AN ANALYSIS OF THE CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED DURING THE ACQUISITION OF LAND FOR OIL RELATED DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS IN HOIMA DISTRICT

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to understand the challenges encountered during the large-scale acquisition of land for the recent oil-related development projects in Hoima district. Guided by the correlational design, the study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to obtain relevant information from a sample of 52 respondents. These were purposely selected from several government ministries such as Lands and Energy, the Petroleum Authority, NGO's and, others from the district and sub-county leadership.

It was discovered that a moderate, positive relationship exists between land tenure (customary and freehold) and the acquisition process. Being most complex, customary tenure presented more challenges as a result of the inherent issues such as land fragmentation, incessant conflicts and a chronic lack of documentation. Concerning the land-use patterns, agriculture, especially crop farming which was the most widely practiced also presented more challenges to the acquisition process.

It was recommended that the government consider conducting a land census, especially in such sensitive regions to ascertain the land ownership patterns therein and provide proper documentation for such future exercises. Additionally, a proper compensation framework should be developed to factor in the current market prices of people's lands or their structures and commodities at the moment.

DECLARATION

I Muhumuza Janat hereby declare that this is my original work, is not plagiarised and has not been submitted to any other institution for any award.

10th June, 2025

MUHUMUZA JANAT Date

S18M47/031

APPROVAL

This is to certify that this research titled: “AN ANALYSIS OF CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED DURING THE ACQUISITION OF LAND FOR OIL-RELATED DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS IN HOIMA DISTRICT” has been done under my supervision and is now ready for submission.

10th June 2025

PROF. BRUNO L. YAWE Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research report to my partner; Davis Donman Nowamani Araali, my parents; Ateenyi and Atwooki, my sons Don Rylen Muhumuza and Don Roman Muhumuza for their undoubted moral, financial, psychological and spiritual support.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

Acronym	Meaning
CCO	Certificate of Customary Ownership
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DLB	District Land Boards
EACOP	East African Crude Oil Pipeline
FPIC	Free, Prior and Informed Consent
GoU	Government of Uganda
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
LARF	Land Acquisition and Resettlement Framework
LARRP	Land Acquisition, Resettlement and Rehabilitation Policy
LAS	Land Administration Systems
MEMD	Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development
MoLHUD	Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development
NFA	National Forestry Authority
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
OPEC	Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
PAPs	Project Affected Persons
PAU	Petroleum Authority of Uganda
STOIIP	Stock Tank Oil
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
ULC	Uganda Land Commission
UWA	Uganda Wildlife Authority

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Uganda is a developing African country with a low-level economy, limited industrialisation and is majorly dependent on imports. With over 34.9 million people in 2014 (UBOS, 2016), the majority of the Ugandan population live in rural areas and are peasants, engaged in subsistence farming; deriving their livelihoods from the soil. As is the case in most sub-Saharan Africa countries, especially Uganda, land is owned by the citizens as stipulated by the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda, articles 26 and 237 (2), and access to it is currently an important strategy for securing livelihoods and food security for majority of the households in rural areas. For example, farming households depend directly or indirectly on growing their own food for consumption, while also engaging in meaningful on-farm and off-farm land-based economic activities to obtain surplus income.

UBOS (2016) revealed that over 73 per cent of the estimated Ugandan population, which translates into 34.6 million people in the 2014 census depend on farming for their sustenance and over 66 per cent of the labour force, who are approximately 13.9 million are engaged in agriculture. Given the architecture of the Ugandan economy, it is projected that the percentage of people engaged in agriculture is likely to remain the same or even increase in the near future, which underlines the significance of land, a non-increasing element in the equation of production. Land in Uganda has several complimentary functions to its owners such as provision of housing for families, cultural and family ties such as burial grounds, provides space

for markets, as well as artisanal activities, such as pottery. Land is also important since it houses several reserve areas teeming with wildlife, such as parks or forests. In both urban and rural areas in Uganda, land has especially been used as informal collateral (Gildseth, 2013).

As a result of individual land ownership, compulsory land-acquisition as provided for in the Constitution has gradually become the accepted norm in Uganda. This power by the government has often times been invoked when social and economic development are necessary as well as the protection of the natural environment. Since government cannot rely on land markets to ensure that land is acquired when and where it is needed, a balance has to be negotiated between the public need for land on one hand, and the provision of security of land tenure and private property rights on the other hand. As a result, the Government of Uganda has acquired huge pieces of land each year to cater for developmental projects such as roads, hospitals and schools, electricity, water and sewage facilities to mention but a few. No matter what form it takes, these land-acquisitions have often times displaced people and their local economic activities such as cultivation farming, livestock rearing, fishing, artisanal works amongst many others; this has a long-standing impact on the livelihoods of the people and displaced communities.

In 2006, the Government of Uganda (GoU) announced the discovery of commercially-viable crude oil reserves in the Albertine region amounting to 3.5 billion barrels. In 2014, following the subsequent successful exploration and appraisal efforts, the figure was updated to 6.5 billion barrels of STOIIP; of which the recoverable hydrocarbons do not exceed 2.5 billion barrels. The successful exploits and the exorbitant reserves discovered put Uganda in fifth place in Africa in the list of

countries with the largest oil and gas discoveries; behind Libya, Nigeria, Angola and Algeria (Ojambo & Bakhsh, 2013). As a developing country, these discoveries have prompted a lot of political interest in the sector and the oil region, given the expected economic gains, as Uganda is on the verge of becoming an OPEC powerhouse (Bategeka & Ssewanyana, 2016). The popular argument is that the oil proceeds will finance the national budget and liberate Uganda from donor dependence, boost investment into sectors such as health, education and tourism amongst others, which will see the country attain middle-income status by 2040 as per the National Vision.

As a result, investment in the infrastructure sector is at its peak today. The government in partnership with several local and foreign companies have undertaken a major drive to improve on local infrastructure such as roads, schools, hospitals, electricity, housing, water and sewage amongst others which are meant to facilitate the smooth development and production of the hydrocarbons in place. 12 major oil roads are being constructed in the areas surrounding Hoima and Buliisa districts. Other projects like the Kabaale International Airport, the Kabaale Petrochemical Industrial Park, the East African Crude Oil Pipeline (EACOP) are already underway. However, such huge investment projects come at a hefty price since they occupy huge pieces of land. As a result, several people have been ejected overtime to create space for these projects.

The Kabaale International Airport and the Uganda Oil Refinery have been earmarked for this study. The Kabaale airport is located in Buseruka sub-county in Hoima district. The airport will cost over US$ 309 million and its construction works which begun in January 2018 are spearheaded by SBC Uganda Limited, a joint venture

company (Bategeka & Ssewanyana, 2016). It has created over 900 jobs to the bulk of the local people. On the other hand, the Uganda Oil Refinery which is also to be located in Buseruka is expected to cost up to US$ 4.3 billion (Bategeka & Ssewanyana, 2016). It is expected to refine over 60,000 barrels of crude oil at peak capacity. The agglomerate of these two projects, amongst others are expected to cover over 29 square kilometres, affecting over 7,000 people from the 13 villages in Buseruka (Atuhairwe & Okethwengu, 2014). With most of this land owned either by the traditional cultural institutions or the local subsistence farmers that derive their livelihood off the land, the acquisition of such huge chunks of land is as expected mired with a lot of controversies and difficulties.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Large-scale land acquisition for oil development in Hoima District has been fraught with conflicts and delays despite Uganda's legal safeguards for fair, prompt compensation. For instance, Article 26 of the Constitution of Uganda, 1995 guarantees that no property is compulsorily acquired without prior fair compensation, "yet evidence from Kabaale village and similar communities shows this promise often goes unfulfilled with cases of communities feeling dispossessed without adequate or timely compensation, and by 2015, dozens of households in the refinery area had not received the land-for-land compensation they were promised (GRA, 2015)". Local landowners (project-affected persons) and government agencies alike have encountered numerous challenges during the acquisition process.

Additionally, the LARRP (2018) reveals that the Uganda's Land Acquisition and Resettlement framework (e.g. LARF (2016) lack provisions for fully engaging local stakeholders and PAPs in land acquisition process, leading to gaps in consultation and participation. Given these shortcomings, there is a knowledge gap regarding the

exact nature and extent of challenges faced by stakeholders in Hoima's land acquisition process. The government and other stakeholders need this information to formulate better policies and practices. This study was therefore designed to systematically assess the challenges encountered by both the authorities managing land acquisition and the local communities affected, in order to shed light on why the process has not been as smooth as anticipated and to inform improvements for future oil-related projects.

1.3 Research objectives

The main objective was to examine the challenges encountered during acquisition of land for oil-related development projects while the specific objectives were;

i. To find out the characteristics of the land-acquisition processes

ii. To examine the relationship between land tenure practices and land-acquisition process

iii. To investigate how land-use patterns influenced the land-acquisition process

1.4 Research Questions

i. What are the characteristics of the land-acquisition processes that were used?

ii. What is the relationship between land tenure practices and land-acquisition process?

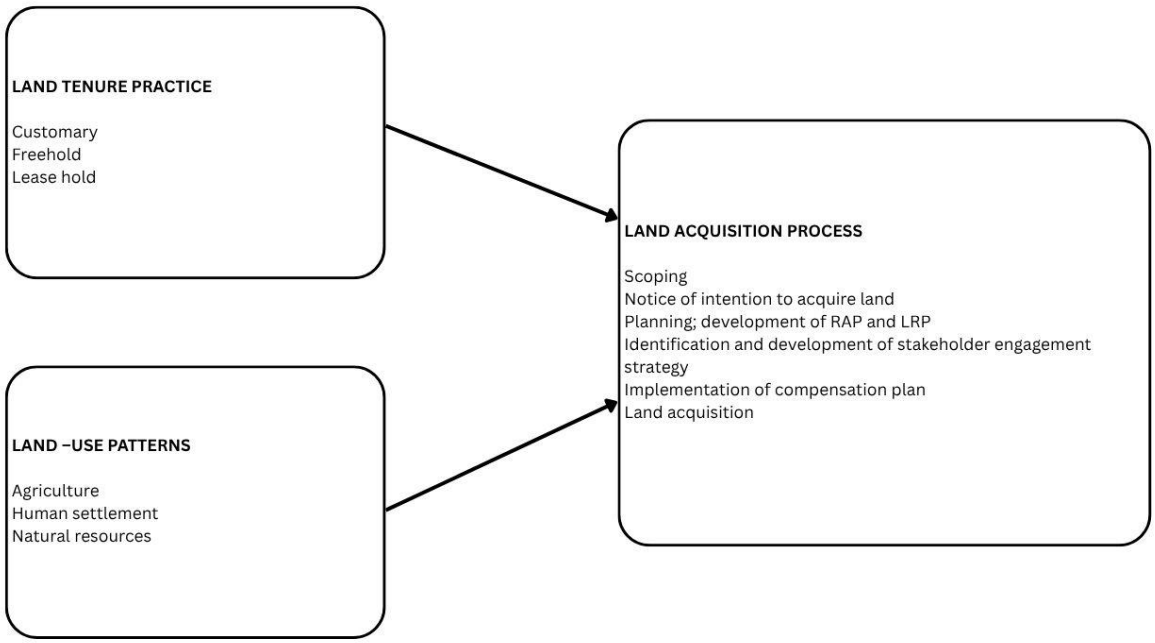
iii. Did land use patterns influence the land acquisition process?

1.5 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES



Source: Adopted from (Gildseth, 2013) and modified by the researcher.

This research study incorporates two independent variables; "*land tenure practices*" as well as "*land usage patterns*" as encountered in the study area. The land tenure practices that are practiced in Hoima district, in Western Uganda and which are also in accordance with the Constitution of Uganda, 1995 are the *Customary tenure* (informal, tradition-based ownership), and *Freehold tenure* (formal titled ownership). Each tenure type comes with different levels of documentation and authority, which can affect acquisition. For instance, *Customary tenure* (which often lacks formal titles and involves communal rights) is expected to negatively affect the acquisition process. It may lead to protracted negotiations or conflicts due to unclear ownership and the need to deal with entire clans/families. Conversely, *Freehold tenure* might facilitate a smoother process since owners have documented

titles (making it easier to identify rightful owners and process compensation), though it can still pose challenges if owners resist selling.

On the other hand, the National Land Use Policy (GoU, 2006) recognises three general land use patterns in the country; agricultural production (crop farming, grazing), human settlement (Residential) and land reserved for conservation (Forests, Parks). However, these utilization categories are not exclusive of one another. The study adopted agriculture, human settlement and the exploitation of other natural resources (which includes areas exclusively reserved for conservation). Different land uses imply different stakeholders and values attached to the land.

Agriculture is considered in the study due to its undeniable importance in the sustenance and growth of the rural economy. Since most of the households in the study area were initially subsistence farmers (UBOS, 2016), land that is used for *subsistence agriculture* is hypothesized to create greater challenges (owners depend on it for livelihood and may demand higher compensation or resist relocation), whereas acquiring *sparsely populated or non-arable land* could be less contentious. Lastly, the study also intends to discover how the land housing resources such as forests, minerals and even wildlife were acquired and the relative ease with which the processes were carried out considering some of these lands are mostly held by government or private institutions that may also have a direct stake in the prosperity of the oil sector.

The dependent variable includes the "*land-acquisition processes*" (including community sensitization, surveying, valuation, compensation, resettlement, and transfer of title) that were undertaken to secure land for the Kabaale International Airport as well as the Uganda Oil Refinery. The smoothness or difficulty of this

process is the outcome of interest, often observed through challenges like disputes, delays, or cost escalations. Over 29 square kilometres were earmarked for these development projects intended to facilitate the smooth exploitation of the oil resources in the area. The airport is expected to be sufficiently large to accommodate large passenger and cargo aircraft. These will ferry in the numerous heavy and large equipment such as entire drill strings, derrick structures amongst others that are required to produce the sub-surface hydrocarbons (Nakazzi, 2011).

The framework assumes other factors (e.g., government policies, market value of land) are held constant or are mediated through these primary variables. By focusing on tenure and land use, the study zeroes in on how these structural factors contribute to the difficulties in land acquisition. This framework guided the data collection – the survey and interviews were structured to gather information on each element (tenure type, land use, and experiences in the acquisition process) to test and explain these relationships.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter holds the review of literature. It contains both the theoretical and empirical literature of the variables of the study. The focus here was majorly on the specific objectives and reflects the views of different authors about the variables of study, that is to say, characteristics of land acquisition, land tenure practices and land-use patterns, relating them to land acquisition process in Uganda.

2.2 The characteristics of the land-acquisition processes

2.2.1 Empirical Review

2.2.1.1 Relevant Legal and Institutional Framework in Uganda

The current legal framework for land ownership, administration and use is anchored in the Constitution of Uganda, 1995 which declares that land belongs to the citizens of Uganda (not the state) in accordance with four tenure systems; *Mailo, Leasehold, Freehold* and *Customary*. However, it also provides antecedents for which the government can compulsorily acquire this land. These acquisitions must be made under a law which makes provision for prompt payment of fair and adequate compensation of the affected persons or communities, prior to the taking of possession of the property, as well as the rights to access a court of law by any person who has an interest or right over the property. Since the constitution also requires the government to hold in trust for the Ugandan people and protect natural resources like lakes, forests, national parks amongst many others, the citizen's right

to enjoy and defend property rights in Uganda goes beyond private property and extends to such public resources as listed above.

Chapter 15 and Chapter IV of the Constitution and Land Act respectively establish the Uganda Land Commission (ULC) and the District Land Boards (DLB) which are tasked with handling the management and administration of land issues in the country. These bodies are supposed to work independently; with the DLB's tasked with the compilation and regular updating of land parcels as well as compensation rates of land in their respective districts. These rates which are meant to be used in calculating compensation payable for crops and structures on land belonging to the affected people or communities are to be determined in a consultative process with the natives in their respective districts to ensure that the compiled rates reflect the market values of land in those areas.

2.2.1.2 Compulsory Land Acquisition and Development

Sustainable development requires governments all around the world to provide public facilities as well as infrastructure for the improvement of the welfare and health of people, the provision of their safety and security as well as the protection and restoration of the natural environment. Land-acquisition is one of the early steps that must be completed before the provision of such crucial public services. Often times however, the government may not be able to purchase the required land through the land market or the required land may not necessarily be available for sale at that specific time. As a result, governments have the power to compulsorily acquire land; they can compel land owners to sell their land for it to be used for specific purposes. In the wake of rapid growth and economic development, governments are under intense pressure to provide public services in the face of

alternate burgeoning demand for land (Batungi, 2008). This makes compulsory land-acquisition a highly delicate issue.

Compulsory acquisition is the power possessed by government to acquire private rights in land with or without the willing consent of the land owner or occupant in order to benefit the wider community. However, compulsory acquisition usually requires the finding of a balance between the public need for land on the one hand, and the provision of land tenure security as well as protection of private property rights on the other (FAO, 2009). In seeking this balance, governments always ought to minimise the use of this power which in turn benefits the affected communities without necessarily jeopardising public interests. Since this process is inherently disruptive, governments should strive to provide for fair and transparent procedures, and equivalent compensation.

In Uganda, the power to acquire land on a compulsory basis by the government is provided for in the constitution. However, it does not mention the specifics for which this land is to be obtained, instead, the Land Acquisition Bill, 2013, elaborates more on the purposes for acquisition. While compulsory land acquisition has led to significant challenges including delayed compensations, community displacement, and increased conflicts, it's also important to recognize its potential economic and social benefits. Infrastructure improvements such as roads, airports, and refineries can boost local employment, stimulate economic activities, improve market accessibility, and enhance living standards through better amenities and services.

2.2.1.3 Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC) principle

The FPIC principle is relevant in this discussion since development projects not only displace the project affected people (PAPs), but also affects their livelihood, culture, diversity among other things. According to the Charter of the United Nations, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (of which Uganda is part), the standard FPIC as well the indigenous people's rights to land, territory and natural resources are all embedded within the universal right of self-determination. FPIC principle allows local communities to give or withhold their consent to a project that may affect them or their territory. It also allows them to withdraw their consent that could have been granted in the early stages of the project if the pre-negotiated conditions and terms are not adhered to by the project implementers. As a result, this principle can have a large bearing on the success or failure of a project.

Free refers to consent that is given voluntarily and without coercion, intimidation or manipulation of any kind. The community process is usually independent of expectations, coercion or time restrictions that can be externally imposed by governments or private developers. Meetings and decisions take place at the locations and times, in languages and formats that the rights' holders understand and choose for themselves; and they are usually open for all members, irrespective of age, gender or standing. Rights' holders usually determine their own timeline, decision-making process and structures.

Prior refers to consent that is sought sufficiently in advance of any authorization or commencement of any activities by the project developers. Time should be provided to the communities to access, understand and analyse the information given on the proposed development project. The decision-making timelines that are set by the

indigenous people must also be respected and adhered to by the project implementers as it reflects the time they need to understand, analyse and evaluate the proposed activities in accordance with their own customs.

Informed refers to consent that is given after sufficient engagement and information dissemination to the PAPs and the entire community about the effects and benefits of the project to be set up therein. Transparency is a key element and it entails making clear, accurate and culturally appropriate information accessible to the affected communities about the positive and negative potential of the proposed activities of giving or withholding consent, as well as the projected overall impact of the project activities on the community. The timing should also be favourable as well, as earlier stated to enable the community (especially the marginal groups like women, youth and people with disabilities) to internalise and understand the provided information such that a clear and united decision is obtained.

Despite being relatively new, the FPIC principle is a fundamental building block for successful projects worldwide as well as to ensure cordial, community partnerships. The government or IOC's approach to FPIC and how they work with the indigenous people demonstrates to various stakeholders – including the native partners (such as cultural institutions), the international community and the wider conservation body its commitment to helping ensure the rights and livelihoods of the indigenous people are not tampered with to a great extent. As a result, the approach to FPIC greatly influences the reception of a given project in a given area and hence, the ease with which certain processes like land-acquisition are carried out.

2.2.1.4 Issues involved in Land-acquisition processes

Acquisition of land worldwide for development or mineral exploitation projects has always been a very lengthy and expensive process for investors and governments alike. In developing countries like Uganda, people usually still depend on labour exerted on their land to survive. Therefore, the consequences of such displacement can be long-standing and catastrophic to their well-being if the proper resettlement and rehabilitation methods are not followed. As such, governments and investors have increasingly faced challenges in land-acquisition, despite the perceived value of the infrastructure to be constructed or the minerals to be extracted from the ground.

According to the (Oxford Business Group, 2014) report, one of the biggest impediments to large-scale land acquisitions is the desire by the landowners, to inflate the prices of land in order to receive the highest prices possible for their properties. In most cases, these landowners are shielded by the law and as such, they have higher bargaining power than the investors and governments combined which enables them to ask for exorbitant sums of money as compensation. According to the report, over 65 per cent of the land-acquisition problems that have occurred since 1970 in Indonesia were related to conflict over the compensation packages. Despite having several laws that address speculative activity in such matters, enforcement has been poor and the government lacks a will to do so, according to the report.

In addition to inflated prices, the (Oxford Business Group, 2014) postulates that the legal framework pertaining land-acquisition processes in Indonesia has had significant impact thereon. The ambiguity that persists in the law or sometimes the direct contention between several provisions or instruments has caused several land

issues in Indonesia. For example, the report details how the Land Expropriation Act No. 20 of 1961 and the Forestry Law 41 of 1999 are in direct contradiction of one another. As a result, the National Land Agency has been entangled in several costly, unending court disputes with investors. This usually reduces the bankability of existing projects as it leads to lengthy project delays and cost overruns, which in turn scares away investors from making such long-term commitments.

Booming rural population in Uganda has also exacerbated the land fragmentation issue in the country since most land is acquired in a customary manner (inherited). According to the 2014 Census report, Buseruka sub-county had a high population density of 405 people per square kilometre (UBOS, 2016). Whereas this presents great opportunity in terms of labour, given the low levels of technology and primitive inheritance rites that are observed in the rural areas, it was observed that the available land resources have to be intensely divided amongst the natives to support their sustenance through cultivation and animal rearing (Bamwerinde, Bashaasha, Ssembajjwe & Place, 2016). As a result, the distribution of land parcels that can be accessed by farming households in the area fall in the category of the smallest size, usually less than an acre (precisely 0.84 acres on average in Hoima district) (Uganda Land Alliance, 2011). This presents a major challenge since it increases the number of land parcels to be acquired and conversely, the number of households that will be relocated and compensated.

Additionally, evacuating such densely populated areas, with thousands of families and homesteads is a herculean task that needs considerable logistical and financial resources to undertake. Since in most cases, the responsibility of acquiring land for any public infrastructure project or mining activities rests with the government,

regulations usually require that the host government prepare, finance and execute the land-acquisition plans. Given that governments usually have constrained budgets with myriad development commitments, such land-acquisition processes are usually stalled. The bureaucratic nature of government work also usually further frustrates land-acquisition processes in a country.

According to Kumar (2018), land conflicts as a result of such large-scale acquisitions have often resulted into civil unrest in India. The management of land-acquisition processes, resettlement and rehabilitation of the project affected persons has thus become an integral part of the processes of mineral exploitation, infrastructure development and industrial development. Kumar (2018) posits that land, water and community support are essential inputs for such developments to win the hearts of the land-losers and be well received by the host communities. In addition to the costs of compensation or relocation of the PAPs, the host governments and investors are usually further burdened with costs of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities such as building new or refurbishing old infrastructure, providing basic social services such as education or healthcare to mention but a few. As a result, the need to strike a balance between the critical value of having such mega projects installed in an area and the need to critically address the main issues raised by those impacted persons and communities has often times stalled or even halted such projects.

Increasing standards and regulations in land tenure, rehabilitation and resettlement practices have also complicated the land-acquisition processes in some countries. According to Yoshino, Abidhadjaev & Sri-Hendriyetty (2019), the introduction of land trusts in Japan necessitates the initial compensation of land owners, who also get

to keep their land while receiving an annual rent stipend for its use. Whereas this leasing method has proved quite effective in reducing court cases concerning compensation in Japan's cities and busy towns, complications have arisen many decades later when these leases expire and the issues of land versus infrastructure ownership arise. This has not been extensively practiced in the developing world.

2.3 Land tenure practices on land acquisition

2.3.1 Empirical review

2.3.1.1 Land Tenure, Security and Rights issues in Uganda

Land in Uganda belongs to the citizens of Uganda in accordance with the tenure systems that are spelled out in the Constitution. Land tenure is defined as the '*right*'[1] to hold and use land whereas land tenure systems are all the different types of land ownership that are recognized by a national and/or local system of law taken together, and the institutions that administer them (Bruce, Wendland & Naughton-Treves, 2010). It is important to define and understand such important terms in the land discussion since the same constitution grants powers to the government to acquire this land in the public's interest for several purposes. Tenure security on the other hand refers to the assurance of one's property rights in a given piece of land. The security of one's tenure is usually dependent upon the legal and political environment supporting the property rights (Bruce *et. al.*, 2010).

The system of land tenure rights in Uganda is complicated as several differing systems are working superimposed on each other. However, the constitution recognizes four different systems which are; *'Mailo', 'Leasehold', 'Freehold' and*

[1] A 'right' differs from an 'interest' in land in that the former relates to the use of land for a specific purpose with the consent of a land owner whereas the latter relates to ownership which might be legal (registered owner and his/her successors) or equitable (for example tenants in occupancy or unregistered land owners).

'Customary'. Freehold, leasehold and mailo systems account for 15 per cent of the total land mass in Uganda whereas the communal and customary tenure systems account for additional 85 per cent. In the study area, customary and freehold systems are the most common forms of tenure, and as a result, the literature review as well as the entire study will mostly focus on these two.

Customary tenure is where the land is owned based on the norms and traditions of that given society or community (Uganda Land Act, Section 4). Land can even be owned individually under the customary tenure as long as it has been handed down overtime from one generation to another based on that society's customs. A land owner of customary land can apply for and acquire the Certificate of Customary Ownership (CCO) as his/her proof of ownership as introduced by the government in 2015. Customary tenure is the most common form of land holding in Uganda. On the other hand, freehold tenure refers to land that is held or owned by an individual registered on the certificate of title as the land owner for life.[2] Freehold tenure is by far the most popular for most Ugandans as the other systems of leasehold and customary can be converted into freehold (Uganda Land Act, Sections 28 & 29).

Application for a land title is done using the "Land Form 4" papers which are filled and submitted to the Area Land Committee (ALC) which operates at the sub-county level. The ALC is supposed to then issue a notice for a public hearing using "Land Form 10". It then visits the site, fills and signs the "Demarcation Form 23", compiles an inspection report thereafter and submits these documents to the District Land

[2] There are usually no tenants by occupancy and '*kibanja*' holders on this land. An owner of freehold land enjoys several rights such as using and developing it in a way that he/she wants, entering into land transactions for that land, taking and using the produce from that land, as well as willing it to any person that they so desire (as in accordance with (*Section 3(2) of the Land Act*).

Office. The District land Office is then supposed to prepare and submit a technical report to the District land Board (DLB) for approval. The title offer is prepared once the buyer of the land has agreed to all the set terms and submitted to the MZO who is supposed to inspect the site as well, generate the coordinates alongside the District Cartographer and validate any other pending details. All the above documents are then submitted to the Registrar of Titles for passing, signing and sealing. Finally, the title is then passed on to the clerk for collection by the client.

2.4 Land-use patterns and land acquisition

2.4.1 Theoretical review

2.4.1.1 Land Management Theory

Land management is the process by which land and the resources therein are put into good effect; and it encompasses such activities that are associated with the management of land and these resources to acquire sustainable development. The theory posits that organisational structures as well as legal systems that make up the Land Administration Systems (LAS) differ markedly between countries and regions worldwide and as a result, they reflect the local cultural and judicial settings. However, within any country setting, it posits that the land management activities may be described by three components, i.e. Land Policies, Land Information Infrastructures and Land Administration Infrastructures (Enemark, 2005) which enable and sustain development.

Land policy is part of the national policy on promoting the national objectives such as economic development, social justice and equity, and political stability. Land policies are usually associated with security of tenure, land markets (especially land transactions and access to credit), real property taxation, land use, dispute resolution measures, natural resources and protection of the environment amongst

many other things. Land administration functions on the other hand are the operational component of land management that ensure proper management of rights, restrictions, responsibilities and risks in relation to property, land and natural resources. These functions include land tenure[3] (transfer of rights in land and natural resources); land value[4] (concerned with the valuation and taxation of land and properties); land use planning[5] and land development[6]. Land information infrastructures are however intended to facilitate the administration functions with cadastral and topographic datasets, and to provide complete and up-to-date information about the built-up and natural environment.

These land administration systems are interrelated in such a way that the actual economic and physical uses of land and the properties thereon actually influence the value of land. Additionally, the possible future usage of land as determined through zoning, land use planning regulations and titling processes also affect land value. All these policies and planning activities as well have a marked bearing and hence, determine and regulate future land development. The theory further posits that a modern LAS acts within the environment of adopted land policies that fulfil the withstanding political objectives and acting within an institutional framework

[3] Land tenure is the allocation and security of rights in lands; the legal surveys usually define parcel boundaries for which that land is transferred between parties through sale or lease. The management and adjudication of disputes and doubts for that land regarding rights and boundaries is also usually transferred.
[4] Land value encompasses the assessment of the value of land and properties; the gathering of revenues through taxation; and the management and adjudication of land valuation and taxation disputes.
[5] Land use on the other hand entails the use of planning policies and usage regulations of land at national, regional as well as local levels, the enforcement of these regulations as well as the management and adjudication of arising conflicts.
[6] Land development involves the establishment of new infrastructure, the implementation of construction planning and change of land use through planning permission and granting of permits.

that imposes mandates and responsibilities on various organisations and agencies, it should service the needs of both individuals and communities at large.

The design of such adequate systems in the areas of land use control and land development should then lead to effective land use management. The combination of an efficient land market and effective land use management should then form the basis for a sustainable approach to economic, social and environmental development (Enemark, Williamson & Wallace, 2005). Through committed building and implementation of such well-designed land administration infrastructures, the goals and vision of that country can be achieved. The role of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in constructing such infrastructure and ensuring citizenry access this information cannot be understated.

Conclusion

Numerous challenges abound that stall or hinder the large scale acquisition of land for development projects worldwide. Some of the issues explained are derived from the developed world and as such, may not tarry with what is happening in the developing world, especially in the context of sub-Saharan Africa where Uganda is located. As such, some of the theories advanced and recommendations made do not apply locally. Although Uganda's Land Acquisition and Resettlement Framework (LARF) and compensation guidelines offer structured processes, their effectiveness is limited by implementation challenges. Transparency, timely compensation, and stakeholder engagement gaps suggest stronger enforcement mechanisms, community participation, capacity building for local authorities, accountability mechanisms, and adopting Free, Prior, and Informed Consent (FPIC).

Whereas numerous studies have been conducted to understand the socioeconomic effects of large-scale land acquisition, little attention has been regarded to the challenges involved in acquiring such land and how they can be solved, especially in the developing world. This study intends to fill this gap.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation of the methodology that was employed when conducting the study. It describes the research design that was used, the study area as well as the techniques. This chapter also discusses the data collection methods employed by the researcher, data analysis methods as well as the ethical considerations that guided the study.

3.2 Research Design

Research design connects the conceptual research problems to the pertinent and achievable empirical research (Wyk, 2012). The study activity followed the correlational research design which incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis (Dawson, 2002).

Quantitatively, it examined the relationship between variables (land tenure and acquisition process), and qualitatively, it explored how land use patterns influenced land acquisition and a detailed land acquisition process. The concurrent mixed methods approach used implies that the study collected both forms of data (qualitative and quantitative) at the same time and then integrated the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2009).

3.3 Study Area

The study was conducted in the districts of Kampala and Hoima concurrently. In Hoima, the study inquiries were specifically conducted at the district headquarters as well as the Buseruka sub-county headquarters. In Kampala, the inquiries targeted

several ministry offices and other related offices such as those belonging to NGO's and other companies that were engaged in the land-acquisition processes.

3.4 Target Population

The target population consisted of 60 officials/stakeholders directly involved in land acquisition for oil projects in Hoima District. This included officials from relevant government ministries (Lands, Energy, the Petroleum Authority), local government leaders, and representatives of affected communities (PAPs)

3.5 Sampling

3.5.1 Sample Size

A sample size of 52 respondents participated, which, although a relatively small sample, covers the key stakeholders in this context. This sample size was chosen because the pool of people with direct experience in the Hoima land acquisition is limited. Essentially, it included most available experts and informants on the issue. The size is justified by this targeted approach and is sufficient for a primarily qualitative analysis and indicative quantitative correlations (Krejcie & Morgan, 1975). The table below presents a summary of how the officials were distributed amongst the concerned institutions.

Table 3.1: Summary of how the officials were distributed amongst the concerned institutions

Name of Institutions	Sample Size
Min. of Lands, Housing & Urban Development (MLHUD)	05
Ministry of Energy & Mineral Development (MEMD)	05
Petroleum Authority of Uganda (PAU)	05
District Officials[7]	05
Sub-county Officials[8]	05
Concerned NGO's/IOC's	15
SBC (U)	03
Uganda Refinery Holdings Company (URHC)	03
National Environment Management Authority (NEMA)	03
Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA)	03
TOTAL	**52**

3.5.2 Sampling Technique

The study employed the purposive sampling technique since it affords the investigator an opportunity to carefully select the respondents based upon their related responsibilities in their institutions and current knowledge of the problem in question (Patton, 1990). This sampling technique is strategic in a manner of selection where the chosen respondents are relevant and highly knowledgeable to the

[7] From the Land Board and Natural Resources offices.
[8] From the Area Land Committees.

discussion. These included officials from the line ministries, PAU, district and sub-county, SBC (U), URHC as well as the NGO's that were involved in the process.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

3.6.1 Sources

The secondary data used in the study was obtained from text books, journal articles, reports, conference proceedings, newspaper articles, previous dissertations at Masters and PhD levels of study, and any other documentation from the internet that fit into the study parameters.

Primary data on the other hand was collected from the questionnaires that were distributed to and filled by the respondents. The respondents are the officials of several institutions and ministries in Uganda that participated in the acquisition of land for the refinery and airport projects in Hoima.

3.6.2 Instruments

Objective 1: Characteristics of the land acquisition process – **Quantitative Approach.** Data were gathered through a questionnaire of both Open ended and closed ended questions. Close ended questions were used to give respondents alternative answers to choose and to avoid waste of time in thinking (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003), while Open ended questions were used to give respondents freedom to answer what they felt like.

Document review (examining project reports, legal frameworks, prior audits of land acquisition in Hoima) and **semi-structured interviews** with 10 key informants (e.g., district lands officers, cultural leaders, or PAP representatives). These open and close ended questionnaires provided data on how the acquisition process was conducted, step by step. The Questionnaires and document analysis checklist were

designed to capture details on community sensitization, compensation negotiation, resettlement, and any challenges at each stage.

Objective 2: Relationship between land tenure practices and the acquisition process – **Quantitative Approach.** Data were collected via a **structured questionnaire** administered to 52 respondents. The questionnaire included a section on *Land Tenure Practices* with items measuring the prevalence of different tenure types among acquired lands and the issues arising from each (e.g., "difficulty in verifying owners for customary land" rated on a Likert scale). Another section covered the *Land Acquisition Process*, with items assessing the extent of challenges encountered (e.g., "delays in compensation payment" or "frequency of disputes during acquisition"). These Likert-scale items (e.g., 1 = strongly disagree/no challenge, 5 = strongly agree/severe challenge) provided quantitative measures. To ensure validity, many questionnaire items were derived from literature (adapted to the Hoima context) and the tool was reviewed by experts before use.

Objective 3: how land-use patterns influenced the acquisition process – **Qualitative-Descriptive Approach.** This objective was addressed by collecting descriptive information about each acquired land parcel's primary use and observing how that related to acquisition outcomes. For instance, through the interviews and open-ended survey questions, respondents described whether the land was used for farming, grazing, residential settlement, or was a protected area, and then elaborated on any specific difficulties in acquiring such land. Additionally, some field observations were made (noting, for example, if large cultivated fields required acquisition of livelihoods, etc.). Unlike Objective 2, this did not rely on numerical

data; instead, it looked for patterns (e.g., “Most conflicts arose when the land was productive farmland, whereas land under bush/fallow had fewer objections”).

3.7 Data Quality Control

3.7.1 Measures and Validity

The study took care to define its measures clearly. “Land tenure practice challenges” was measured by aggregating questionnaire items related to ownership verification, land conflicts, documentation status, etc., for each respondent, yielding a quantitative score. “Land acquisition process effectiveness” was measured by items on timeline adherence, dispute frequency, and satisfaction with compensation, combined into a score. These operational definitions ensure that abstract concepts are translated into observable data.

The validity of a research instrument was pre-tested to ensure that the data collected is relevant for the study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Pre-testing ensured that accuracy and clarity of study results are high, and that the data collected gives a meaningful, reliable representation of the study parameters.

Therefore, the research tool was administered on 10 respondents within the study population but outside the sample to test for its validity. It was also made available to at least 2 university lecturers for peer review on content and relevance. A *Content Validity Index (CVI)* for all items in the instrument was then calculated. The recommended scale with excellent validity should have a CVI of 0.65 or higher (Polit & Beck, 2004).

3.7.2 Reliability

This test was intended to determine the degree to which an assessment instrument (questionnaire) produces stable and consistent results under varied conditions (Sekaran, 2003). Similarly, the reliability of a measure indicated the extent to which there is no bias and hence ensured consistency measurement across time and various items in the instrument. In this test, the questionnaires were subjected to the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient which is intended to expose the reliability of items therein.

Table 3.2 Table showing results of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
Land Tenure System	.710	14
Land-Acquisition Process	.876	10
Land Use Patterns	.498	08

Nunnally (1978) postulates that a coefficient result of 0.65 and above implies that items are reliable on average and they elicit almost similar responses when administered by the same respondents several times.

Therefore, the pilot study indicated that the land tenure system and land acquisition process variables produced co-efficient above 0.65 which deemed them reliable while the land use pattern variable produced a co-efficient below 0.65 hence unreliable (low). The researcher as such opted for qualitative data collection method for the land use patterns variable.

3.7.3 Data Analysis

Quantitative data (from the Objective 2 survey/questionnaire) were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (**SPSS) 20.0**. I first ran **descriptive statistics** to get mean ratings for the land tenure and acquisition challenge indicators (the high mean values noted indicated general agreement that challenges existed). Then, to address Objective 2, I computed the **Pearson correlation coefficient** between the composite score for tenure-related issues and the composite score for acquisition process challenges. I also conducted a **simple linear regression** with the tenure score as the independent variable and the acquisition challenge score as the dependent variable, to see how much variance in challenges could be explained by tenure practices. The correlation (r) and standardized regression coefficient (β) were recorded along with significance levels.

Qualitative data (from interviews, open responses, and Objective 1 and 3 explorations) were analysed through thematic coding (Shosha, 2010). Interview transcripts and notes were coded for recurring themes such as "compensation delays," "land ownership disputes," "community engagement", "impact of agriculture vs. other land uses," etc. These themes were then mapped to the research objectives. For Objective 1, the narrative of the acquisition process was reconstructed and common challenges at each stage were identified. For Objective 3, comparisons were drawn between cases of different land use: e.g., a theme emerged that "extensive agriculture lands led to protracted negotiations" whereas "land with sparse settlement saw quicker agreements". I present these findings in narrative form in Chapter 4, with quotes and examples to illustrate each point.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Before and during the research study, discipline and an acceptable level of ethical behaviour when collecting data from respondents were expected. The following was done to ensure that the study was acceptable and didn't bring about any contentious issues in the study area;

- An introductory letter from the Institute of Petroleum Studies Kampala (IPSK) was obtained as well as a permission slip from the district and sub-county officials to allow us carry out the data collection. This was necessary because of the sensitivity of the topic under investigation since any suspicion would have been harmful to the investigator or the respondents.
- Since most of the respondents are high-ranking officials in government and other like private institutions, permission by phone call or appointment was initially sought from each respondent. The intentions of the research study were made known to each one of them and as such, no false promises of rewards were made in exchange for the required information. Additionally, no coercion was employed to obtain their responses.
- Finally, the study handled all the collected data with utmost respect and confidentiality during the submission and discussion of results.

3.9 Limitations of the Study

- Given the financial as well as time constraints on the side of the researcher, a smaller sample of respondents was considered due to the inaccessibility and at times, reluctance of the officials to provide responses.

The methodology was designed to align each research objective with an appropriate method: qualitative descriptive analysis for the *characterization*

objective, quantitative correlational analysis for the *relationship* objective, and a qualitative comparative approach for the *land-use* objective. This mixed approach provided both breadth and depth, ensuring a robust examination of the challenges in land acquisition for oil projects in Hoima.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

This section presents findings from the field study, interpreting the results from the analysis of the data. Data collected form the questionnaires was input into the SPSS 20.0 and analysed to draw relationships and conclusions from the data. Additionally, data from the interview guides and voice recorders were also analysed using the Colaizzi framework where different themes guided the analysis.

4.2 Preliminary Results

Table 4.1 Gender of Respondents

GENDER	Frequency	Percent
MALE	23	44.2
FEMALE	29	55.8
Total	**52**	**100**

Source; Primary Data (2022)

According to the data in table 4.1 above, the biggest percentage of respondents were female (29) represented by 55.8% as compared to the male respondents (23) at 44.2%. This statistic has significant bearing on the changing socio-cultural perceptions concerning formal employment patterns in Ugandan communities today. In urban centres, women have gradually embraced formal employment as compared to their female counterparts in rural areas who are mostly engaged in housework and subsistence farming. This is especially true in non-governmental

organisations (NGOs) where women were more abundant and open to being interviewed.

Table 4.2 Age of Respondents

AGE (Years)	Frequency	Percent
21 – 30	8	15.4
31 – 40	24	46.2
41 – 50	15	28.8
Above 50	5	9.6
Total	**52**	**100**

Source; Primary Data (2022)

Concerning the age of the respondents, the majority fall between the age bracket of 31 – 40 years at 46.2%; followed by those in brackets of 41 – 50 years and 21 – 30 years at 28.8% and 15.4% respectively. This signifies that the majority of the respondents fall in rather youthful-to-middle-age age brackets with the extremes below 30 and above 50 years.

Table 4.3 Marital Status of Respondents

MARITAL STATUS	Frequency	Percent
Single	15	28.8
Married	37	71.2
Total	**52**	**100**

Source; Primary Data (2022)

The majority of the respondents, 71.2% that participated in the study were married whereas only 28.8% were not married. This implies that most of the participants had families and other related family responsibilities.

4.3 Education Status

According to the data in the table 4.4 Below, none of the respondents had dropped out of school in high school. The majority of the respondents had bachelors and master's degrees at 46.2% and 44.2% respectively. Only 4 respondents had stopped at the diploma level whereas only one study participant had a doctorate.

Table 4.4: Education status of Respondents

HIGHEST EDUCATION LEVEL	Frequency	Percent
Diploma	4	7.7
Bachelor	24	46.2
Master	23	44.2
Doctorate	1	1.9
Total	**52**	**100**

Source; Primary Data (2022)

This result is relevant since it implies that the respondents are well-educated, capable of internalising situations, especially at their work places and making sound conclusions. It is also important since it implies that the respondents were capable of interpreting the research tools and providing reliable information for the study.

Table 4.5 Work Experience

RELEVANT WORK EXPERIENCE	Frequency	Percent
Below 5 Years	10	19.2
5 – 10 Years	31	59.6
Above 11 Years	11	21.2
Total	**52**	**100**

Source; Primary Data (2022)

Finally, this item in the questionnaire was intended to measure the number of years each respondent had served in the current position, which is specifically related to the land-acquisition processes in question. Majority of the respondents, 59.6% had spent 5 – 10 years in their positions. Since oil activity is a recent development in the country, this item is necessary to ensure that the investigator solicits responses from individuals that are fairly well-informed about the industry. 21.2% of the respondents had spent over 11 years in their positions, especially those in government ministries and at districts, whereas, the least number of people, 19.2% had only spent 5 years or less.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This section presents findings from the field study, interpreting the results from the analysis of the data and discussing the implications of the findings. The study intended to study and understand the nature of challenges that were encountered during the large-scale acquisition of land for several oil-related development projects in Hoima district. Data collected form the questionnaires was input into the SPSS 20.0 and analysed to draw relationships and conclusions from the data. Additionally, data from the interview guides and voice recorders were also analysed using the Colaizzi framework where different themes guided the analysis.

5.2 Objective One: To find out the characteristics of the land-acquisition processes

The land-acquisition process was conducted in a systematic process which begun with community consultations by the Petroleum Authority of Uganda (PAU), Ministry of Energy and Mineral Development (MEMD), Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MoLHUD) officials and other related agencies. These consultative meetings were meant to inform local community members of the general land value in the area, land valuation processes and other considerations. The meetings also deliberated on the best options for compensation or relocation depending on the choice made by the affected persons. The affected persons who chose to be compensated later underwent several sensitization programs to prepare them to manage their packages to ensure financial stability thereafter.

Simultaneously, several land evaluation activities were carried out to ascertain the value of land, the structures, plants or any other valuable possessions therein. This was done in order to come up with uniform and fair packages for the project affected persons. From the registers of PAPs that was compiled, proof of land ownership had to be presented before compensation or relocation. The amount of the compensation packages depended on the size of the land, possession of land titles, crops on the land, the structures on the land such as houses, graves, stores amongst others as well as the location of the land, whether near the main road or in a town centre were also considered. A disturbance package was also given to the affected persons to help in their relocation.

Methods used in assessing compensation for the oil projects in Hoima are discussed under each of the broad items that were considered for compensation. These include;

i. Buildings included any structure constructed on the homestead or land of any project affected person (PAP) like houses, kitchens, kraals, pit latrines, external bathrooms, granaries, small commercial buildings (like shops) among others. According to the Government Valuation Officer, the cost-approach method was majorly employed where compensation was determined based on external factors such as the size of said structures, the nature of building materials hence estimated costs of said materials. Whereas by law, information on cost of professional work, labour charges and depreciation information are desirable, in rural areas, this information is not obtainable.

ii. All crops, fruit and non-fruit trees that were owned by the PAPs were also assessed in the exercise. The compensation amounts for crops were obtained by multiplying price per yield (kilograms) per acre for each crop against the total acreage of the land on which the crops are being cultivated. For fruit trees, the unit price per tree was multiplied by the total number of trees. However, this method was highly contended since the use of a uniform unit price for each tree does not consider the productive capacity of each tree, which according to the PAPs, leads to under-compensation. Compensation for non-fruit trees (such as timber for poles and fuel wood) was calculated as the product of the unit price per cubic metre and the number of trees that would be lost.

iii. Graves and other cultural structures on land are sentimental assets that were also compensated. Despite using the cost-approach, a lot of caution was exercised in the valuation of such sensitive, subjective issues. Local elders and family members had to be consulted and a lot of effort invested in determining what was spent and the emotional attachment of the deceased's grave to the family. One main constant however is the fact that paved graves were valued at a higher cost than the unpaved ones.

Once the agreed compensation requirements were met, the project-affected persons were given three months to vacate the land. For the compensated persons, the process was reported to have been faster than that of relocation where houses had to first be built for them. Most respondents reported that most of the affected people were happy with the size of their compensation packages, except for a few cases that are still in courts of law.

Concerning the acquisition of land that was under reserve i.e. wetlands, game parks and forests, the procedure was more systematic. Special teams were chosen from concerned ministries, departments and authorities (such as MoLHUD, MoEMD, PAU, UWA, NFA to mention but a few) to represent the interest of their organisations. Schedules were set which involved field tours to study and ascertain the land in question. However, since this land is under public administration, it was not purchased, but rather would be leased for the specific period for which it is intended to be used for petroleum-related activities.

After negotiations were concluded, agreements containing terms of use, lease fees and other details were signed. Whereas the ownership rights for the land were not transferred to the petroleum companies, these companies acquired the rights to use this land for the purpose(s) as stipulated in the agreement, any deviations from that would otherwise attract hefty fines and court action where necessary.

5.3 Objective Two: To examine the relationship between the land tenure practices and the land-acquisition processes

5.3.1 Bivariate Correlation Results

Table 5.1 Bivariate Correlation Results

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2
1	Land Tenure Practices	3.710	.279	1	.594**
2	Land-acquisition	3.515	.473	.594**	1

Source; Primary Data (2022)

The table 5.1 above contains the means, standard deviations (SD) and correlations for the variables and constructs that were involved in the study. The mean values of the study variables; 'land tenure practices' and 'land-acquisition' are above average compared against the minimum and maximum possible scores of 1 and 5 respectively. The means are interpreted based on a five-point Likert scale where 1 is low and 5 is high.

The mean and standard deviation values for land tenure practices as a composite were (Mean = 3.710, SD = .279). The mean value of 3.710 is relatively high which implies that the respondents agreed about the land-ownership practices being carried out in the study area. Since the standard deviation (0.279) is also very low, this implies that the mean value is a true representation of the general opinions of the respondents concerning land tenure in the area. These results are in support of the study findings that discovered that customary and freehold tenure systems are the most commonly practiced systems of land ownership. The local communities in Hoima recognised these forms of tenure, respected their tenets and of course, were fairly informed about the laws and values that governed said forms of land ownership.

The mean and standard deviation values for land-acquisition as a composite were (Mean = 3.515, SD = .473). The mean value of 3.515 is also relatively high which implies that the respondents mostly agreed with the challenges involved in the process of acquiring land stated in the questionnaires. Since the standard deviation is also significantly below 1, it implies that the mean value is relatively coherent with the general opinions of the respondents concerning the study variable in question. In comparison, this fairly tallies with the study findings which indicate

that there was regular, sufficient information that was widely distributed in the affected communities about the acquisition process. It was also discovered that the relevant ESIA studies were conducted and the reports made public through various national and local media in Hoima. Finally, consultation and negotiation meetings were also conducted between government, the oil companies and local communities to discuss and agree on how the acquisition was to be conducted.

Finally, according to the table above, the land tenure practices are significantly and positively correlated to challenges experienced during the land-acquisition process in Hoima district ($r = .594^{**}$, $p<0.01$). These results stand considering the submissions of the respondents involved in the study which found that issues such as population increase, land fragmentation and grabbing all affected the ease with which the land-acquisition process was carried out. It was also discovered that resultant conflicts and inflation of land as a resultant of increased oil activity in the region also had significant impact on the acquisition process.

5.3.2 Regression Analysis Test Results

The analysis revealed a clear positive association between land tenure practices and the land acquisition process outcomes. In the quantitative data, **the Pearson correlation coefficient was $r = 0.594$ ($p < 0.01$)**, indicating a **moderate positive correlation** between tenure-related issues and acquisition challenges. (By convention, an *r* value around 0.5 is considered a moderate relationship, whereas values above 0.7 would imply a strong correlation.) This means that areas or instances with more problematic land tenure (e.g., many customary holdings or unclear ownership) tended to also have more difficulties in the acquisition process (such as disputes or delays).

To further probe this relationship, a simple linear regression was performed with the composite tenure challenges score as the predictor and the land acquisition challenge score as the outcome. The regression confirmed that land tenure practices significantly predict the difficulty of the land acquisition process. The model's Adjusted R^2 was 0.340, implying that approximately 34% of the variance in acquisition process challenges can be explained by the land tenure factor.

Table 5.2 Regression Analysis Test Results

Coefficients									
Model			Unstandardized Coefficients			Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	
			B	Std. Error		Beta			
1	(Constant)		-.215	.716		0.3	-.300	.766	
	Land Tenure Practices		1.005	.192		.594	5.224	.000	
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.594[a]	.353	.340	.38384	.353	27.292	1	50	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), Land Tenure Practices; b. Dependent Variable: Land-acquisition									

Source; Primary Data (2022)

The standardized regression coefficient (β) for land tenure practices was **β = 0.594, p < 0.01**. This β value (often called the beta weight) is effectively the same magnitude as the correlation here, since I used a single predictor model. It signifies that when land tenure issues increase by one standard deviation, the challenges in the acquisition process increase by about 0.594 standard deviations

on average. Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 present these statistical results. Importantly, I label *r* and *β* separately: in the correlation matrix (Table 5.1), **r = 0.594** is listed for tenure vs. acquisition, while in the regression output (Table 5.2) the **β = 0.594** is shown for the "Land Tenure Practices" variable. (Note: In a multiple regression scenario with more than one predictor, the β for each variable would represent its unique contribution; for example, if I also added land-use to the model, the β for land tenure might drop to a smaller value like ~0.3, indicating part of the effect is shared with land-use. In our single-predictor model, β and r coincide in value, but I still distinguish them in notation for clarity.)

These results support the hypothesis that *land tenure practices have a significant impact on land acquisition*. Practically speaking, the moderate correlation suggests a meaningful relationship: wherever land ownership was predominantly customary and undocumented, the acquisition process encountered significantly more hurdles. Conversely, in situations with clear freehold titles, the process tended to be smoother. Nonetheless, since the correlation ($r \approx 0.59$) is not near 1, it implies that other factors (beyond tenure alone) account for the remaining ~66% of variation in acquisition outcomes; factors which may include the land-use patterns, community engagement strategies, or compensation rates.

5.4 Objective Three: To investigate how land-use patterns influenced the land-acquisition process

Concerning land-use patterns in the study area, it is important to note that the investigator discovered that there has been a significant, gradual shift in economic activities from traditional subsistence agriculture to mainly business and oil-related activity since the discovery of petroleum reserves in the Albertine. The

land-use patterns in this study considered were agriculture, human settlement and natural resources in Hoima district. Human settlements and agriculture were the most prominent forms of land-use considered in the study. However, agriculture covered the hugest chunks of land as reported by the majority of respondents that were interviewed. The natural resources that were considered in the study include forests and forest reserves, game parks and reserves, wetlands and other gazetted areas under public administration.

Agriculture in the form of subsistence farming is the most widely practiced economic activity by the local population in Hoima district. Crop farming is more common however as compared to livestock rearing. The most common crops that are grown in Hoima district include but are not limited to the following; cassava, sweet and Irish potatoes, millet, *matooke*, beans, sorghum, maize, cabbages, onions, tomatoes, groundnuts, soya beans and rice for food crops and watermelons, *simsim*, mangoes, oranges, coffee, pineapples and tobacco are some of the commercial crops grown in the study area. On the other hand, the most common animals reared in the area are cows, pigs, sheep, goats, rabbits and chicken.

It is important to note however that there has been profound decrease in the rate of livestock rearing in Hoima district as a result of the changing conditions due to oil activity. There is less land for grazing, increased pollution and fewer incentives to invest in the activity. Since the farming is mostly subsistence in nature, the rate of return for both livestock and crop farming was very low, mostly ranging between UShs. 1 – 2 million per year, as reported by the respondents in the study. This correlates with the findings of the (UBOS, 2016) study.

Since there were no large commercial farms in the study area, these presented even lesser challenges to the land-acquisition team. Despite the fact that land was highly fragmented which implies more people to compensate, the relatively smaller pieces of land meant that most farmers were subsistence in nature, hence less produce per farmer and no cooperation amongst them which would have resulted into higher bargaining power. Since crop farming was the most common, most farmers were allowed to clear out their harvest at the end of the season which made it cheaper unlike in the case of animals where transportation costs would be included. In some instances, the district and sub-county leaders that were interviewed intimated that since farmers' rates of return were so low, it was so easy to convince them to take the government compensation packages which were always much higher.

Settlement land presented relatively less difficulty in acquisition. Unlike agricultural land, a settlement was considered any piece of land that had considerable constructed properties on it. These structures include sleeping houses, granaries, kitchens, graves and animal shelters (e.g. kraals, bird houses) etc. Since it was mainly size and nature of the building materials that were considered in estimating the cost hence compensation amounts, the difficulty was relatively less. Once a figure was finally agreed upon, no other new structures would be compensated should the affected person put it up in the grace period before they were to be asked to vacate. This was the only source of contention as people sought to obtain greater packages. Lastly, since land under reserve was mostly administered by well-known authorities, the respondents reported that apart from negotiations and editing the agreements, very little discomfort was felt in the acquisition of these lands.

The above results indicate that land under human use was more difficult to acquire than that under settlement partly because of the fact that more land is needed for agriculture than is needed to build a house, especially in rural areas. Additionally, the amount of investments, be it in a farm or a house increased the bargaining power of the project affected persons as they sought to get fair compensation from what they had. It can also be deduced from the above that the more institutionalised the acquisition process is, the less rigmarole involved in the process.

5.5 Implications of the study's Findings

The study's findings on customary tenure highlight broader challenges affecting rural areas undergoing large-scale land acquisition. This reveals a need for integrating customary tenure into formal legal frameworks to enhance security of land ownership, reduce economic vulnerability, and prevent social tensions.

5.6 Broader Policy Implications

Policy implications include revising LARF to mandate timely and transparent stakeholder consultations, enforcing FPIC principles, formalizing customary tenure through systematic land registration, and establishing oversight bodies to monitor compensation and resettlement processes.

5.7 Limitations of the study

This study is limited by its relatively small sample size and specific geographic focus on Hoima District, potentially limiting the generalizability of its findings to other contexts. Moreover, its correlational design does not allow for definitive conclusions regarding causality. Future research could expand the sample size and

geographic scope, including comparative studies across multiple districts affected by oil exploration. Additionally, longitudinal studies examining long-term socioeconomic impacts on communities affected by land acquisitions would be highly valuable

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the summary and conclusion of the findings pertaining to the study objectives on how the tenure, land-use patterns affected land acquisition in Hoima. Recommendations have also been made on what should be done better next time.

6.2 Summary of Findings

Objective 1: To find out the characteristics of the land-acquisition processes

For individual land-owners, consultative meetings were conducted at the village level between government officials and the project affected persons (PAPs) to inform them about the projects and need for land. Field studies were then conducted where the government and other officials sought to establish the value of land and the crops or structures on it. For structures such as houses, external factors such as size were considered whereas for crops, specific qualities such as price per yield (in kilograms) per acre for each crop against the total acreage were considered. Specific cultural structures such as graves were also compensated for. Once a compensation sum was agreed upon, the PAPs were given some time to prepare themselves and vacate. On the other hand, PAPs that opted for relocation had to wait for land elsewhere to obtained and favourable shelters to be constructed before they could be moved. Generally, most people were happy with their compensation packages.

On the other hand, land that was under reserve i.e. forests and game, was acquired more systematically. Each body, such as UWA or PAU, that had interests in said land would delegate a team of its staff to represent it. Schedules of acquisition were set, field visits were made to ascertain the nature of land required, and potential impact of the petroleum-related activities. Being land under public administration, it was not purchased but leased off for a given time. This was done after several board room deliberations. Once the negotiations were concluded, agreements were signed detailing the terms of use, fees and any other relevant details.

Objective 2: To examine the relationship between the land tenure practices and the land-acquisition process

From the analysis of field findings, the land-tenure practices as a variable had a high mean, low standard deviation (Mean = 3.710, SD = .279), this implies that the respondents were in agreement with the land ownership practices as stipulated in the study. The same applies to the land-acquisition process as a variable which similarly had a high mean, and a low standard deviation (Mean = 3.515, SD = .473) which implies that the process was as stipulated in the study questionnaires. Finally, the two variables, land-tenure practices and land-acquisition processes were found to be significantly and positively correlated to each other ($r = .594^{**}$, $p<0.01$). This implies that there exists a moderate relationship between the two.

When a regression analysis test was conducted to ascertain the effect of the independent variable on the dependent one, the results show that land-tenure is a significant predictor of the land-acquisition processes ($\beta=.594^{**}$, $p<0.01$) and it is important in explaining 34.0 per cent of the challenges experienced in the process.

This is an important discovery since it spells out the significant effects of Uganda's tenure practices on acquisition of land for public projects. Customary land ownership owing to its highly informal nature was found to present more difficulty in land-acquisition than the freehold kind. Land wrangles and land grabbing also exacerbated the above condition unlike land fragmentation which did not present serious problems.

Objective 3: To investigate how land-use patterns influenced the land-acquisition process.

Since the discovery of petroleum in the Albertine, focus has shifted from native industry such as agriculture to business and other oil-related activities. However, in most rural areas, agriculture is still wide spread, albeit mostly on small-scale. The most common form of agriculture in the study area as reported was mainly crop farming, especially for daily sustenance, which implies low return rates annually. This made acquisition relatively easy since the monies offered were often times more than what is expected. Settlements on the other hand presented even less difficulty since the structures are easy to measure and assess based on known criteria. The only challenge that was faced was the fact that some PAPs built structures after assessment which usually caused tension with the authorities.

6.3 Conclusion

Customary land ownership presents more difficulty in land-acquisition owing largely to its informal nature and the lack of paperwork. Issues related to land tenure such land grabbing and other conflicts were also found to negatively impact the acquisition process, in terms of long delays. On the other hand, agriculture, which is the most widely practiced form of land-use in Hoima presented the most

challenge to land-acquisition. This is because of the sheer scale of land required as compared to settlement structures. Acquisition of land from natural reserves such as parks and forests presented less challenges due to the institutionalisation of negotiations and agreements.

6.4 Recommendations

The Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development should establish a structured, regularly updated compensation framework factoring in current market values and inflation within 12 months to be reviewed annually.

In support of Ahabwe (2019), the study findings also recommend a comprehensive approach to the registration and documentation of all land owners in the Albertine. Through relevant authorities; district land offices, should intensify systematic land registration programs, prioritizing issuing Certificates of Customary Ownership (CCOs) or land permits in oil-rich regions to begin within 6 months, with a completion target for priority areas within 2 years.

Introduce mandatory community engagement protocols aligning with the Free, Prior, and Informed Consent (FPIC) principles. Engagement processes must involve all stakeholders—particularly women, youth, and marginalized groups with Immediate implementation in ongoing and upcoming projects.

Establish a dedicated oversight committee or mechanism (e.g., a joint committee involving government, local authorities, and NGOs) to regularly monitor compensation and resettlement processes. The Committee establishment should be within 3 months and operational within 6 months.

The Ministry of Lands, Housing, and Urban Development should conduct training and capacity-building programs for district and sub-county land committees on land administration, conflict resolution, and effective management of land acquisition processes. Initial training within 6 months, followed by semi-annual refresher training sessions.

6.5 Body of Knowledge

This study has highlighted the glaring significance and urgency to formalise the land ownership practices, in the Albertine in particular, if the government and its development partners are to effectively and efficiently develop and exploit the petroleum resources. Whereas such formalities as land certificates or permits would not entirely eradicate land conflicts, they would certainly curtail them, as observed by the (Uganda Land Alliance, 2011) report and facilitate smoother acquisitions. Albeit the differences in tenure practices, Ahabwe (2019) also asserts that the challenges experienced during these acquisitions are similar and are a result of mind-set, which affects how people regard public investments. Adequate sensitization and rigorous community engagements can also facilitate smoother acquisitions, especially in such contentious areas like the Albertine. Further studies can be conducted to ascertain how community attitudes and values affect such processes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Krejcie and Morgan (1975) table

TABLE 1
Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

N	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

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

Appendix II: Research Questionnaire

UGANDA CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF PETROLEUM STUDIES, KAMPALA

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent(s),

I am a student at the Institute of Petroleum Studies (IPSK), pursuing an MBA in Oil and Gas Management. As part of the requirements to graduate, I must conduct a research study and write a report. This questionnaire as part of the study is designed and to be filled by the different officials that were directly engaged in the land-acquisition processes in the Albertine. The study examines the challenges encountered during the acquisition of land for the large-scale oil-related projects in the region.

You have been identified as a key informant in this study, so please spare a few minutes of your busy schedule to fill this questionnaire. Your identity and responses will be kept confidential unless otherwise requested. The responses will be aggregated to the project and used purely for academic purposes. Your honest and sincere responses are highly appreciated.

SECTION A; BACKGROUND INFORMATION (Please tick in the appropriate box)

1. What is your GENDER?

Male	Female
1	2

2. What is your AGE BRACKET?

Below 21 years	21 – 30 years	31 – 40 years	41 – 50 years	Above 50 years
1	2	3	4	5

3. What is your MARITAL STATUS?

Single	Married	Divorced	Others (Please specify)
1	2	3	……..

4. What is your HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION attained?

High School	Certificate	Diploma	Bachelor's degree	Master's degree	Doctorate
1	2	3	4	5	6

Others (Please specify)……..

5. What is your WORKING EXPERIENCE in your current position?

Below 5 years	5 – 10 years	Above 11
1	2	3

6. Briefly describe your ROLES and RESPONSIBILITIES during the land-acquisition process.

The ensuing sections will measure the different variables included in the study. Section B attempts to study and understand the common land tenure systems in the study area and some of the issues involved. Section C then studies the land-use patterns; agriculture, human settlement and natural resource that exist in the region. Finally, Section D attempts to measure the ease with which the land-acquisition process was conducted in relation to tenure and land-use. Note that for each item you have been provided with a scale of five (05) options which are Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Not Sure (3), Agree (4) and Strongly Agree (5). Please tick the choice that best suits your view on the item in the spaces provided below.

SECTION B; LAND TENURE PRACTICES (Please tick in the appropriate box)

	Scoring Setup	SD (1)	D (2)	NS (3)	A (4)	SA (5)

	CUSTOMARY TENURE SYSTEM					
1	Customary land tenure is the most widely practiced form of land ownership in the study area.					
2	Local communities and land owners adhere to and respect the tenets of Customary tenure.					
3	Most land owners possessed certificates of land ownership (CCO) at the time of acquisition.					
4	Most land owners had sufficient knowledge of the land laws and policies regarding compulsory land-acquisition.					
5	Most land owners affected by the land-acquisition process were adequately informed and educated about the process and the need to acquire the land.					
6	Responsible authorities had all the necessary cadastral and topographic data required prior to the acquisition process.					
7	Rural population boom has led to increased land fragmentation in the study area.					
8	Land wrangles have become more rampant in the study area.					

	Scoring Setup	SD (1)	D (2)	NS (3)	A (4)	SA (5)
9	Land grabbing and encroachment on public land have become more rampant in the study area.					
10	There is inflation in the value of land under the customary tenure system in the study area.					
	FREEHOLD TENURE SYSTEM					
11	Freehold tenure system of land ownership is also widely practiced in the study area.					
12	There has been an increase in the number of land transactions in the study area.					
13	Most land owners had sufficient knowledge of the land laws and policies regarding compulsory land-acquisition.					
14	Most land owners affected by the land-acquisition process were adequately informed and educated about the process and the need to acquire the land.					
15	Land conflicts also exist for land parcels under freehold tenure.					

16	Responsible authorities had all the necessary cadastral and topographic data required prior to the acquisition process.					
17	There is inflation in the value of land under the freehold tenure system in the study area.					

Please share any other information, opinion or perspective that you feel is relevant and was not captured above.

SECTION C; LAND-USE PATTERNS

HUMAN SETTLEMENT

Describe the most common kind of housing structures in the study area (Mud, grass-thatched or brick, with iron-sheets)?

What is the average number of housing structures (human or animal shelters inclusive) per homestead?

Describe any challenges encountered in the acquisition of such land.

AGRICULTURE

Which is the most common form of farming practiced in the area (Subsistence or Commercial)?

Name the common crops grown or animals reared in the area. Is crop farming more commonly practiced than animal rearing?

What is the average rate of return for farmers per year that are involved in crop farming or animal rearing?

Describe some of the challenges encountered during the acquisition of such land.

NATURAL RESOURCES

1. What is the criterion that was followed in acquisition of land under reserve for game, forests or wetlands?

2. Describe some of the inherent challenges that were experienced during such acquisitions?

SECTION D; LAND-ACQUISITION PROCESS

	Scoring Setup	SD (1)	D (2)	NS (3)	A (4)	SA (5)
	LAND-ACQUISITION					
1	MLHUD published and widely advertised a notice of intention to acquire land for the Kabaale Airport and Pipeline.					
2	Specific, clear and detailed information was given to individual land owners prior to the start of the acquisition process.					

3	The pre-requisite ESIA studies were conducted before hand to ascertain the potential impacts of the projects on all concerned stakeholders.					
4	The ESIA reports were made available to both land owners and the concerned local community structures in place.					
5	Consultation and Negotiation meetings were held between Government, the international companies and the affected persons.					
6	Marginalised groups, such as women and youth were actively engaged in the entire acquisition process.					
7	Those that opted for compensation were satisfied with the valuation exercise and the packages they received thereafter.					
8	The affected persons that opted for relocation were contented with the land parcels and structures that they received.					
9	Affected persons who initially possessed land titles and opted for resettlement were given titled land as well.					

10	In comparison, the acquisition process was executed in an amount of time as planned.					

Please share any other information, opinion or perspective that you feel is relevant and was not captured above.