 resettlement townships at the time of evacuation in 1964.

Figure 4.6: Schools Attended By Respondents Wards

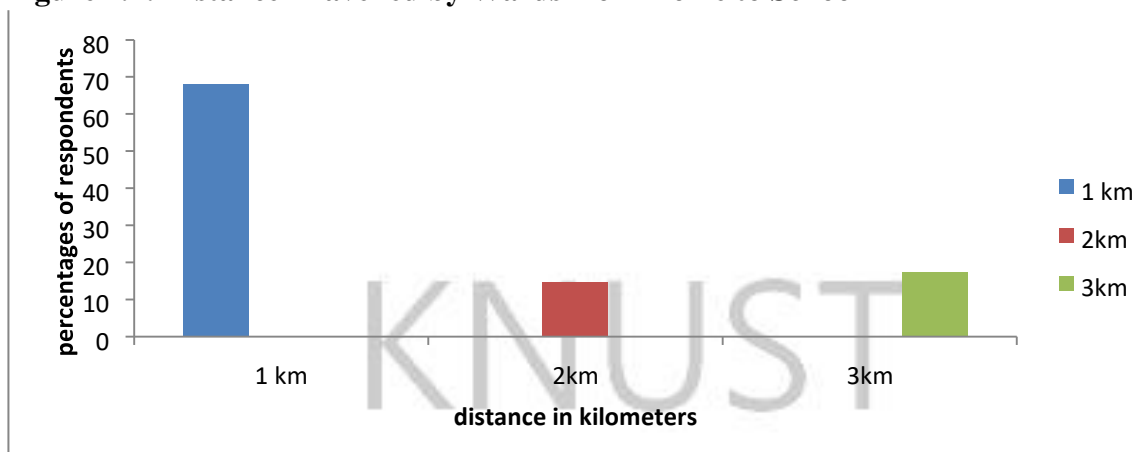


Source: Field Data, 2015.

Figure 4.6 shows that majority (77.3 percent) of the respondents send their children to schools provided by the VRA resettlement programme whilst 22.7 percent of households send their children to private schools. Most of the respondents prefer the community schools because they are cheaper compared to the private schools. Eighty-nine percent of the children of school going age are enrolled in school in the surveyed communities. The scholarships that were promised have not been implemented. The public schools provided in these resettlement townships are basic schools. At the time of the study there were eight basic schools in the study area.

The results of distance travelled by wards from home to school reveals that the longest distance an individual travels to access basic education is 3 kilometers, while 1 kilometer is the shortest distance one needs to cover to basic education (figure 4.7).

Figure 4.7: Distance Travelled by Wards from Home to School

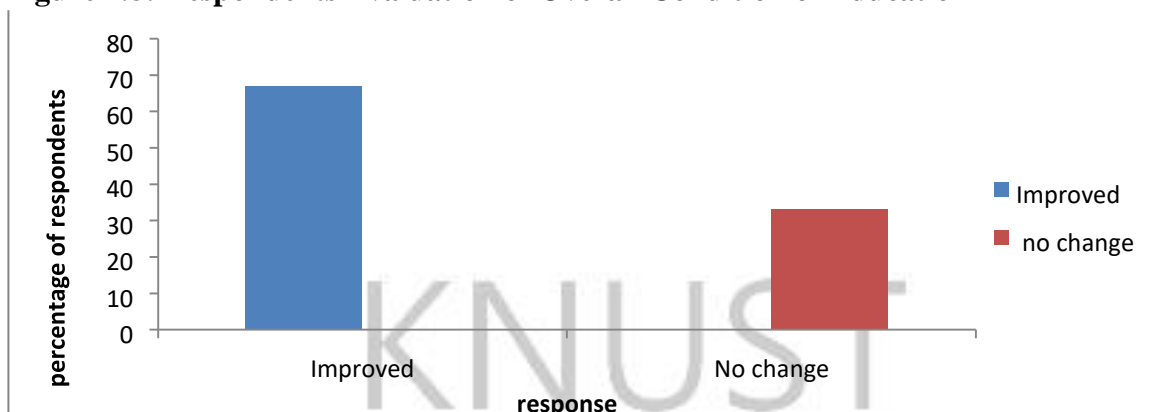


Source: Field Data, 2015.

Figure 4.7 shows that 68 percent of wards of the respondents in the study area travel 1 kilometer to access basic education while 17.3 percent travel 3 kilometers to access basic education. In terms of means of access to both primary and middle schools, the study revealed that, 79 percent of wards of the households in these resettlement townships walk to access basic school whilst 29 percent use bicycles to get their wards to school. Pupils in these resettlement townships do much walking because the schools are within walking distances this comes with inconveniences to the pupils as they become too tired before lessons begin.

The study revealed that there are 45 pupils per classroom which is contrary to the national standard of 32 pupils per classroom. This is because as the population increases enrollment also increases. The implication of this is poor quality of education as a result of high student teacher ratio. Also there will be stress on the school facilities.

Figure 4.8: Respondents Evaluation of Overall Condition of Education



Source: Field Data, 2015.

Regarding the general assessment of overall educational conditions of the school, majority(67 percent) of respondents confirmed that the condition of the school have improved as a result of the school feeding programme, increased number of teachers and the introduction of extra classes for their wards (Chart 1.6).

4.3.4 Agriculture

The policy adopted under the Volta river resettlement programme with regards to agriculture was to improve farming by giving each settler prepared land to sustain a satisfactory level of living. It was decided that each subsistence farmer should have a minimum of twelve acres under mechanized farming. Tree crop farmers were to have a minimum of five and a maximum of fifteen acres. Intensive livestock farmers were to have a minimum of three acres each, and pastoralists were to have a minimum of thirty acres.

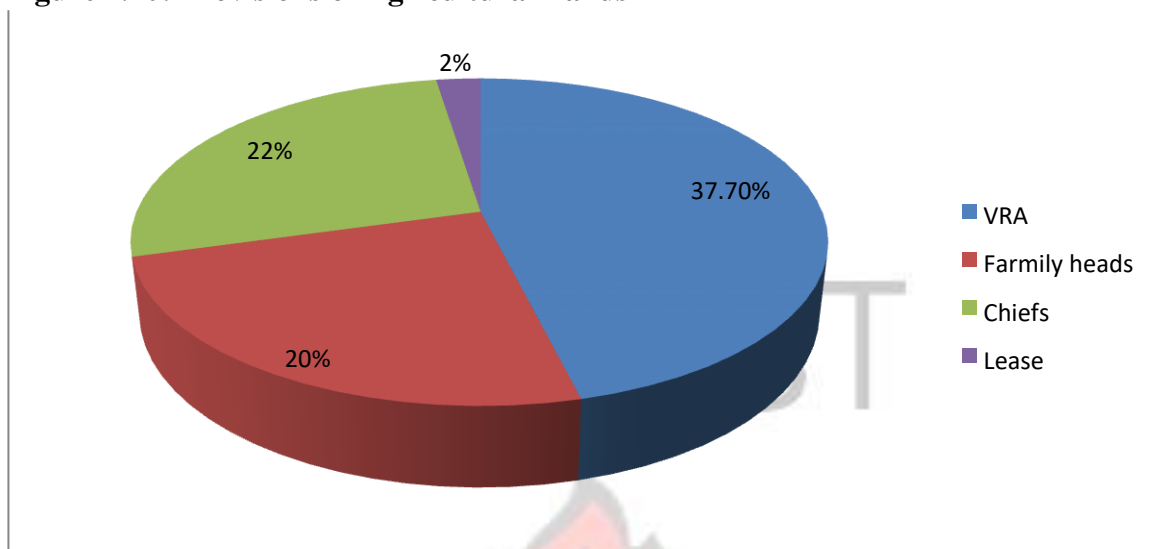
Figure 4.9: Agriculture Activities of Respondents



Source: Field Data, 2015

Figure 4.9 show that 87.58 percent of the respondents are farmers. Fifty percent of farmers interviewed have less than 3 hectares of farmland per household. Although the creation of the Volta Lake provided opportunities for fishing occupations, very few (10.42 percent) of the respondents have seized the opportunity. It is important to point out that 87.58 percent of the respondents who are farmers indicated that the low response to fishing in the district is mainly due to the fact that the people in the district were farmers before the creation of the lake, and such farmers did not want to abandon their traditional farming practices in which they were already experienced for a relatively new, risk prone occupation. Sixty three per cent of the fishermen used hired labor to help in part of the fishing operation. Only 4 per cent of the fishermen received services from the fishery extension personnel. If extensions service is increased, production could be greatly enhanced. About 78 percent of the farmers use traditional method of appropriate storage facilities. This has led to high post-harvest losses in the district.

Figure 4.10: Provisions of Agricultural Lands

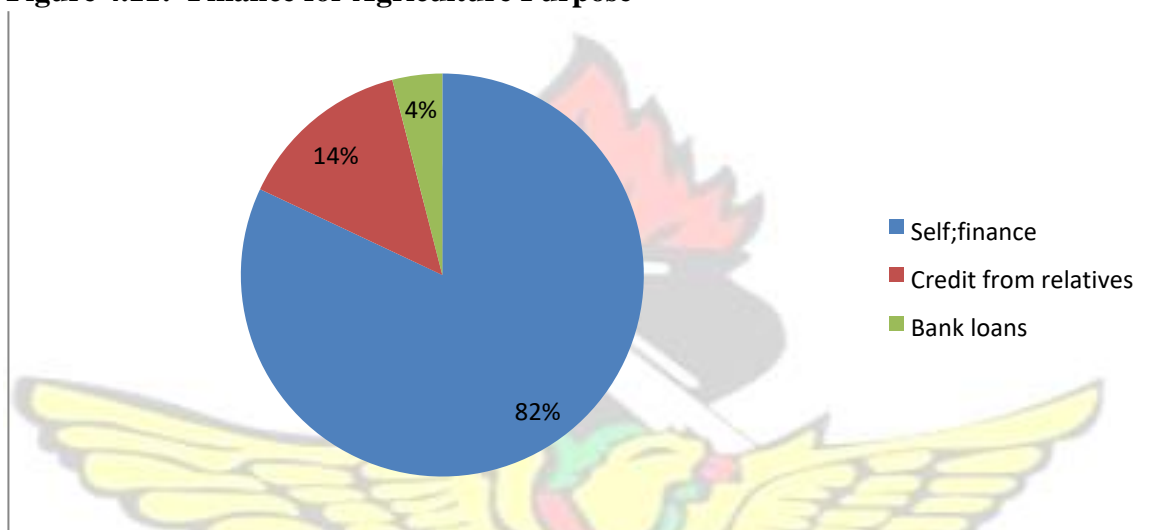


Source: Field Data, 2015.

Most of the farmers (37.7%) had their lands from the VRA. During resettlement, the Volta River Authority (VRA) assigned 1.2 hectares to each adult resettler. Twenty percent of farmers indicated that they were allocated their farmlands by the family head, and 22 percent are allocated by the chief. Only 2 per cent acquired their farmland through lease or rent (see figure 4.10). None of the farmers acquired land through purchase. The average farm holding was 2 hectare. According to the study 89 percent of the farmers use hired labour mainly for land clearing, weeding and harvesting. About 93.7 per cent of the farmers use axe, hoe and cutlass for their farming operations. These tools are labour intensive and not suitable for large scale production. Only 6 per cent of farmers indicated that they occasionally had access to tractors for tilling. No farmer used draught animals. The high dependence on hired labour could also be attributed to the use of traditional labor intensive implements like cutlass, axes and hoe. This implies a need to move from labor intensive production technique to a production technique that is less labor demanding such as mechanized farming as in the case of the Ujaamaa resettlement villages, where the people were initially using

out moded methods of farming practices. This resulted in low yields until the government introduced new methods of farming practices (Misana et al, 2012). Eighty-one percent of farmers do not use fertilizers, high yielding crop varieties or insecticides. Reasons given for not using them includes high cost, non-availability and lack of knowledge about their presence or use.

Figure 4.11: Finance for Agriculture Purpose



Source: Field Data, 2015.

Figure 4.11 above shows that 82 percent of farmers finance their own investments. As savings are normally meager, this could also be a factor limiting the scale of farmers' production activities. Fourteen per cent of the farmers obtained credit from relatives, private money lenders and other private sources to finance their farming activities. About 4 per cent obtained credit from banks. According to the respondents most of the farmers are not able to meet the requirements of the banks.

Table 4.5 Income Level of Respondents

Income Level(GH¢) per month	Frequency	Percentage (%)
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Less than GH¢50	103	34.7
GH¢51-150	82	27.61
GH¢151-250	65	21.9
Above GH¢251	47	15.99
Total	297	100

Source: Field Data, 2015.

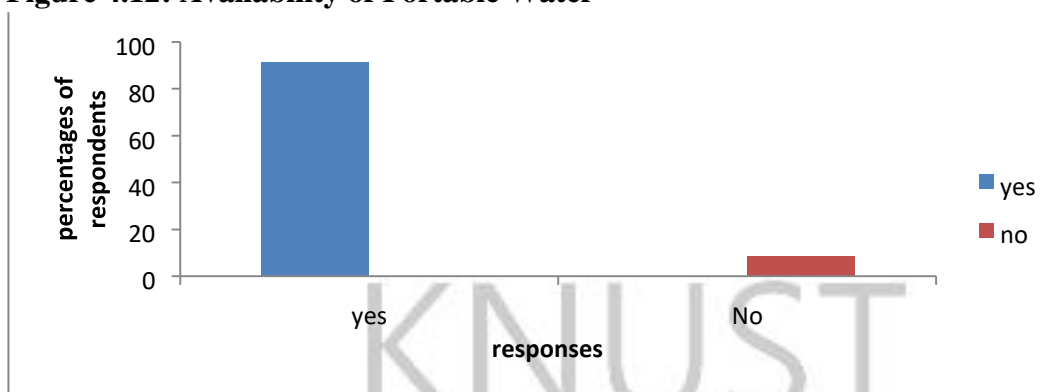
Table 4.5 shows that 34.7 percent earn less than GH¢50 per month, 27.61 percent earn between GH¢51 - GH¢150 per month, 21.9 percent earn between GH¢151 - GH¢250 per month and the rest 15.99 percent earn above GH¢251 a month. This shows that the monthly income of respondents is not adequate to meet their needs. For comparative purposes, the 2015 minimum daily wage in Ghana is GH¢ 7. Findings indicate that most communities have low incomes from their primary occupation

4.3.5 Primary Infrastructure

The policy adopted under the Volta river resettlement programme with regards to primary infrastructure was to provide each resettlement township with electricity and portable drinking water. On the whole, 146 public latrines. In addition, 52 boreholes 6 wells and 34 mechanical and 23 hand pumps were installed in all the 52 resettlement townships as at the time of evacuation.

4.3.6 Water and Sanitation

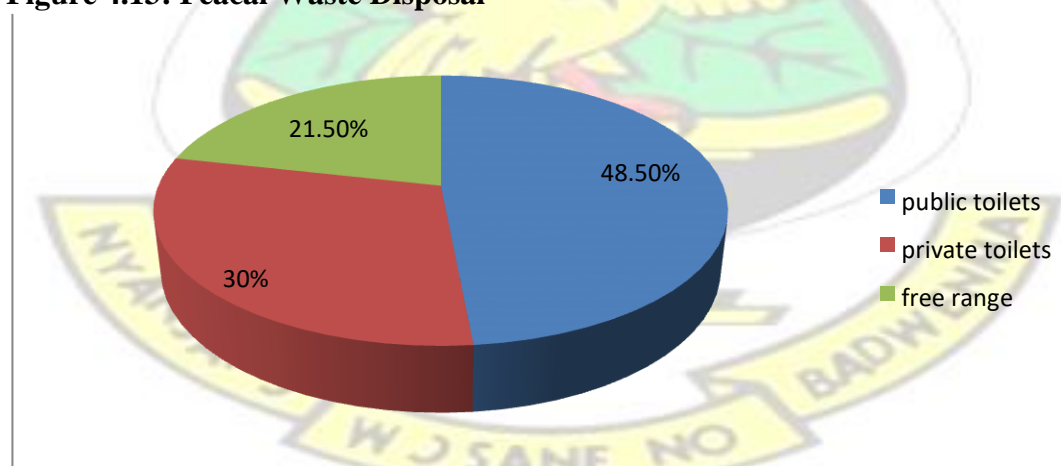
Figure 4.12: Availability of Portable Water



Source: Field Data, 2015.

Majority (91.4 percent) of the respondents have access to portable water. Only a few (8.6 percent) depend on either rivers/streams and lake for drinking, bathing and washing of clothes. It is important to point out that 8.6 percent of the respondents who depend on river and lake water are exposed to health risks associated with using contaminated water (Figure 4.12).

Figure 4.13: Feacal Waste Disposal



Source: Field Data, 2015.

Figure 4.13 shows that 48.5 percent of the respondents rely on public toilets, 21.5 per cent go to toilet in the open while only 30 percent have access to private toilets. The

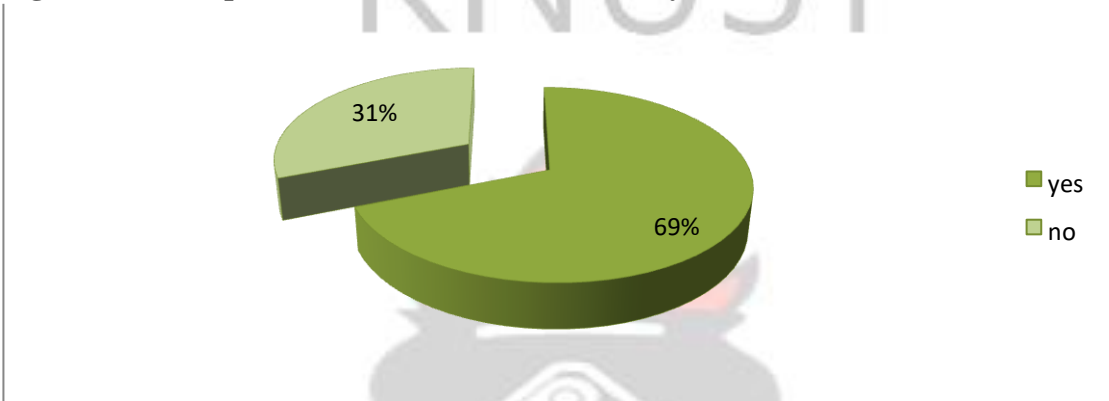
respondents who go to toilet in the open indicated that the communal latrines provided are not functioning due to lack of proper use and maintenance. This means that toilet facilities are generally poor and inadequate and are likely to create health hazards especially diarrhea and cholera from flies and the risk of children falling into open pit latrine. The study revealed that 78 percent of respondents dispose of their solid wastes within the vicinity of their houses. This according to the respondents is as a result of frequent breakdowns of the sewage collection and refuse disposal systems. Only 22% of them either burn or bury their garbage. All the households surveyed have access to electricity. As at the time of the study most of the communal latrines and pipes were not functioning. Out of the seven latrines and four pipes provided at the time of evacuation only three latrines and three pipes were functioning. The rapid deterioration and breakdown of the sanitation facilities particularly the communal latrines and the pipe-borne water and refuse disposal systems has led to environmental pollution of human and domestic wastes. Interviews conducted at the VRA Resettlement office indicated that some settlers would apply for the maps only to sell portions of the acquired areas. That is the main reason why the VRA does not often give out acquisition maps.

4.3.6 Financing

Over 30 years after the commissioning of the Akosombo dam, the VRA Resettlement Trust Fund was set up in July 1996 with the objective to monitor the conditions of the settlements and serves as a shield to fend off pressures on government. The 52 Resettlement Townships are apportioned with a sum of money. The amount of money given to each township is calculated based on a formula which takes into account population, size and existing amenities. The financial contribution from the VRA

annually (USD 500,000) set up the principal source of revenue, but other sources of funding may be pursued by the trustees. Seventy five per cent of the Trust Fund’s income is allocated to resettlement communities, with the remainder applied towards the administration of the VRA RTF’s Secretariat.

Figure 4.14: Responses on Financial Assistance by the VRARP



From figure 9, as many as 69 percent of the respondents answered in affirmative to the question whether they are aware of the financial assistance of the VRARP to their various communities, whilst the remaining 22 percent answered otherwise. According to the respondents who responded in affirmative, the financial assistance given by the Assembly is not enough. . The USD 500,000 does not take into consideration inflation. This sums to the miserable amount of 6 USD annually per head of settler using the population of resettlement townships as at 2010 and one will begin to wonder what kind of activities will this sum be able to finance. Interviews conducted at the VRA Resettlement office indicated that they used to give the resettlement communities money so that they can address their own needs. They later on realized that some elders spend these monies without the communities’ knowledge. That is why they now give them projects. The VRA Resettlement officials included that since the inception of the fund, the annual amount of five hundred thousand dollars (\$500,000) has not been increased ever since. It therefore has not been easy for the Trust Administrators to

increase their rate of developmental activities as they would normally wish to. The finance officer of the VRARTF mentioned that the sustainability of the Fund has also been made possible by the efforts of management to invest some of the funds so they can reap increase values to do greater developmental projects.

4.4 Level of Involvement of the Resettlers in the Volta River Authority's Resettlement Programme

With regard to how the communities are actively participating in the VRARP, committees were set up to see to the implementation. The study revealed that while some committees are active others had been without committees for some time now. This was the case of the New Senchi community. In this case the School Management Committee (SM) chairman and some others took it upon themselves to act in place of the committee. These people were selected by the community in collaboration with the chiefs in the area to carry out all activities related to the resettlement programme.

Table 4.5: Involvement of the Resettlement Townships

	Frequency	Percent
Good	74	24.92
Average	193	64.98
Poor	30	10.10
Total	297	100

Source: Field Data 2015

Table 4.5 describes household heads response with regard to community involvement in the resettlement programme. It was revealed that 24.92 percent of respondents see the level of community involvement to be good, 64.98 percent of the respondents think the level of community involvement is average and 10.10 percent of respondents see the level of community involvement as poor. So from the above responses it can be

said that community involvement in the activities of the resettlement programme is fairly adequate. The 64.98 percent of the population who opted for „good“ highlighted the importance of having foras that deal with issues of specific subgroups like women, children and the elderly because different groups would have different challenges. The 11percent who opted for „poor“ participation indicated that after decision making they are not told the outcome.

Table 4.6 provides the concerns of the communities that they really needed to be provided since the resettlement programme started. The top three needs identified in the communities.

Table 4.6: Ranking Communities Needs

Needs	Frequency	Percentage
Agriculture	97	39.917
Health	72	29.629
Sanitation	74	30.452
Total	243	99.998

Source: Field Data, 2015

The table above examines communities“ needs. It shows that 39.917 percent of the respondents have had agriculture as a major need while, 29.629 percent have had health as their major need, and 30.452 percent had sanitation to be their major need.

These needs are discussed in relation to how communities“ needs are related to the extent of community's participation in the VRA programme activities.

Table 4.7 and Table 4. 8, presents the mean and standard deviation, and one- way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of how communities needs affect communities' participation in the VRA programme activities.

Table 4.7: Mean and Standard Deviation of Communities Needs

Needs	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Agriculture	97	24.25	4.372	5.186
Sanitation	74	18.5	17.450	8.742
Health	72	1.8	22.750	11.365
Total	243	44.55		

Source: Field Data, 2015

Table 4.8: One Way Analysis of Variance: The Extent to Which community Needs Affect Communities Participation

Source	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	P
Between groups	920.243	2	410.172	3.104	0.001
Within groups	6825.824	41	145.443		
Total	7641.180	47			

Source: Field Data, 2015

The one-way ANOVA in Table 4.8 reveals that communities concerns inherent in the participation process are manifested differently with respect to the five communities [F 3.165, P< .05]. The implication of these analyses is that community's participation is independent of how their concerns are address. This is similar to the argument made by Fink (2005) and Ofori (2006) that the extend of communities participation is not necessarily related to how their concerns are being addressed. This also refutes

Putnam endorsement of a Tocquevillian inspired ideal that high levels of community involvement teach “people how to cooperate across civic life” and encourage the development of democratic ideals within a community (Field 2003: 30). Respondents stated that sometimes the projects they demand are said to be more than the resources available. In that case they are forced to change their priorities. This implies that all the stakeholders are not involved in the decision making process.

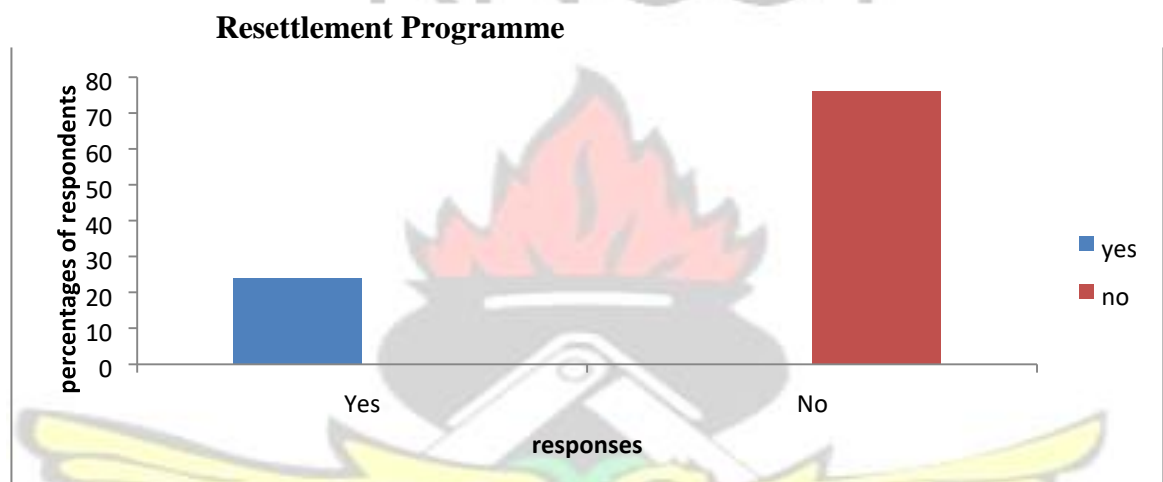
On the question of the involvement of the resettlers in the determination of the final activities of the Fund this is what the Director said: “We have always ensured that the resettlement communities fully participate in the determination of projects to their communities. This is to help us undertake projects that directly meet their needs and elicit their patronage of them. We do this by ensuring that we consult with all the relevant stake holders of the town. These stake holders include the respective district assemblies, the members of parliament and the VRA Town Development Committees (TDCs) who are supposed to be on the ground to find out areas of the most need to the communities. The evidence of this success can be proved by the impressive community patronage in all our events and activities carried out.

Also, the Finance Officer stated that they constantly receive requests of developmental needs the residents expect them to intervene on. The Trust Fund therefore factor that into what projects they deem most appropriate based on the available resources at the point in time. They subsequently fulfill that request by undertaking those projects promptly. He said, “It is due to the trust and participatory spirit that has been cultivated between the Trust Administrators and the residents that such constant dialogue

continues to meet each other's expectations." This implies that all the stakeholders are not involved in the decision making process.

4.5 Volta River Authority's resettlement programme and local socio-economic development.

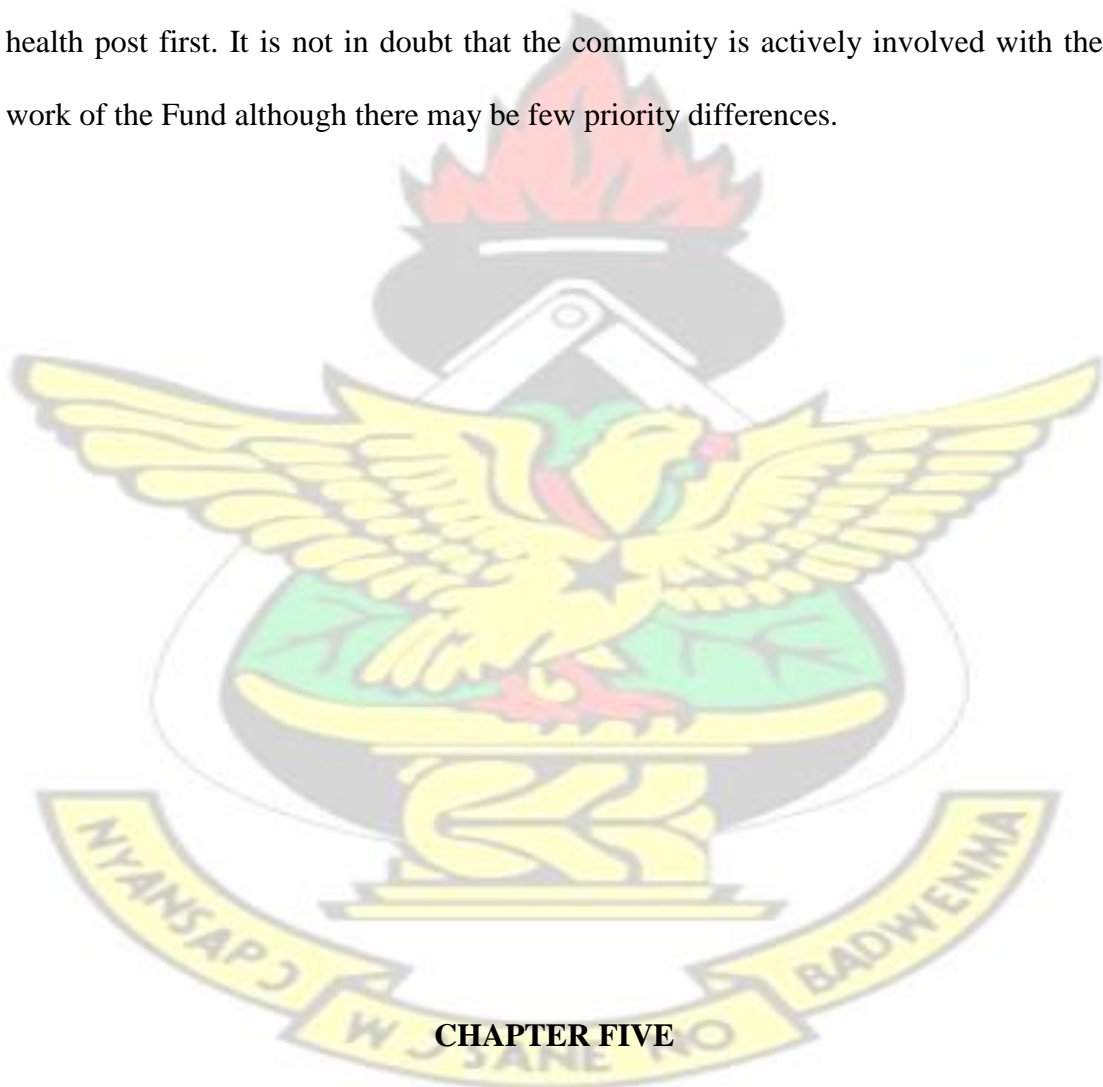
Figure 4.15: Respondents view on Sufficient Rehabilitation by VRA



Source: Field Data, 2015

Finally, the third research question focused on whether the VRA Resettlement programme has been effective in rehabilitating the residents over the years. On this item, residents had different responses . Seventy-six percent disagreed with the assertion that resettlement programme has rehabilitated or even improved the livelihood of citizens. Only 24 percent are of the view that there has been some form of rehabilitation. They are also of the view that rehabilitation is a process but not a one-time event. This could imply that if any number of people had rehabilitation at all, it is only a privileged few.

On the question of the rehabilitation and improvement of resettlers, the Administrative officer believes that rehabilitation would be arrived at but in the distant future due to the limited resources available to the Trust Fund. However, the Communities still tends to have complaints about areas they would want the Trust Fund to attend to first. This is common in any society. One person's scale of preference differs from another. Each person prioritizes differently. Whereas some expects the provision of a market or factory first, others think they should be given a school and a health post first. It is not in doubt that the community is actively involved with the work of the Fund although there may be few priority differences.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter which contains analyses and discussions gave rise to in the identification of major findings that are related to the assessment of VRARP and socio-

economic dimensions of the rural communities. Based on the findings, appropriate recommendations to enhance the resettlement programme in the study area have been suggested and conclusion drawn. This entire chapter is thus, covers summary of key findings, recommendations and conclusions.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The summary focuses on the following: assessment of the various socio-economic activities for which the VRARP has been designed, an examination of the level of involvement of the settlers in the VRARP and an analysis of how the Volta River Authority's resettlement programme has promoted the socio-economic wellbeing of the resettlers.

5.2.1 The Various Socio-Economic Activities for Which the VRARP was Designed It was established from this study that on the average there had been one house or structure in the homesteads. With regards to room occupancy ratio which is 1:6, households seemed to be worst off this was as a result of not being able to building additional houses to accommodate a family. This situation has led to overcrowding.

Concerning health services and facilities even though the researcher was not able to access proper statistics on the extent to which health status has changed in the relocation areas, many people have been exposed to different health risks. For example, some respondents have suffered from diseases, such as skin disease, diarrhoea and malaria. Most of the respondents use community clinic provided by VRA. When asked about the accessibility of different health services the respondents said that it took about three hours on foot to reach the nearest clinic but the respondents

mentioned that the walk short distances to reach all the other health facilities even though rates are a bit expensive in private hospitals as compared to the government hospital. With regards to access to health care, it was found that an appreciable Proportion of the residents live within walking distances to health facilities.

The study revealed that, majority of the respondents take their wards to the community schools provided by the VRA resettlement programme and this is because the fees are affordable. However, respondents in the survey area have a better access to education in terms of distance covered to access schools.

The study also found that Agriculture is the principal industry within the study area. Agricultural activities fall under four main land use or land utilization types namely; rainfed agriculture and fishing. The major problem affecting agricultural production in these communities include poor accessibility to productive agricultural lands, low input use due to lack of credit to farmers, inefficient farming methods and finally institutional problems such as inadequate extension services to both the local farmers and fishermen.

Access to primary infrastructure was encouraging. Access to electricity and sanitary facilities was present. Still, after the implementation of the resettlement programme the accessibility to sanitation facilities, which include toilet and drinking water was poor. However, the opinions on the level of satisfaction regarding these facilities were divided. Some were negative, since they did not have a toilet facility to their house but rather outside their houses.

The study found positive improvements in many facilities with the exception of sanitation and housing as compared to studies of other resettlement projects that found a decline in the post resettlement wellbeing factor (Cernea & Schmidt-Soltau 2006).

5.2.2 Level of Involvement of the Settlers in the VRARP

The study revealed that, a lot of the people were not adequately involved in the programme activities. While they acknowledge that various meetings were organized with the committees, there are serious discontents about the degree of involvement. Respondents highlighted the importance of having foras that deal with issues of specific subgroups like women, children and the elderly because different groups would have different issues that might require different mitigation measures. Priorities of people are rejected because it is costly which implies that all the stakeholders were not involved in the decision making process.

5.2.3 How the Volta River Authority's Resettlement Programme Has Promoted the Socio-Economic Wellbeing of the Resettlers

However, the opinions on the level of satisfaction on the subject of these facilities were at odds. Some were progressive, since they perceived rehabilitation to be a process but not a onetime event. Other adverse views arise from the fact that the rehabilitation process was slow. The respondents concern is that they need more of the social interventions than what had been given to them in order to improve their livelihood. In view of the research finding, it is obvious that the resettlement schemes ends up leaving the affected people to their faith after giving them some few utilities such as schools, water and sanitation facilities.

5.3 Recommendations

Volta River Authority in collaboration with ministry of Agriculture should introduce modern small-scale cultivation practices (for small farmers) that aim to enhance production and reduce efforts and costs. Such practices can include: irrigation; fertilization; the use of seeds and organic products; support for post-harvest technologies, including those for handling and storage operations that take place in the fields and for storing crops. They should also introduce an integrated programme for communities of small farmers to form cooperatives .Through these cooperatives they can easily access loan facilities and boost the individual participation of members in such communities. They should also help the resettlers to establish linkages between cooperatives and companies from the industrial sector.

There should be concerted efforts on the part of the District Assembly and other stakeholders such as the chiefs ,town development committees“ and elders of the community in education to provide school blocks to make up for the backlog in basic school infrastructure in the district. The Assembly should present proposals to Civil Society Organizations, Bilateral and Multilateral Organizations, Embassies, High Commissions and other Development Partners to help in the provision of basic education infrastructure.

The Volta River Authority should involve those communities including Asuogyaman District that are affected by the resettlement scheme in the decision making process in various aspects concerning their lives. To achieve these objectives extensive stakeholder consultation must be carried out especially involving those affected at

various stages of the planning process. Stakeholders propose for the participatory process should include the District Assemblies, representatives of government departments and NGOs actively working in relevant fields, paramount and village chiefs of the affected area, and specifically target groups in the affected communities such as women, the excluded, minorities and the youth. The communities should be regarded as equal partners and must be given adequate time to offer their consent.

Planners should be involved in decision making concerning what the affected people want. The planner will help the beneficiaries to be aware of the purpose and nature of planning and providing services which are necessary for an effective planning. The planner will also help in bringing their activities together in a harmonious way to ensure that sound projects are formulated and implemented to solve problems. He will also ensure that the decisions finally reached are realistic in terms of: The prevailing social, economic and political conditions and available resources to make projects, acceptable to implementing agencies, as well as to the potential beneficiaries. This will go a long way to avoid projects being rejected by VRA.

The various communities should appeal to the Volta River Authority by the VRA Resettlement Trust Fund to increase its contribution to enable the Trust Fund constitutently provide the social amenities to the resettlement communities. Government should also add a percentage to the electricity tariffs for development of the resettlement communities since they have suffered and are still suffering as a result of the construction of Akosombo Dam for the generation of electricity. On the question of the rehabilitation and improvement of the Senchi community, the Administrative officer believes that rehabilitation would be arrived at but in the distant future due to the limited resources available to the Trust Fund. The Fund should also concentrate on

training more residents on income generating activities and entrepreneurial ventures to facilitate the rate of the improvement of individual household economies, she added.

It is recommended that Government and other Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) such as plan Ghana who are development partners must all play a role in assisting all Resettlement Townships. They must involve those communities in their development programmes since such communities have sacrificed their naturally given real-estate and occupation for the larger good and public interest of the entire society.

The resettlement communities should organize themselves and form groups in order to raise funds for their own development initiatives. This can be done by taking levies from the community members. The chiefs and elders of the communities should come up with occasional durbars to raise funds for their various communities.

5.4 Conclusion

Although the resettlement programme has brought improvements in terms of access to social services such as clean water supply, education, sanitation and electricity, these are inadequate, which seems to have caused much dissatisfaction amongst the resettlers. Therefore, there is a need to ensure that when people are presented with options to come up with their needs they are also given information on the resource available, costs and benefits associated with each of the options so as to enable them to make informed decisions.

The study findings have revealed the need to engage with all stakeholders through an open and transparent public participation process right from the initial stage of decision

making till the time the project is implemented. Thus, increasing chances arriving at decisions that have satisfying results.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE ON AN ASSESSMENT OF VOLTA RIVER AUTHORITY'S RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMME AND SOCIO- ECONOMIC DIMENSIONS OF THE RURAL COMMUNITIES: A STUDY OF BRONG AHAFO REGION.

This instrument is meant to solicit data on an assessment of Volta River Authority's resettlement programme and socio-economic dimensions of the rural communities: a study of Brong Ahafo region.

The researcher is a student in KNUST Msc. Development policy and planning and this research work constitutes the long essay component of the entire course work. Please be assured that this research is purely an academic exercise and as such your response will be kept strictly confidential. Please be at ease in providing clear, accurate and objective responses to the questions in this questionnaire.

SECTION A: 1. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of household heads

1. **Gender:** 1. Male [☐] 2. Female [☐]

2. **Age:** 1. 18-23 [☐] 2. 24-29 [☐] 3. 30-35 [☐] 4. 36-41 [☐] 5. 42-47 [☐] 6. 48 or more ...

3. **Marital Status:** 1. Single [☐] 2. Married [☐] 3. Separated [☐] 4. Divorced [☐]
5. Widowed [☐] 6. Co-habitation [☐]

4. How long have you been living in this place?

1. Less than 1years []

2. 1 -5 years []

3. 6 -20 years []

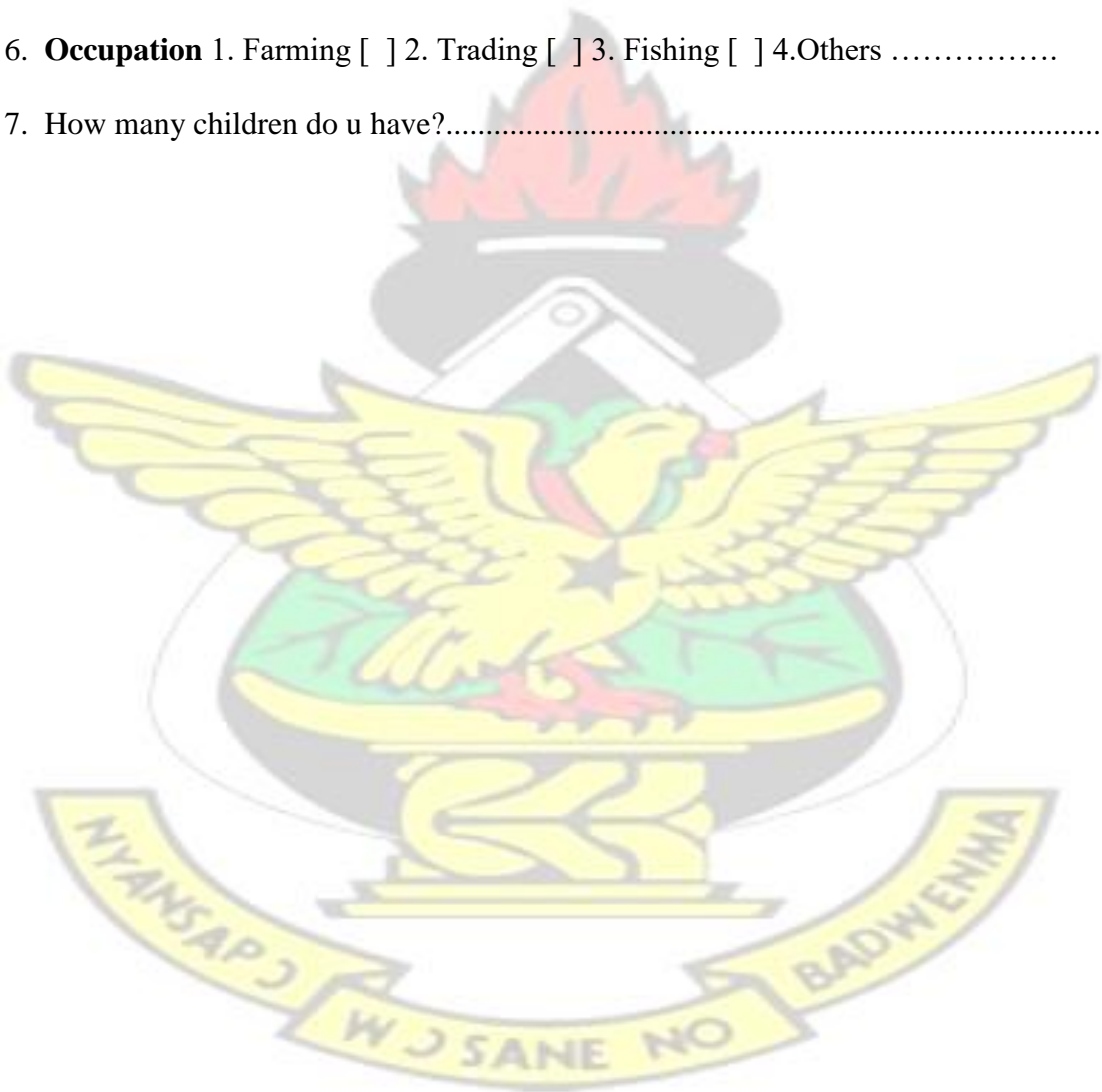
4. 20 -30 years []

5. **Highest Education:** 1. No Education [] 2. Primary [] 3. JHS/Middle [] 4.

SHS/Secondary [] 5. Higher []

6. **Occupation** 1. Farming [] 2. Trading [] 3. Fishing [] 4.Others

7. How many children do u have?.....



APPENDIX 2

SECTION B: ASSESING THE VARIOUS SOCIO-ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES FOR WHICH VRA RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMME HAS BEEN DESIGNED

1 EMPLOYMENT AND INCOME

- 1.1 What is your main source of income?
- 1.2 Name other sources of income?
- 1.3 What is your average income per month?.....
- 1.4 What is the current unemployment rate in the community.....
- 1.5 What has it been historically?.....
- 1.6 What are the differences in unemployment between gender, ?
- 1.7 How has the resettlement programme influence the unemployment rate and distribution of employment among different groups?
- 1.8 What is the average, maximum and
- 1.9 What is the range of incomes or wage rates for jobs associated with the resettlement programme?.....

2 HOUSING

- 2.1 Type of housing
- Rented [] owned [] others
- 2.2 How many rooms do you have in your house?.....
- 2.3 Does the programme help to satisfy current or projected housing needs?
- Yes [] no []
- 2.4 Does the programme contribute to the diversification of available housing opportunities (types and prices)?

Yes [] no []

2.5 Are rents and housing prices affordable to you?

Yes [] no []

2.6 Does the programme result in further concentrations of one type of housing?

Yes [] no []

2.7 If there is a need for affordable housing in the community, does this programme help to meet that need?

Yes [] no []

3 EDUCATION

3.1 Availability of education facility

Yes [] no []

3.2 Which level of education facilities are available?

Primary [] JHS [] SHS [] none []

3.3 How many of your children are enrolled in school?.....

3.4 Tution fee per student per year.....

3.5 How do you evaluate infrastructure in your children's school?

Null [] medium [] good [] very good []

3.6 How do you evaluate health in your children's school?

Null [] medium [] good [] very good []

3.7 How do you evaluate the availability of learning facilities in your children's school?

Null [] medium [] good [] very good []

3.8 What is the distance between your children's home and school?

1-10km [] 10-20km [] 20-30km [] more than 30km
[]

3.9 Do you have availability of transport to the school?

Yes [] no []

3.10 Cost of transportation per week-----

3.11 Do you receive any educational assistance from the VRA resettlement programme?

Yes [] no []

4 HEALTH

4.1 Availability of health services in the area

Yes [] no []

4.2 Which major diseases affect the household members?

- a. Malaria []
- b. Chicken pox
- c. Others (specify)

4.3 Do you patronize health services when needed?

Yes [] no []

4.4 If yes which health facilities are patronized by the household members? a. Hospital []

- b. Community health center []
- c. Traditional []
- d. Private []

4.5 If no what are your reasons for not consulting?

High cost [] fear of doctors [] seek advice from pharmacists [] other

4.6 Do you receive any socio-medical assistance ?

Yes [] no []

5 LAND

5.1 Who traditionally or customarily own land in this community?

Government [] private [] stool land []

5.2 Do these people still own this land?

Yes [] no []

5.3 What has affected your land ownership rights?

5.4 How did you come by the land you farm on?.....

5.5 Is the plot allotted to your household enough to sustain the family and offspring?

Yes [] no []

5.6 Is the plot allotted to your household enough to sustain the family and offspring?

Yes [] no []

5.7 Has the boundaries of the resettlement site been properly demarcated?

Yes [] no []

5.7 If no how has it affected the community?.....

5.8 What is the size of landholding in this community?

a. 1-2acres []

b. 3-4 acres []

c. 5-6 acres []

d. 7acres and above []

5.9 land utility or land use details

commercial [] housing [] agriculture [] others -----

6 ENERGY

6.1 Electricity supply per 24 hrs

6hrs [] 6-12hrs [] 12hrs or more [] none []

6.2 Do you have any alternative power sources?

No alternative [] collective generator [] small shared generator [] private generator [] other -----

6.3 what is your main source of heating?

Electrical appliances [] wood [] fuel [] no means []

7 AGRICULTURE

7.1 Do you use any irrigation scheme?

Yes [] no []

7.2 If yes,, what type of it? _____

1. Modern [] 2. Traditional [] 3. Both []

7.3 What do you use to plough your land?

Oxen [] , Ox with Camel [] , Rented tractor [] , Camel only [] ,Hand tools/hoes []

7.4 Do you use chemical fertilizers?

Yes [] no []

7.5 If No,, state your reasons in the order of their importance

1. Not necessary for cultivated crops []

2. Too expensive 3 []

3. Not available []

4. Shortage of income []

5. Lack of credit []

6. Specify other reasons _____

7.6 Do you use improved seed on your farm in 2001 EC?

Yes [☐] no [☐]

7.7 If No,,state your reasons: _____

1. Not heard about it[☐]

2. Not available (no supply)[☐]

3. Too expensive [☐]

4. No yield difference [☐]

5. Other reasons (specify) _____

7.8 Do you apply chemicals/pesticides on your crops?

Yes [☐] no [☐]

7.9 If no, why? _____

1. Does not help [☐]

2. No problem of weed or pest [☐]

3. Too expensive [☐]

4. Not available [☐]

5. Not heard about it [☐]

6. Others (specify) _____

7.10 Do you own livestock?

Yes [☐] no [☐]

7.11 Do you have enough feed for your animals?

Yes [☐] no [☐]

7.12 If yes,, what are the sources according to their importance? (Specify
estimated size of area) (Multiple answers possible)

1. Own grazing land [☐]

2. Communal grazing land []

3. Crop by-products []

4. Others (specify) _____

7.13 If _No,, how do you cover the deficit? 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____
4. ____

7.14 Is animal disease a problem to you?

Yes [] no []

7.15 If _yes,,, do you get enough drugs to treat your animals?

Yes [] no []

8 WATER AND SANITATION

8.1 What is your main source of water

Pipe [] well [] bore hole [] stream [] other []

8.2 Do you have any water for irrigation?

Yes [] no []

8.3 Alternative sources of portable water

No alternative []

Buying water []

Purifying through filters []

Other

8.4 What is the cost of alternative sources of portable water?.....

8.5 What is your condition of toilet utilization

Flush toilet[] out house []

8.6 What is your condition of water utilization

Own artesian well[]

Private water distribution []

Public []

Neighbouring houses []

9 FINANCING

9.1 Have you heard of VRA RTF? 1. Yes [] 2. No []

9.2 What is VRA RTF fund?.....

.....

.

9.3 What was the purpose of the RTF?

.....

.....

9.4 Would you say that the administration of the VRA Resettlement Trust Fund is effective?

a) Yes [] b) No [] Explain:.....

.....

.

10. Access to various services

How far do you travel to get :	km
your farm land?	
the services of primary school?	
the services of secondary school?	
the services of clinic/health post?	
the services of hospital?	
the services of all weather road?	
drinking water?	
the nearest animal health post/clinic?	
agricultural extension service?	

11. Changes in socio economic dimensions

11.1 How is the quality of education since the programme started?

a. Improved [] b. Deteriorated [] c. No change []

11.2 How is the quality of health service since the programme started?

a. Improved [] b. Deteriorated [] c. No change []

11.3 How is the provision of water for the area since the programme started?

a. Improved [] b. Deteriorated [] c. No change []

11.4 How is the employment opportunity since the programme started ?

a. Improved [] b. Deteriorated [] c. No change []

11.5 How is the productivity of agriculture since the programme started?

a. Improved [] b. Deteriorated [] c. No change []

11.6 How is land aquisition or disputes since the programme started?

a. Improved [] b. Deteriorated [] c. No change []

11.7 How is the quality of energy provision since the programme started?

a. Improved [] b. Deteriorated [] c. No change []

APPENDIX 3

SECTION C: INVOLVEMENT OF THE RESETTLERS IN THE RESETTLEMENT PROGRAMME

HOW THE COMMUNITY HAVE BEEN INVOLVED

1) Do you have any development association(s) in the community with regards to the Resettlement programme?

a) Yes [] b) No []

2) If yes describe their contribution to the development of the community

.....

3) To what extent has the community been involved in the programme? 4)

Is this level of involvement adequate?

a) Yes [] b) No []

5) If No, what are you expecting with regards to how you should have been involved?

6) What would you have expected them to do?

7) What is the community doing about this level of involvement in planning?.....

How the concern (s) of the communities have been integrated into the administration of the activities under the programme.

8) Which people in this community initiate project? 9)

Who organizes the community for such projects?

a) Chief []

b) Assemblyman[]

c) Youth leader[]

d) Development leader[]

e) Others (specify)

7) Is such process of organization different from that of any other project? a) Yes b)

No

8) If yes, how?

9) If no, how?
.....

10) Who chooses the one that represents you?

a) Community[] b) government [] c) project implementers[] d) District

Assembly[] e) chief(s)[]

11) Does he/she regularly inform you about what happens in every meeting with the programme committee ?

a) Yes [] b) No []

RECOMMENDATIONS

12 What is your opinion regarding the resettlement programme or in general and the strength of the position they take, including their reasons why?

13 What do you view as anticipated effects from the programme?

14. How might those effects be evaluated in the context of community attitudes?

.....

15 Are community attitudes generally supportive of the kind of development which is being proposed, by the programme?.....

.....

16 How large and important are the effects of the projects.....

17 Has there been controversy over the programme? Yes [] no []

Why?

