MIGRATION TRENDS IN MOMBASA

DISTRICT

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PART

FULFILMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER (POPULATION GEOGRAPHY)

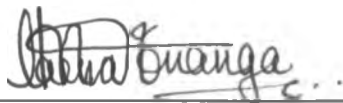## OF ARTS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted in Mombasa District of the Coast Province of Kenya. The period of data collection was between September 1989 and December 1989 with few follow-up visits after the data collection. A pre-survey visit as well as a pretest of the questionnaire was done between July-August 1989.

The study covers the whole of Mombasa district. Due to the expected role of the environment as either a push factor at the point of destination, substantial studies were done on the district environment. This not only included the physical environment but also the socio-economic (cultural) environment.

A number of objectives for the study were set forth before data collection and consequent analysis begun. Among these was the need to assess the prevailing migration trend for Mombasa district. The study also aimed at obtaining reliable data on migration for the district from which inferences can be made. There was need to establish whether migration streams do exist in Mombasa district as well as to ascertain the volume of migration for different age groups. There is need to tabulate migration data from Mombasa district for easy reference as well as comparison with related studies as well as gauging migrants' future aspirations as a result of their present migration experiences.

The study aimed at investigating whether the migrants intend to move elsewhere after a period of time.

Lastly, the study aimed at evaluating the implications of the discovered trends and thus make recommendations to researchers, planners as well as the policy makers.

The sample was drawn from a complete list of all residential areas in Mombasa as recorded for the purpose of the 1989 National census. Stratified and random sampling methods were used to pick the 301 respondents interviewed in this study.

The chi-square method was employed to test the hypothesis in this study. Other statistical methods used in the analysis were the Pearson's Contingency Coefficient method, the Phi-Statistic as well as Goodman and Kruskal's tau.

The study established that ethnic factors are important in individuals decision to migrate and also where to migrate to. Age and marital selectivity were identified to affect the pattern of migration. Age takes the expected trend where the migration peak is at the age group 18-25 years. It was established that most of the migrants to Mombasa move here from destinations other than their reported place of birth.

Through the use of sex ratios it was established that migration plays a great role in increasing the population of Mombasa. Relatives, who were identified as the main source of information on existing job opportunities at Mombasa were very important in supporting the new migrants. Distance was discounted as being an intervening obstacle as a great number of migrants had moved 500

Kms of more in their migration process. It was realized that the occupation of the migrant was important especially when reasons for migrations were analyzed where many migrants in search of jobs were jobless or reported to have been farmers. A substantial number of people in employment moved to Mombasa on transfer.

Also the study established that hierarchical migration pattern was not reflected in the Mombasa study as well as urban-urban migrants dominating the migration flows.

Migration trends in Mombasa district are taking an up-turn. The increase in the sex ratio is an indication that migration still plays an important role in the population growth rate. However, there will be bigger return migration flow as the migrants approach retirement age. Many of the migrants are not committed to continue their stay in mombasa after retirement. Urban to urban migration has now become important in Mombasa as we see many migrants moving into Mombasa from other urban centers. Ethnic linkages are still important. They serve as a basis for information flow as well as receiving stations for the homeless-jobless migrants. Economic motive still remains dominant as a cause for migration.

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CHAPTER ONE

THE STUDY AREA

This study was conducted in the Mombasa District.
Mombasa District fronts the Indian Ocean and is one of the districts of Kenya's Coast province. With an area of 275 1 Km^2, it is the smallest district in the country.

This includes the island of Mombasa and a crescent shaped portion of the mainland around the island (Fig. 1). It forms a wedge between Kwale district in the South and West, and Kilifi district in the North. The district is divided into four main administrative units, viz Mvita, Kisauni, Changamwe and Likoni, each with an elected member of parliament. Mvita division has six locations, Kisauni has two, Likoni has two and Changamwe also has two locations.

Table 1 below lists the distribution of locations, sub-locations and local authority electoral areas. Although administrative divisions and political constituencies in Mombasa District share the same names, their boundaries do not coincide - Changamwe, Kisauni and Likoni boundaries are larger as constituencies than as divisions due to shifting of

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some locations from island division as electoral wards to the
other three constituencies. As a result, island constituency
boundary is smaller than island division boundary.
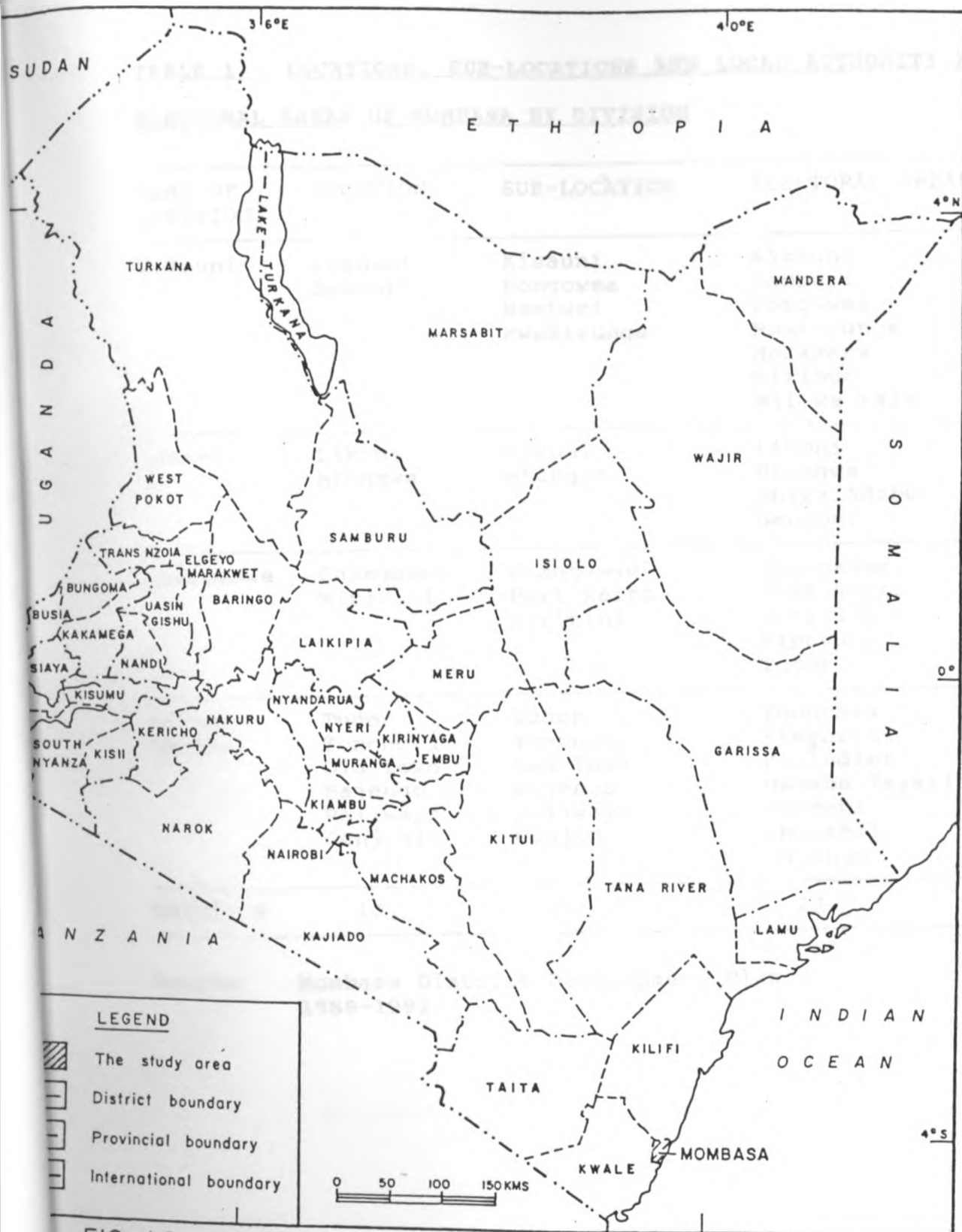
FIG. 1.0. LOCATION OF THE STUDY AREA IN KENYA.

The Municipal Council of Mombasa boundaries of jurisdiction coincide with the district boundaries.

TABLE 1   LOCATIONS, SUB-LOCATIONS AND LOCAL AUTHORITY AND ELECTORAL AREAS OF MOMBASA BY DIVISION

NAME OF DIVISION	LOCATION	SUB-LOCATION	ELECTORAL AREAS
Kisauni	Kisauni Bamburi	Kisauni Kongowea Bamburi Mwakirunge	Kisauni Bamburi Kongowea Mwakirunge Makadara Kizingo Mji wa Kale
Likoni	Likoni Mtongwe	Likoni Mtongwe	Likoni Mtongwe Shika Adabu Ganjoni
Changamwe	Changamwe Miritini	Changamwe Port Reitz Miritini	Changamwe Port Reitz Miritini Kipevu Tudor
Island (Mvita)	Tudor Tononoka Old Town Majengo Railways Ganjoni	Tudor Tononoka Old Town Majengo Railways Ganjoni	Tononoka Kingorani Kilindini Mwembe Tayari Bondeni Shimanzi Majengo
TOTAL: 4	12	15	23

Source: Mombasa District Development Plan
           1989-1993

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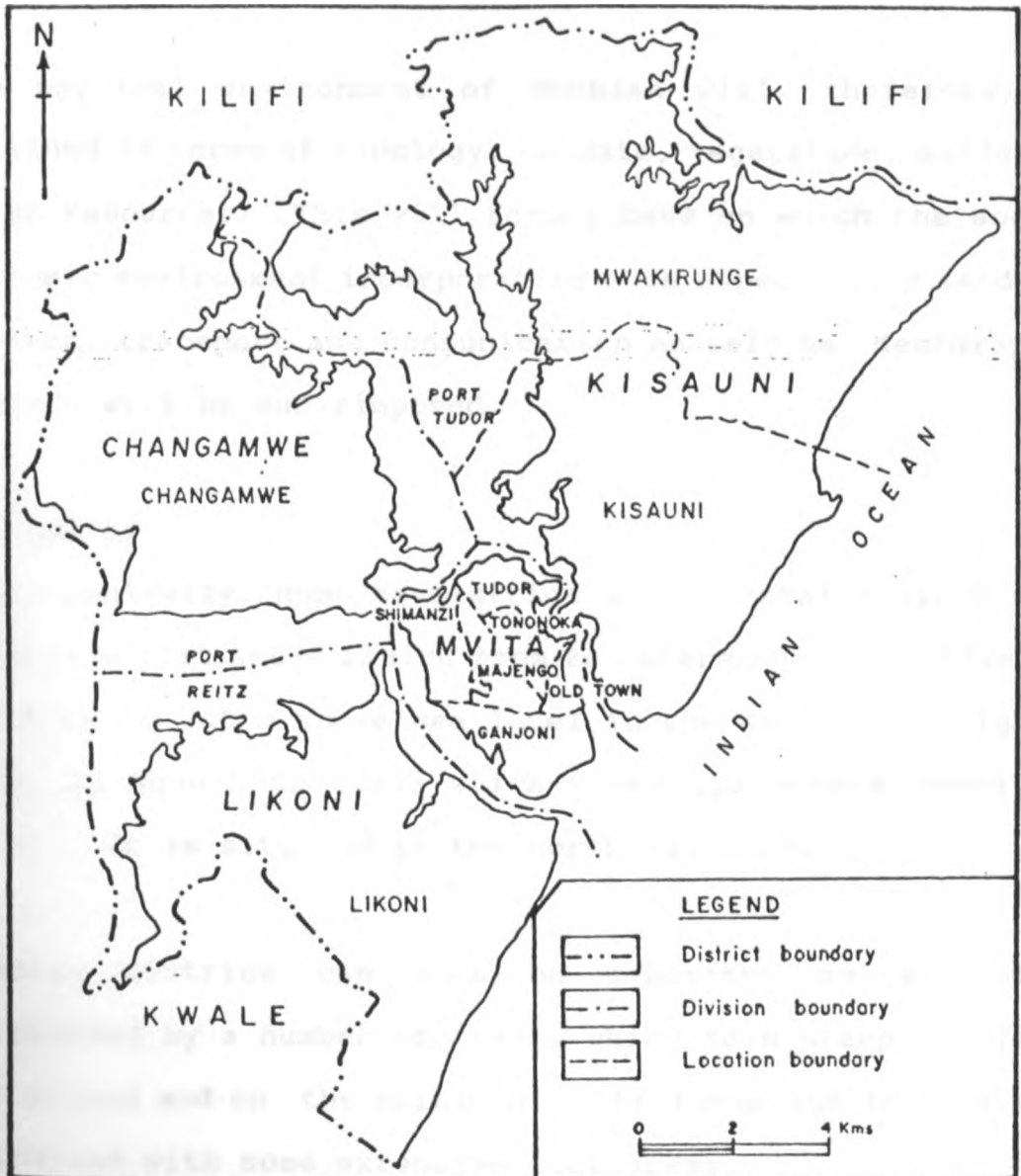
FIG. I.I. MOMBASA DISTRICT : ADMINISTRATIVE REGIONS

INTRODUCTION

It should be stated at the onset that migration is a function of the physical as well as the socio-cultural environments. These, therefore, make a basis in assessing the role of the push factors and more relevant to this study, the pull factors.

The physical environment of Mombasa will, therefore, be outlined in terms of topology, climate, vegetation, soils and water resources. This will form a base on which the socio-economic environment incorporating such aspects like land use pattern, transport and communication as well as demographic factors will be superimposed.

TOPOGRAPHY

Topographically, Mombasa district is a coastal lowland with extensive flat areas rising from 80 meters above sea level in the East to 100 m above sea level in the West. The highest point is Nguu Tatu Hills which rises 123 meters above sea level. It is situated in the north mainland.

Mombasa district can thus be described as an island surrounded by a number of creeks which form steep cliffs on the island and on the mainland. The landscape is generally a lowland with some extensive flat areas.

Mombasa can, therefore, be divided into three main physiography belts which run parallel to the ocean, extending far beyond the boundaries of the district. These belts are:-

1.   A flat coastal plain, roughly six kilometers wide, which includes the island, Kisauni on the north mainland and Mtongwe on the south.

2.   A broken and severely dissected and eroded belt of Jurassic shale overlain in places by residual sandy plateaus, the most important being the Changamwe area.

3.   An undulating plateau of sandstone, lying at 150 Km above sea level, divided from the Jurassic belt by a scarp fault nearer to the sea, the land is formed by a coral reef of pleistocene age. The coral provides an excellent base for building and has superlative drainage properties. Further from the sea, the coastal plain consists of the old lagoons.

CLIMATE

Mombasa district being a low-lying coastal district, has a climate different from that experienced by inland districts of Kenya. However, the general pattern of seasons is similar to that found in most parts of the country. Mombasa's climate is related to the regional cycle namely the semi-annual passage of the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ) and the monsoons. The north eastern monsoon (Kazkazi) occurs from January to March and the south-eastern monsoon (kuzi) from June to October.

In January, the sun is over the Tropic of Capricorn and the ITCZ is centred on Zimbabwe in Southern Africa. Thus winds blowing over the Kenyan coast from November to March are dry north-easterly winds. In July, the ITCZ is centred on Sudan in Northern Africa. The winds blowing over the Kenya coast from May to October are southerly or south-easterly. Most rainfall occurs in the months between the monsoons when convection is enhanced. The north/south shift of the ITCZ results in a bi-modal rainfall pattern on the coast. The 'long rains' occur in Mombasa district between March and June. The mean annual rainfall is 1038 mm with the months of April, May and June recording the heaviest rains. The month of May has the highest precipitation with a mean rainfall of about 235.2mm. These first rains decrease gradually after May until October but without a distinctive end in most years. The 'short rains' start indistinctly towards the end of October and last until December or January but with no pronounced end and variability is high.

Mombasa is hot throughout the year. The minimum and maximum annual temperatures are 30.1^0C and 23.4^0C, respectively with the lowest recorded temperature rarely falling below 25^0C. The hottest months are December and January. Relative humidity at 15.00 hrs is 67%.

VEGETATION

Most of the natural vegetation on dry land in Mombasa district has been cleared from sites for construction of residential and industrial quarters.

Nevertheless five vegetation zones can be distinguished albeit obliterated or broken on certain parts of the district. These zones are:-

i) Lowland Moist Savanna (Afzelia-Albizia/Panicum). The area suited for this type of vegetation includes Mombasa Island, Changamwe and Likoni.

ii) Lowland Cultivation Savanna (Manilkara-Dalbergia/Hyparrhenia). A small area around Mtongwe.

iii) Lowland Woodland (Brachystegia-Afzelia). The Lowland Woodland type of vegetation would do well in the north coast in Kisauni and on a small part to the south of Mtongwe.

iv) Lowland Dry Forest on Coral Rag (Combretum Schumanii-Cassipourea). This vegetation is to be found all along the coastline from Cannon Point through Shelly Beach to Diani Beach in Kwale district.

v) Mangrove Thickets: This is the only natural vegetation zone in Mombasa district that has not been cleared completely due to the fact that mangroves grow in tidal swamps unsuitable for human settlements. In addition they are gazetted forests. The mangrove thickets are found at Port Reitz Creek, Port Tudor Creek and Mtwapa Creek, covering an area of approximately 3,059 ha.

SOILS

Soils in Mombasa district vary greatly in fertility. There are soils of moderate to high fertility on Mombasa mainland, particularly northern areas of Mwakirunge and parts of Changamwe. Crops grown include maize, coconuts and vegetables. Low fertility soils cover areas of Likoni, Shikaadabu and Kongowea. Crops grown are maize, cassava and vegetables. Low to very low fertility soils cover areas of Changamwe, where only cassava is grown. Variable soils are found mostly in mainland north (Kisauni). Kajor crops grown are maize, vegetables and cashewnuts. Finally, there are areas of sodic or saline soils. These soils are mainly in Kisauni where there are a lot of swamps and at Junda where there are a lot of mangroves. This also applies to Jomvu Kuu.

Little agriculture has taken place, however, due to low intake of new innovations (improved crop varieties) by farmers and conversion of land from agricultural to industrial and residential use.

WATER RESOURCES

Mombasa district gets water supplies from Marere, Mzima Springs and four bore-holes at Tiwi. The latest supply from Sabaki river relieved a long deficiency of water the district experienced for many years.

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The problem of inadequate water supplies in Mombasa is created by the high demand of the increasing population and industries on one hand and the continuing problem of machine damage due to siltation on the other hand. The Sabaki pump for instance broke down in November 1984 and was under repair for a long period.

LAND USE PATTERN

There are 275 sq Km of land in Mombasa district comprising Government (state) land; 207 sq Km, which includes the township and Government reserves; Trust land of 3 sq Km; and 65 sq Km of water surface.

Land ownership and land rights in Mombasa district are complex and this is so mainly because of the political and historical background.

TABLE 2   MOMBASA DISTRICT LAND CLASSIFICATION

LAND CLASSES	DESCRIPTION	AREA IN KM^2
Government Land (State land)	Township Reserves Open Water	204 3 65
Trust Land	Registered Unregistered	0 3
Freehold		NONE
TOTAL		275

Source:- Central Bureau of Statistics 1983
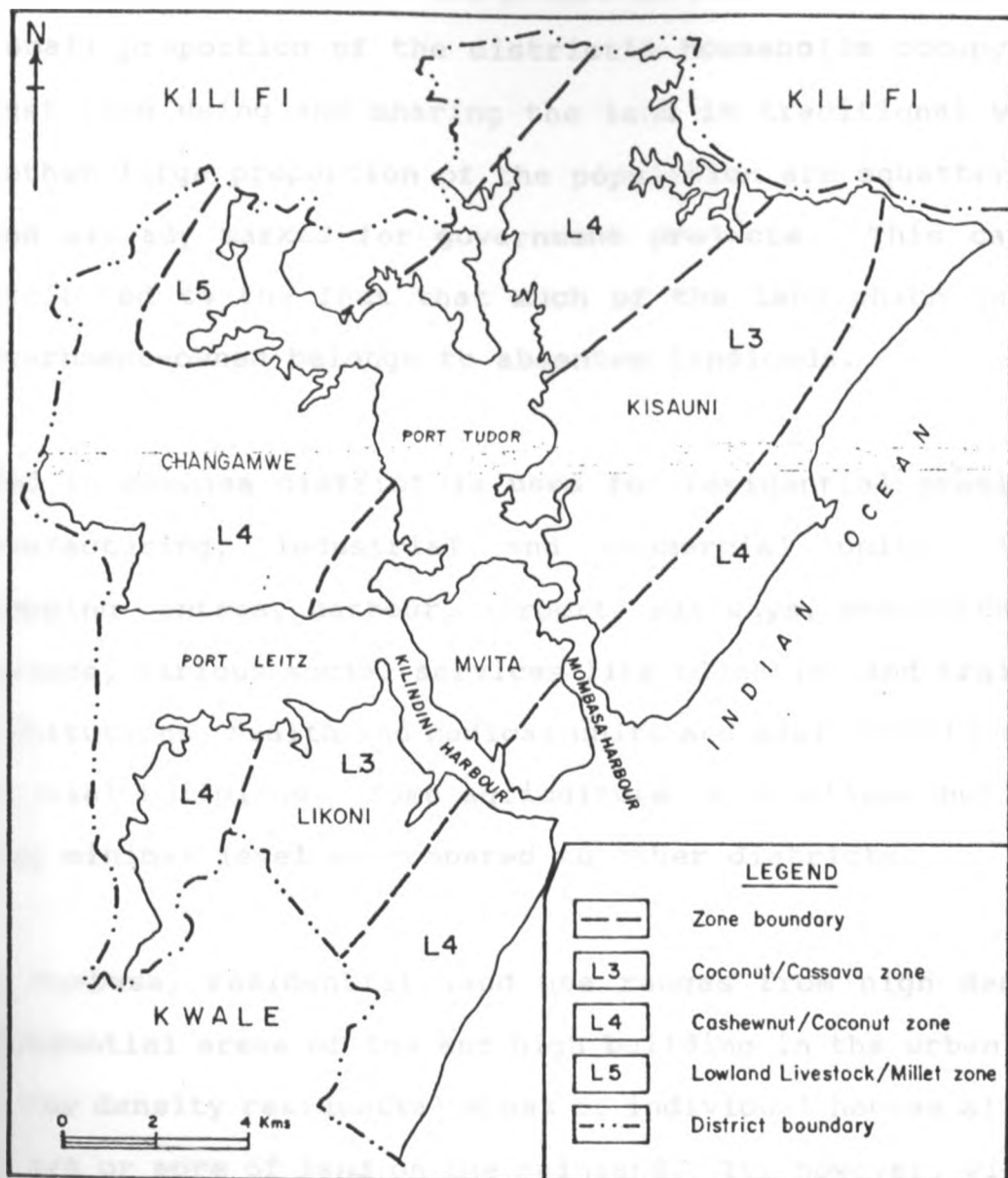
FIG. I.2. MOMBASA DISTRICT: AGRO ECOLOGICAL ZONES

LEGEND

– –	Zone boundary
L3	Coconut/Cassava zone
L4	Cashewnut/Coconut zone
L5	Lowland Livestock/Millet zone
– · · –	District boundary

As indicated in the above table, the bulk of Mombasa district is under township. There are only 3 sq Km of trust land available for small-holder registration in the district, which means that most of the people in Mombasa are landless. A small proportion of the district's households occupy the trust land using and sharing the land in traditional ways. Another large proportion of the population are squatters on land already marked for government projects. This can be attributed to the fact that much of the land which is not Government-owned belongs to absentee landlords.

Land in Mombasa district is used for residential premises, manufacturing, industrial and commercial units, local shopping centres, harbour, airport, railways, communication systems, various social services like education and training institutions, health and medical units and administrative and official buildings. Some agriculture is practiced but at a very minimal level as compared to other districts.

In Mombasa, residential land use ranges from high density residential areas of low and high building in the urban core to low density residential areas of individual houses allowed on 1/4 or more of land on the mainland. It, however, will be noted that large portion of residential premises on the Island are also of low density type to be found in such areas as Kizingo, Shimanzi and also some part of the extensive Tudor residential area.

A distinction has been attempted on the type of residential houses to be found in the district. Five broad categories are identifiable viz public flats, private flats, detached houses, traditional swahili houses and old town houses.

Public flats to be found in Buxton, Mzizima, Tudor, Changamwe and Likoni residential areas belong to the Municipal council while the Government has houses in Tononoka, Shimanzi and Makande among other places so constructed for the purpose of providing low cost junior staff housing. These constitute the bulk of Mombasa's official low cost housing programme. Companies, private entrepreneurs and private families have also built private flats meant for the upper-middle income groups. Most of these houses are found on the island in such places like Ganjoni, Little Tudor and much of the town center. Other such flats are found on the west and north mainland.

Detached houses are the large high-cost houses on plots ranging in size from 1/2 acre (0.203 ha) to 2 acres (0.81 ha). These type of houses are concentrated in Kizingo, Mbaraki and Tudor areas of Mombasa Island, the Port Reitz area of the west mainland Likoni on the south mainland, the Bamburi Kiembeni as well as the fast growing high class residential area of Nyali in the North mainland.

Traditional Swahili houses comprise the cheapest and the most extensive housing in Mombasa. The house has a central corridor leading to four to six living rooms, a kitchen, a

latrine and store at the back yard. Swahili houses occur on private land and are categorized by the Municipal council into either planned temporary or unplanned temporary. On the other hand, the old town area of Mombasa Island is unique in its mixture of old multi-storey dwellings and Swahili houses.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

Mombasa has been accessible since historical times. Dhows have landed at Mombasa harbour aided by the monsoons as well as caravans for traders in ivory and slaves. The building of the Uganda Railway at the beginning of the nineteenth century speeded an already existing inland transport network.

Today Mombasa is served with good road, railway, air and water transport facilities. The island is accessible from the mainland through the Makupa causeway in the west, the Likoni and Mtongwe ferries in the South, the New Nyali bridge in the North as well as numerous motor boats and canoes at Kipevu, and Junda creek. Mombasa has a well established internal network of roads maintained by the municipal council (Irandu 1982).

Other than long traffic jams and long waits for the Likoni Ferry, the other roads leading to the island experience no such traffic jams for both makupa causeway and the New Nyali bridge are dual carriage ways. The Likoni ferry though free to pedestrians has quite high charges for motorists.

Kilindini Port, the international port of Kenya and the

largest in Eastern Africa, is located in Mombasa district. It has 16 deep water berths of which 3 are container berths and 13 are general cargo berths. There is also a dry dock for repair of ships as well as bulk cement berths at the English port opposite the Fort Jesus and one near the Likoni Ferry, oil tank berths at Kipevu and a soda ash berth.

The port is run by Kenya Ports Authority which also runs the Old Mombasa port.

Railway facilities existing in the district include several railway branches and stations on the main rail line to the hinterland. Passengers and cargo from the district are within easy access of railway transport.

Air transport facilities are well developed in Mombasa. The Moi International Airport caters for national and international flights for passengers and cargo. Port Reitz, the old airport, continues to be operational as a military air-base.

There are well developed communication facilities in the District including postal services, telecommunications, radio, television, national and local newspapers.
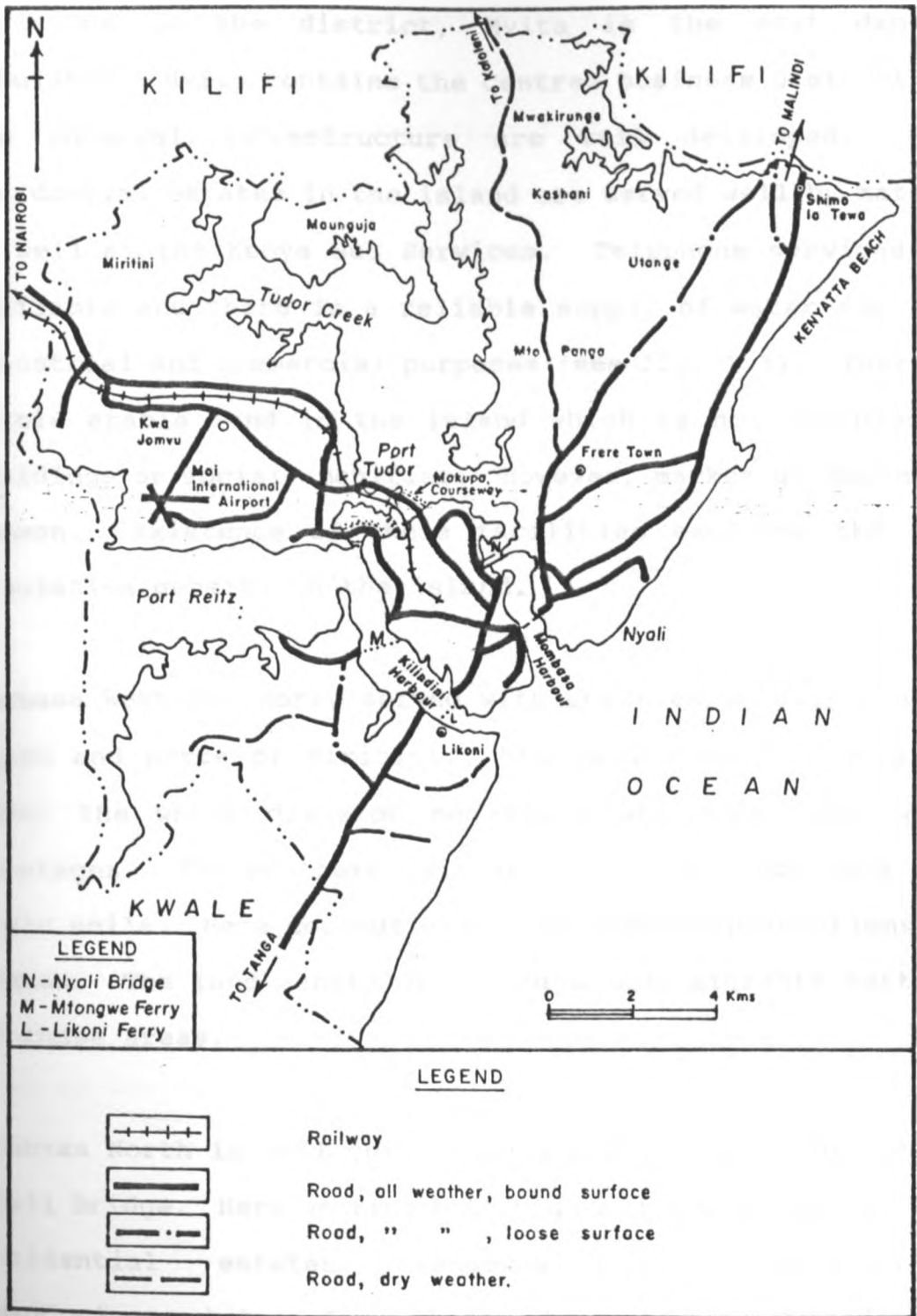
FIG. 1.3 MOMBASA DISTRICT TRANSPORT NETWORK.

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPLICATIONS

Looking at Fig.*** it will be realized that of the four divisions in the district, Mvita is the most densely populated. Mvita contains the Central Business District and the physical infrastructure are well developed. The residential estates in the island are served well by matatus as well as the Kenya Bus Services. Telephone services are available and there is a reliable supply of water for both industrial and commercial purposes (see fig. 1.3). There is little arable land in the island which is not occupied by buildings or social amenities. However, market gardening is common. Existence of these facilities explains the high population density in the island.

Mombasa West is poorly served with roads especially Chaani, Jomvu and parts of Miritini. The sewage network does not cover the whole division and there are occasional water shortages. The northern fringes of the division have poor sodic soils. Here coconut palms and cassava plantations are common. The land tenure discourages many migrants settling in these areas.

Mombasa North is well connected with the island through the Nyali Bridge. Here we find both high and low income earners' residential estates. Kongowea, Kisauni, Bersheba and Mwandoni are but a few estates dominated by Swahili type houses with a high proportion of non-migrant population. The middle income estates of Mtopanga, Utange and Bamburi have a

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high share of in-migrants. The sprawling Nyali area is a domain of high income migrants. Communication is good though there are occasional water shortages due to the unreliable Sabaki water supply which serves this area.

Mombasa South (Likoni) is dominated by the Digo to whom it is ancestral land. However, Likoni flats, Timbwani (Shelly Beach) area is dominated by members of other ethnic group where the front facing the Kilindini Channel has a high number of non-African migrants.

Hinderance of quick movement between Likoni and the highland may have discouraged many migrants from settling in the division. Fishing is important to the local population as well as farming of cashewnuts, coconuts and bixa.

A DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

In the early 1900 Mombasa population was estimated to be 49,795[1]. Of these only 30,000 people inhabited the island. It is rather surprising to note that later in the year this population was reported to have decreased to 26,300 people. This decrease was attributed to an outbreak of small pox as well as famine.

[1]

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[1]Trilton 4990
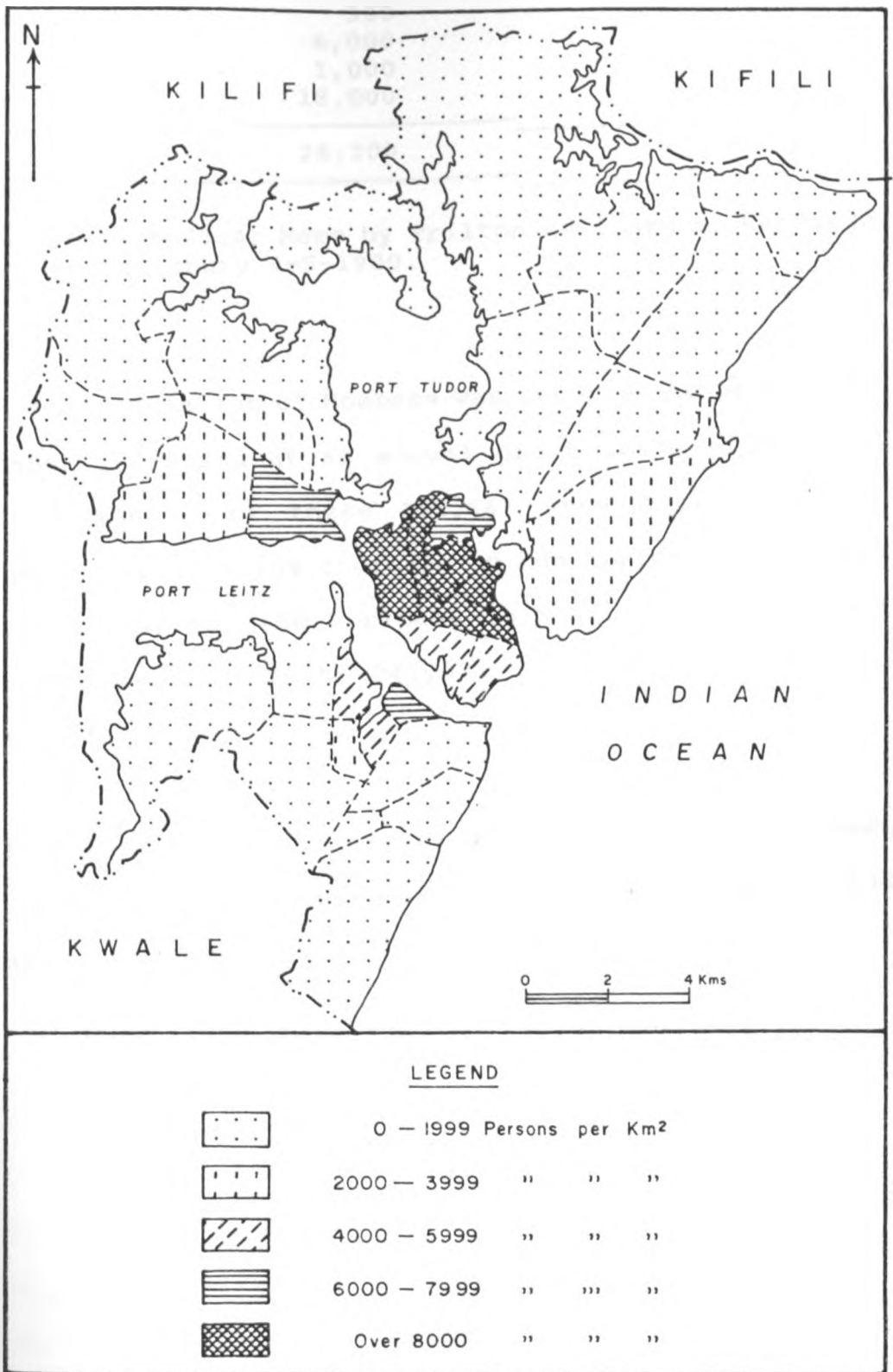
FIG. I.4.   MOMBASA DISTRICT : POPULATION DENSITY BY
ENUMERATION UNITS.

TABLE 3   MOMBASA POPULATION 1900

Europeans	300
Indians	6,000
Arabs	1,000
Swahilis*	18,000
TOTAL	26,300

Source:-   FO 2/290/314, Memo by Trilton enclosed to Hardinge
            to Salisbury 4-5-1900.

In 1948, the population of Mombasa was reported to be 84,746.
This number increased at an annual growth rate of 5.5% to
179,575 in 1962.   Of these 111,847 were Africans which
indicated a more than 50% increase in the African population
which was 42,853 for the Africans in 1948.   From 1962 the
population grew at 4.7% to 242,073 in 1969 and at 3.3 to
314,148 in 1979.

As indicated in Table 3, the population of Mombasa has been
quite cosmopolitan.   The table below illustrates this
historical perspective.

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* The natives were included in this category.

Fig. 4

POPULATION OF MOMBASA 1896/1897

1.	Europeans*	711
2.	Goans and Eurasians	167
3.	British Indians:-	
	- Khojas	169
	- Bohras	253
	- Scindis	298
	- Banians	108
	- Punjabi coolies	4,799
	- Punjabi soldiers	300
	- Parsees	35
4.	Baluchis, Persians and Asiatics	494
5.	Arabs	596
6.	Free Swahilis	14,574
7.	Native Prisoners of all races	150
8.	Slaves	2,667
	TOTAL	**24,711**

Source:- Jan Mohammed K.K. 1977
A history of Mombasa C. 1895-1939

The cosmopolitan nature of Mombasa district is still well reflected in the diversity in the ethnic composition of the population. The population distribution by tribes and nationality as per 1979 census for example indicated that Kenya Africans accounted for 80.5% of the district population, non-Kenyans 12.7% and Kenyan non-Africans 6.8%. The coastal Mijikenda made only 25.8% of the total district population.

Mombasa's high rate of growth is attributable to migration. Records from the 1962 census indicate that Mombasa ranked fifth on the very low statistics of those born and enumerated in the district which stood at 40.7%. Nairobi led the tables

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with only 9.1% followed by Thika 26.5% and the new settlement districts of Laikipia and Nakuru with 36.7 and 40.6% respectively. This is an indication of a degree of in-migrants into Mombasa District.

The composition of Mombasa population in 1969 and 1979 illustrates clearly the dynamism of population movements both from and into the district. In 1969, Kenya Africans accounted for 69.9% of the total district population. This had risen to about 80.5 in 1979.

It can, however, be established that during the 1969-79 period Mombasa and Nairobi, the two major cities, were the destination of population migrating from other provinces into the country. The 1979 census report on lifetime migration of the district reported 206,878 in-migrants and 38,999 out-migrants which indicated a net in-migration of 167,879.

This could have been as a result of people in the rural areas streaming into the district in search of employment opportunities. Also, the occurrence of large tracts of 'free' undeveloped land has acted as a population pull factor with the outer town fringes forming the principal receptacles of new population. Considerable in-migration was sparked off by the break-up of the East African community when many Kenyans leaving Tanzania arrived in Mombasa. Many Tanzanian and Ugandan nationals left Mombasa at the same time.

This trend of more people coming in than going out of the district changed after 1979 as more urban centers emerged, thereby capturing migration streams originally terminating in Mombasa district. Out-migration after 1979 has also been caused by establishment of new hotels on the South and North Coast outside Mombasa district which have attracted many hotel workers and their families from Mombasa. Other movements have occurred from time to time. For example the opening of both the Lake Kenyatta in Lamu district and the Shimba Hills Settlement Scheme in Kwale district attracted a sizeable number of people from Mombasa. The ending of the shifta problem in Lamu district prompted many people originally from Lamu to return to their home district.

In spite of the heavy out-migration that has taken place, population increase in Mombasa is being sustained by even heavier in-migration, due to the districts importance as a center of transport, communication, tourism and industries.

1.0 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

It has been noted that migration is not biologically determined and universal in the same sense that births and deaths are. All are born and all die, but only some migrate.

This study will look at determinants of migration, migration selectivity, migration typology, the ethnic influence on migration pattern, duration of residence, return migration and policy implication by the observed trends. However, it is imperative to note that when strong incentives to move are present, migration results only through an act of the human will.

Migration tends to be selective, thus assuming a sedentary population with an inducement to move, typically some individuals will leave and others remain where they are. However, the people leaving do not represent a random distribution of the biological and cultural characteristics of humanity in either the region of exit or entrance, for certain elements of the population tend to be more migratory than others. (Trewartha 1969) Migration is thus selective in terms of age, sex, marital status and other characteristics.

Lee (1966) developed a schema into which he divided forces exerting influence on migrant perception into "pluses" and "

minuses". The former pulls individuals towards them and the latter tends to drive them away.

There are "zeros" also, in which the competing forces are more or less evenly balanced should the positive factors at origin disappear, or be muted as during a depression, or there be a re-evaluation of the balance of positive and negative factors at origin and destination, the migrant will reconsider whether to move on to another place or to return to his area of origin. The acquisition of new attributes at destination, be they skills or wealth , often makes it possible to return to the origin which were not previously exploited or they may use their contacts in the new area to set up businesses in the old. Accompanying the returning migrants will be their children born at destination and along with them will be people indigenous to the area of destination who have become aware of opportunities or amenities at the place of origin through the in-migrants. It should be stated also that migration need not be a life-long phenomenon. Not all persons who migrate intend to remain indefinitely at the place of destination. This is more so when the place of destination is an urban area. An African urban migrant is a person with one foot in the urban area and one in the rural village.

On retirement the urban migrant moves back to the rural area. The same case applies for those who move into urban areas for education purposes. After getting the necessary education

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they move from town to town in search of job opportunities.

These movements to and from urban areas can be called streams and counter streams which are collectively called trends.

Migration trends have their own implications on both the place of origin and the destinations which have far reaching implications on the governments, in both planning and structuring of development policies.

In Mombasa, migration trends have been in the recent past, both inward and outward movements. Inward movements have been mainly of job seekers coming in from upcountry and the surrounding districts. The outward movements have been due to several reasons. Among them is the movement of people retiring from either Government or the private sector and moving to their rural districts or the adjoining agricultural districts of Kwale or Kilifi. Also the establishment of new hotels on the south and North coast out of Mombasa district have attracted many hotel workers and their families from Mombasa. The establishment of settlement schemes like the Bura irrigation scheme, the Magarini settlement scheme, the Lake Kenyatta scheme Shimba Hills settlement scheme and former scheduled areas have seen many unemployed and underemployed as well as retirees moving out of Mombasa into these areas.

The break up of the East African Community in 1977 forced the Tanzanian and Ugandan workers within the community to move

back to their respective countries with their families. The movement of Ugandan refugees on the coming of power of president Museveni as well as the sacking of Ugandan teachers in 1989 will reflect a reduction of the number of foreign in-migrants into Mombasa District.

The expansion of the salt collecting industry in Malindi, the opening of industries outside Mombasa district such as the Kenya cashewnut factory in Kilifi and the Bixa Factory in Tiwi as well as the closure of the Associated Sugar Factory at Ramisi all have far reaching effects on the migration trends of Mombasa District. Furthermore, the Lamu population which had moved to Mombasa because of Shifta menaces returned to their district when the conditions of peace started prevailing.

There is, therefore, need to establish whom among the population are more likely to migrate than others. Reasons attributed for migration, therefore, will be investigated.

The increasing number of women in the migration stream will result in a change in the implication to development by their move. Sex and marital selectivity will therefore need to be ascertained in this study.

The prevailing typology of migration whether rural-urban or urban-urban needs attention. This is because whereas rural-urban migration may lead to brain drain from the rural areas, urban-urban migration may be a result of people changing jobs

and not the unemployed as in the rural-rural migration. The two have different migration patterns and different implications to the supplying and receiving areas.

The permanency of the moves needs to be assessed so as to predict future migration pattern and the implication of these moves to the development planning in the country.

JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Migration is the most important single factor explaining why the population of one part of a demographic surface grows faster than another. This is due to the fact that differences in birth-rates and death rates between various parts of the surface are often rather small in comparison to differences in migration rates.

Any study of migration especially in Africa which has a very high rate of urbanization is of great importance . This is because it is a well known fact that migration has an impact on movers and non-movers in places of origin and destination.

It is now well documented that in-migration to cities may increase the urban population directly through the transfer of population and indirectly through the influx of higher fertility populations from the rural areas. Goldscheider, C. (1984) points out that since in-migration tends to be in the prime reproductive ages, in the short run at least ,there is a structural effect of in-migration on period fertility.

Local studies on migration trends are few if not non-existent. Many scholars have concentrated on migration surveys like the one done by Oucho, J.O on both Kisumu and Kericho in 1974 and 1980 respectively. Ominde in 1965 undertook a regional study on migration and urbanization of the Coastal region as a whole. It will also be found out that there are few relevant studies to the research on migration previously carried out in Mombasa District. Many studies have concentrated on road network e.g Irandu E.M (1982) in his M.A Thesis (unpublished), market and shopping, Ayub, D. (1976) and other studies dealing with the physical infrastructure of the town mainly carried by the Department of planning in the faculty of Architecture Design and Development.

This study uses the District as the area of study in line with the government policy of Focus on rural Development (DFRD) where the District is the planning unit.

This study is unique in Kenya as it hopes to point out at the existence of return migration which has been an area of little theoretical or empirical interest especially in Kenya. Ever since Ravenstein (1885) set forth the notion of "counter-current" which implies the existence of return migration, a number of studies have pointed to the need for the analysis of this type of migration separate from an assessment of other types of movements. Choi, J.H.(1984).

Being a study of migration trends, this study hopes to fill

the existing vacuum in the studies of migration research on adjustment at places of destination, remittances by the migrants streams without any breakdown of different types of movements.

Other than filling the existing gaps, attempts will be made to strengthen and/or reinforce the existing theories and finding.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this literature review is to critically appraise work done by other scholars on the subject under study, both theoretically and empirically. Where gaps are identified the study will aim at trying to bridge such gaps. However, it will be noted from this review that specific research on migration trends is rare and where it exists it tends to be general in scope and broad in spatial coverage. The Topic under discussion has given rise to other study areas viz mobility and circulation. Attempts have been made to try and draw a line between the studies on circulation which in essence look at the "to and fro" movement of people within a non-defined period of time and migration trends on the other hand. The dividing line between the two is delicately small.

Goddard A.D et al (1975) in their paper on census Data and migration analysis in Tropical Africa, brought out the fact that despite migration being recognized as one of the three major components of population change (the other two being

fertility and mortality), demographic analysis has failed to deal with it as adequately as the other two. This, they point out, could be due to the relatively greater difficulties in obtaining migration data that is specific in time and space. This is more so because in no African country has there been or is there likely to be in the immediate future sophisticated recording of population mobility using continuous population registration. It is further pointed out that there is no method of measuring migration that is both theoretically satisfactory and administratively feasible in Africa at the present time. Since national census provide a cross-sectional view of the population at one point in time. Data can only give generalized information on the structure of migration flows. The authors went further to give the methods of measuring migration such as surrogate measures of migration which include age, sex and tribal data. Birth place data is given predominance over the first two and methods of making it even more efficient are put forward.

Among the studies on migration carried out in Africa, Engman, E.V.T. (1969) in his study of migration in Ghana suggests that it is possible to identify "islands" of intensive net immigration which are separated by areas of relative population stagnation of net emigration. These areas of intensive population growth and stagnation are closely related to areas of economic growth and stagnation respectively.

Engman identifies two distinct migration trends, the first is

between 1921-31 and the second between 1931 and 1948. The first trend is basically constituted by internal migrants with most areas having high in-migration as well as high out-migration. The second migration trend of 1931-1948 saw the reduction of international migration . In his conclusion he observed that in Ghana population migration is predominantly economically motivated.

Why people move, the direction to which they move and the personal characteristics of movers was an area of interest to Trewartha, G.T. (1969). He associated migration with increasing economic and technological progress which also expanded the efficiency of means of transport and communication. He states that, increased mobility has permitted increased migration. He further highlighted the fact that unlike fertility and mortality which are biologically determined and universal, migration results only through an act of human will. Moreover, those who move are not generally a representative cross-section of the population left behind or entered. Migration is usually selective in terms of age, sex and certain other characteristics. He gives this as a higher propensity of one section of the population moving or not moving. Those who move, however, do not represent a random distribution of the biological and cultural characteristics of humanity in either region of exit or entrance, for certain elements of the population tend to be more migratory than others.

Because of age selectivity with emphasis on young adults he

observes regions of in-migration are likely to have an unproportionately large number of young people. Migration is also sex selective and more so operates in terms of marital status, most of the migrants being single young adults. This selectivity is extended into people's occupations. Skilled and semi-skilled workers are inclined to be more migratory than are the unskilled. Professional people are among the more mobile people whereas officials, proprietors and managers are distinctly less so.

The effect and implication of this selectivity was analyzed by Adepoju.

Adepoju, A. (1982) noted that the migrant workers were males between ages 25-34 who were illiterate, unskilled and used to low wages. They drained the supply zones of productive citizens. Food supply thus suffered. He also noted that the imbalanced sex-ratios affected family patterns, social structure and population growth leading to under utilization of capital in land and housing.

He observed that return migrants stimulated communal projects, caused cultural and socio-economic diffusion through their links with the rural-urban sector and stimulated communal projects.

Gould, W.T.S. (1984) attempted to put a distinction between mobility, migration and circulation. He thus noted that the basic distinction between circulation and migration proper

was time. He critically looked at the concept of the so called permanent change of residence as an essential component of migration, even though in practice permanence cannot be known in advance and many people live in towns for many years without a "home" elsewhere retire to their areas of birth or some other area, yet they must in practice be considered as migrants. He points out a special case of migration as one differentiated in the case of "irregular" migrations where the present place of residence is assumed to be temporarily, but the timing or direction of future more unknown. This category he observed applies particularly to refugees.

In his work of population mobility he further brings out the idea of circulation. He says that the prevalence of circulation mobility could be related to traditional land tenure systems and near universal access to land that allows migrants to retain an economic as well as a social base in the areas in which they migrate, but also to the circular labour-migrant structure established in the colonial period.

The relative ease of transport between urban and rural areas and the ease of making remittances from urban wages to rural families through the postal services further contributes to the persistence of circulation. However, as the population of urban areas grows and the relative availability of urban jobs falls, there is an inevitable tendency of migrants to remain in town for longer periods of time in work or looking for work, and the massive expansion of information as well as

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formal housing provision suggests longer term residence even if not permanency.(Elkan,1976)

Furthermore, the prevalence and persistence of circular mobility are not necessarily related to distance.

In Kenya and Zaire, (MacGaffey, 1983) as elsewhere in Africa, individual and household strategies see these categories as functionally integrated through mobility rather than spatially distinct and therefore analytically inseparable.

He contends that urban migration for the landless is a movement to a frontier of last resort. This urban migration to a frontier of opportunity generated by a development process that has almost everywhere promoted urban growth and urban economic predominance. (Caldwell, 1969)

He further notes that there is a rapid escalation of minimum job qualifications as a rationing measure for any who are unable to find a formal job find an opportunity (or refuge) in the informal sector of the urban economy.

Parkin (1975) notes that in colonial towns which are characteristic of East and Central Africa, the possibilities for absorption are very different . The residential segregation of the colonial period has remained with class replacing race as the basis for that segregation and many migrants are forced into low-income areas and shanty towns,

but even here there tends to be ethnic neighborhood differentiation.

Beaujeu, J. et al (1966) describes migration as the most powerful movement of modern times. He traces the first such migrations to have been as a result of the transformation of modern technical civilization which began with the industrial revolution of the late 18th century, with its exploitation of coal fields and development of machines which concentrated into factories the work formerly done by dozens scattered craftsmen. Beaujeu (1966) also looks at the migration of retired people. He notes that at the end of their active working life many people seek a more peaceful environment, better economic conditions and less rigorous climate than those they lived in while they worked, especially in developed countries. On the other hand, in developing countries people return to their birth place. He further observes that in a traditionally rural society, the individuals move but little and their displacement are mainly guided by a vague urge towards town. In communities that are better informed or disturbed by economic transformation, more important movements begin with precise but often contradictory objectives.

Bilsborrow, R.E. et al (1984) took a comprehensive approach on the phenomena of migration. They went ahead and gave invaluable guidelines for survey and questionnaire design. They draw attention to the fact that many migration surveys have been conducted in only one or more areas of in-

migration, a case in point being this migration study. The authors point out, common use to which such a study could be put into, including the investigation of the process of adapting assimilation and socio-economic mobility of migrants in the destination area. Such a study however, they warn, has it's own limitations. First, those in-migrants who remain at any given time are a subset of all in-migrants who have come during a prior period. Many others who arrived during the same period have since departed. In many cases those who remain tend to be more economically "successful" thereby biasing inferences in the direction of indicating migration as having more generally favorable consequences for migrants than it actually has. A second use of destination surveys is to study characteristics of the (remaining) in-migrants. Do they have higher education, particular skills, come from certain regions either urban or rural, do they represent particular ethnic or linguistic groups e.t.c. They further observe that despite policy value from such information, it will be far more useful if the volume and characteristics of those who came to this destination but subsequently left were also known.

It is of necessity to observe that although census data are necessary for measuring migration, which is our principal concern here, only aggregate data is available from censuses. This leaves a yearning gap of other variables which only migration surveys can bridge.

Oyuga, A.S. (1982) Tried to outline the inadequacy of "place

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of birth" methodology to determine migration in Kenya. He concludes that migrants in Nairobi are age-sex selective, between age-group 15-55 years and are predominantly males. He outlined the causes of rural-urban migration as due to better income in urban areas, successful urban employment, prevalent regional-land-population densities and unequal distribution of social amenities. Oyuga gives problems of urban-ward migration as socio-economic and demographic problems, un-proportional sex-ratio, unemployment and under-employment as well as poor housing. The author further suggests solutions such as rural development, intensive programs to hire labour and reduction of costly industrialization.

Ominde, S.H. (1966) in his analysis of migration and urbanization in the coastal region of Kenya, concluded that the distribution of urban population indicated that by 1962, the coastal region with approximately 30 % of the total population, was the second most important region of urbanization. He however pointed out that such a generalization concealed the high concentration of this urban population in Mombasa. Mombasa was observed to have great indications of large net in-migration.

Of the recorded movements within the province, a large proportion of the young adults aged 15-45 years formed part of the in-migration into Mombasa District. At the time of 1962 census,persons from the Coast districts formed 35.96 per cent of all those born outside the Mombasa enumeration District. The majority of the Coastal elements was drawn

from the surrounding District of Kilifi and Kwale. The second main source of the stream was Taita Taveta District further West. From the point of view of the regional causes, the Mombasa stream represented the local impact of the urbanization on the surrounding districts. Ominde's analysis of this important movement into Mombasa indicated that Taita Taveta District in the interior contributed about a third (31.23) per cent of the total from the coast, Kwale 18.20 per cent and Kilifi/Malindi 41.41 per cent. The age sex pyramid for Taita group, he observed, is representative of this movement. It is worth mentioning that the most important movement taking place in the Coast is the inflow of population from the national hinterland in Kenya and from outside the country. The inter-provincial migrations from the 1962 census data indicated that for Kenya, the coast province was the third most important destination of the migrating population after Rift Valley province and Nairobi, extra-provincial district.

The attraction of Mombasa, Ominde observes is to be explained not merely in terms of its unique role in the province but as a premier part on the East Coast of Africa. Its role as a major focus of industrial activity and its expanding services to meet the needs of its hinterland have an impact on population movements well beyond the confines of Kenya.

Mombasa has a distinctively youthful population dominated by young adults who constitute just under 60% of the total African Population. This dominance is largely attributed to

an inward flow of young adults from the Kenyan hinterland. The 15-44 age bracket constituted approximately 59 per cent of the total population. The young adult male still dominated the stream of migration.

It is this that underlies the tremendous build up in the demand of employment, housing and other social services which the local governments and the national planning agencies have to consider. In the absence of other programs of rural modernization, this pressure Ominde observes will continue to constitute a major planning crisis in this area.

Oucho, J.O. (1988) also observed that using Age Specific Growth Rate technique for Mombasa, there is a net in-migration into the District for a population of age bracket 15-24 years and a net loss of children Aged 5-9 years. He noted further that there is a correlation between the net migration of children 5-9 years old and females in the Age group 25-29 years in the whole Coast Province. Oucho further pointed out that there is a net loss of old ages 50-59 years in Mombasa just as was for Kilifi and Kwale districts. What is needing attention in Oucho's observation is the fact that there are identifiable migration trends in the District. The positive correlation between children 5-9 and females 25-29 is an indication that these women from Mombasa with their children go back to the rural Districts once they have reached the school going age. After primary education these same people now aged between 15-24 years move back to Mombasa in search of jobs. On reaching the age 50-59 years which is

the retirement age they move to their rural districts thus explaining the net-loss within this age group.

Oucho (1988) also advocates district oriented Studies. He says "The shift from the national planning to the District Focus for Rural Development (D.F.R.D) .... focuses on the District as the unit of planning, thereby localizing not only planning but also the analysis of population change".

It will be realised from the foregoing literature review that little has been done in studying the migrant, his characteristics, present socio-economic status and also future migration plans. Ominde (1966) migration analysis was broadly spread and is difficult to plan with data based on provinces when the planning unit is the district. Oucho (1988) realised the importance of having a district oriented study. However his migration study in Kericho is more of a case study of migrants in the tea estates as it did little in analysing the migrants in the town and other surrounding rural areas of Kericho District. There is a tendency to concentrate on the migrants characteristics viz age, marital status, sex etc in Adepoju (1982).

Beaujeu (1966) thought that information and disturbance through economic transformation as important impetus for movement. However he ignored the role of the railway line which was an important factor in facilitating migration. Bilsborrow et al (1984) gave invaluable guidelines. They pointed at the inherent dangers of drawing generalizations on

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migrant charcteristcs ignoring the fact aht the migrants surveyed may have been a representation of the more successful migrant. They raised a caution that destination surveys alone cannot give good basis for anlysis.

The problems experienced by the above quoted authors shows also the problems of analysing migration data. This therefore points at a lacuna which this study hopes to fill, first by using survey data which is more reliable, as well as using a viable methodology which ensures better results.

THE STUDY OBJECTIVES

The overall aim of the study is to assess the general trend of migration in and out of Mombasa District. The time period under investigation will be from 1948 to 1989. The time period which will be used will be the census years 1948, 1962, 1969, 1979 and the sample survey conducted in 1989. Therefore, specific objectives are to:-

a)   Obtain reliable data on Mombasa District for the in-migrants and the out-migrants from the four censuses viz. 1948.1962,1969,1979 as well as the sample survey data obtained in 1989.

b)   Identify streams and counter streams , the age group affected and the volume of each of these streams.

c)   Construct population pyramids for every census year as well as one for the sample survey and investigating whether the different numbers in the age groups are related to the Age Specific Fertility Rates.

d)   Evaluate from the sample survey whether the migrants

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aspirations before migrating have been realized or not and if not, whether they (the migrants) intend to move to new destinations or their areas of origin.

f)   Investigate whether people in employment intend to settle in Mombasa or move to other areas.

g)   Evaluate the implication of the discovered trends and make suggestions for both planners and researchers on the impact of such migration trends.

GENERAL HYPOTHESIS

The laws of migration advanced by Ravenstein in 1885 and 1889 still hold. It is these theories that Demographers have tried to build on or group together. Most of the migration studies therefore are based on these laws. Despite systematization, expansion and discussion of these basic laws, the importance of the economic motive in decision to migrate, the negative influence of distance and the role of step-migration suggested by Ravenstein are some of the important features which have not been invalidated.

Thus the following general theories will be looked at.

1.   The greatest number of migrants only proceed a short distance.

2.   Migration is normally a step by step movement.(migration is by stages)

3.   Each main stream of migration produces a compensating counter stream.

4.   Rural dwellers have a greater propensity to migrate.

5.   Females predominate the short distance migration.

6.   The dominant motive for migration is economic.

SPECIFIC HYPOTHESES AND ASSUMPTIONS

In connection to the issue under investigation, the major objectives and the general hypotheses given above, this study seeks to test the following specific hypotheses so as to realize the study objectives.

1. H_0: Educational attainment is not an important determinant for the decision to migrate.

2. H_0: Relatives and friends are not an important consideration for the decision to migrate.

3. H_0: Occupation is not a determinant for migration.

4. H_0: The reason to migrate is not influenced by a person's sex.

    H_1: Alternative.

5. H_0: Age is not a significant determinant of migration.

    H_1: Alternative.

6. H_0: Occupation does not affect the migrants' will to return to their place of birth.

    H_1: Alternative.

7. H_0: The previous place of residence does not correspond with the place of birth.

    H_1: Alternative.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

OPERATIONAL CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

1. Migration:

This term though complex in meaning in its general use will be used to define movements over some distance, which result in a change of residence for at least the past twelve months.

2. Origin:

This refers to a person's place of birth. For the second generation migrants or where a woman leaves her place of residence temporarily be delivered, give birth then this term is used to describe a person's parental home.

3. Out-migration:

This is a process involving the movement from an origin. It is thus used to describe that process where a population is lost to another place.

4. In-migrate:

This is the process through which a population is gained.

5. Out-migrant:

This term is used to describe a person who moves from an area.

6. In-migrant:

This term refers to a person who moves into an area.

7.Migration stream:

It is used to describe a whole totality of people who move from one place to another. It thus is used to indicate the volume of movements from one place to another.

5.2   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The aim of this theoretical framework is to give a very brief general theoretical background on the types of migration, their nature and their implications.

THEORIES OF MIGRATION

Raveinstein came up with his theory of rural-urban migration in the years 1885 and 1889. He suggested that people moved from deprived areas to areas of opportunity. He further related migration to distance. Migrants from rural areas often show tendency to move towards towns and then afterwards to larger cities. He propagated the ideas that migrants move in streams and that for each stream there was a counter stream. He stated that the main motive of migrating was basically economic.

Lee in 1966 built on Ravenstein's laws of migration. He developed a general scheme into which a variety of spatial movements can be placed and divided among the forces affecting migration into either pluses or minuses.

In 1962, Sjaastad came up with what he called the human investment theory , which treats the decision to migrate as an investment involving costs and returns distributed over

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time. The returns he divided into monetary and non-monetary including the psychic benefits and psychic costs. He assumes that in deciding to move, migrants tend to maximise their net real life-span incomes and they have at least a rough idea of what their life-span income streams would be in the present place of residence as well as in the destination area and the costs involved in migration. This is what Todaro dwelt on. In his model of rural-urban migration, Todaro suggests that the decision to migrate includes perception by the potential migrant of an "expected" stream of income that is a function of both the prevailing urban wage structure and a subjective probability of obtaining employment in the modern urban sector (Todaro, 1976). The Todaro formulation assumes that all potential migrants have equal information about labour market as well as equal access to urban jobs.

An important variable which will be looked at is age as it affects migration. To achieve this, the numbers of the in-migrants will be categorised in ten year time period and against it will be their age , marital status, educational attainment, economic status all as the dependent variable.

Another variable to be analysed will be distance moved by the migrants. From these, then it will be investigated whether there has been a changing trend in the number of in-migrants with distance over time.

DYNAMICS OF THE MIGRATION PROCESS-HISTORICAL FACTORS AND FORCES OF MOMENTUM

1. Colonial-Administrative, illegal and other labour recruitment efforts.
2. Impact of war for independence
3. Creation of Chain Migration.

A_1 A_2

DOMESTIC/LOCAL ENVIRONMENTAL STRESSES

1. Over-population
2. Lack of land
3. Low level of Econ. development and low standard of living.

INFORMATION FLOW-PERCEPTION OF EXTERNAL STIMULI

1. Information carrier-channels.
2. Transportation and communications.
3. Information Relay from Relatives.

e_1

OPPORTUNITIES IN DESTINATIONS

KNOWLEDGE ACQUISITION AND CREATION OF AN AWARENESS SURFACE - PERCEPTION

1. Economic Opportunities
2. Social Amenities
3. Knowledge of location of relatives, etc.
4. Dynamics of Kinship ties

e_2

G_1

NO

STIMULI-DETERMINE MOVER-STAYER DICTONORY

E_1

STAYER

1. Very young or above 45 years old.
2. Head of family (political of religious roles,etc)
3. Available land.
4. Permanent returned Migrant
5. In off-farm occupation with wages.
6. Females.
7. Family opposition to movement, etc.

E_2

DECISIONS TO MOVE

1. Family members in Mombasa.
2. Young Population - 14-15 years.
3. Mostly Males.
4. Singles Predominate.
5. Lack of land for farming.
6. Information about a job.
7. Educated young who are unemployed Role of Literacy.
8. Un-employed Population-not receiving wages.
9. As a means of marrying.
10. Last immediate and most important parent-guardian.
11. Taken down by relatives.
12. Quarrels in family.

ESTIMATE THE FOLLOWING

1. Transportation Cost-can you afford it?
2. How far do you want to travel-use intervening opportunities
3. Parents/Relatives at home agreed If not consider how you can run away.
4. Has family members in Mombasa agreed.
5. Travelling alone or in a group?
6. Any target towns?

E_2

YES

F_2

Cursory Migrant or Visitor wo might ignore planning

J_1

NO

DECIDE/ACT ON THE FOLLOWING

1. Decide on Destination.
2. Mode of transportation and date of departure
3. Make arrangements for relatives etc. to look at family or property left behind.

SUCCESSFUL

J_2

YES

MIGRANT

FIG. I.5.   A MODEL OF THE PROCESSES OF THE DECISION TO MIGRATE

Migrants observed in Ominde's 1965 study of migration in the Coastal areas indicated that there were more male migrants than female migrants in Mombasa. This was being further supported by census figures which indicate a sex ratio of 5 to 4 indicating more males by 25% (1979 census), the migrants sex ratio will be an important variable to be measured as it changes over periods of time.

The above named dependent variables are correlated with the given independent variable so as to investigate whether any of the relationship is significant and if so how it affects the changing migration patterns, its impact and implication in development planning.

Looking at the model of the processes of the decision to migrate (Fig.1.5) we see that now the migrant decides whether he should move or stay. E_1 gives Stayers who have to look again at the opportunities existing if they have to change from Stayers to migrants. For the mover decisions have to be made, these are determined by a number of factors given in E_2. For the other hand gives the basis for a migration decision. However, there are those migrants who move without planning. These are represented in f_2. On deciding on destination date, etc., (H) the migrant then either decides not to move (J_1) or migrates to the chosen destination, (J_2).

On analyzing the decision to migrate factors at origin, destination and intervening obstacles are analyzed. A model

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of the process of decision to migrate is adopted from Nabila (1984) (see fig. 1.5). Where in A_1 historical factors come strong in stimulating movement, environmental factors as given by A_2 are also important. In B, the role of information flow access the advantages of movement as given by perceived opportunities at destination.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Mombasa with a population of about 410,000* people is the second most populous city with great diversity in its physical as well as its human culture. It is one of the oldest town in Kenya with a history that stretches back virtually 200 years. The first recorded evidence of its existence was reported by Diogenes, a Greek traveller, in the second century of the christian era. The town is built on what was formerly an island midway along the Kenyan coast, south of the Equator.

 Mombasa's population is basically the population of migrants, who replaced one another through conquest as chronicled in the Kenyan coastal History.

This starts with the local Miji Kenda who were later displaced or lived side by side with the Arabs who had migrated from the Arabian peninsular with a purpose of spreading Islam as well as taking part in the ivory and slave trade. These new migrants left a permanent mark through the evolution of the Swahili Language and culture.

* Projection using net growth rate for 1988-90 from

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population projection of Kenya.

The Portuguese followed and were first in establishing a settlement on the island which they jealously guarded by fortifying the town and building a garrison known as Fort Jesus. The Portuguese however left little mark of their presence in either architecture, language or culture. On the advent of European evangelisation and consequent colonization, Mombasa had a slave's settlement at Frere Town in northern mainland. The railway line made Mombasa more accessible to the people from the interior who before had the arduous task of travelling on foot to the coast.

The railway line also brought with it a new breed of migrants: the Indian coolies who helped in construction of the railway line and whose original dukas and bazaar equalled and latter surpassed the Arab coastal traders in volume of business as well as their actual numbers.

After the railway line reached Kisumu and settling of the white farmers in the White Highlands, and consequent introduction of cash crops such as coffee,tea, wattle bark and hides and skins led to the expansion of the port of Kilindini which attracted workers from the central province and far places like the lake region.

During the period of Emergency, 1952-56, streams of people moved from the hotbeds of the freedom struggle and persecution in Nairobi to look for work and security. Mombasa

also became a transit point for the landless people from Eastern and Central provinces after independence. These were the people who settled later in Shimba Hills and Kwale District where land was more available.

Presently the rapid development of Mombasa into an industrial and commercial centre has attracted the learned people looking for white collar jobs and also the unskilled and uneducated people who have either been employed in the industries, the port, the public sector, the private sector, the informal sector and those who with hope of one day finding a job have made Mombasa their home.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

The study aims at producing results and recommendations which can help planners in making more appropriate policy measure so as to curb rapid population growth due to migration.

The study restrictions itself to only Mombasa district thus leaving the migrant rich beach hotel strips in the north and south of Mombasa.

The study does little in investigating on the area of origin of the migrants and due to constraints of time and finances concentrates on the migrants in Mombasa with their areas of origin being only a backdrop to ascertain whether they came from a rural or urban area, their economic activities before migration, age and also marital status before migrating. Despite the desirebility of finding out what the return

migrants do on leaving Mombasa, not much is done on this study to follow them and see the impact they have on re-settling after leaving Mombasa.

The issue of remittances is all together left out in this study as are other economic and social changes affecting the people left behind during out-migration.

Though the study covers the censuses of 1948, 1962, 1969 and 1979 it becomes difficult to compare the 1969 census to those previous ones due to the boundary changes after the 1962 census.

The income levels are only taken as aggregate and, therefore, the study does not dwell much on many economic models of migration e.g. Speare's (1971) attempt to profit and loss to individual in moving. Private costs and returns to migration are thus not calculated nor estimated.

There are also a number of limitation the researcher had to cope with. First Mombasa district is not a vast urban area but like any other town of it's size, it is a town with an outer rural zone within the confines of the minicipality and the district as such.

The western part of Mombasa district, as near as Kwa Jomvu and Mikindani are more rural than urban. The study, however, focuses mainly on rural to urban migration where Mombasa as a whole is treated as the urban area. The vastness of the area under study is likely to affect the choice of a

representative sample. This problem can be minimised but may not be eliminated altogether.

The other is the problem inherent in the imperfection of the sampling frame as noted under chapter two of this study. This is explained to be a result of people who do not have any fixed abode. This is so becuase the study addressed itself to legal and numbered residences.

Another limitation is the financial aspect which only makes the researcher attempt to estimate the out-migrants because it will be costly in time and the monetary aspects to survey different districts so as to ascertain the number of people who at one time or the other had migrated to Mombasa district.

The people who moved in the inter-censal years or died before the census or the sample survey were invariably excluded.

Such aspects as reasons for migrating or preference for particular towns though they can be documented cannot be statistically tested.

OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

CHAPTER ONE

In this chapter the nature of the research problem will be outlined. Also a review of works dealing with migration especially trends of patterns of migration will be analyzed first from the global scale narrowing down to Kenyan studies.

A background of the study area will be given including a demographic profile of Mombasa. Chapter one will also include the justification as to why the study should be undertaken and more so why it should be done in Mombasa. Objectives and hypothesis will be provided as well as the scope and limitation of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

This will basically deal with the methodology and data collection. Methods used for collecting the data will be given with the strength for selection of these methods instead of any other methods as well as the weaknesses of the same. The sampling design adopted for the study will feature in this chapter as well as the appropriate sampling frame from which the sample size is drawn. The process of data collection (enumeration) will be explained as well as methods used in the analysis of data.

CHAPTER THREE

This chapter is based on the interpretation of migration statistics obtained from 1948, 1962, 1969 and 1979 census. Tables featuring migration trends over this period are provided. The data is presented in such a manner that easy comparison can be drawn with the survey data.

CHAPTER FOUR

In this chapter, the analysis of the survey data is given. Here the observed trend will be discussed using previous census data as a background to the arguments. Here

outstanding characteristics as concerns sex, tribal affiliation, age, marital status, educational levels, economic activity carried on, e.t.c., will be presented frequently or responses in the survey are recorded.

CHAPTER FIVE

This is devoted to the spatial migration of Mombasa district. Here areas of origin are indicated for the migrants in Mombasa. Their commitments towards remaining in Mombasa is given as regressed agains economic achievement since migrating to Mombasa.

CHAPTER SIX

This will look at the implication to the planners and policy makers of the migration trend which the study hopes to discover. From the trends observed future migration patterns are predicted as suggestions are made on either how to counter or to contain them.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Summary and conclusions of the whole thesis will be made as well as providing the Appendicies which will enable the reader to understand more the methods employed for enumeration including the survey questionnaire.

CHAPTER TWO

METHDODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

AN OVERVIEW

It should be clear from the start that the main aim of the study is not the precentage of migrants from the total population as this will need more respondents thus taking large amounts of money and time. This information will thus be obtained from the census data. The main aim of this study, therefore, is to examine the migrant, learn his background, present situation and within limits of statistical tests learn his future plans all as pertains to his migration tendencies.

Instead of looking at the whole population of Mombasa district a sample was taken. This is for a number of reasons most important of which is that sampling results in great economy of effort. It also gives more complete and accurate data due to the smallness of the population. The information is more detailed. This detailed information, when obtained can be more easily handled, both at the stage of abstraction and the coding of the original information and in the analysis of the coded results. Owing to the reduced volume of material that has to be handled, the quality of abstraction and analysis can also be improved, the former

because a higher grade of clerical labour can be employed with better supervision, and the latter because the data can be classified in many more ways with the same amount of computing time.

SAMPLE FRAME

This is a representation of the elements in a universe in a manner that facilitates sampling. The main aim of a sampling frame is to ensure that each element in the universe has a known possibility of being included in the sample. This migration survey is of an enumerative nature. This is because the study aims at providing some elementary data on migration, to discover the age, sex, marital status and also, discover the reasons for migration. This is unlike an analytical survey which would otherwise aim at obtaining information to regulate and predict the results of the cause system that has produced the universe.

In delimiting this sample frame, much has been done to reduce bias. It is, however, important to note that reducing bias to zero is an almost impossible task. Therefore, any resulting bias is kept constant and minimal. In censuses which are repeated at frequent intervals with a view to determine the changes rather than absolute values, for instance, a small overall bias may be of little consequence, provided it is constant in time (Yates, F.R.S. 1960).

The sampling frame for this study includes residential estates which were chosen at random. These were selected

from a complete list of all residential areas in Mombasa as recorded for the purpose of 1989 National Census. (See appendix II)

So as to reduce the sampling error to the bare minimum, a large sample size was selected. This is because other things being equal, the random sampling error is approximately inversely proportional to the number of units included in the sample. However, it is a well known fact that a big sample will not altogether remove the problem of inaccuracy. This is due to the fact that accuracy depends not only on the number of units included in the sample but also on the variability per unit and especially on that part of the variability per unit which contributes to the sampling error. Therefore, suitable processes of selection which while imposing restrictions on fully random selection do not introduce bias onto the results, the part of the variability per unit which contributes to the sampling error can often be substantially reduced, and therefore, removing the need of too large a sample to get the same accuracy.

In this study, therefore, stratification is one type of restriction used. The population is stratified into blocks of units in such a manner that the units in each stratum are as similar as possible. The criterion of stratification here is the income levels. Therefore, the population is stratified into three broad income groups i.e. high income, middle income and low income. Each strata was then sampled at random.

Due to the knowledge that all Mombasa migrants can not be equally divided into three income brackets. The fact that there are more low income earners than high income earners further called for the employment of a variable sampling fraction thus allowing for a greater proportion of the lower income than the high income group. This was to avoid a bias of interviewing more respondents from one income group than the other and thus getting a biased picture of the whole data when it is analysed.

A multi-stage sampling was also done. The first stage sampling was of all the Mombasa residential estates after being stratified into income levels whereas the second-stage were the households. The households gave rise to both migrants and non-migrants where the two groups were isolated after which a third-stage unit of only the migrants was randomly sampled and the identified respondents interviewed.

SAMPLING DESIGN

As mentioned above, stratified random sampling techniques were used. The stratification was according to different income levels viz low, middle and high income. This method is commonly used when population is made up of distinct sub-populations of different size or character. This helped remove bias in the data as it is expected that people living in high income areas are people with high standards of living, high educational attainment and in most cases are people who are in the middle age bracket (30-35 years) and

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have moved from other urban areas before settling in Mombasa.

Those in the lower income zones, however, may be people struggling to make ends meet. These include young school and college graduates or may be labourers with a low standard of living as well as low educational achievements.

The stratification thus gives greater precision of estimates of the population as it is based on realistic differences between the strata.

SAMPLE SIZE

A sample size is important in the estimation of a sample mean and other statistics. A sample size does not depend on the fraction of the population in a sample as it is widely believed. An efficient stratified sample like the one in this study, can collect more information content with a smaller sample, so the importance of sample size can be easily exaggerated. Non-sampling errors are probably larger and more controllable with careful procedure than sampling errors, especially in low-income countries (Bilsborrow, 1984).

The total variation in a population consists of variation accross or between strata plus variation within strata. Stratified sampling takes the difference between the strata out of the computation of total variation, therefore sampling within strata becomes the only source of sampling variation. In this study the strata is arranged in distinct income

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groups.   Therefore these strata differ from each other as much as possible but contain population which are as homogenous as possible meaning they have as little variance as possible.

A three-stage stratified sampling scheme was followed.   These stages were, (1) selection of respective Mombasa division; (2) Listing the residential estates according to income levels; (3) selection of the household with in-migrants. From the pre-census survey, 1989, Mombasa District was indicated to have 126,076 households.   These were unevenly distributed in 715 residential units each making an enumeration area for the 1989 census.   Of these, 38 residential estates were selected at random which was 18.8% of all the enumeration areas.

Mombasa Island has 30,156 households of which 10,765 were residents in the residential estates in the sample. Mombasa West with 53,097 household had 9,026 households in its sampled estates whereas Mombasa North, 7,948 were in the sampled residential area out of a total of 42,823 households as given for the 1989 census.

Only one person was interviewed from each household. A total of 301 migrants were interviewed from the total of 27,,739 household in the estates sampled.   This was 0.01%.

In principle it will be realised that the desired sample size is a function of the geographic size and distribution of

population in a region.   However, the ultimate determinant is often the budgetary constraint and the time factor. According to recommendations by Bilsborrow a survey intended to be representative of a country or a large region of a country, minimum sample size might be 1000 households in the urban areas and 2000 in rural areas of which at least half of each households in each area selected contain one or more in- or out-migrants.   (Bilsborrow, 1984).   Therefore, a sample of 301 households for this study of Mombasa and especially with the use of specialized sampling techniques will more than meet the needs for this study.

Other measures such as systematic sampling were used where sample areas reflected characteristics such as that of a residential estate only having thirty residential units. Here systematic sampling gives a more uniform cover of the population, for random samples tend to include clusters and leave gaps unless the random sample is very large.

SOURCE OF DATA

This study relies on both primary and secondary data.   The secondary data is obtained from the library and or archives on the past censuses.   The second source of data is the data obtained from the field during the census survey.

Primary data, however, provides the basis of this study. This was obtained through the survey conducted in the study area.   To get a representative sample, the study was based on probability or random sampling to cover the whole

geographic unit. As explained in the sampling frame, stratified sampling was used dividing the whole area into distinct income areas.

To ensure that error in the data was put at the basic minimum a number of things were done essentially to reduce error emanating from coverage and response.

First, from the onset, the problem was stated properly and adequately and the form of the statistical information needed was established before hand. A questionnaire was designed and pre-tested to establish that the desired information could be obtained without the need of a follow-up questionnaire. The universe was defined from which a sample frame was delimited. The enumerators were trained and given questionnaire to pre-test before they were engaged in the final survey.

However, a problem of underestimation of the true standard errors can not altogether be eradicated. This is because it has already been established that a clustering effect is generally much stronger for migration than any other component of population change. If one member of a household was a migrant, the probability of other members of the household being migrants was high. This contrasts with occupation, where different members of a household are unlikely to have the same occupation. Willis, K.G. (1974). Valid conclusion however can still be made even from deficient data by either restricting generalisations to

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propositions which may be regarded as valid because of demonstrably limited error in the data or by adjusting and correcting the data so as to reduce the error and make it usable.

ENUMERATION AND INTERVIEW

The enumerators were given enough instructions not only on the questions to be asked but also how to ask the questions. The interviewers were given an introduction to the survey's objectives, a careful explanation of the meaning of migration, employment and other concepts in the questionnaire, mock interviews and oral tests of interviewers were done with emphasis in getting the correct Kiswahili interpretation of the words in the questionnaire.

All the interviewers were from Mombasa, had reached 'A' levels and all had taken Geography in their 'A' levels. All apart from one had participated in the 1989 National Census as enumerators.

Interview team, they were three, were assigned to one division before moving to the next. The researcher who was with one group could however from time to time link with each of the groups to assess their progress and help them with any problem encountered. A household listing was made and identified before the interviews were conducted. There wasn't need of fixing identification stickers on dwelling structures because numbers from the census conducted just in August were still legible.

The enumerators were instructed to identify by means of a short interview with household head, spouse or other adult whether they had any in-migrant.

Because this was a household interview, a listing of persons was not necessary. All the interviews were conducted between 5.30 p.m. and 7.00 p.m. This is because interviews conducted on experimental basis during earlier hours had just yielded house-wives, maids and unemployed relatives who would have caused a major bias in the study.

METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis involves different activities from cartographic to statistical methods. Tabulation of data form an importnat part of this analysis. Various statistical methods are used to test the validity of the hypotheses and assumptions presented so as to come up with convincing empirically tested conclusions on the migration trends of Mombasa District.

The main method of analysis employed was the chi-square. Correlation analysis method was also used.

To facilitate easier analysis and taking into account that the data is bulk, computer facilities are used in almost all of these statistical methods.

TEST OF HYPOTHESIS

The test of hypothesis is important for any geographical study. This is because by testing of hypothesis we are able to make comparison. It enables us to establish differences as well as similarities and associations. This, therefore, allows us to make predictions as well as isolating irregular factors which are unpredictable and merely occur by chance.

The null hypothesis formulated earlier will be tested. The level of statistical significance for different hypothesis will be given. On deciding the rejection level (the significance level $-\propto$), the null hypothesis will be put to test. If the probability of the difference in the data occurring purely by chance under the null hypothesis is less than ($\propto$) then the null hypotheses will be rejected. An alternative hypothesis will also be formulated such that if the null hypothesis is rejected, then the alternative hypothesis will be adopted.

CHI-SQUARE TEST

This is a non-parametric test which places no assumptions about the population. Non-parametric tests have been proved to be useful when the samples are small or when the distribution being considered is skewed or not normal.

The chi-square helps us in determining whether a systematic relationship exists between two variables.

When the calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value, then the null hypothesis will be rejected. If it is less then the null hypothesis will be accepted.

OTHER MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION

Cramer's V

This is denoted by V and is better than Tschuprow's T because it can attain unity even when the numbers of rows and columns are not equal. It equals Phi (ϕ) when we have a 2x2 table

$$V = \left(\frac{0^2}{min(r-1),(c-1)} \right) 1/2$$

Where Min(r-1),(c-1) refers to either r-1 or c-1 whichever is the smaller (minimum value of r-1 and c-1).

PEARSON'S CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT C

It has a minimum value of zero but the maximum value it can take depends on the number of rows and columns. In the 2x2 table, the upper limit becomes .707.

$$C = \left(\frac{X^2}{X^2 + N} \right) 1/2$$

This will be used to compare tables having the same dimensions.

All the above measures are based on the chi-square. Other measures used to test strength of relationship not based on

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the chi-square were also used. These are given below.

Goodman and Kruskal's tau

Tau b, tau c, gamma and sommer's D use information about ordering of categories of variables by considering every possible pair of cases in the table. Each pair is checked to see if their relative ordering on the first variable is the same (concordant) as their relative ordering on the second variable or if the ordering is reversed (discordant) Norman H. et al 1970).

To get tau c a number of concordant pairs (P) and a number of discordant pairs (Q) are computed. When P is greater than Q indicating preponderance of pairs ordered in the same direction on both variables, the final statistic will be positive. Therefore, we establish whether a relationship is positive or negative.

The computing formula used by SPSS is:-

$$\text{Tau b} = \frac{P-Q}{[1/2(N^2 - T_1^2)\,1/2(N^2 - T_2^2)]1/2}$$

This measure is used for square tables.

Tau c

This is used for rectangular tables. It is the result of dividing the difference between P and Q by approximation of the total number of pairs adjusted for the number of rows or columns, which is smaller (m). The formula is:

$$\text{Tau c} = \frac{2M(P-Q)}{N^2(M-1)}$$

REGRESSION TECHNIQUE

At the data collection stage, Regression Technique had been envisaged as one of the methods to be used for analysis of the data. However, after collecting the data the above technique was found inappropriate. First regression technique is based on some basic assumptions which must be fulfilled among them is that the regression model must be linear and that residuals have a normal distribution with a mean zero and that the residuals are independent and a constant variance. There occurs a problem of multi-collinearity when the independent variables are collinear. To overcome this then there is need to have prior information about the relation of to . Unfortunately, in migration these relationships are not known, (Willis, 1974). The problem of correlated variables between spatial structure and socio-economic characteristics in migration studies are hard to overcome. Whereas step-wise regression technique may be used to reduce the element of highly inter-correlated variables eliminating one another caution must be taken since step-wise procedure tends to discriminate against regressors tested last (Goldberger, 1968). Since factors affecting migration are often "joint influences" this brings the problem of joint influences in regression. It will be realized that people who migrate tend to have high education and high incomes. Whether education or income is the more important causative factor is difficult to tell. Age, education, occupation and income are related causal factors in migration studies. Due to having no definite categories for things like occupation, religion, race and ethnic groups,

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there is tendency for collapsing categories. This is due to the difficulty of having definite dimensions along which to classify the respondents. This, on the other hand, produces non random errors. Social scientists are often primarily interested in discovering which of a very large number of variables are most closely related to a given dependent variable. In exploratory studies of this sort, regression analysis is of secondary importance (Blalock H.M., 1981).

There are inconsistencies and contradictory conclusion from regression analysis when used for migration studies. Studies by Tarver and Gurley (1965) to account for county net migration in the United States (1950-60), for example, never proved significant contrary to expectations.

In summary, the chi-square, phi-statistic, pearson's contingency, Tau b, Tau c, gamma and Sommer's D will be used for analysis of the data where applicable. Though, regression techniques have been used in migration studies where tabulation of published migration data preclude any extensive cross-classification of variables as is the case of census data (Willis, 1974), at the analysis stage, given the many cross-classifications of the survey data as occupational migration by age, sex, role of ethnic affiliation, the need to eliminate the influence of one variable upon the other was realized and this technique was abandoned.

OTHER METHODS

The other methods used in analysis of the data are given in chapter four, together with the data being analysed.

FIG. 2.0. MOMBASA DISTRICT ENUMERATION UNITS
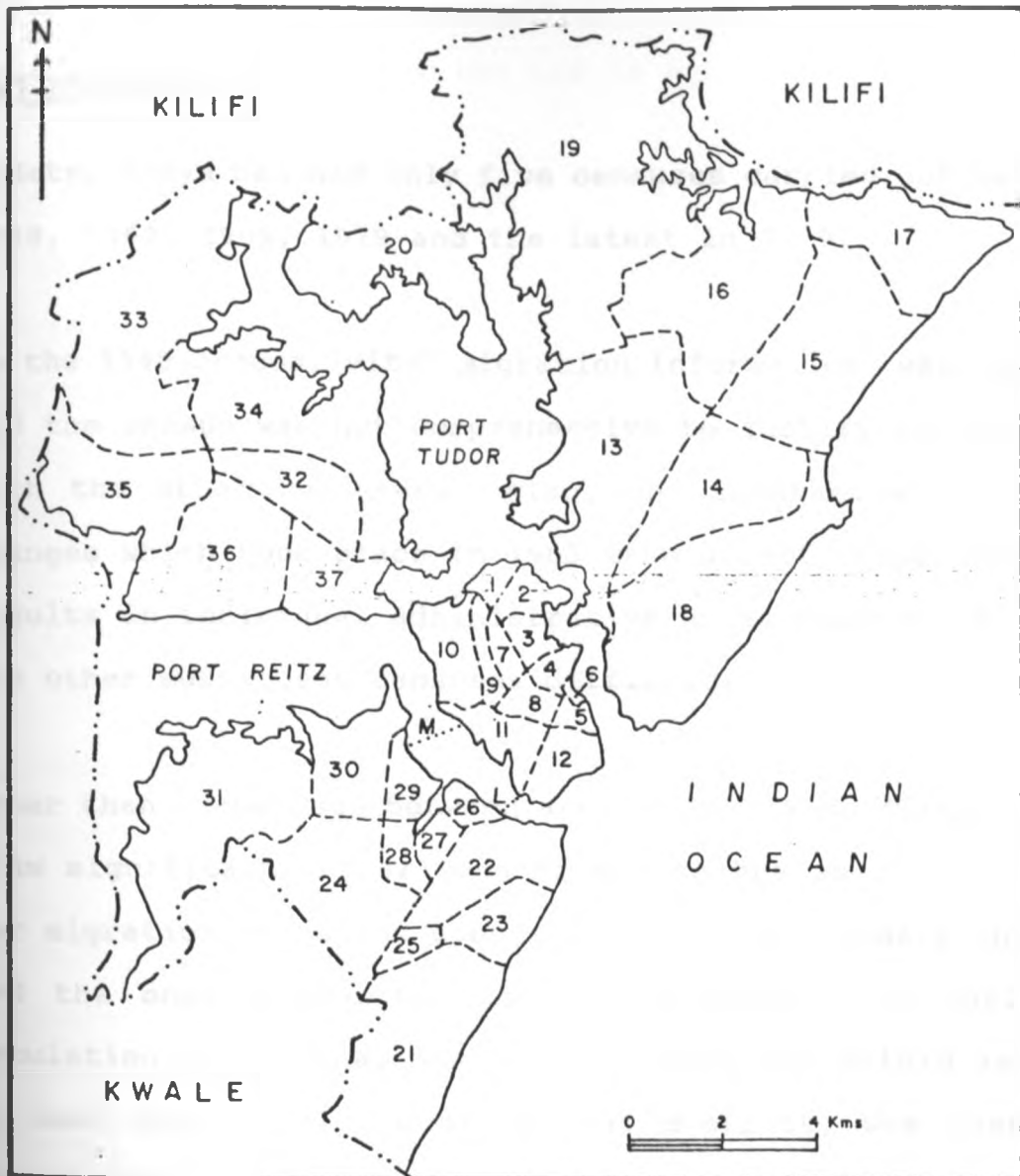
ENUMERATION UNITS

ISLAND
1. TUDOR ESTATE
2. TUDOR FOUR
3. TONONOKA
4. BONDENI
5. MAKADARA
6. MJI-WA-KALE
7. MAJENGO
8. MWEMBE TAYARI
9. KINGORANI
10. SHIMANZI
11. GANJONI
12. KIZINGO

NORTH MAINLAND
13. KISAUNI
14. FRERE TOWN
15. BAMBURI
16. NGUU TATU
17. SHANZU
18. KONGOWEA
19. MWAKIRUNGE
20. MWAUNGUJA

SOUTH MAINLAND
21. SHIKA ADABU
22. MAWENI
23. TIMBWANI
24. VYEMANI
25. KIBANDANI
26. MIGOMBANI
27. BOMANI
28. KINDUNGUNI
29. MUEZA
30. MIDODONI
31. MWANDONI

WEST MAINLAND
32. CHANGAMWE
33. MBUYU YA CHAPA
34. MIKINDANI
35. MIKINDANI
36. PORT REITZ
37. KIPEVU

Enumeration Unit boundary _ _ _
District boundary _ _ . . _ . _
Mtongwe Ferry.............M
Likoni Ferry.............L

CHAPTER THREE

INTRODUCTION

Todate, Kenya has had only five censuses carried out namely, 1948, 1962, 1969, 1979 and the latest in 1989.

In the 1948 census, vital migration information was lacking and the census was not comprehensive to justify comparisons with the other censuses. Also, the substantial boundary changes which took place in 1963 make direct comparisons of results in individual administrative units between 1962 and the other subsequent censuses difficult.

Other than comparison between areas, it is also difficult to draw significant comparisons of the tribes as an indicator for migration using the censuses after the boundary changes and the ones before the boundary changes. In 1962 the population of Turkana, Samburu, Marsabit and Isiolo as well as East Pokot division of Baringo district, was based on sample counts other than complete enumeration.

This study, therefore, will base most comparisons of migration statistics on the 1969 and 1979 censuses. However, in discussing the findings, reference will occasionally be made to 1948 and 1962 censuses.

One argument which this study hopes to support is the argument that migration contributed more to the population growth rate than did the natural increase in population. This will be assessed by the use of sex ratio.

This is also evident from the 1962-69 censuses. During this period it was established that average annual population growth in urban areas was 5.2% per annum as compared to the growth in rural areas of 3.2% per annum. This could be explained in terms of high migration rates other than high natural increase.

The table 3.1 shows the net migration according to provinces for the period 1962-69. This table also gives us the estimates of net rural-urban migration derived from data on urban population for the time period under discussion above.

It will however be realized that we cannot make a direct estimate between urban-rural, rural-rural or urban-urban migration flows from data on 1962 and 1969 censuses because data on these censuses never provided a breakdown of the place of birth or place of enumeration by urban or rural categories. However, data from the migration survey addressed itself to the category of places of out-migration as well as the place of in-migration which in this case was an urban area.

From the data in table 3.1, rough estimates were derived by classifying districts and provinces as either rural or urban. From this classification, inter-provincial or inter-district migration were classified as rural-urban, urban-rural, rural-rural and urban-urban accordingly. This covers Nairobi very well because it is a province composed of only one district which is distinctively urban. Coast province is also treated as an urban area despite the fact that other than Mombasa District all the other districts are predominantly rural. In these two provinces the ratio of urban dwellers to that of rural dwellers is great. Nairobi accounted for 36% of the country's total urban population. Coast province was rated as the second most urbanized province in the country after Nairobi. In 1979 it had 18% of the total urban population of the country. Due to the effect of Nairobi and Mombasa, the National proportion of population urban was 15.0% in 1979 (Obudho, 1990).

TABLE 3.1 NET MIGRATION BY PROVINCES 1962-69

PROVINCE	POPULATION GROWTH	NATURAL INCREASE	NET MIGRATION	NET OF MIGRATION AS	
	1962-69 (000's)	1962-69 (000's)	1962-69 (000's)	% OF NATURAL INCREASE	NET GROWTH
Nairobi	164	101	+ 63	+62	+38
Central	335	439	-104	-24	-31
Coastal	200	164	+ 35	+21	+17
Eastern	361	447	- 86	-19	-24
North Eastern	24	24	-	-	-
Nyanza	480	458	+ 22	+ 5	+ 5
Rift Valley	433	370	+ 64	+17	+15
Western	309	303	+ 6	+ 2	+ 2
Kenya	2,306	2,306	-	-	-

Source: 1969 Kenya Population census

It is indicated in table 3.1 that Nairobi, Coast and Rift Valley have significant net migration gains. Whereas Central and Eastern have significant net migration losses. The former Nairobi, Coast and Rift Valley categorize the main areas of industry and commerce. Mombasa is the main focal point of migration in the coastal area. Furthermore the Rift Valley province had established new settlement schemes. On the other hand, Eastern province and the central province contributed substantial numbers of the out-migrants.

From the 1962 census, out of the total Mombasa population of 247,073 only 95,418 making 38.6% named Mombasa as their place of birth. This, therefore, indicated that 61.4% of Mombasa residents were migrants. This contrasted much with the total population of the coast province of 944,082, of which, 731,430 making 77.5% were born in the coast province. This, therefore, leaves 212,652, only 22.5% as migrants in the coast province as a whole.

TABLE 3.2 PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN POPULATION BY BIRTH PL

SIZE CLASS OF TOWNS	TOTAL POP-ULATION	BORN IN SAME DISTRICT	BORN ELSEWHERE IN SAME PROVINCE	BORN ELSEWHERE IN KENYA	BORN OUTSI KENYA
2,000-4,000	81,886	55%	11%	32%	3%
5,000-9,999	71,396	53%	13%	32%	3%
10,000-99,999	170,267	32%	15%	45%	7%
MOMBASA	247,073	37%	20%	32%	12%
NAIROBI	509,286	24%	24%	65%	11%

Source: Kenya Population & Development 1980.

Percentages may not add exactly to totals as a result of

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rounding. * Data on birthplace were apparently not collected

for some towns and collected from only part of the population

in others.

It is evident from table 3.2 that 63% of the population of

Mombasa was born elsewhere. This indicates the very high

migration rates in Mombasa which is only second to Nairobi as

a major attraction to many migrants.

To get a clear picture of how distinct the migration pattern

in Mombasa compared with the other districts in the province,

table 3.3 is provided for 1962 census.

TABLE 3.3   PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION

BY DISTRICTS IN 1962 CENSUS[1]

DISTRICT OF ENUMERATION	BORN IN DISTRICT WHERE ENUMERATED	BORN IN KENYA	BORN OUTSIDE KENYA	TOTAL %
Nairobi	9.1	87.9	3.0	100.0
Embu[2]	96.4	3.6	0.1	100.0
Fort Hall[3]	98.0	2.0	-	100.0
Kiambu	92.6	7.3	0.1	100.0
Meru	97.7	2.1	0.2	100.0
Nanyuki	25.0	74.6	0.4	100.0
Nyeri	95.6	4.3	0.1	100.0
Kilifi	98.8	1.0	0.2	100.0
Kwale	78.0	21.3	0.7	100.0
Lamu	92.5	6.4	1.1	100.0
Mombasa	40.7	52.7	6.6	100.0
Taita	79.7	16.9	3.4	100.0
Tana River	94.4	4.2	1.4	100.0
Central Nyanza	96.8	2.7	0.5	100.0
Elgon Nyanza	94.9	4.2	0.9	100.0
Kericho	80.9	18.0	1.1	100.0
Kisii	98.5	1.5	-	100.0
North Nyanza	97.8	2.1	0.1	100.0
South Nyanza	89.6	9.8	0.6	100.0
Baringo	96.3	2.7	1.0	100.0
Elgeyo-Marakwet	95.0	5.0	-	100.0
Laikipia	36.7	62.7	0.6	100.0
Naivasha	45.8	53.9	0.3	100.0
Nakuru	40.6	58.9	0.5	100.0
Nandi	94.2	5.6	0.2	100.0
Trans Nzoia	48.5	47.0	4.5	100.0
Uasin Gishu	47.5	51.0	1.5	100.0
West Pokot	91.3	8.1	0.6	100.0
Kajiado	91.1	8.2	0.7	100.0
Kitui	97.1	2.9	-	100.0
Machakos	98.5	1.4	0.1	100.0
Narok	96.6	3.2	0.2	100.0

Source: CBS 1962 census

[1]   These figures do not include the population of Northern province.

[2]   Embu this time included the present Kirinyaga District.

[3]   Fort Hall is the old name of what is today called Muranga District.

From table 3.3 above, it is clear that other than Nairobi, Nanyuki and Nakuru with only 9.1%, 25.0%, 36.7% and 40.6% respectively born in the district of enumeration, Mombasa came in a distinct fourth place with 40.7% of the population born in the district of enumeration. Laikipia and Nakuru were mainly experiencing rural to rural migration as the colonial government started the programme of land consolidation in many parts of the Kenyan white highlands. But more important was the opening of new settlement areas for otherwise landless masses in such regions. Nairobi comes up clearly as the only place with the biggest percentage of migrants as indicated by only 9.1% of people born in this city. It was the center of government and commerce. Also, as the state of emergency declared in 1952 came to a close, this allowed a flood of migrants, especially from the central Kenyan highland where otherwise the restriction imposed through the Kipande system and later the mass deportation of many Kikuyu, Embu and Meru people through operation Anvil was relaxed (Abour 1973).

Mombasa, important even at this early date as the gateway to Kenya retained its importance as a Centre of commerce and was advancing in the field of industrialization. The Mombasa municipal council attracted big population from the then Embu district whereas the Railways and harbours attracted people from Western Kenya and Nyanza. Few locals accepted paid jobs and it is not surprising then that the Associated Sugar Company at Ramisi had to recruit its workers from up-country,
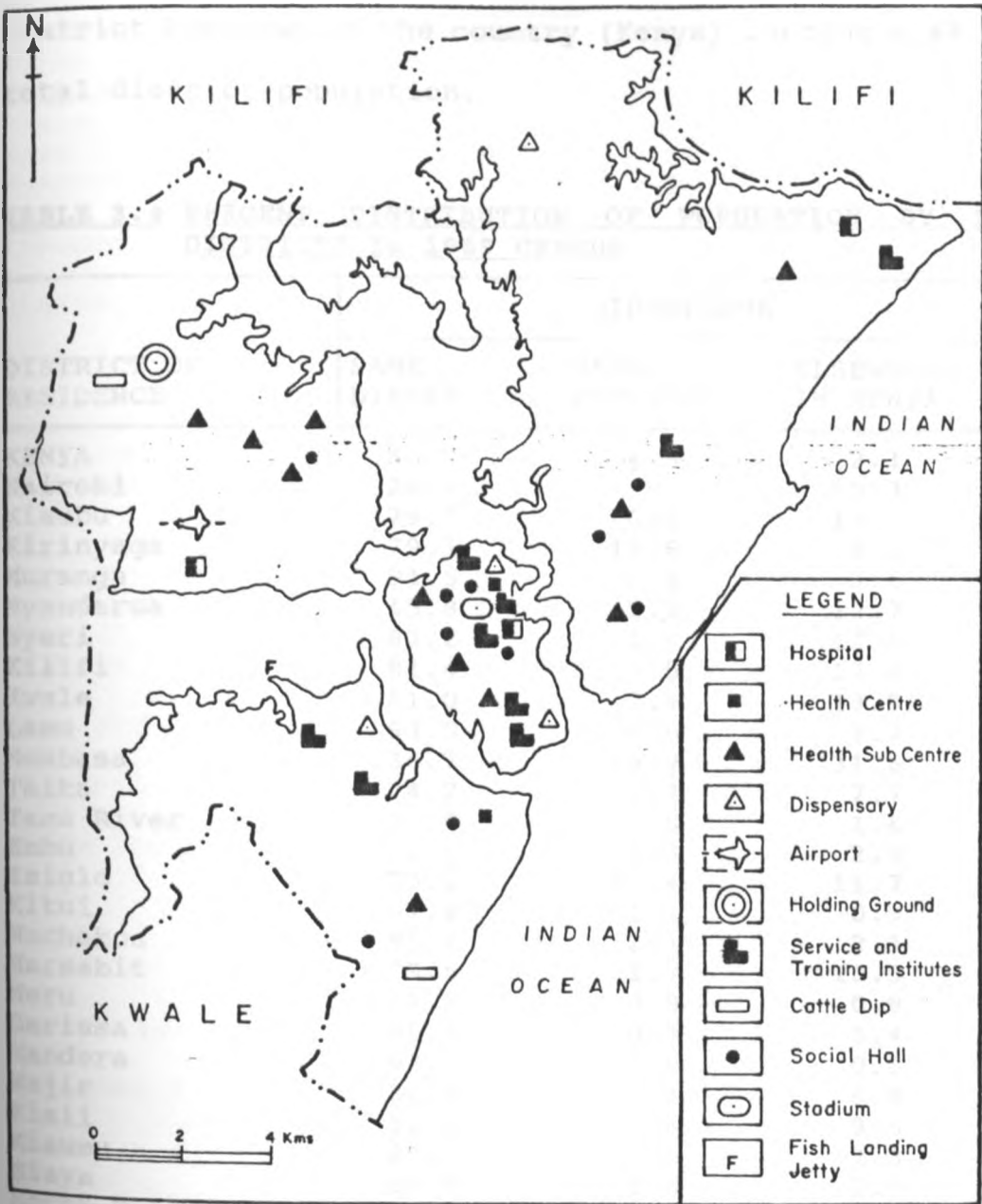
FIG. 3.0. MOMBASA DISTRICT: INFRASTRUCTURE AND
HEALTH SERVICES

especially Western Kenya. This clearly helps in explaining why only 40.7% of those people enumerated in Mombasa were born in the district. It is also interesting to note that Mombasa had the highest number of those enumerated in the district born out of the country (Kenya) forming 6.6% of the total district population.

TABLE 3.4 PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY BIRTHPLACE DISTRICTS IN 1969 CENSUS

DISTRICT OF RESIDENCE	BIRTHPLACE			
	SAME DISTRICT	SAME PROVINCE	ELSEWHERE IN KENYA	OUTSIDE KENYA
KENYA	80.8	4.9	12.1	2.2
Nairobi	24.2	-	65.3	10.6
Kiambu	79.3	6.8	13.0	0.9
Kirinyaga	79.1	17.6	2.0	1.3
Muranga	91.5	4.4	3.6	0.5
Nyandarua	45.8	41.2	12.7	0.2
Nyeri	83.2	1.8	13.6	1.4
Kilifi	81.4	3.5	12.8	2.3
Kwale	81.0	2.4	13.9	2.7
Lamu	93.0	4.6	1.7	0.7
Mombasa	36.7	19.9	31.6	11.8
Taita	74.7	7.7	7.7	9.9
Tana River	77.0	13.8	1.6	7.5
Embu	92.4	3.3	2.9	1.4
Isiolo	75.1	10.4	11.7	2.8
Kitui	97.2	1.1	0.9	0.8
Machakos	95.4	2.1	2.1	0.5
Marsabit	79.5	1.7	10.3	8.6
Meru	97.5	0.9	0.9	0.6
Garissa	95.7	0.3	3.4	0.6
Mandera	97.4	1.0	0.9	0.7
Wajir	88.9	3.1	6.8	1.2
Kisii	89.4	0.6	9.8	0.2
Kisumu	85.3	5.5	7.3	1.9
Siaya	89.9	2.8	5.6	1.7
South Nyanza	86.5	4.2	8.0	1.3
Baringo	96.2	1.2	2.4	0.2
Elgeyo Marakwet	95.9	2.4	1.4	0.3
Kajiado	75.7	1.8	20.1	2.4
Kericho	84.3	1.6	12.3	1.8
Laikipia	36.3	15.7	45.9	2.1
Nakuru	45.2	13.4	39.4	2.0
Nandi	78.8	2.9	16.8	1.5

Table 3.4 continued

DISTRICT OF RESIDENCE	BIRTHPLACE			
	SAME DISTRICT	SAME PROVINCE	ELSEWHERE IN KENYA	OUTSIDE KENYA
Narok	71.6	7.6	20.6	0.2
Samburu	85.4	1.2	4.3	9.1
Trans Nzoia	43.2	23.4	29.4	4.0
Turkana	79.9	2.6	7.6	9.9
Uasin Gishu	38.8	26.0	32.7	2.5
West Pokot	91.4	4.6	2.9	1.0
Bungoma	90.2	1.1	2.6	1.2
Busia	89.5	2.3	6.5	1.7
Kakamega	95.8	1.0	2.5	0.7

Source: CBS 1969 Population Census.

It is very important to notice that when comparing table 3.4 above with table 3.3 of 1962 census you will realize that new districts such as Kirinyaga, Nyandarua and Bungoma do appear while districts such as Naivasha, Nanyuki, South and Central Nyanza do disappear. This is because of major boundary changes in 1963. As stated earlier, this makes comparison of data from the two censuses difficult. However, it is not impossible to note changes within the same districts despite these boundary changes.

In 1962, 86.8 per cent of the Africans were reported as having been born in the district of enumeration. (This excludes figures from the Nothern Province). As for 1969, there is a comparable figure of 82.1%. Since the data for Northern Province indicate that a very high percentage of the population were born locally, it is likely that inclusion of these districts in the 1962 analysis could have raised rather than lowered the percentage born in the district of residence. The lower percentage 1969 therefore, seem to

indicate a rising level of internal migration.

From table 3.4 above, it is clear that Nairobi, Mombasa, Nyandarua, Laikipia, Nakuru, Trans-Nzoia and Uasin Gishu districts have more in-migrants than out-migrants thus showing a net loss. Just as is seen in figures from 1962 census we notice therefore, that these districts maintained their importance as districts of net in-migration mainly for the same reasons as those given for 1962 net-immigration, viz search of job opportunities and settling in the new settlement schemes established in the former "white highland" districts.

Whereas 40.7% of people enumerated in Mombasa were non-migrants in 1962, these figures decreased in 1969 census where only 36.7% were non-migrants. This, therefore, indicates an increase in migration in Mombasa between 1962 and 1969 census. It is also important to notice that figures of those born outside the country but enumerated in Mombasa increased. In 1962, only 6.6% of those enumerated in Mombasa were born outside Kenya. In 1969 this figure increased to 11.8%. This phenomenon increase can be explained by the expansion of the tourism industry which saw investors in the tourist industry as well as expatriate workers in managerial positions to run these hotels.

Most people occupying the ten miles coastal strip had foreign nationality. Whereas in 1962 this piece of land was the property of the Sultan of Zanzibar, the post independence

census of 1969 found the position changed with the coastal strip reverting to the newly independent Republic of Kenya. Most residents of the coastal area, however, still retained their foreign nationality thus increasing the number of those people enumerated in Mombasa but born out of the country.

Nairobi, however, was the most important in-migration area with a sharp jump of those born outside but enumerated in the capital from 24.2% in 1962 to only 9.1% in 1969. In migration to the city for jobs was an important pull factor. Due to its good health facilities many expectant mothers also used the city as a district of confinement.

The trend of increasing number of migrants to Mombasa changed more so in volume but not by percentage as indicated in data from the 1979 census in the table 3.5 below.

TABLE 3.5 POPULATION DISTRIBUTION IN MOMBASA DISTRICT BY PLAC BIRTH (1979 CENSUS)

BIRTH PLACE	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL BORN IN DISTRICT	PERCENTAGE OF TOTA
Nairobi	3,361	3,322	6,693	1.9%
Central Province	8,659	5,781	14,440	4.2%
Coast Province	107,227	94,414	201,641	59.0%
Eastern Province	23,632	13,005	36,637	10.7%
N.Eastern Province	880	680	1,560	0.6%
Nyanza Province	20,827	14,517	35,346	10.3%
Rift Valley Province	2,538	1,743	4,281	1.3%
Western Province	12,929	8,975	21,904	6.4%
Tanzania	3,098	2,480	5,578	1.6%
Uganda	1,011	1,217	2,228	0.7%
Elsewhere	5,660	4,955	10,615	3.2%
Kenya (So stated)	120	105	225	0.1%
TOTAL	189,942	151,206	341,148	100.0%

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It is evident from the above table that despite the fact that most of people in Mombasa are born out of the district, a substantial number comes from the coast province of which as mentioned in the literature review Taita Taveta District is a major contributor to this population. See table 3.6.

TABLE 3.6 POPULATION BY SEX, DISTRICT OF RESIDENCE 12 MONTHS BE
CENSUS AND DISTRICT OF ENUMERATION
DISTRICT OF ENUMERATION - MOMBASA

DISTRICT OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Nairobi	4,362	2,683	7,045
Kiambu	484	573	1,057
Kirinyaga	317	402	719
Muranga	326	353	679
Nyandarua	112	82	194
Nyeri	291	248	536
Central SO Stated	5	6	11
Kilifi	3,197	2,498	5,695
Kwale	1,916	1,414	3,330
Lamu	398	307	705
Mombasa	155,290	118,581	273,871
Taita/Taveta	2,022	3,025	5,047
Tana River	427	339	766
Coast SO Stated	22	9	31
Embu	191	170	361
Isiolo	49	111	160
Kitui	2,990	3,275	6,265
Machakos	1,585	1,522	3,107
Marsabit	22	16	38
Meru	296	190	486
Eastern SO Stated	2	1	3
Garissa	67	33	100
Mandera	30	32	62
Wajir	48	53	101
North Eastern SO Stated	17	12	29
Kisii	228	226	454
Kisumu	1,136	1,271	2,407
Siaya	1,212	1,559	2,771
South Nyanza	857	791	1,648
Nyanza SO Stated	7	21	28
Kajiado	35	18	53
Kericho	94	83	177
Laikipia	35	32	67

Table 3.6 continued

DISTRICT OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Nakuru	561	294	855
Nandi	64	45	109
Narok	25	26	51
Baringo	32	28	60
Elgeyo Marakwet	21	13	34
Samburu	32	21	53
Trans Nzoia	89	78	167
Turkana	16	9	25
Uasin Gishu	105	98	203
West Pokot	15	11	26
Rift Valley SO Stated	7	11	18
Bungoma	243	249	492
Busia	582	709	1,291
Kakamega	1,364	1,445	2,809
Western SO Stated	3	5	8
Kenya SO Stated	47	41	88
Tanzania	279	232	511
Uganda	212	181	393
Resident Outside Kenya	2,563	2,156	4,719
Not Stated	21	22	43
TOTAL	184,351	145,610	329,961

:Children aged under 1 year excluded.

Most of the migrants in Mombasa District have been residents of the District for more than one year. As seen in table 3.6, about 83% of all the people enumerated in Mombasa had been living in the same district 12 months preceding the census (CBS 1980). The survey results come up with similar results (Chapter 4).

There is therefore a notable increase in the number of migrants to Mombasa between 1962 and 1989. From the preceeding tables we have discovered that in 1962, 61.4% of the Mombasa residents were born out of the district. In 1969 the figure of those born outside the district further increased to 62.3%. In 1979 the figure dropped slightly to 60.7 for those people born outside Mombasa district.

In 1980 projection the figure of those born out of the district was given as 63% of total resident population.

From this background therefore it is important to look at the figures from the survey not only as a general indication of the volume of migration vis a vis the total district population but more so the characteristics of the migrants and their reasons for migrating.

Chapter four therefore gives an insight to many questions left unanswered due to the non-qualitative nature of cencus data pertaining to migration which this chapter concentrated on.

CHAPTER FOUR

MIGRATION DIFFERENTIALS

MIGRATION TYPOLOGIES IN MOMBASA

Rural to urban migration pattern has posed great planning problems to the local as well as the central Government in Kenya for a long time.   This is mainly due to the fact that this migration pattern can be attributed to the rapidly increasing urban population in Kenya from as far as 1948. Basically, the main determinant of the growth in the urban population is, and will continue far into the future to be, rural-urban migration, Ominde S.H. (1984).

There are, however, other important migration typologies in play in Mombasa district viz urban-urban and the urban to rural migration especially when we look at the return migrants.

We can assess from the survey data the most prevalent migration type in Mombasa by looking at the status of the previous place of residence data in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1   **STATUS OF YOUR PREVIOUS RESIDENCE**

STATUS	NUMBER OF OUT-MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
CITY	89	29.6
MUNICIPALITY	31	10.3
TOWN	55	18.3
VILLAGE	155	38.2
PLANTATIONS	2	0.7
OTHER	9	3.0
TOTAL	309	100.00

Source:-   1989 Survey

From the table above it is evident that 58.2% of all the migrants in Mombasa can be classified as migrants from urban areas, these being the city, municipalities and other towns. Nairobi city contributed the greatest number of migrants into Mombasa.   These were either people on job transfer or those who first migrated to Nairobi and for one reason or another later migrated to Mombasa.   This made a percentage of 28.6 of the total migration flow to Mombasa.   This can further be explained by 16.6% of people who moved to Mombasa on job transfer.   The bulk of this category of migrants was composed of teachers who made 8.0% of the total migrants before migrating and 8.1% of occupation after migrating showing little change in occupation before and after migrating.

It is interesting, however, to note that this contradicts the 1979 census ranking of destination by Oucho, J.O. (1988) in which he stated that urban to urban migration was unimportant since it included only the main urban centers of Mombasa, Kisumu and Nakuru migrating to Mombasa.   It is, however, fair to conclude that despite the fact that the bulk of out

migrating Nairobians ranked their destination as Kajiado
first and Lamu second, this could be due to the great
absolute number of people moving to the outskirts of the city
to the dormitory towns of Ngong and

Fig.4.0

TATUS OF PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE

MUNICIPALITY (10.6%)

CITY (28.6%)

TOWN (18.9%)

OTHER (0.7%)

VILLAGE (41.2%)

STATUS OF PLACE OF BIRTH

TOWN (23.9%)

CITY (7.6%)

NONE OF THESE (1.7%)
PLANTATIONS (0.7%)

VILLAGE (66.1%)

Source :– 1989 Survey

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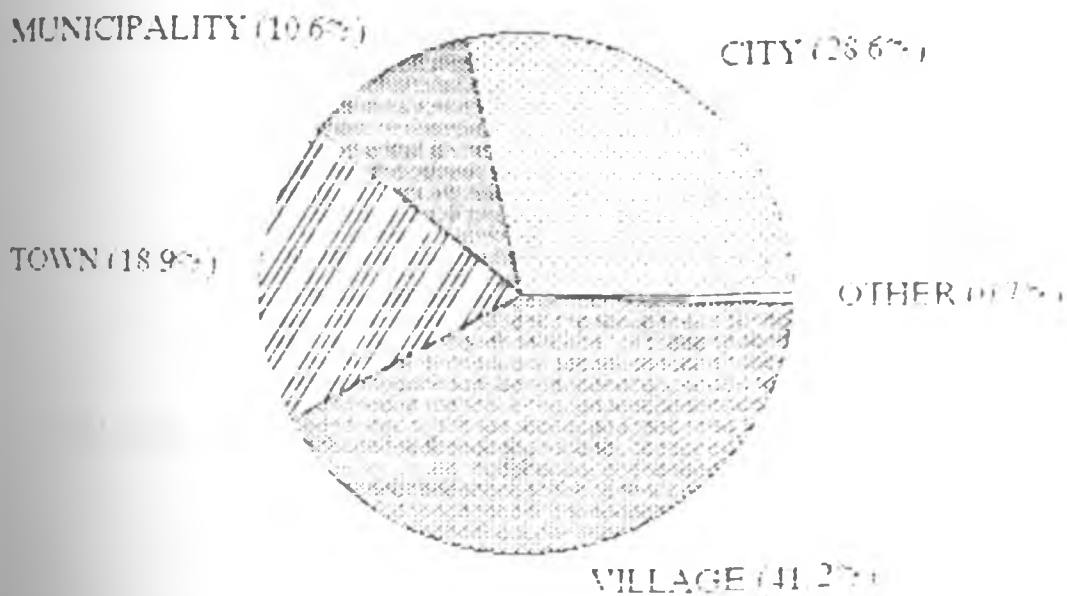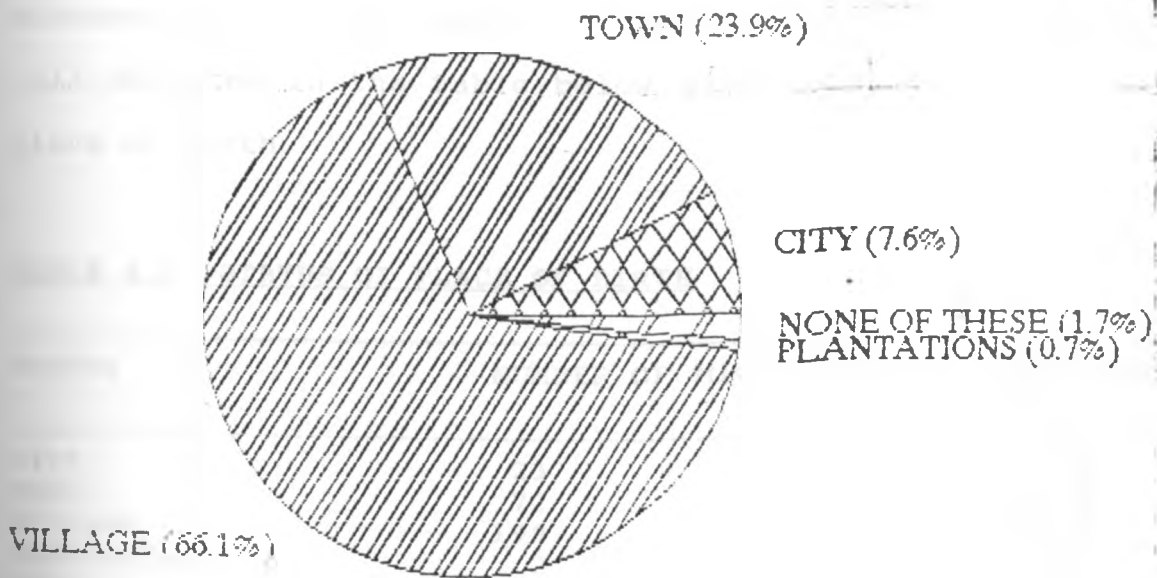
Kiserian as well as the jobless moving to new settlement schemes in Lamu. But the percentage of migrants moving from Nairobi to Mombasa needs even greater attention.

Rural to urban migration, is still important. This however, could have been masked by the presence of step by step migration where by the place of last residence is but a launching pad or a "refuelling station" for the long distance migrants. This is a situation where the migrant moves to a town to work so as to accumulate enough money to pay for his transportation to the desired ultimate destination. This is well depicted in the table below giving the status of the place of birth.

TABLE 4.2   STATUS OF PLACE OF BIRTH

STATUS	NUMBER OF MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
CITY	23	7.6
TOWN	72	23.9
VILLAGE	199	66.1
PLANTATIONS	2	0.7
NONE OF THOSE	5	1.6
TOTAL	301	100.0

Source:-   1989 Survey Data

Due to the fact that the survey was only conducted in Mombasa District it was impossible to document out-migration. However, surrogate measures were used to estimate the number of people likely to move out of Mombasa. Therefore, the figure of out-migration is based on people's views and not

actual counts. See the table below.

Fig. 4.2

WHEN TO LEAVE MOMBASA

| | 0 | 20 | 40 | 60 | 80 | 100 | 120 |

ON MAKING ENOUGH MONEY

WHEN CHILDREN COMPLETE EDUCATION

ON RETIRING

ON COMPLETING EDUCATION

ON GETTING TRANSFER

OTHER REASONS

NOT APPLICABLE
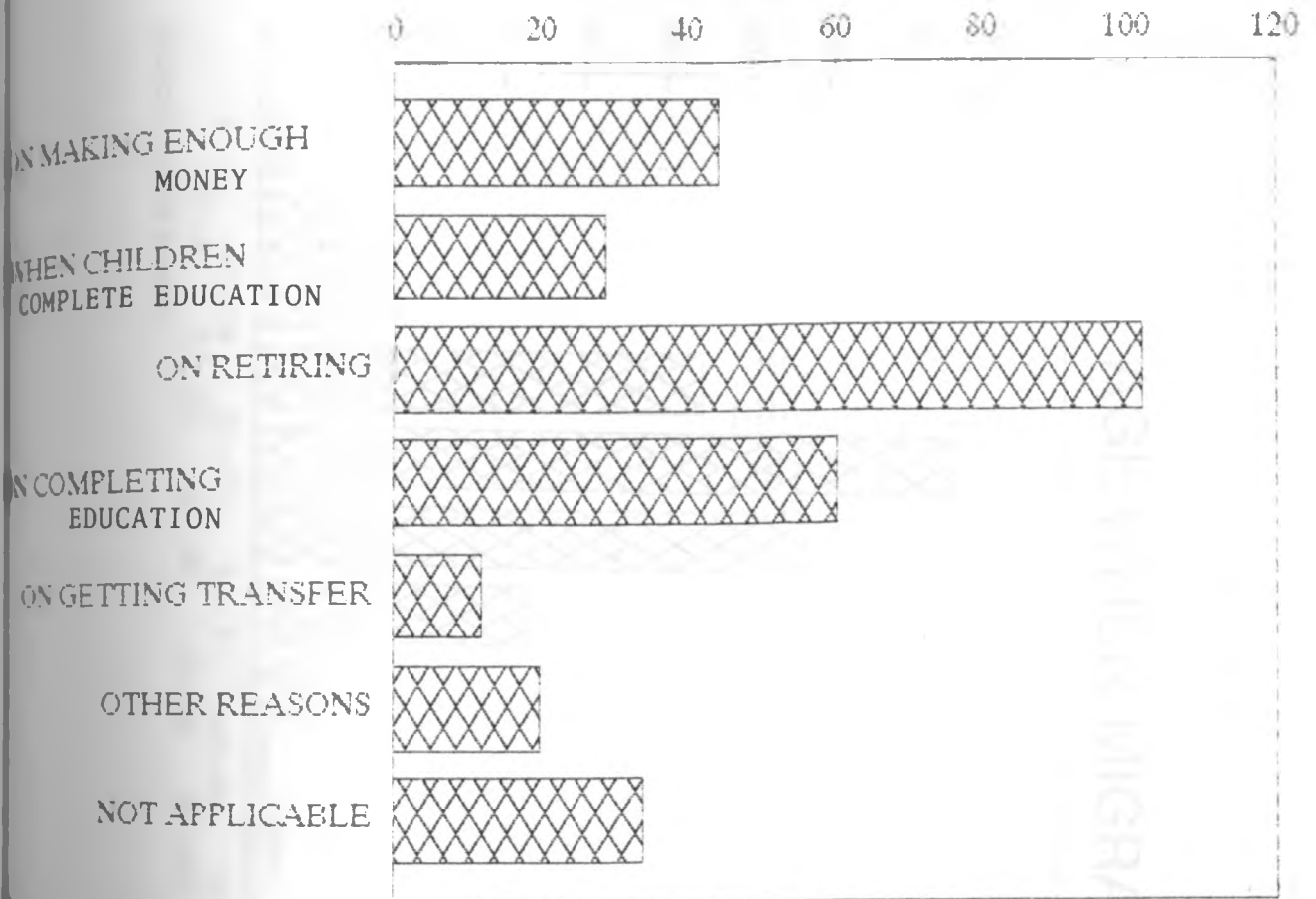
Source. – 1989 Survey

Fig. 4.3

AGE WHEN MIGRATING
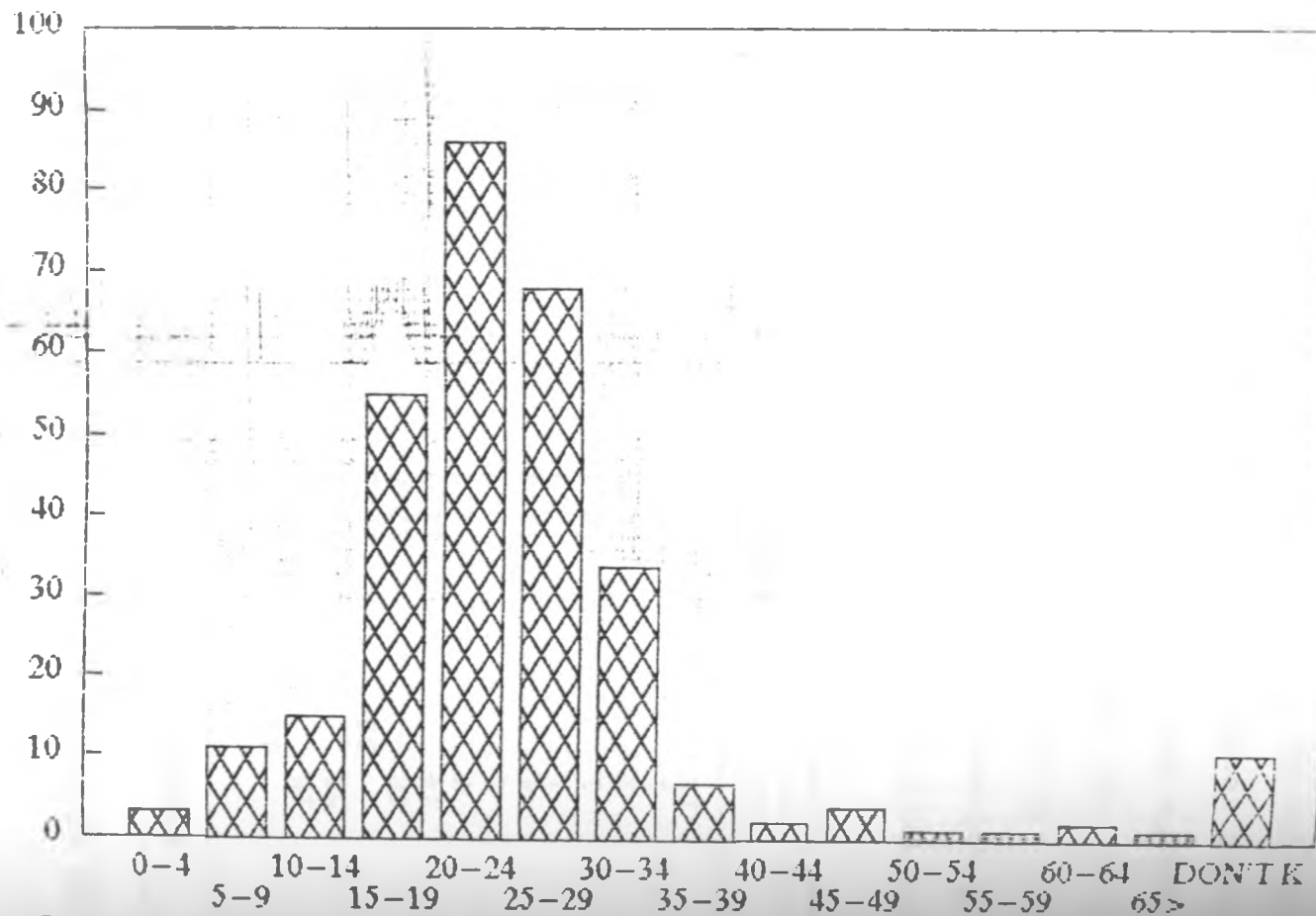
Source: — 1989 Survey

AGE SELECTIVITY

ustrated elsewhere in this thesis migration is age selective.   It is no

lly accepted that different age brackets have different propensity t

e.

4.7 AGE WHEN MIGRATING

GE (YEARS)	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
0-4	3	1.0
5-9	11	3.7
0-14	15	5.0
5-19	55	18.3
0-24	86	28.6
5-29	68	22.6
0-34	34	11.3
5-39	7	2.3
0-44	2	0.7
5-49	4	1.3
0-54	1	0.3
5-59	1	0.3
0-64	2	0.7
5>	1	0.3
ON'T KNOW	11	3.7
OTAL	301	100.0

ource: 1989 Survey Data

The greatest number of migrants, migrated into Mombasa at the
age of between 20-24 years and made up 28.6% of the total
movers.   69.5% of migrants were between the age of 10-29
years at the time of migration.   Few of the migrants 1.6%
reported to have moved at an age above 50 years whereas 3.7%
could not recall at which age they moved to Mombasa.   This
selectivity in terms of age has not changed and it compares
with the finding of other migration researchers who have
focused part of their study on Mombasa viz Ominde (1966),

Oucho (1988) and Wakajumah (1987). These findings will be discussed in chapter five.

PERIOD OF STAY

The period of stay is important in migration studies in a number of ways. It is first important in determining whether the movement in the first place qualifies to be categorized as migration or as circulation. In circulation the present place of residence is assumed to be temporary. Gould W.T.S. (1984) and therefore, the movers hardly stay for a period exceeding a year. Women visiting their husbands in Mombasa in periods of confinement also do not stay for a long period since on giving birth they return to districts of usual residence, and thus do not qualify to be called migrants.

The volume of permanent migrants may also be deduced from the figures of those movers who have stayed in Mombasa for a period of time between thirty years and thirty nine years and therefore presumably above the retirement age. At this age we expect the non-permanent migrants to return to their districts of birth on retirement.

TABLE 4.8 DURATION OF RESIDENCE

PERIOD		CASES	PERCENT
LESS THAN 1 YEAR		11	3.7
1-4	YEARS	79	26.2
5-9	YEARS	88	29.2
10-19	YEARS	71	23.6
20-29	YEARS	28	9.3
30-39	YEARS	5	1.7
40-49	YEARS	4	1.3
50>	YEARS	3	1.0
TOTAL		301	100.0

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

From the foregoing discussion therefore, 3.7% of the respondents do not qualify to be regarded as migrants. However, caution should be made in reaching such a conclusion since these respondents could well be migrants in their first year of stay.

The majority of the respondents however, have stayed for a period of between one year and twenty nine years making 88.3% of the respondents.   Those who have stayed for a period exceeding thirty years on the other hand make only 4% of the respondents.   4% of the respondents never knew how long they had stayed in Mombasa.

SEX SELECTIVITY

Past census data indicate that the male population is in excess of the female population.   The survey came out with data which complied with these figures on the totals of both sexes.   See table 4.9 below.

DURATION OF RESIDENCE
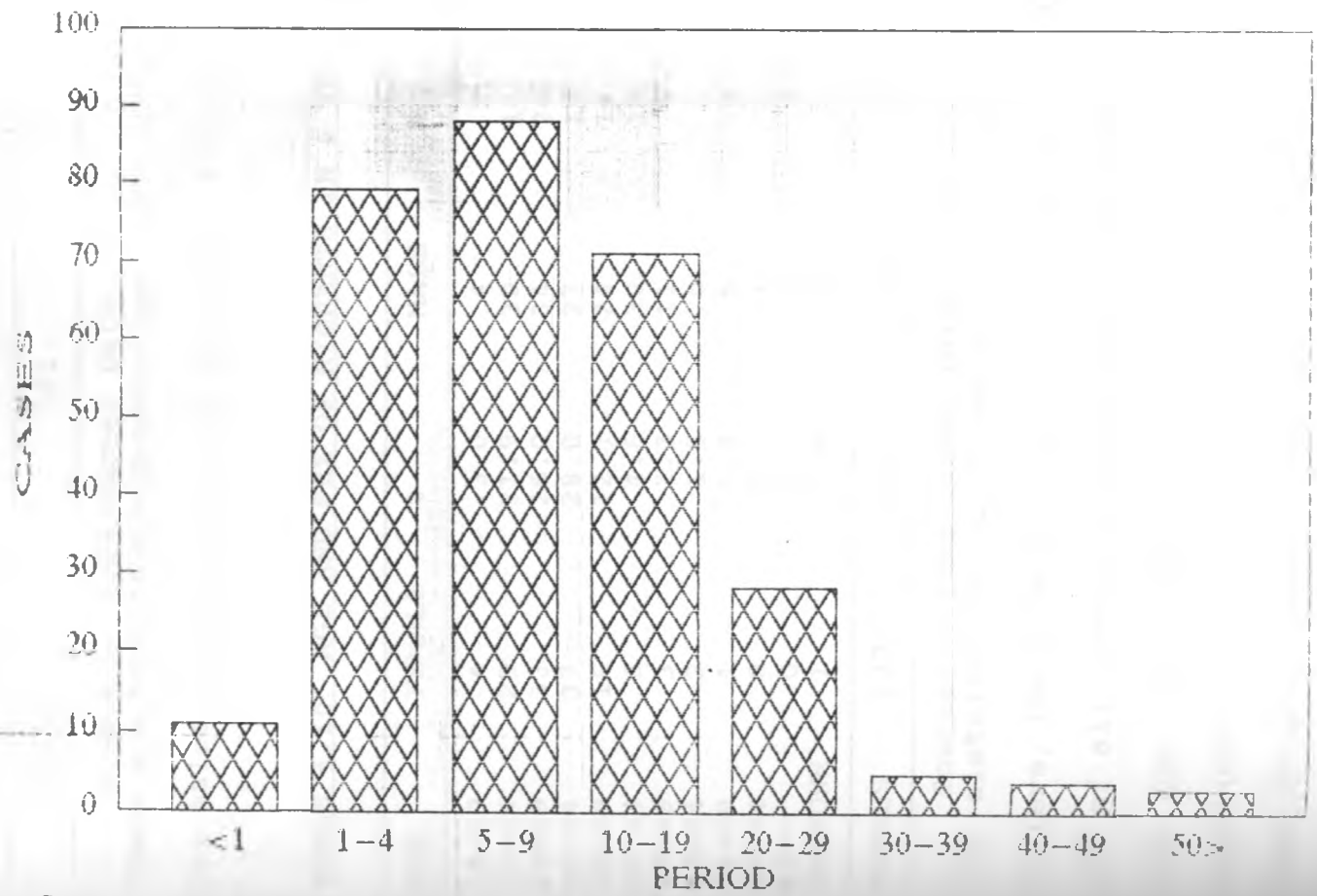
Source : – 1989 Survey

TABLE 4.9 SEX OF MIGRANTS

SEX	NUMBER	PERCENT
FEMALE	136	45.2
MALE	163	54.2
NOT REPORTED	28	0.6
TOTAL	301	100

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

There are more male migrants than there are female migrants.

The males make up 54.2% of the total migrants to Mombasa.

TABLE 4.10 AGE AND SEX OF MIGRANTS IN 5 YEARS AGE GROUPS

AGE	FEMALE	%	MALE	%	TOTAL	%
15-19	4	3.0	4	2.4	8	2.
20-24	29	21.9	30	18.1	59	19.
25-29	33	25.0	34	20.5	67	22.
30-34	37	28.0	27	16.3	64	21.
35-39	16	12.1	24	14.5	40	13.
40-44	6	4.6	30	18.1	36	12.
45-49	3	2.3	11	6.3	14	4.
50-54	2	1.5	0	0	2	0.
54-59	1	0.8	5	3.0	6	2.
60-64	0	0	1	0.6	1	0.
65>	0	0	0	0	0	0
UNKNOWN	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.
TOTALS	132	100	166	100	298	100.

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

The distribution of these sexes in age categories also differs, the mode for female is the 30-34 years bracket where 28% of all female migrants are. The mode for the males is the age group 25-29 years with 20.5% of all the male migrants.   Whereas the male are evenly distributed between ages 20-24 years; 25-29 years; 30-34 years; 35-39 years and 40-44 years the females figure rise gently from 21.9% in the
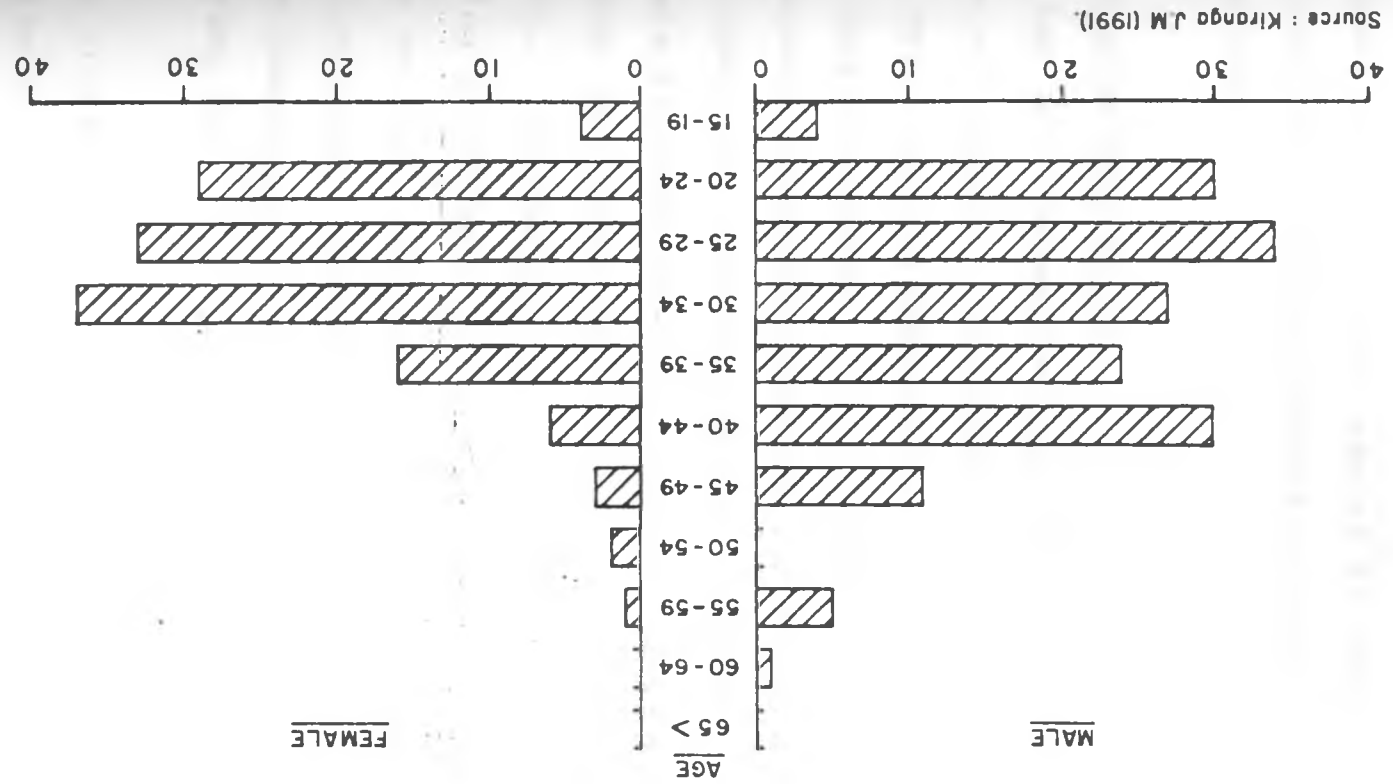
20-24 age bracket to 25.0% in the 25-29 years bracket reaching a maximum of 28.0% in the 30-34 years bracket followed by a steep decline to 12.1% in the 35-39 age bracket and falls even faster to 4.6% in the 40-44 year bracket. (See graphical presentation in figure 4.5). No female migrant was above the age of 60 years and only one male migrant was in the age bracket of 60-64 years with none above that age.

PERIOD OF STAY BY SEX

It has been documented and also supported by Ravenstein's Laws of migration that women make short term migrants while men are long term migrants. A lot of factors are attributed to this phenomenon. First reason is the influx of young females who migrate in search of lifetime partners as well as the newly wed accompanying their husbands to places of work. Others are women moving into Mombasa during their confinement period and returning to their rural districts on giving birth. In Mombasa we also have a heavy influx of females moving into Mombasa during the tourist's high peak season and also on visit of naval ships from foreign countries. This last category, however, remains a circulatory movement as the same females move to other areas in low tourist seasons or on leaving of foreign naval ships.

Only 11.4% of females in Mombasa stay for a period exceeding 25 years. For the male the figure is slightly higher at 17.4%. The majority of migrants of both sexes have spent

Fig 4·6

MARITAL STATUS: BEFORE & AFTER MIGRATING
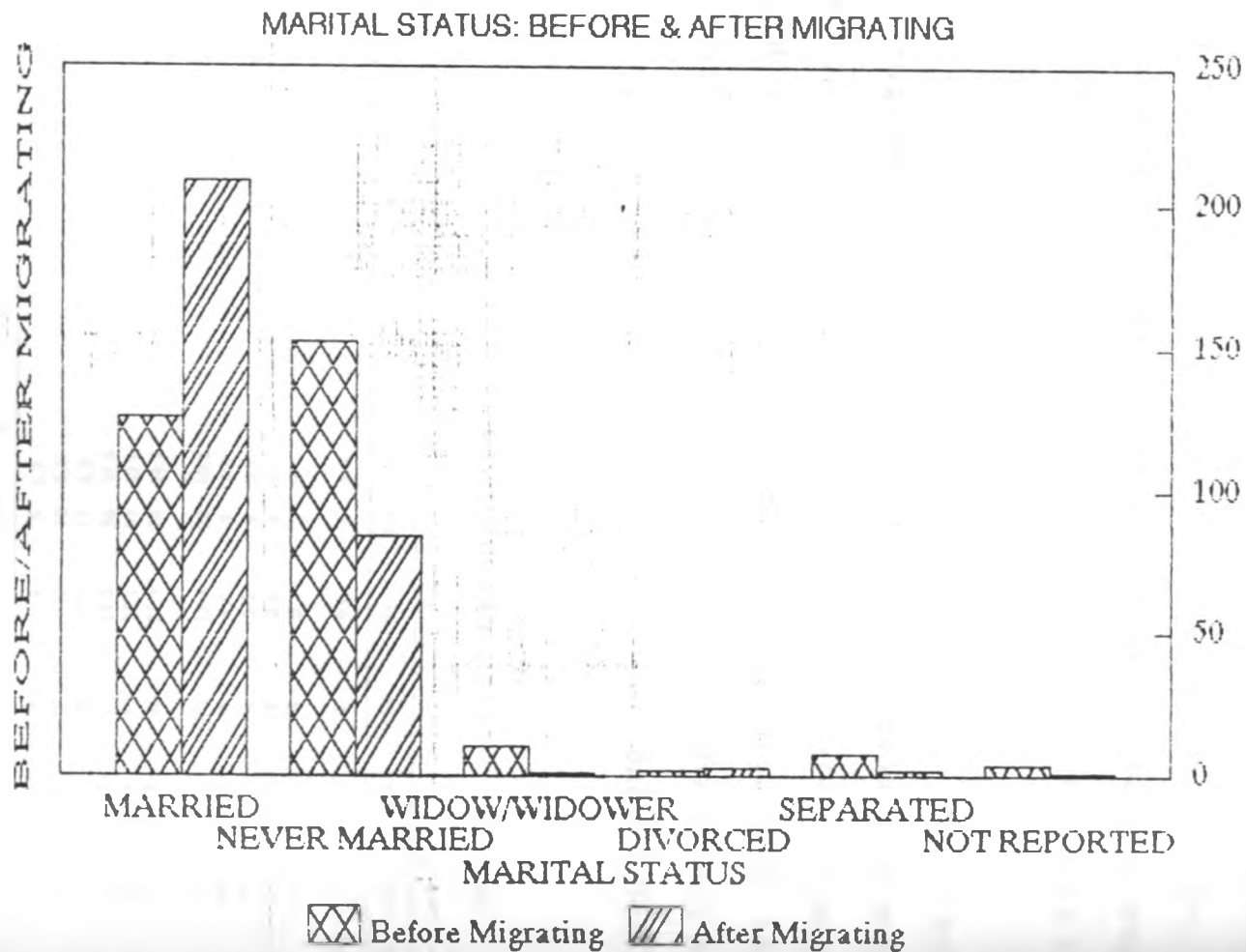
Source: – 1989 Survey

between 15-24 years making 47.6% of the males and 56% of the females.

TABLE 4.11   DURATION OF RESIDENCE BY AGE AND SEX

YEARS	FEMALE	%	MALE	%	TOTAL	%
0-4	1	0.8	4	2.4	5	1.7
5-9	3	2.3	7	4.2	10	3.4
10-14	7	5.3	5	3.0	12	4.0
15-19	32	24.2	24	14.5	56	18.8
20-24	42	31.8	55	33.1	97	32.6
25-29	32	24.2	42	25.3	74	24.8
^R						
30-34	8	6.1	22	13.2	30	10.1
35-39	4	3.0	3	1.8	7	2.3
40-44	0	0	2	1.2	2	0.7
45-49	1	0.8	1	0.6	2	0.7
50>	0	0	0	0	0	0
NOT STATED	2	1.5	1	0.6	3	1.0
TOTAL	132	100	166	100	298	100

Source: 1989 Census Data.

MARITAL STATUS

From the foregoing presentation it has been indicated that a large proportion of migrants tend to be young people. Migration selectivity also operates in terms of marital status with most migrants being single young adults.   Engman (1969).

More than 50% of those interviewed in the survey were single at the time of migration.   This is closely followed by those who reported to be married constituting 38.5%, while 1.3% reported to be living in consensual unions will be assumed to be people bound to one another through customary marriages and any other arrangements which made them live as man and wife.   This, therefore, swells the category of those who were

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married before migrating to 39.8%.

TABLE 4.12   MARITAL STATUS BEFORE MIGRATING

MARITAL STATUS	CASES	PERCENTAGE
MARRIED 116	38.5	
CONSENSUAL UNION	10	3.3
NEVER MARRIED	152	50.5
WIDOW/WIDOWER	10	3.3
DIVORCED 2	0.7	
SEPARATED 7	2.3	
NOT REPORTED	4	1.3
TOTAL 301	100	

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

Marital status of the migrants, however, took a turn once the
migrants had settled down.   At the time of the survey,
therefore, we can infer from the data on Table 4.13 that the
category of those migrants who were married increased steeply
from 38.5% before migrating to 69.4% at the time of the
survey.   On the other hand, the figures of those who were
single fell from 50.5% at the time of migration to 28.2% at
the time of the survey.

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TABLE 4.13 MARITAL STATUS OF MIGRANTS (AFTER MIGRATING)

MARITAL STATUS	CASES		PERCENTAGE
MARRIED	209	69.4	
NEVER MARRIED (SINGLE)		85	28.2
WIDOW/WIDOWER		1	0.3
DIVORCED	3	1.0	
SEPARATED	2	0.7	
NOT REPORTED		1	0.3
TOTAL	301		100

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

OCCUPATION

The studies set an assumption from the start that the main reasons for migrating to Mombasa are economical. Migration selectivity also is extended to people's occupations. As noted in the literature review, skilled and semi-skilled workers are inclined to be more migratory than are the unskilled. Trewartha, G.T. (1969).

Students dominated the stream of migrants into Mombasa as they accounted for 32.6% of the total migrant population. This category as expected was followed by the unemployed who constituted 10% of migrants. Housewives were 6.6%, whereas persons who were formally farmers made up 6.0% of the migrants.

These can be categorized as people who never held paid jobs in the place of origin before migrating to Mombasa. They all accounted for 55.2% of the migrant population. See table below.

TABLE 4.14   OCCUPATION

OCCUPATION BEFORE MIGRATING			OCCUPATION AFTER MIGRATING		
	FREQUENCY	PER CENT	FREQUENCY	PER CENT	PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCE
JUA KALI ARTISAN	6	2.0	9	3.0	1
SMALL TRADER/HAWKER	4	1.3	6	2.0	0.7
BUSINESSMAN	4	1.3	15	5.0	3.7
CASUAL WORKER	11	3.7	11	3.7	0
FARMER	18	6.0	2	0.7	5.3
BLUE COLLAR JOB	15	5.0	32	10.6	5.6
TEACHERS	24	8.0	25	8.2	0.2
CLERK	8	2.7	27	9.0	6.3
MANAGERIAL POSITION	5	1.7	10	3.3	1.6
STUDENT	98	32.6	15	5.0	27.6
UNEMPLOYED	30	10.0	12	4.0	6
PERMANENT LABOURER	3	1.0	13	4.3	3.3
GOVERNMENT OFFICER	8	2.7	13	4.3	1.6
HOUSEWIFE	20	6.6	53	17.6	11
PROFESSIONAL	14	4.7	31	10.3	5.6
SURBODINATE STAFF	1	0.3	1	0.3	0
OTHER WHITE COLLAR JOB	7	2.3	8	2.7	0.3
OTHER OCCUPATION	25	8.1	18	4.8	3.3
TOTAL	301	100	301	100	-

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

It is interesting to observe how occupation changes with migration. The category which experienced the highest degree of change was for those persons who had reported to be students at the time of migration. During the survey those who were reported to be students were only 5.0% whereas at migration time 32.6% of the migrants stated that they had been students.

The most stable occupation was that of teachers. Those who reported to have been teachers at the time of their migration were 8.0%. During the survey the migrant teachers were found to be 8.2%, giving a difference of only 0.2%. The largest category of occupation after migration was that of housewives who were reported to be 17.6% as compared to only 6.6% who

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reported to be housewives at the time of migrating. This will be further explained when we look at reasons given for migration where it will be realized that 24.6% of the migrants attributed their reasons for migrating as either to accompany family (where even newly wed referred to their spouses as family members) or to get married.

It stands out clearly from table 4.14 that all defined categories other than the students and the unemployed increased. This is quite understandable because the unemployed either obtained jobs, joined the informal sector or where unsuccessful, might have migrated to other places. This resulted in a decreased number of those who reported to have been unemployed from 10.0% at the time of migration to 4.0% at the time of the survey.

The students must have taken over jobs, migrated to other areas or even in some instances reported as unemployed during the survey for those who had already completed their studies. This explains the drastic decrease in number of those who reported to be students at the time of migration from 32.6% to 5.0%.

EDUCATION

Education plays a vital role in influencing decisions to migrate. The role of education here is twofold. First,

there are those who migrate for academic reasons i.e. people migrating in search of education. Secondly, there are those who after completing their education elsewhere are in search of job opportunities in the area of in-migration. It is expected that the bulk of migrants should be from this category.

From the census data it will be realized that it was only seventeen people who had not gone to school. This made 5.6% of all the persons interviewed. The majority of the migrants therefore are persons who have had some formal education. The greatest number here is found in the category of those who have reached secondary school. This made up 43.9% of all the respondents. See table 4.15. By compounding the figures of those who have gone to secondary school and beyond, we end up with a figure of 73.5% of the total respondents. It stands out very clearly, therefore, that some relationship exists between education and the propensity to migrate (see chapter 6).

The role played by education in influencing in migrants to Mombasa is further reflected by the number of years of schooling completed by the migrants.

TABLE 4.15   MIGRANTS EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT BY CATEGORY OF EDUCAT

HIGHEST LEVEL OF SCHOOLING	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
NONE	17	5.6
PRIMARY	78	25.9
POST PRIMARY	12	4.0
SECONDARY	132	43.9
POST SECONDARY	11	3.7
COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY	48	15.9
DON'T KNOW	3	0.9
TOTAL	301	100

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

From the survey it was discovered that interviewees who had only between 0-4 years of schooling which indicates the lower primary school drop-outs accounted for only 7.6% of the total.   Those having between 5-7 years of formal education, thus attaining upper primary school level were 17.6% of the total.   The bulk of the respondents who made up 35.2% of the total, however, were those who had between 8-11 years of schooling.   This is the category of those who were between form one and form four in the Kenyan education system.   Those who had more than eight years of education made the bulk of the interviews accounting for 72.1% of the total respondents. See table 4.16 below.

MIGRANTS' EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

POST–PRIMARY (4.0%)

PRIMARY (25.9%)

NONE (5.6%)

DON'T KNOW (1.0%)

SECONDARY (43.9%)

COLLEGE (15.9%)

POST–SECONDARY (3.7%)
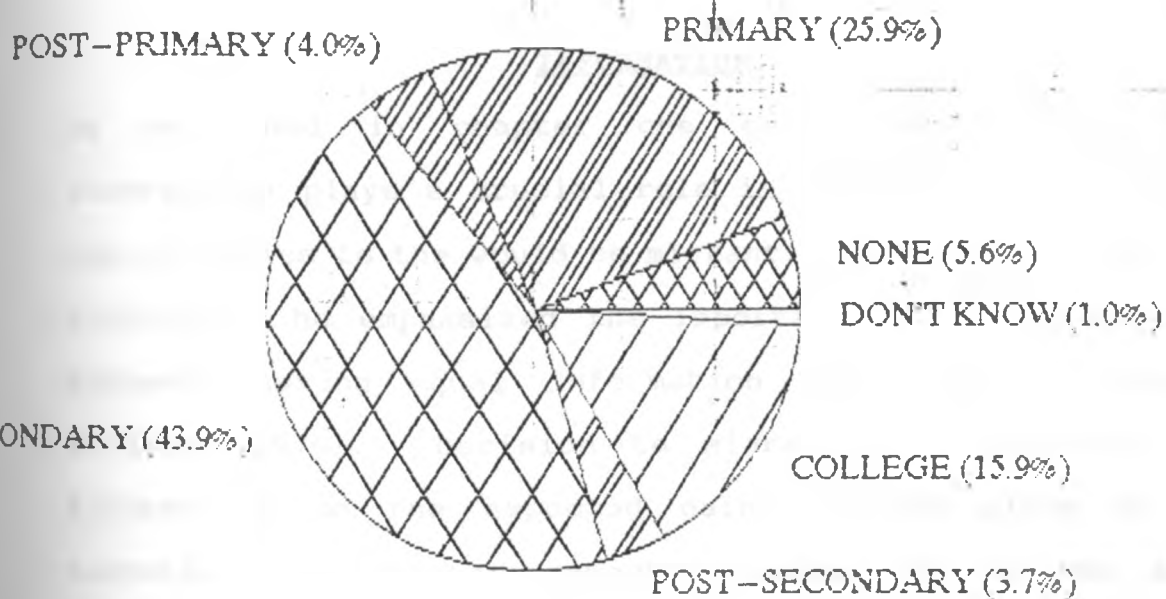
Source: – 1989 Survey

TABLE 4.16 EDUCATION ATTAINMENT BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING

YEARS COMPLETED IN SCHOOL	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
0-4		
5-7	23	7.6
8-11	53	17.6
12-13	106	32.2
14-16	60	19.9
17 AND ABOVE	42	14.0
DON'T KNOW	9	3.0
	8	2.6
TOTAL	301	100

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

INFORMATION

As explained in chapter one on migration theories, information plays a crucial role in exposing the existing opportunities to the would be migrant. In Todaro's model of migration he emphasized the importance of all potential migrants having equal information about labour market. (Todaro, 1976). Decision to migrate is a function of information on the expected gains in the place of in migration against the expected losses due to the said migration. (Sjaastad 1962.)

It is, therefore, quite surprising to see more than half of the respondents never had any information on the existence of jobs at the place they intended to migrate to.

TABLE 4.17   INFORMATION ON JOB OPPORTUNITIES

HAD ANY INFORMATION	NUMBER	PERCENT
YES	120	39.9
NO	167	55.5
DON'T KNOW	14	4.6
TOTAL	301	100

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

This might just serve to illustrate that the main motive of migration might not have been to seek for a job at the place of in-migration.

looking at soQ66gByof information in table 4.18, it will be realized that 54.5% of the respondents had no information at all about the existence of job opportunities at Mombasa. The majority of the ones who had this information obtained it from relatives who accounted for 21.6% as source of information.

TABLE 4.18   SOURCES OF INFORMATION

SOURCE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
RELATIVES	65	21.6
FRIENDS	35	11.6
NEWSPAPERS	15	5.0
RADIO & T.V.	2	0.7
VISITED MOMBASA BEFORE	20	6.6
NO INFORMATION	164	54.5
TOTAL	301	100

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

Fig. 4.8

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

FRIENDS (11.6%)

NEWSPAPERS (5.0%)
RADIO/TV (0.7%)
VISITED BEFORE (6.6%)

RELATIVES (21.6%)

NO INFORMATION (54.5%)
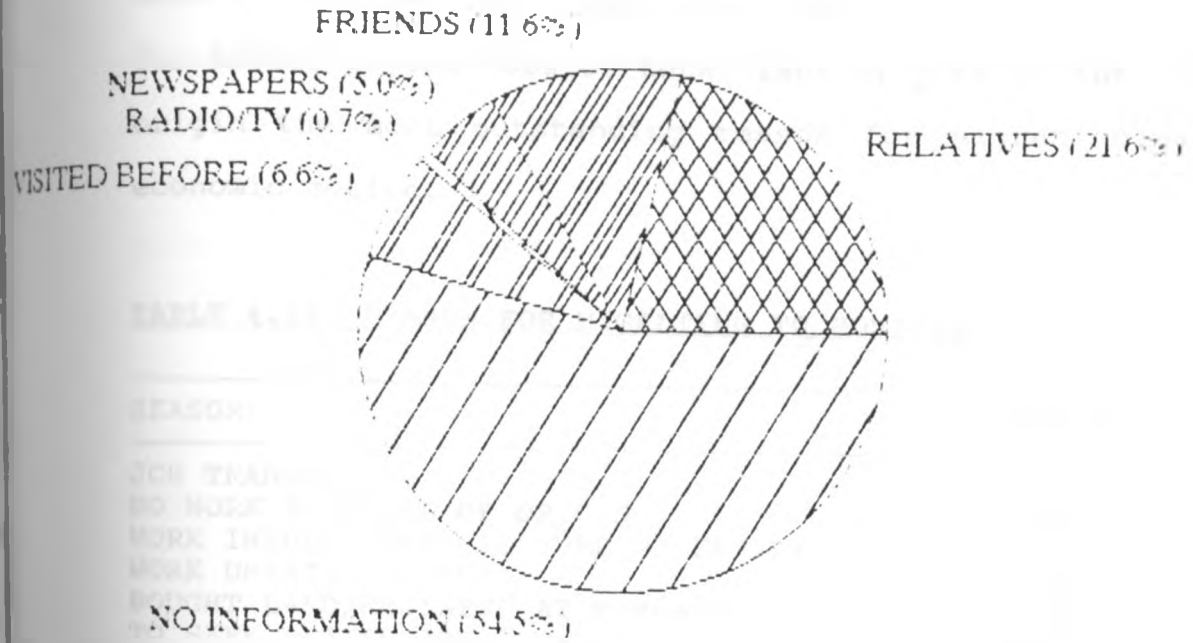
Source: - 1989 Survey

REASONS FOR MIGRATING

Raveinstein while promulgating his theories of migration in 1885 stated that the main motive for migrating is economical. Lee (1966), Sjaastad (1962) among other early scholars in migration supported this theory.

From a number of reasons given for migrating to Mombasa, it will be realized that, whether it be a job transfer, search for better paying jobs or total lack of jobs at the area of origin the most outstanding reason for migration is the economic motive.

TABLE 4.19   REASON FOR MIGRATING TO MOMBASA

REASON	CASES	PERCENT
JOB TRANSFER	50	16.6
NO WORK IN PLACE OF ORIGIN	10	3.3
WORK INSUFFICIENT TO SUPPORT FAMILY	3	1.0
WORK UNSATISFACTORY	1	0.3
BOUGHT LAND/BUSINESS AT MOMBASA	7	2.3
TO SEEK BETTER JOB	103	34.2
TO GET EDUCATION FOR SELF	21	7.0
TO GET MARRIED	15	5.0
TO ACCOMPANY FAMILY	59	19.6
FEUDS AT PLACE OF ORIGIN	2	0.7
HAD FRIENDS/RELATIVES AT MOMBASA	1	0.3
POOR AMENITIES AT ORIGIN	2	0.7
JUST FOR LEISURE	2	0.7
OTHER REASONS	20	6.7
DON'T KNOW	5	1.7
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

People moving to Mombasa to seek better jobs accounted for 34.2% of the total.   This was the most important reason given.   Job transfers also accounted for 16.6% of the total cases.   It is worth indicating how important movements to

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accompany a migrating family member was. This accounted for
19.6%. Those who migrated so as to get married on the other
hand accounted for 5.0% of all cases. This aggregate family
movements leads us to another important aspect of migration
process i.e. who makes the decision to migrate.

DECISION TO MIGRATE

From this survey it was established that the greatest number
of migrants made personal decisions. This category was made
up of 33.9% of the respondents. However the spouse had a
strong influence making 16.9% of the decision makers.
Parents were very important as they made up 19.3% of the
migrant's decision makers. It is understndable in that
quite a number of migrants who moved while quite young must
have been accompanying their migrating parents while other
migrants must have been accompanying their migrating spouses.

Employers on the other hand are seen as important decision
makers in this aspect as they accounted for 17.9% of the
total cases. This is explained in the large number of
migrants who were on official job transfers.

TABLE 4.20 DECISION MAKER FOR MIGRANT

WHO DECIDED	CASES	PERCENT
MYSELF	102	33.9
SPOUSE	51	16.9
CHILD(REN)	2	0.7
PARENT(S)	58	19.3
OTHER RELATIVE	26	8.6
EMPLOYER	52	17.3
OTHER	7	3.3
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

ROLE OF RELATIVES

It is very clear now that many a migrant have their decision to migrate made by relatives. The spouse, children as well as parents and other relatives make up 45.5% of the decision to migrate. This is not even surpassed by the individual's decision as this constitutes only 33.9% of decision makers in the migration process. It has also been indicated that relatives are an important source of information as regards job opportunities to the would be migrant because they make up 21.6% as a source of this information. See table 4.22. Most of the migrants in this study were persons who had already been staying with relatives at the previous place of residence. 79.1% of all the respondents were staying with their relatives at their previous place of residence.

DECISION MAKER FOR MIGRANT

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TABLE 4.21   LIVED WITH FRIEND/RELATIVES AT PREVIOUS RESIDENCE

DID YOU LIVE WITH FRIENDS/RELATIVES AT PREVIOUS RESIDENCIES	CASES	PERCENT
YES	238	79.1
NO	54	17.9
NOT APPLICABLE	9	3.0
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

The gregarious nature of the migrants is further supported by yet the large number of migrants who sought support from relatives on arrival in Mombasa. Of the total number of migrants interviewed it was established that 74.1% had relatives/friends living in Mombasa.

TABLE 4.22   HAD RELATIVES/FRIENDS IN MOMBASA

DID YOU HAVE FRIENDS/ RELATIVES AT MOMBASA	CASES	PERCENT
YES	223	74.1
NO	73	24.3
DON'T KNOW	5	1.6
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

The existence or non existence of relatives or friends did not preclude the migrants from getting assistance in settling down on arrival in Mombasa.   60.8% of the new migrants therefore received help to settle in their new destination.

TABLE 4.23   ASSISTANCE IN SETTLING DOWN

RECEIVED ASSISTANCE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YES	183	60.8
NO	108	35.9
DON'T KNOW	10	3.3
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

Assistance came in different forms.   Some assistance was in form of information about jobs, provision of lodging, helping in obtaining accommodation e.t.c.   The most important form of assistance was in form of availing information on the availability of job opportunities in Mombasa which accounted for 28.9% of the total cases.   Other forms of assistance which were quite prominent were the provision of lodging to many new migrants.   Of the total 301 respondents, seventy received this form of assistance thus accounting for 23.3% of total respondents.

TABLE 4.24   FORMS OF ASSISTANCE

TYPE	CASES	PERCENT
PROVIDED LODGING AND FOOD	70	23.3
PROVIDED MONEY	6	2.0
PROVIDED INFORMATION ON JOBS	87	28.9
HELPED FIND EMPLOYMENT	8	2.7
HELPED FIND A HOUSE	20	6.6
OTHER	5	1.7
NOT APPLICABLE	105	34.9
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

FORMS OF ASSISTANCE

MONEY (2%)

LODGING AND FOOD (23%)

INFORMATION ON JO (29%)

FINDING EMPLOYM (3%)

FINDING A HOUSE (7%)

OTHER (2%)

NO ASSISTANCE (35%)
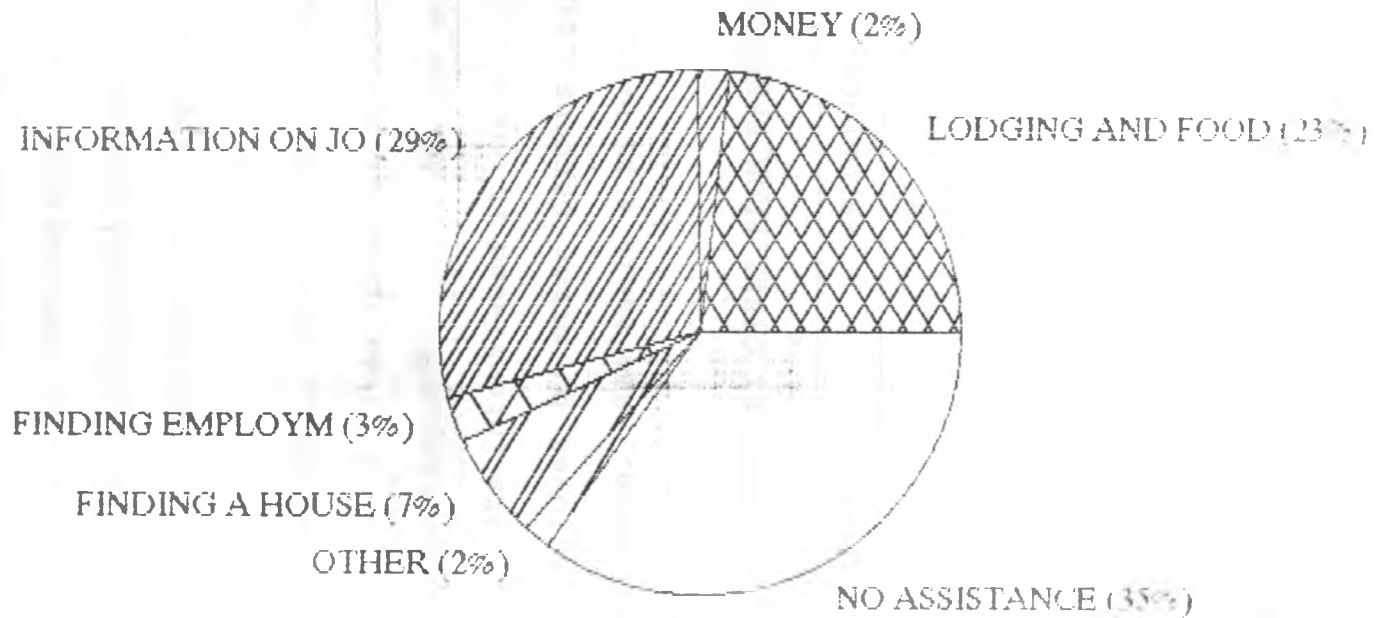
Source: – 1989 Survey

CHAIN MIGRATION

Chain migration here is used to explain migrations where by the new migrants follow other established migrants who provide support in varying forms as exemplified in table 4.25 above. Young (1979), defined chain migration as a process in which migrants move to destinations which they already know and where they have established contacts, or which they have heard of indirectly through relatives and friends.

This type of migration process can be identified from the survey data. It is clear from table 4.23 that 74.1% of the respondents were helped to settle down on arrival in Mombasa. From the migrants interviewed it was established that 32.2% were later followed by other persons from their previous place of residence. See table 4.26 below.

TABLE 4.25 FOLLOWED BY OTHER FROM PREVIOUS RESIDENCE

WERE YOU FOLLOWED	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
YES	97	32.2
NO	181	60.1
DON'T KNOW	23	7.6
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Census Data.

The large percentage of those who were not followed to their new destinations does not indicate the non-importance of chain migration but rather the importance of yet another form of migration pattern, the family migration. Quite a substantial number of migrants who moved with their families answered no to the question of whether any person followed

them to their new residence.

Of those who had people following them to their new residences the category of brothers and sisters was largest with 31.4%.   This was closely followed by children who comprised of 29.6%.

TABLE 4.26   THE CHAIN MIGRANTS

RELATIONSHIP WITH MIGRANT	NUMBER	PERCENT
SPOUSE	19	16.1
CHILDREN	35	29.6
PARENTS	1	0.8
BROTHERS AND SISTERS	37	31.4
OTHER RELATIVES	17	14.4
OTHER PERSONS	9	7.6
TOTAL	118	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

The degree of family migration is high.   It is thus evident that a big proportion of persons migrating to Mombasa moved with other persons.   Those who reported to have moved with other people were 43.9% of the total migrants covered in the survey.   See table 4.28 below.

TABLE 4.27   ACCOMPANIED MIGRANTS

WERE YOU ACCOMPANIED	NUMBER	PERCENT
YES	132	43.9
NO	152	50.5
DON'T KNOW	17	5.7
TOTAL	301	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

In the family migrations observed from the Mombasa data the children formed the greatest percent of those who accompanied the initial migrants. They were 28.3% of the family migrants. These were closely followed by the migrants spouses who formed 21.7% of this total. See table 4.29 below.

These figures greatly contrast with the hierarchical order established in table 4.27 where brothers and sisters topped the table. It can thus be deduced that a big proportion of migrants who were moving on job transfer or were sure of means of supporting their families moved with their children perhaps for the purpose of having them pursue education in their new destinations. Spouses closely followed the order of importance of those accompanying the new migrants. In this list, spouses will also be included in the new brides who accompanied their husbands to their new destination.

TABLE 4.28 FAMILY MIGRANTS

RELATIONSHIP WITH PRINCIPLE MIGRANT	NUMBER	PERCENT
SPOUSE	33	21.7
CHILDREN	43	28.3
PARENTS	17	11.2
BROTHERS AND SISTERS	25	16.4
OTHER RELATIVES	27	17.8
OTHER PERSONS	7	4.6
TOTAL	152	100.00

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

These are some of the salient characteristics of the migrants interviewed in Mombasa. The presentation of these statistics

gives a framework for further discussions as to the reasons of the observed pattern. It also makes it easier to present these data before parametric tests are applied to test different hypothesis.

It is clearly evident that the variables given above cannot be obtained from the census data. The survey, therefore, goes further in giving us qualitative data as well as quantitative data which helps us in understanding the migrants more. However, on comparing different trends over time using census data, the lack of such qualitative data is lacking from the census data and inferences as well as predictions will, therefore, be made solely from the survey data.

CHAPTER FIVE

SPATIAL MIGRATION PATTERN:

THE ETHNIC BACKGROUND

THE ROLE OF ETHNICITY IN MIGRATION

Each ethnic community within the larger population has its own mobility patterns that indicate differing levels of modernization at a particular point in time. (Mukherji.S 1975). In his paper; A spatio-temporal model of the mobility patterns in a multi-ethnic population, Hawaii, Mukherji explained that spatial mobility touches life at every point. If individuals are found to have broadly similar behaviour patterns, then generalizations about mobility behaviour of a group or community becomes possible.

Harvey (1975) identified three patterns of interregional migration, viz tribal-based, traditional state-based, and the colonial-type. In the first category there was a quasi-equilibrium between population and resource. When this equilibrium was disrupted, through increased productivity resulting with increased population growth or natural calamities like epidemics or famine, migration resulted. War displaced weaker tribes. Tensions and pressures were thus built up which set in train population movements that involved successive groups of people. (Prothero 1964).

In the traditional-based state phase, technology was

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introduced. The increased use of iron-ore and the extraction of mineral generated long-distance trading thereby increasing population densities at advantageous geographical locations. Trade, population pressure, regional economic disparities, the continuous fission and fusion of states together with the Islamization process all served in inducing migration in the post-eighth-century Africa. (Harvey 1975). With the coming of the colonial era, came the disruption of the trans-Saharan trade and the inception of coastal based trade. The colonial period saw the emergence of other modernizing agencies viz schools, communications, hospitals and christianity. These coupled with physical and climatic variations, introduced modifications in the resultant human response surface. The disparities created in this third phase resulted in tribal based massive migrations within and between countries.

Site and situation contrasts have caused massive migration in colonial Africa... because of possible information gaps, the potential migrant may not be aware of the economic and social opportunities in certain areas which tend to fall outside his contact field. The importance of information about opportunities in the whole or part of a system considerably affect mobility patterns. In essence migration is a lag response (Greenwood 1970).

Ethnic affiliations has been an important variable in migration studies. This is true in Kenya's case for 1962 census where the place of previous residence was not sought. It was therefore, assumed that one's tribe will be a good

measure to establish a person's district of birth. This ceases being the case with second generation migrants because they might have been born in districts which are not their ancestral homes and classifying them as migrants will be wrong. Different ethnic groups are to be found in different districts. However, quite a number of these groups occupy more than one district and even overflow to other provinces. Some characteristics peculiar to an ethnic group and not to another may be observed within a group of migrants. Among these are the diffusion of information on job opportunities and sources of that information.

INFORMATION AND DISTANCE

Information on opportunities available is important in making a decision to migrate or not to migrate.

Of different ethnic groups identified in the survey it was discovered that Luos had greater information about existence of job opportunities available at Mombasa. They accounted for 6.3% from a total of 40.9% of those who stated they had information about job opportunities. However, a greater number of Luos reported as having had no information at all about job opportunities. 74.3% of the 74 Luos in the sample reported as having had no information of job opportunities at all. The Luos were followed by the Taitas, Kikuyus and Luhyas with 5.3% of the respondents from this ethnic groups reporting as having had any information on job opportunities. Operationally, distance has been regarded as a very good surrogate for information flow. Harvey (1972) assessed the relative importance of economic motives, distance and
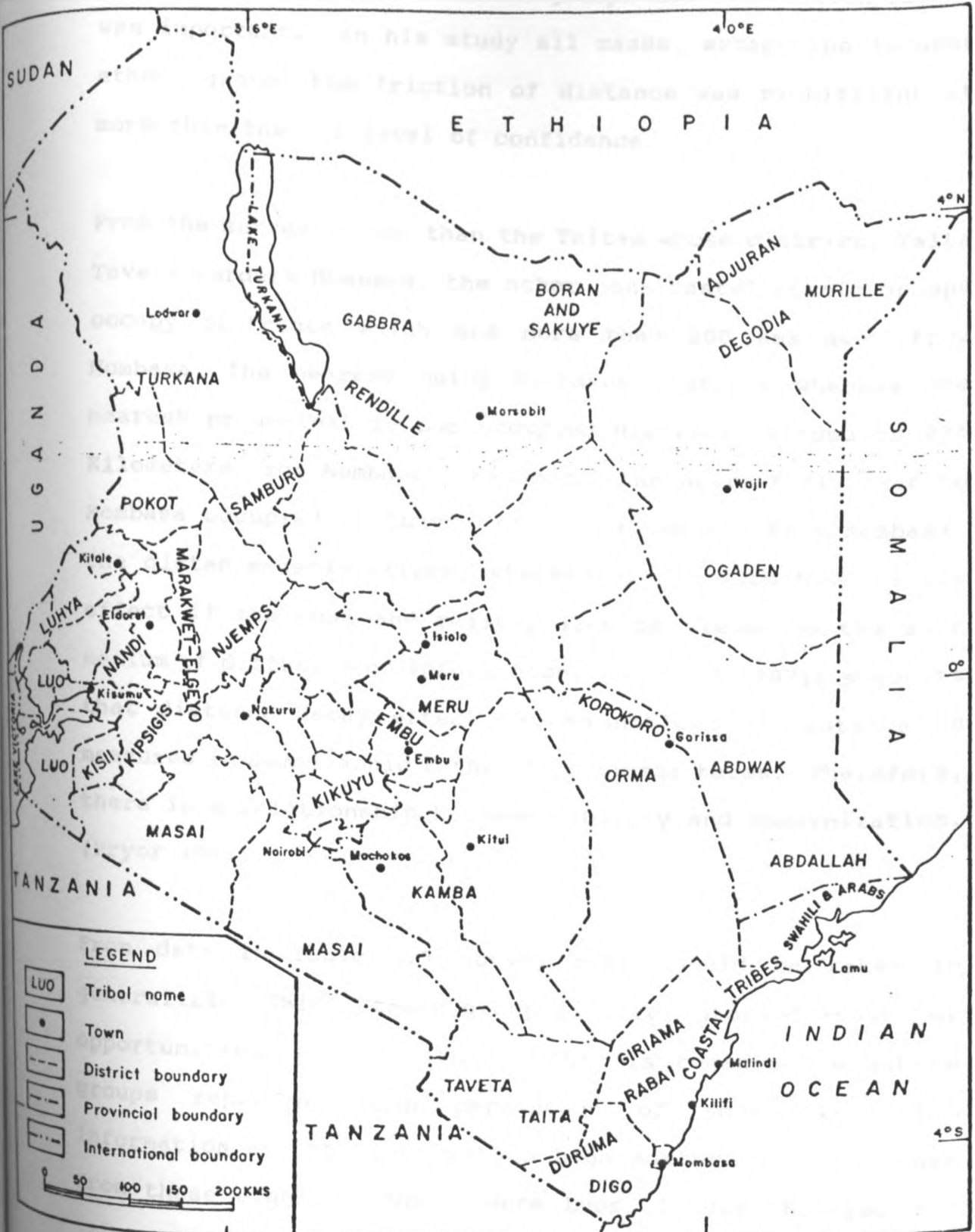
FIG. 5.0. KENYA : DISTRIBUTION OF ETHNIC GROUPS

information on ethnic mobility. Results of his studies showed that for smaller ethnic groups the information factor was important. In his study all cases, except the largest ethnic group, the friction of distance was significant at more than the 0.1 level of confidence.

From the survey, other than the Taitas whose district, Taita Taveta borders Mombasa, the other non-coastal ethnic groups occupy districts which are more than 200 Kms away from Mombasa, the nearest being Machakos District whereas the nearest predominantly Luo occupied district, Kisumu is 834 Kilometers from Mombasa. Kakamega, the nearest district to Mombasa occupied by Luhyas is 887 Kilometers from Mombasa. The distance-decay effect, therefore, seems to have little effect if the road and railway line be viewed as the main medium of diffusion of information. Zelinsky (1971) suggests that distance decay effect can be noticed if distance is measured in demographic rather than linear terms. Therefore, there is a relationship between mobility and modernization. (Pryor 1971).

From data in Table 5.3 above, care should be taken in generalizing which ethnic group is more informed about job opportunities than the other. This is because the ethnic groups reporting high percentage of those with job information are the ones with a high number of respondents from these ethnic groups. Here Luos, Luhyas, Kikuyus and Taitas form the majority of the total respondents in the survey.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON ETHNIC GROUPS

Across all ethnic lines the most important source of information to the migrants was information through relative and friends. Information through these channels accounted for 27.5% of those who reported as having had any information on job opportunities. This was closely followed by those people who obtained this information by prior visit to Mombasa who accounted for 6.6% across all the ethnic groups. The mass media, both newspaper and Radio/T.V. accounted for only 5.9% as a source of information whereas 59.5% of the respondents reported as having had no information at all before migrating to Mombasa.

No major distinction can be drawn on the source of information for different ethnic groups because there is no information source which can be associated more with any ethnic group.

In other studies elsewhere (Caldwell 1968), the importance of information prior to migration has been identified as an important contributory factor in population relocation.

PLACE OF BIRTH AND PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE

Using data obtained from ethnic affiliation it will be realized that the place of birth does not correspond with the previous place of residence. This clearly suggests that quite a number of migrants migrated to Mombasa from other areas other than their reported place of birth. See table 5.2. There is therefore, a clear element of step by step

migration. From table 5.1 it is noticed that 46.7% of Luhya migrants were born in Kakamega, 26.7% born in Busia, 17.8% born in Bungoma with 4.4% born in Siaya, 2.2% in Kisumu and 2.2% born in Mombasa. Kakamega, Bungoma and Busia are predominantly Luhyas ancestral home whereas, Kisumu and Siaya are neighboring Districts, whereas Mombasa 2.2% could be a case of either misreporting or a group of second generation migrants. Looking at the same districts, it will be realized that only 31.1% of Luhyas reported to have come direct from Kakamega. Busia reported only 15.6% of the Luhyas reporting to have come direct from that district, a fall from 26.7% who had reported to be their place of birth. 4.4% reported to have come from Bungoma, a fall from 17.8% who had reported to have been born in this district. 6.7% reported Siaya to have been their previous place of residence. This is an increment from the 4.4% who reported to have been born in Siaya. This is a clear indication that quite a number of Luhya's not born in Siaya, first migrated into Siaya explaining the 2.3% difference as their launching pad for further migration into Mombasa.

Kisumu which is a major commercial and industrial town in the Lake Victoria region also had a difference between Luhya's born there 2.2% and Luhya's who reported Kisumu as their previous place of residence, 8.9%, a difference of 6.7%. This is a pointer that Kisumu was a major stopping point for many migrants to Mombasa.
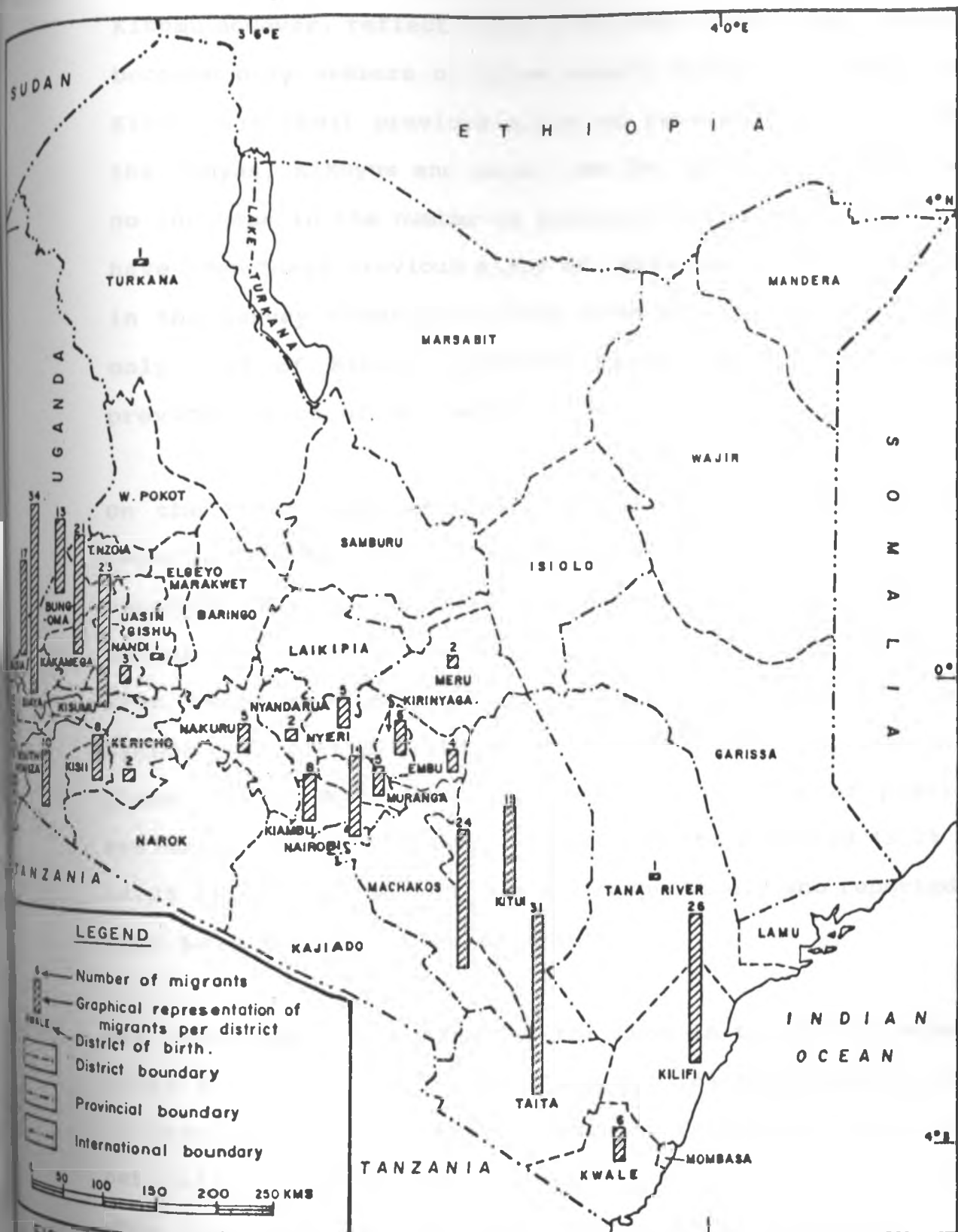
FIG. 5.1. KENYA : DISTRICT OF BIRTH OF MOMBASA MIGRANTS

LEGEND

6 —— Number of migrants

—— Graphical representation of
migrants per district

—— District of birth.

—— District boundary

—— Provincial boundary

—— International boundary

0 50 100 150 200 250 KMS

Kisumu however, reflects only a regional importance. This is because only members of three ethnic groups indicated that Kisumu was their previous place of residence. These were, the Luhyas, Kikuyus and Luos. As for the Kikuyus there was no increase in the number of migrants who reported Kisumu to have been their previous place of residence. 3.0% of Kikuyus in the survey reported to have been born in Kisumu. Again only 3.0% of Kikuyus reported Kisumu to have been their previous place of residence.

On the other hand despite the fact that only 27% of Luos reported Kisumu to have been their place of birth, 32.4% reported Kisumu to have been their previous place of residence. This is explained by a fall in percentage of Luos from other predominant Luo districts viz Siaya and South Nyanza who had 27% and 8.1% respectively reporting their place of birth to have also been their place of previous residence. This indicates a loss from the reported 43.2% and 12.2% for Siaya and South Nyanza respectively who reported to have been born in these districts.

The other main launching pad for Luos in transit to Mombasa after Kisumu was Nairobi which had 17.6% reporting the city to have been their previous place of residence. There is a net gain of migrants from the Luo ethnic community in Nairobi when you consider that only 4.1% reported the city to be their place of birth.

The step migration pattern displayed by the Luhyas and the Luos is also true of the Kikuyus. Byerlee (1972) stated that migrants first move to the nearest town and then later to a larger urban area. Whereas this might be true of the Luos migrants are far from the distance of Kenya's main urban centers of Nairobi and Mombasa their place of birth, the same is not true of the Kikuyus. This is to say that whereas Luos first moved to Kisumu (32.4%) before migrating to Mombasa, the Kikuyus either moved direct from their area of birth and this is true of Kikuyus born in Nyandarua, Uasin Gishu, Nakuru and Kisumu. In these districts the percentages of place of birth corresponds with the one of previous place of residence.

As the respondents were not asked to give a sequence of their migration history, intervening movements were not recorded. Therefore, while it is clear that no migrant reported having come from another central province district, other than the one of birth, we can not rule out the idea that they might have made such a move. What is clear from the survey however, is the fact that no Kikuyu migrant reported having his previous place of residence being any other than, his district of birth or Nairobi.

TABLE 5.6 PLACE OF BIRTH AND PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE FOR KIKUYU MIGRANTS IN MOMBASA

DISTRICT	PLACE OF BIRTH (PERCENTAGE)	PREVIOUS RESIDENCE (PERCENTAGE)	% DIFFERENCE
Nyandarua	6.1	6.1	0
Uasin Gishu	3.0	3.0	0
Muranga	12.1	3.0	9.1
Nakuru	9.1	9.1	0
Kiambu	24.2	9.1	15.1
Nyeri	15.2	9.1	6.1
Kirinyaga	18.2	12.1	6.1
Kisumu	3.0	3.0	0
Nairobi	9.1	45.5	36.4
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	62.8

Source: 1989 Survey Data

It is, therefore, clear that the respondents in table 5.6 above who reported their previous place of residence to be different from their place of birth were 36.4%. It is of interest to note that the difference between those who reported Nairobi to be their previous place of residence from those who were born in Nairobi is 36.4%. Therefore, we can conclude that of all the Kikuyu respondents, they migrated to Mombasa either from Nairobi or migrated from their home districts. These accounted for 62.8% of the total respondents.

This scenario is supported by the fact that most central

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province district headquarters are small with few industries and a small population. Therefore, other than for Thika which is an industrial town, district headquarters like Kerugoya and Muranga have no industries. Many migrants therefore see more opportunities in Nairobi which is only 42 kilometers from Thika (the city borders Kiambu district from the North), 87 kilometers from Muranga, 155 kilometers from Nyeri, the furthest Central province headquarters being Nyahururu which is 198 kilometers from the city. On being frustrated in the city or being transferred on getting jobs, they then move to Mombasa.

The same case holds for other tribes as seen from table 5.4 and table 5.6. It can therefore be deduced from the table that the Kambas who form the third most important ethnic group in terms of volume of migrants to Mombasa, depict similar characteristics.

Of the coastal ethnic groups, Taitas had the biggest number of migrants into Mombasa. 84.8% of them had been born in Taita Taveta district, a district they share with the Tavetas. The remaining 15.2% were born in other major towns viz Kisumu, Nakuru, Mombasa and Nairobi. See table 5.6 below. The greatest percentage of the Taitas migrated to Mombasa directly from Taita Taveta (60.6%). 30.3% however migrated to Mombasa from Nairobi. Taitas mentioned Kwale and Tana River districts as the only other districts of previous residence (9.1%) showing a low dispersion rate when compared with the Luos, Luhyas, Kambas and the Kikuyu.

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DISTRICT OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE

TABLE 5.4 **PLACE OF BIRTH AND PLACE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE FOR T**

MIGRANTS IN MOMBASA

DISTRICT	PLACE OF BIRTH (PERCENTAGE)	PREVIOUS RESIDENCE PERCENTAGE	% DIFFERENCE
Taita Taveta	84.8	60.6	24.2
Kisumu	3.0	0	3.0
Nakuru	3.0	0	3.0
Mombasa	3.0	0	3.0
Kwale	0	6.1	6.1
Tana River	0	3.0	3.0
Nairobi	6.1	30.0	24.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	66.5

Source: 1989 Survey Data

In his book Palm, Wine and Witness, Parkin (1972) argues that
the economic and social organization of the coastal people
made the non-migrant in character. When this migration did
occur, it tended to be short distance and only to the
neighboring districts.

It was discovered from the survey that despite the short
distance from Mombasa many coastal ethnic groups, especially
the Mijikenda were poorly represented in the sample. Two
arguments can be
advanced for the scanty number of the coastal people.
First,the coastal towns of Mariakani and Kaloleni in Kilifi
district act as dormitory towns where there is a mass exodus
to the town from these areas to Mombasa in the morning and
later in the evening. The process is reversed with the
Mijikenda people moving from Mombasa back to Mazeras,

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Kaloleni and Mariakani. This trend is even more evident with small scale traders from these areas who move in the morning with coconuts, greens (mkunde) and brooms for sale. These petty traders return to their home district (Kwale) in the morning. The same does occur for people moving to Kilifi town and its environs in the evening after spending the day in Mombasa. The Digos to the south also cross the Kilindini channel in the evening to areas like Tiwi and Ukunda which are out of Mombasa District boundaries.

It will be realized that major coastal tourist hotels and beach resorts employ the local people. Most of these hotels especially in the south and north coast happen to be out of the district boundary which stretches only to Maganyakulo in the south and Mtwapa bridge in the south. This helps, therefore, in explaining why there are few Mijikenda people in Mombasa. Other than the island, Mombasa district expands westward and after the densely
populated Changamwe-Kwa Jomvu-Miritini area the other part is sparsely populated. As mentioned above the district expands little in the south and north mainland.

The second argument of the non-migratory nature of the coastal people can also be supported. Of the Giriamas in the survey 91.7% were born in Kilifi, their ancestral district. The remaining 8.3% were born in Nairobi. As for the Kambas all those interviewed were born in Kilifi district. The same case was for the Rabai, the Taveta, the Duruma, and the Jibana who were born in their ancestral districts. See table

5.4. The Digos were divided between Kwale and Kilifi district as well as Nairobi which represents 50%, 33.3% and 16.7% respectively. The other coastal ethnic group, the Chonyi were divided between Kilifi (66.7%) and Nairobi 33.3%.

When we look at place of previous residence, non-migratory phenomenon comes out even more stronger. From table 5.5 it will be realized that the coastal ethnic groups either come from their ancestral district in proportions greater than 60% or moved from Nairobi. It is only the Jibana respondent who gave his previous place of residence as Taita Taveta which is also within the coastal province.

Migratory characteristics of other tribes can be deduced from table 5.5 and 5.6. However, one needs to be careful of the conclusions to draw from this figure. This is because other than the Kisii who account for 2.7% of the total sample, and all of whom are born in Kisii and record their previous place of residence as Kisii (75%), Nakuru (12.5%) and Nairobi 12.5%) the other ethnic groups account for less than 2% each and thus generalizations may be misleading.

The general dispersion of ethnic groups across districts other than their ancestral districts can be further explained by presence of large scale plantations. It will be realized that whereas there are large coffee plantations in Kiambu district the labour to work in these plantations comes from other parts of the district or the immediate neighboring district of Muranga. In his analysis of some aspects of

population movements in Kenya, Ominde (1968) stated that despite Kiambu being a main out-migration region, this was not indicated in its age-sex pyramid. This was attributed to population migrations into Kiambu's plantation area. These plantation workers are by and large Kikuyus. This is same for many other plantations in central province. This further serves in explaining why no Kikuyu migrants reported their district of birth or previous place of residence to be any other than their ancestral districts or settlement districts such as Uasin Gishu and Nakuru.

The same is not true of Luos. A big proportion of tea pluckers in Kericho are Luos (Oucho 1974). The same is of other plantations areas like Ramisi, in Kwale district (since closed). Therefore, it is not surprising when we find Luos reporting Kwale and Kericho to be their district of birth. (Table 5.4). In reporting their previous place of residence we realize that 1.4% of Luos reported Kilifi, with its extensive sisal plantations, to be their previous place of residence and 2.7% reported Kericho to have been their previous place of residence.

TABLE 5.5 POPULATION BY ETHNIC GROUP OR NATIONALITY FOR MOM

ETHNIC GROUP OR NATIONALITY	1969 % OF TOTAL DISTRICT POPULATION	1979 % OF TOTAL DISTRICT POPULATION	1989 SURVEY SAMPLE % OF TOTAL RESPONDENTS
Miji Kenda	24	25.8	9.6
Kamba	12.0	11.8	14.6
Luo	9.0	13.5	24.6
Kikuyu	6.0	6.3	11.0
Taita	6.0	6.8	11.0
Luhya	6.0	8.2	15.0
Swahili	1.5	0.7	0
Asians	12.2	7.2	0.6
Europeans	1.9	1.9	0
Arabs	11.0	6.5	0.3
Africans (non-Kenyans)	5.0	2.8	1.2
Others	5.6	8.5	12.1
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%

Source: CBS 1979 and Survey 1989

The ethnic representation of the Miji Kenda, Luo, Kikuyu, Taita and Luhyas has been on the increase since 1969. It is only the Kambas who recorded a drop in the 1979 census. The fact that the survey data is representative of the total population of Mombasa is discussed in Chapter one. It will, however, be noted that Swahilis and Europeans are lacking from the sample survey. This is because the Swahilis interviewed gave their place of birth as Mombasa, therefore, they were categorized as non-migrants and were not included in the survey results. The other great disparity was with the Mijikenda ethnic community whose survey was represented by the Giriama, Kambe, Duruma, Jibana, Rabai, Digo and the

Chonyi. In the survey they accounted for only 9.6% of the total respondents. This gives a great disparity with the census results of 1969 and 1979 which gave 24% and 25.8% for the two census years respectively.

A great number of the Mijikenda people occupy the Mombasa district boundary areas which are sparsely populated and rural in nature. This is evident from the district's western fringe of Kwa Jomvu, Miritini and Mazeras which despite being in Mombasa district are but rural residences. The same is true of Mtwapa to the north where farming activities are done on small scale. In the south the Digos of Maganyakuto, the small shopping center near Kwale, Mombasa district boundary are also rural in nature. Most of these people, therefore, give Mombasa district as their district of birth and, therefore, are regarded as non-migrants. Secondly as discussed earlier most of the Mijikenda people move back to their home districts of Kilifi and Kwale every evening and thus do not have residences in the district.

Europeans were totally absent from the 1989 survey. This is because most of them reside in the high security areas of Nyali and parts of Tudor where it is difficult to go past the gate-man. However, where this was possible many refused to answer any questions and thus none was entered as a respondent. Many of the people of Arab descent interviewed were locals and thus the figure 0.3% from the survey is that of the non-Kenyan Arabs.

Due to the representative nature of the sample it is possible to draw meaningful conclusions by comparing the data from the sample survey with the one from the censuses.

STATUS OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE BY ETHNIC GROUP

The majority of the adult population in the cities of sub-Saharan Africa is rural born and bred. Once in town, many maintain close ties with their areas of origin, their "homes". Rural origin and urban-rural ties are major determinants of ethnicity as expressed in the cities of sub-Saharan Africa today. (Josef Gugler 1973).

From the Mombasa survey Gugler's assertion is true on only the issue of rural birth. Many of the migrants, however, are bred in the rural areas. From the survey figures 58.8% of all the migrants had moved from either a city, municipality or a town. Most of them therefore moved from urban areas. Considering the youthful age at which most of them migrated, it might with reservations be argued that many completed their growth process in urban areas.

Using broad categorization across ethnic lines we will realize that 28.6% of the migrants moved from cities, 10.6% from municipalities, 18.9% from towns while 41.2% moved to Mombasa from the rural areas. See table 5.6 below.

The nature of migration in table 5.6 gives room for discussion in chapter six. This is because it stands out clear that most of the migrants, 58.8% reported as having

migrated from urban area. This, therefore, indicates that the migration were more of urban to urban typology than of rural to urban area. All the major ethnic groups viz Luhyas, Kikuyus, Luos, Kambas and Taita indicated that the figures of those who migrated to Mombasa from the rural areas were less than those who had migrated from the urban areas.

Table 5.6 <u>STATUS OF PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE BY ETHNIC GROUP</u>

STATUS

ETHNIC GROUP	CITY	MUNICIPALITY	TOWN	VILLAGE	OTHER
Luhya	20.0	20	17.8	42.2	0
Kikuyu	45.5	15.2	6.1	33.3	0
Luo	18.9	12.2	24.3	43.2	1.4
Taita	30.3	0	21.2	48.5	0
Kamba	40.9	11.4	18.2	29.5	0
Borana	100	0	0	0	0
Kambe	0	0	25.0	75.0	0
Giriama	25.0	8.3	16.7	50.0	0
Embu	66.7	0	0	33.3	0
Kisii	12.5	12.5	0	75.0	0
Nandi	25.0	0	75.0	0	0
Rabai	0	0	100	0	0
Bukusu	0	0	20.0	60.0	20.0
Turkana	0	0	100.0	0	0
Teso	25.0	0	0	75.0	0
Duruma	0	0	0	100.0	0
Chonyi	33.3	0	0	66.7	0
Digo	16.7	16.7	0	66.7	0
Taveta	50.0	0	0	66.7	0
Pokomo	50.0	0	0	50.0	0
Kipsigis	50.0	0	50.0	0	0
Manyala	100.0	0	0	0	0
Meru	100.0	0	0	0	0
Jibana	66.7	33.3	0	0	0
Somali	0	0	100	0	0
Ethiopian	ū	0	100	0	0
Ugandan	0	0	100	0	0
Pare	100	0	0	0	0
Seychellois	0	0	0	0	
Arabian	100	0		100	
Punjabi	0	0		100	0
Sikh	0	0	100	0	0
	100	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	28.6	10.6	18.9	41.2	0.7

Source: 1989 Survey Data.

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CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND TEST OF HYPOTHESIS

INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters most of the discussion was devoted at looking at the migrant characteristics. It has already been established at this stage that migrants have definite characteristics in terms of age, marital status, educational attainment as well as ethnic background.

The first part of this chapter will be used to look at factors contributing to the above characteristics. It will be of interest to know why most of the migrants tend to be young and un-married. The determinants of migration to Mombasa will, therefore, be analyzed.

Further, commitment to stay permanently in Mombasa will be assessed. To help understand why some respondents indicated that they will move to their home districts after a particular period of time, attachments to their home areas through frequencies of visits will be given.

The respondents were asked in the questionnaire to give reasons for migrating. These reasons will, therefore, be cross tabulated against characteristics of migrants like age, educational attainment, marital status, etc.

The propensity to migrate from different districts into Mombasa will be calculated by the use of the out-migration rate of the sending district and the in-migration rates for Mombasa.

The null-hypothesis will also be tested in this chapter. This will thus enable the author to make inferences from the data.

REASONS FOR MIGRATION

The causes for human migration are extremely diversified. A move can rarely be attributed to one reason since in most instances several reasons operate.

Migration takes place when an individual decides that it is preferable to move rather than to stay and where the difficulties of moving seem to be more than offset by the expected gains (Kosinski 1975).

A Theoretical Framework

To understand the mechanism of migration it is important first to look at the decision making process. A number of theories and concepts have been employed in explaining reasons behind the decision to migrate.

First among these concepts is the popular concept of "push and pull". It has been argued that once a person can no longer be satisfied at his place of permanent residence there

is urge to move to another place so as to avoid psychological strain. Identified 'push' factors are like loss of employment; racial, political or religious persecution; social, cultural or personal alienation from the community; social or natural disaster. Kosinski (1975) explains that if the above was not the case, then new information may persuade that a move elsewhere will offer new and attractive opportunities. This is the 'pull' factor which includes better political, economic and social opportunities, and increased amenities. This argument is summarized by Patersen (1958) who when addressing himself to voluntary migration stated that: some persons migrate as a means of achieving the new. Let us term such migration innovating. Others migrate in response to a change in conditions in order to retain what they had; they move geographically in order to remain where they are in all other respects. Let us term such migration conservative.

The decision to move thus depends on factors such as cultural and environmental conditioning or may be prompted by conformity with community or peers rather than the individual, change in marital status and occupational status as well as other individual characteristics. In his study, environmental perception as a stimulant to rural migration in semi-arid ecosystem, Ayiemba (1989) found out that the volume and directions of environmental risks and security powerfully influenced the decision on where and when to migrate.

Lee (1966) observed migration decisions may be modified by

real or perceived obstacles which include costs and fatigue of move, personal anxiety which result from change in the social and physical environment as well as legal restrictions.

Rather than view migration as a linear, unidirectional, "push and pull" phenomenon, Mabogunje (1970) evolved a different approach to rural urban-migration. He tried to conceptualize the problem within the framework of General Systems Theory. He viewed rural-urban migration as a circular interdependent, progressively complex, and self-modifying system in which the effect of changes in one part can be traced thought the whole system. Economic, social, political and technological environment influenced the migration system. This system had an open and continuous exchange with the environment. On receiving the stimulus, the migrant was influenced by the rural control subsystem comprising of the family and the local community (See figure 6.3 below) in his decision either to remain or make a move. The housing and economic opportunities related urban control subsystem can help the migrant to adjust to the new environment and eventually become a true urbanite. This concept which is true in the African migration studies, viewed success or failure of the migrant as a source for positive or negative feedbacks to the area of origin to influence subsequent migration.

To ascertain the reasons for migrating, all the respondents to the survey were asked to specify their main reason for migrating to Mombasa. The dangers of the problem of recall
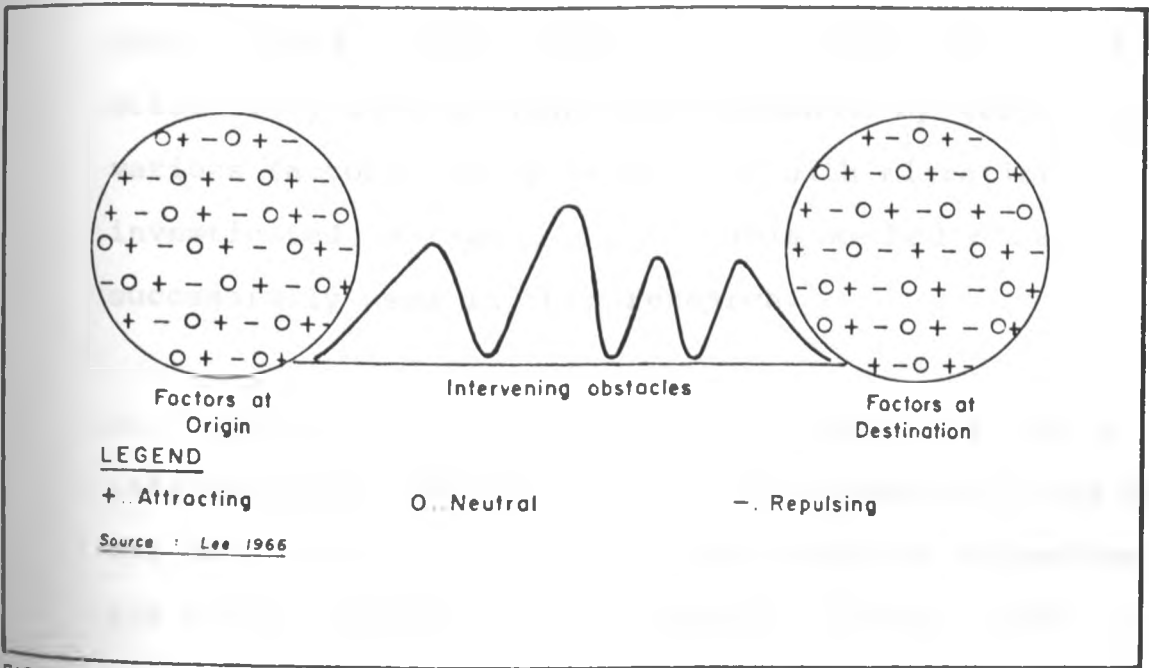
FIG. 6.0 ORIGIN AND DESTINATION FACTORS AND INTERVENING OBSTACLES IN MIGRATION

had been foreseen. Thus the age at time of migration became a major control for the reason given. This, therefore, eliminated distorted answers of, for example a migrant who moved to Mombasa at age seven and stated he had come to seek employment and on the other hand a migrant who was thirty years at time of migrating but gave the reason of coming to be that of education. Like others surveys elsewhere it was realized that some people do justify their actions ex-post rather than give the real reasons operating at the time. Correlation analysis of migration with other variables can imply casual relationships. This method can and has been effectively used in migration research by geographers when various factors really associated with migration gains were investigated (Kariel 1963). This method of analysis was successfully used in this research.

In chapter four, education was realized as a factor influencing migration. It was thus pointed out that 73.5% of all the migrants interviewed had attended secondary school and higher institutions of learning (Table 4.15).

Two reasons were advanced as to why education plays a part in the migration process. These were search for education and secondly search for jobs on completing school.

The figures from table 4.15 are summarized in the column of Totals for Reasons for migrating against education attainment as in table 6.1.

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The greatest number of respondents, 111 accounting for 36.9% of total respondents gave the reason for seeking better job as the major attribute to their migration. It will also be realized from the same table that 17.3% of the respondents moved to Mombasa on transfer. Of this number 95.1% had secondary school education or more. These figures are an indication that these migrants already had jobs elsewhere and just moved to Mombasa, not to seek new jobs but on transfer. We can infer that a marked relationship exists between education levels and educational attainment. People with primary level education were poorly represented in this category implying either that few had jobs at all or that those who had jobs had occupations which were static and never necessitated any migration at all.

Education, however, is not a guarantee to securing a job. This comes out clearly on figures of those who had come to seek better jobs. Respondents with secondary school education or more accounted for 63% of this category. This category included people who had no job at all or those who considered themselves to be under-employed and disguised employed, this includes people working in their parents shambas, a service their parents would have done without. Very few people, 0.3% migrated because work was unsatisfactory. The only respondent under this category had college/university level of education. Few of the migrants moved after buying land or business in Mombasa as this accounted for only 3% of the total respondents. Distribution of these respondent was 77.8% having secondary school

education or more.

There is difficulty in testing the null hypothesis that, employed people do not migrate to Mombasa. This is because there must have been a time lapse between the migration date and the day of the survey. Therefore, the problem of recall comes up and as indicated in the introduction of this chapter, people who might have been job-less at the period of migration may indicate the reason of migrating being any other than what was the paramount reason of their move.

Secondly the fact that no data was collected on employment and un-employment of the migrants, no direct test of the above test can be done. However, from the response given in table 6.1 we realize that 52 respondents moved to Mombasa on job transfer. Therefore, employed people also do migrate for reasons such as job transfer, work being unsatisfactory at origin (0.3%), work being insufficient (1%), to establish business (3%), to get married, 6.3% which does not give indication on whether a person under such a category was working or not and to accompany family 19.6%.

There is, however, a marked relationship between educational attainment and the reason to migrate. There is a strong positive relationship in the above case.

The following hypothesis was tested:

H$_0$: Educational attainment is not an important determinant for the decision to migrate.

H$_1$: Education is an important determinant for the decision to migrate.

The calculated chi-square obtained was greater than the tabulated chi-square values. The null hypothesis was therefore accepted.

Education was therefore identified to have a positive relationship with the reason for migrating and it is statistically significant with Cramer's value of V = .32831. Knowles and Anker (1977) found out that despite the fact that the education variable, though positively related to the over-all out-migration propensity, it was not statistically significant. This was, however, opposite of what Rampel (1969) who found that education was statistically significant in the absence of the variable for the dominant tribe in the district of origin.

The positive relationship exhibited by the level of education, against the reason for migration from Mombasa survey data is, therefore, not surprising. It will be realized from the foregoing discussion that a great number of migrants who give their reason for migrating as being a job oriented one have secondary school of education or more.

This is because this group feels better equipped with the minimum educational qualification for most jobs. Essang and Mabawonku (1974) in their case studies for determinants and impact of rural-urban migration in Western Nigeria proved that a positive relationship existed between the rate of rural-urban migration and the level of education attained by the migrant. Other than the reason for searching for jobs, these authors attributed this relationship also to the fact that education makes people literate thus enabling the potential migrant acquire information on job prospects. This, however, is not the case for the Mombasa migrant. This is because from table 4.17 we realize that only 39.9% of the migrants had information on job opportunities. Further, table 4.18 indicates that of those who had information more than half had received this information from relatives and friends leaving. Of all 301 respondents only 5.4 had received their information from the mass media.

ROLE OF RELATIVES IN MIGRATION DECISION

As explained in chapter five the role of relatives and friends is important for would be migrants. First the migrants obtain information about job opportunities from their relatives and friends than they do from any other media. Secondly, relatives and friends may be an encouraging factor to potential migrants because they may offer accommodation, food and may help the new migrants to search for jobs.

Friends and relatives as a variable will need to be dis-
aggregated from other variables such as age, occupation and
marital status. Age is important in this aspect since we
know that children decisions to migrate are hinged onto their
parents' decision. As it will be discussed later in this
chapter, friends and more so relatives are so important to
migrants under the age of 18 years who have to accompany
their parents in pursuit of education.

Secondly it will be realized that it will be expected that
respondents giving their main reason for migration being job
transfer will not need relatives and friends as much as
migrants going to Mombasa in search of job opportunities.
It should, however, be realized that transfers must not be
compulsory and the presence of friends and or relatives might
encourage people to seek transfers to places like Mombasa
where they will be more at home in company of friends and or
relatives. Again spouses migrating through job transfer to
live with their partners would also be substantial in number
under those who give their reason for migrating as either to
accompany family or to get married. From the data then we
realize that in the whole cross-section of migration reasons
more than 50% of the respondents had friends and relatives
living in Mombasa (see table 6.2).

The following hypothesis was therefore tested:

H_o: Relatives and friends are not an important
consideration for the decision to migrate.

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H$_1$: Relatives and friends are an important consideration for the decision to migrate.

The calculated chi-square value is 12.73381 whereas the critical chi-square value at 12 degrees of freedom and 0.001 significance level is 32.909. We, therefore, accept the null hypothesis. Using the Cramers V statistic we, however, find a weak relationship (.20568). The indication here therefore is that reasons for migrating had more bearing than the presence of relatives and friends.

Despite accepting the null hypothesis it will be realized that the relationship given by the Cramer's V statistic is that there is a positive albeit weak relationship between the reason for migrating and the presence of friends and relatives. An increase in the number of variables would have probably increased the chi-square thus enabling us to reject the null hypothesis.

TABLE 6.2 REASON FOR MIGRATING AGAINST AVAILABILITY OF FRIENDS AN

RELATIVES IN MOMBASA

REASONS FOR MIGRATING	DID YOU HAVE FRIENDS OR RELATIVES AT MSA		TOTAL	
	YES	NO	NUMBER	PERCENT
Job transfer	65.4	34.6	52	17.3
No work at origin	72.7	27.3	11	3.7
Work insufficient	100.0	0	3	1.0
Work unsatisfactory	100.0	0	1	0.3
Bought business	88.9	11.1	9	3.0
To seek better jobs	82.9	17.1	111	36.9
To get education	88	12	25	8.3
To get married	73.7	26.3	19	6.3
To accompany family	74.6	25.4	59	19.6
Feuds at origin	100.0	0	2	0.7
Had relatives at Mombasa	100.0	0	3	1.0
Just for leisure	50	50	2	0.7
Don't know	75.0	25.0	4	1.3
Total number	235	66	301	
Percentage of Total	78.1	21.9		100

Source: 1989 survey data

Chi-square: calculated   12.73381

Degrees of freedom   12

Critical chi-square value: 32.909

Cramers V value: 0.20568

Contingency coefficient   0.20146

Significance level: 0.001

MIGRATION AND OCCUPATION

The incidence of migration varies with occupation. It will
be realized that people in particular occupations are more
migratory than others. It will be realized from chapter four

(table 4.14) that the occupation which accounted for the greatest number of migrants was that of students who were 32.6% of the migrants coming. A distant second was that of the unemployed 10% and teachers accounted for the largest single category of those employed with 8.0%.

Mobility does appear to operate within 'occupational systems' or particular forms of occupation. Different types of workers have different kinds of constraints on their ability or willingness to move, and hence the probability of a given type of worker undertaking a given type of move will be different (Wellis, 1974).

Students moved for a variety of reasons the most important being to seek better jobs accounting for 41.3% of the 109 student respondents in the survey.

It is well known that the incidence of migration varies by age and occupation. The greatest number of students in the survey, it was established, had attained secondary school of education 44% and more than half reported their age to be below 24 years.

TABLE 6.3 REASONS FOR STUDENT MIGRATION

REASON	FREQUENCY	%
Job transfer	7	6.4
No work at origin	4	3.7
Bought land/business	2	1.8
To seek better job	45	41.3
To get education	20	18.3
To get married	12	11
To accompany family	15	13.8
Had relatives at Mombasa	1	0.9
Just for leisure	1	0.9
Don't know	2	1.8
TOTAL	109	100

Source: 1989 Survey data

Under the category of occupations, that one of being a student might not have been understood by all migrants. Thus people who had just completed school or those who were waiting to join colleges and other educational institutions have given their occupation as being students. This, therefore, explains why we had students giving their reasons of migrating as either job transfer or buying land or business. Again the reason of seeking better jobs as explained earlier includes the unemployed, under-employed and those under disguised employment. It would have been expected that the most important reason for students to migrate would have been for educational purposes. However, this category had only 18.3% of the students respondents (see table 4.3). This can be attributed to an individual perception of the most important reason for migrating. Thus for the 15 respondents reporting to have moved so as to accompany family, had also the educational need as underlying

reason.   Those who had given their reason for migrating as being education were 25 in number, the other five reported either as being unemployed, in casual employment or farmers.

The 11% of students who moved to Mombasa to get married can be explained to be the female school drop-outs moving to Mombasa to accompany their spouses.

To establish the importance of occupation on the decision to migrate, the following hypothesis was tested:-

    H_0:   Occupation is not a determinant for migration.

    H_1:   Occupation is a determinant for migration.

The calculated chi-square was greater than the critical chi-square values at 0.001 significance level and 204 degrees of freedom.   The high chi-square values (423.9) could also be attributed to the many categories of occupation in the survey.   These were twenty.   Also the high categories of reason for migrating (15 different reasons) increased the cells in the SSPS package thus a high number of degrees of freedom (204 D.F.).   The null hypothesis was therefore accepted.

It was, therefore, established that occupation had bearing on migration decision.   This relationship is statistically significant with a value of .34262 on Cramer's V statistic. This is in conformity with other studies in Kenya by Rempel, in Nigeria by Callaway and Ghana by Caldwell. They found out that when migrants are classified by occupation prior to migration, over half are found to be school leavers without

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previous occupation (Rempel 1970 and Callaway 1967). The remainder are made up of farmers and self-employed craftsmen with the skill-level of craftsmen apparently having little effect on the propensity to migrate (Caldwell 1969).

Using Smith's (1966) categorization of classes we realize that the teachers (table 4.14) are in closing occupation which is based on skills linked to the teaching field. Therefore, those who reported to be teachers before migrating were 8.0% of all occupations. Those who reported to be teachers after migrating were 8.2% a difference of only 0.2%. In the three classes of preparatory occupation, career step occupations and bringing occupations we find the students. This, therefore, explains the reason why those who reported as students before migrating were 32.6% whereas those reporting at the same category after migration were only 5.0%. Whereas a number of these students might have joined the ranks of the unemployed or moved to the other occupations other than farming which showed a net loss. The remaining two classes, those of incremental hierarchy occupation and the residual (casual laborers, etc) is represented by the Jua Kali sector artisans, small traders and the casual workers where there was a small increase in numbers.

SEX RATIOS

Migration in Kenya has been noted to be selective in terms of age and sex. Most of those who migrate are males in the working age groups since these migrations are economically motivated (Memon, 1984). He also pointed out that there has

been a marked increase in the female participation in migration since 1962 with greater participation of families rather than the head of the households in the migration process. Ominde (1968) in his paper on some aspects of population movements in Kenya observed that migration did cause a deficiency in the male population between the ages 14 to 44 years.

Hunter's (1968) analysis showed that place of birth data was of limited value as an index for population growth (i.e. persons born outside the locality in which enumerated) and population growth. The coefficient of correlation was low (r = 0.498). He concluded that ... the sex ratio may to this extent be regarded as an indication of trends in population growth and migration.

Mombasa, therefore, having been observed to be a district with high in-migration would be expected to have a high sex ratio (greater than 100) indicating the presence of more males that females in the population. To appreciate this fact table 6.4 and 6.5 giving selected districts of the main source and selected Rift Valley Districts, respectively are given below.

TABLE 6.4 SEX RATIO OF MAIN SOURCE AREAS 1969 CENSUS

DISTRICT	SEX RATIO
Kiambu	98
Kirinyaga	95
Muranga	88
Nyandarua	100
Embu	92
Isiolo	108
Kitui	89
Machakos	92
Marsabit	115
Meru	97
Kilifi	91
Kwale	98
Lamu	98
Mombasa Island	139
Taita	97
Tana River	100
Kisii	101
Kisumu	104
Siaya	85
South Nyanza	98
Bungoma	97
Busia	90
Kakamega	93

Source: Kenya Population Census 1969 Vol.1

It is clear from the above tabulation that district
experiencing great out-migration such as Siaya, Muranga and
Busia have sex ratios far below 100. Districts like Kisumu,
Marsabit, Isiolo and Mombasa which experience net migration
gain have sex-ratios above one hundred showing surplus in
males in this population.

TABLE 6.5 SEX RATIO OF SELECTED RIFT VALLEY PROVINCE DISTRICTS 1969

DISTRICT	SEX RATIO
Kericho	108
Laikipia	111
Nakuru	112
Trans-Nzoia	110
Uasin Gishu	109

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics 1970

The above districts are agricultural districts where Kericho experiences a net migration gain due to large numbers of tea pickers moving into the district.   The other are former settlement areas which were sub-divided allowing in great in-migration of people coming into the farming districts.   We, therefore, notice the greater presence of males than females in the population, a clear indication of high in migration rates.

Focusing on Mombasa it will be realized that migration can be estimated from the age sex ratio.   Therefore, we will expect to have greater males populations in the age brackets earlier related with great in-migration rates.

TABLE 6.6 SEX RATIO FOR MOMBASA FOR 1969, 1979, 1984 AND 1989 BY

GROUPS

AGE GROUP	YEARS			MIGRATION POPULATION	
	1969	1979	1984[1]	1979[2]	1989[3]
0-4	106.0	101	104	99.6	0
5-9	101.2	98.3	100.2	93.6	0
10-14	134.1	99.6	99.5	94.3	0
15-19	139.9	100.2	105.1	72.9	100
20-24	154.8	126.8	134	137	103.4
25-29	223.3	150.8	153	168.2	103
30-34	267.7	169.6	161	197.4	72.9
35-39	236.8	176.1	183	208	150
40-44	278.7	194.4	188	230.2	500
45-49	196.0	191.2	179.5	231.5	366.6
50-54	205.9	173.8	165.9	203.8	-
55-59	138.1	151.7	131.5	172.5	500
60-69	141.7	127.9	116.3	132.7	-
70-74	169.9	118.6	92	129.9	-
75+	157.8	111.5	95	126.8	-

Source: CBS, and Survey data (1989)

Looking at the second column, table 6.6 we will realize that
the 1969 population census figures for Mombasa reflect
increasingly higher proportion of males from the 10-14 years
age bracket. This greatly increases at the 25-29 year age
bracket with a sex ratio 223.3 reaching a maximum at age
bracket 40-44 years with a sex ratio of 278.7.   From that
there is a progressive decline of males in the population
falling to as far as 157.8 at 75 years and above category.

There is an indication, therefore, that if the greater number
of males in the population is attributed to migration.   We
have the greatest number of migrants in age group 40-44 years
where there are more males than females than in any other age

bracket (sex ratio: 278.7). It starts falling at age bracket 45-49 years. This reflects male migrating to their areas of origin as well as some permanent migrants inviting their spouses to Mombasa thus also increasing the number of females in the population at this later age.

The 1979 sex ratios appear more balanced. Up to and including age bracket, 15-19 years we have male to female ratios being equal or even having more females than males in these ages. It progressively increases reaching a maximum of more male than females at the 40-44 years. This is the same as for the 1969 census. The figures for 1984 being a projection from 1979 census figures gives a sex ratio in similar proportion as for 1979.

Column five of table 6.6 gives sex ratio of those people enumerated in Mombasa but born out of the district in the year 1979. This therefore, indicates the participation ratios for migrants in Mombasa according to sex. The situation here is that up to the age bracket 15-19 years we have more females than males in the population. This is rather a confusing finding. However, it will be realized that this is the non-economically active age group. The main purpose for migrants in this age group should be for education reasons. There are two social economic operatives we can not altogether ignore. First is that people working in urban centers encourage the migration of their female young relatives to double up as helpers in domestic chores either after school or after college (e.g. secretarial and

tailoring which are presently female dominated). Second the economic role played by maids (ayahs) is so great and cannot be ignored in any socio-economic analysis. In most households where both husband and wife work, there are maids. Most of these tend to be young girls below the age of twenty years. This, therefore, partially explains the greater presence of females than males in age bracket 0-19 years.

From age twenty onwards the male participation in the migration stream becomes greater than that of females and increases gradually reaching a maximum at age bracket 45-49 with a sex ratio of 231.5 from there it gradually falls either as the migrants return to their home districts or their partners join them. The fall of the female population to a small degree occurs as a result of the young migrant females now being of nubile age migrating back home to get married. Also maids can be described as target workers who go back to their rural homes after acquiring a particular degree of wealth.

Column six gives the sex ratios from the survey. It will be realized as explained earlier that the migrants interviewed were above the age of 14 years, thus zero is entered in corresponding age brackets.

In the reported age group of 15-19 years the sex ratio was 100 indicating equal number of males to that of females. The male participation increases up to age group 30-39 years where it falls to 72.9. This might not however, be

attributed to a decrease in number of men in this age group but rather a higher reporting of females than male at the interviewing time where the enumerators reported a relatively higher number of female respondents to male respondents due to the fact that at the time of administering the questionnaire (between 6.00 p.m. and 7.00 p.m.) a big number of males had not reported back home.

Generally, however, the survey data indicates a higher sex ratio reaching a maximum for the age group 40-44 years where it is 500.

The total number of migrants drastically falls for consequent age groups where we had only six in the age group 54-59 (2% of total). There were more males than females in this age group thus the second sex ratio peak (500) was reported in this group.

REASONS FOR MIGRATING BY SEX

Having realized that sex is important determinant in the migration process, it is imperative to investigate the reasons rather than infer why the migration did occur. This is because migration studies in Africa have indicated an increase in the proportion of women in the migration stream (Caldwell 1969).

To establish whether the same phenomenon does hold for the case of Mombasa, Table 6.7 indicates reasons for migrating against sex of respondent. Whereas more male respondents have migrated to Mombasa for reasons related with employment and business which can be categorized as economic reasons. These are reasons such as job transfer, lack of work at origin, insufficiency or unsatisfactory work, buying business or seek better job opportunities. For non-economic reasons, however, we have more female respondents than male respondents for such reasons like education, to accompany family, presence of relatives or friends in Mombasa, leisure as well as marriage.

It will be realized that of all the 19 respondents who gave their reason for migrating as to get married, all of them were women. Again of the 59 respondents who gave their reason for migrating as that of accompanying family, 74.6% were women.

Anarfi, J. (1989) however, drew a caution on any generalization from the observation above. He called for a review of the generalization that with women the desire to migrate is more social than economical. In his paper on the socio-economic implications of Ghanian women in international migration he observed that economic considerations dominated the female migrants' reasons for migrating to Abidjan. Anarfi established that some of the social or psychological reasons given by migrant women for their movements have

serious undertones. The social and psychological factors, in
this case, only served as migration facilitators while the
economic factors acted as the triggers of the migration
process.

TABLE 6.7 REASON FOR MIGRATING BY SEX OF RESPONDENT

REASON FOR MIGRATING	SEX		TOTAL	
	MALE	FEMALE	NUMBER	%
Job transfer	65.4	34.6	52	17.3
No work at origin	63.6	36.4	11	3.7
Insufficient work at origin	100.0	0	3	1.0
Work unsatisfactory	0	100	1	0.3
Bought business	100.0	0	9	3
To seek better job	75.7	24.3	111	36.9
To get education	48.0	52.0	25	8.3
Feuds at previous residence	100.0	0	2	0.7
Had relatives in Mombasa	33.3	66.7	3	1
Just for leisure	50.0	50.0	2	0.7
To get married	0	100.0	19	6.3
Don't know	0	100.0	4	1.3
Total Number	168	133	301	
% of total	55.8	44.2		100

Source: 1989 survey data.

Chi-square   Calculated: 84.714

Critical: 32.909

Degrees of freedom: 12

Cramers' V statistic: .53051

The above assertion could be true of Mombasa if we could
establish the push factors in the area of origin, or asked
prodding questions on the questionnaire. This will then
enable us establish whether dire economic constraints forced
someone into marriage. Further we could with certainty know

why the respondent moved so as to accompany family or due to existence of friends and relatives at the point of destination. What, however, comes out clear is that none of the respondents in the two above categories moved for leisure. This is because only two respondents (0.7% of total number of respondents) gave their reason for migrating as being for leisure.

Despite the fact that from table 6.7 we can establish a strong relationship between sex and reason for migrating, dichotomization into clear cut broad categories of either social reasons and economic reasons will carry a large degree of error.

The following hypothesis was tested:

H_0: The reason to migrate is not influenced by a person's sex.

H_1: The reason to migrate is influenced by a person's sex.

The calculated chi-square value is 84.714 whereas the critical chi-square is 32.909 at 12 degrees of freedom at 0.001 significance level. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

It is, therefore, concluded that there is a strong positive relationship between the reason for migrating and sex of the respondents as it measures 0.53051 on Cramers' V statistic.

REASON FOR MIGRATING AGAINST MARITAL STATUS

From migration data in table 4.12 it will be established that 39.8 of the migrants were married, against 50.5% who were single at the time of migration. As observed in chapter four, there was an increase in the number of those who reported as being married during the time of the survey. These were 69.4% with those who were single being only 28.2%.

Migration data on marital status against reason for migration was tabulated. However, it will be realized that table 6.8 gives the marital status during the survey and not at the time of migration. The expected case should have been a greater percentage of single migrants than that of the respondents who reported to be married.

It was established from the survey data that using the chi-square test, the calculated chi-square value is less than the critical value at 0.001 significance level. There, however, appears to be a very weak positive relationship between reasons for migrating and the marital status at the survey time. There will, however, be expected a positive relationship between reasons for migrating and the marital status at the time of migration. It needs to be observed that there exists a great relationship between age and marital status. For example those giving reasons for migrating as those of need for education will tend to be young, below 18 years of age.

TABLE 6.8 REASON FOR MIGRATING AGAINST MARITAL STATUS

REASON FOR MIGRATING	MARITAL STATUS				TOTA %
	SINGLE	MARRIED	DIVORCED	WIDOWED	
Job transfer	11.5	88.5	0	0	17.
No work at residence	44.5	45.5	0	9.1	3.
Work insufficient	0	100.0	0	0	1.
Work unsatisfactory	0	100.0	0	0	0.
Bought business	22.2	66.7	0	11.1	3.
To seek better job	36.9	59.5	3.6	0	36.
To get education	24.0	76.0	0	0	8.
To get married	5.3	94.7	0	0	6.
To accompany family	27.1	71.2	1.7	0	19.
Feuds at origin	100.0	0	0	0	0.
Had relatives in Mombasa	33.3	66.7	0	0	1.
Just for leisure	100.0	0	0	0	0.
Don't know	0	100.0	0	0	1.
TOTAL NUMBER	82	212	6	1	
% OF TOTAL	27.2	70.4	1.0	1.0	100

Source: 1989 survey data

Chi-square calculated: 76.48417

Critical: 86.661

Degrees of Freedom: 48

Significance level: 0.001

Cramer's V statistic: .25204

Age, therefore, will be a variable analyzed in depth.

AGE AND MIGRATION

Census data has indicated the strong relationship between age and migration (Miller 1965). Age selectivity in migration studies has been documented. In the Kenyan studies it was documented that a major proportion of the in-migrants into Mombasa were aged 15-45 years. A net in-migration into Mombasa was observed for the age bracket 15-24 years. Oucho,

J.O. (1988). In his study, Rempel (1970) also noted that a peak for the 20-25 years age group in his Kenyan study.

Wakajummah (1986) using data from 1969 and 1979 censuses to estimate net migration rates for Kenya observed that the migration pattern in Mombasa is consistent with the job seeking hypothesis. This is indicated by a net gain in the population of young adults aged between 15-24 years. An out-migration of children aged 5-9 years accompanied by mothers aged 25-29 years was also noticed. There was also a massive out-migration of ages 25-69 years.

From the survey data (Table 4.7) it will be realized that the greatest number of migrants were aged 20-24 years (28.6%) followed by age-group 28-29 years (22.6%). The number of migrants, however, decreased with increase in age. From the survey only 0.3% of the migrants reported having migrated at the age greater than 65 years and only 1% had migrated at ages less than 5 years. Census data can not establish the real reason behind migration at different ages.

REASON FOR MIGRATING	AGE GROUP												UN-KNOWN	REASON FOR MIGRATION TOTALS	
	< 15	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60 >			NO.	%
transfer	0	0	3.5	8.7	302	30.2	17.1	35.7	33.3	16.7	0		0	52	17.3
work at origin	0	0	1.8	5.8	4.8	0	5.7	0	0	0	0		0	11	3.7
work insufficient	0	0	0	0	0	2.3	5.7	0	0	16.7	0		0	4	1.3
sought business	0	0	0	7.2	1.6	0	5.7	0	0	16.7	0		0	9	3.0
seek better job	0	14.3	35.1	47.8	30.2	23.3	48.6	42.9	0	50	100		0	111	36.9
get education	0	14.3	14.0	14.0	4.8	14.0	2.9	7.1	0	0	0		0	25	8.3
get married	0	0	10.5	5.8	6.3	9.3	2.9	0	0	0	0		0	19	6.3
accompany family	0	57.1	31.6	11.6	19.0	20.9	11.4	14.3	66.7	0	0		0	59	19.6
friends at origin	0	0	3.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	2	0.7
relatives at Mombasa	0	14.3	0	2.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	3	1.0
just for leisure	100	0	0	1.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	2	0.7
don't know	0	0	0	1.4	3.2	0	0	0	0	0	0		100	4	1.3
Total Number	1	7	57	69	63	43	35	14	3	6	2		1	301	-
Percentage of Total	0.3	2.3	18.9	22.9	20.9	14.3	11.6	4.7	1.0	2.0	0.6		0.3	-	100

Source: 1989 Survey Data

Chi-square   Calculated: 373.55624
Critical: Z   = 10.3924
Degrees of freedom: 144
Significance level: 0.001
Contingency coefficient: 0.74416

It is, therefore, clear that age group 15 years and below is poorly represented in the sample. For age group 15-19 years, the main reason for migrating to Mombasa was to accompany their families which accounted for 57.1% of the migrants in this age group. Presence of relatives and friends as well as need for education as well as search for jobs are also important considerations (see table 6.9). For the category 20-24 years we realize that the overriding motive for migration was to seek for job opportunities. It accounted for 35.1% of the 57 respondents in this age group. This was closely followed by 31.6% of respondents who stated their motive for migration as being the need to accompany families. Need for education as a motivating factor was ranked third.

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This mirrors Wakajummah's (1986) conclusion on noticing net gains for age bracket 15-24 years for Mombasa migrant who he attributed to be job-seekers and those moving for education and training.

For age group 25-29 years job seeking was the most important reason given accounting for 47.8% of the 69 respondents in this age group. A distant second was the need for education which accounted for 14% of the respondents in this age group.

The picture describes above changes from the age group 30-34 where we find job transfers and need for better job being at par as the most important reasons accounting for migrants in this category.

The null hypothesis below was, therefore, tested.

H_0: Age is not a significant determinant of migration.
H_1: Age is a significant determinant of migration.

The calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical value (table 6.9), therefore, the null hypothesis that age is not a significant determinant of migration was rejected at 0.001 significance level. The alternative hypothesis that age is a significant determinant of migration was accepted.

Other than being significant the relationship is very strong. Using contingency coefficient we realize a strong positive relationship of 0.74416.

DURATION OF RESIDENCE AND COMMITMENT FOR CONTINUED STAY

Despite the fact that complete migration history data was not obtained, duration of residence for each migrant was sought. As will be realized in the ensuing discussion, moves before the one to Mombasa were missed. However, having drawn a distinction between place of birth and place of previous residence, it was possible to establish whether the migrant moved direct to Mombasa or if there was an intervening destination. It has, however, been documented elsewhere (Rider & Badger, 1943) that the longer a person stays at a place, the greater the attachment becomes. The probability of moving within a specified time decreases as the length of maintaining the same residence increases? (Willis 1974) This concept was further supported by Goldstein (1964) who observed that persons who have not moved recently are less likely to move in the future than those who have moved recently. This was investigated for in Mombasa. The greatest number of migrants were those who had stayed in the District for between 5-9 years who accounted for 29.6% of the total respondents.

Commitment to continued residence was first correlated with the respondents occupation. It was established that of all the migrants in Mombasa 267 accounting for 88.7% of the total reported that they contemplated leaving Mombasa after a period of stay in Mombasa (table 6.10). The greatest number of these reported that they will move out of Mombasa on retiring. These were 36.2% of the total. This category was closely followed by that of those who reported their

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intention for leaving Mombasa on completing education (20.9%).

TABLE 6.10   INTENTION OF PERMANENCY OF STAY BY OCCUPATION

OCCUPATION BEFORE MIGRATING	DO YOU CONTEMPLATE LEAVING MOMBASA IN FUTURE?				
	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	TOTAL #	%
Jua kali artisan	100	0	0	7	7.3
Small trader	100	0	0	4	1.3
Business person	100	0	0	3	1.0
Casual worker	93.3	6.7	0	15	5.0
Farmer	89.5	10.5	0	19	6.3
Blue collar worker	93.3	6.7	0	15	5.0
Teacher (Primary)	81.3	18.8	0	16	5.3
Teacher (Secondary)	71.4	28.6	0	7	2.3
Tutor/Lecturer	100	0	0	1	0.3
Clerk	83.3	16.7	0	6	2.0
Managerial position	100	0	0	4	1.3
Student	87.2	11.0	1.8	109	36.2
Unemployed	96.8	3.2	0	31	10.3
Permanent Laborer	100	0	0	3	1.0
Government officer	88.9	11.1	0	9	3.0
House wife	90.5	9.5	0	21	7.0
Professional	86.7	13.3	0	15	5.0
Surbodinate staff	100	0	0	1	0.3
White collar (non clerical)	71.4	28.6	0	7	2.3
Not applicable	75.0	25.0	0	8	2.7
TOTAL NUMBER	267	32	2	301	
TOTAL PERCENT	88.7	10.6	0.7	-	100

Source: 1989 survey data.

There is, therefore, a clear indication that the greatest
percentage of migrants in Mombasa are not permanent migrants.
They are persons who have come for diversified reasons but
with commitments to move out of the District at a particular
time in the future.   There is no significant relationship
between occupation and commitment to stay.   This therefore,
is an indication that it is not only people in paid
employment who will return after reaching the retirement age.

This is because even the business men who would be expected to have established their business in the town without a retirement period indicated that they also planned to move out of Mombasa at some time in the future.

The students, however, showed a slight degree of indifference where 11% of them indicated that they have no plans of leaving Mombasa in the future. Also 1.8% of the students never knew whether to stay or leave Mombasa at some stage.

The following hypothesis was, therefore, tested:

H_0: Occupation does not affect the migrants' will to return to their place of birth.

H_1: Occupation does affect the migrants' will to return to their places of origin.

The calculated chi-square was 41.687. At 34 degrees of freedom and 0.001 significant level of the critical chi-square value was is 59.703. We, therefore, reject the null hypothesis of no difference and accept the alternative hypothesis that, occupation does not affect the migrants' will to return to their places of origin.

There is only a weak relationship measuring 0.16596 on Cramer's V statistic with the chi-square values (table 6.10) indicating that there is no significant relationship between occupations and a persons plans for leaving Mombasa in the future.

The element of target workers was evident in this study. 12% of the respondents indicated that they will leave Mombasa on making enough money. The retiring led the chart with 36.2% of the respondents giving it as the reason for their leaving Mombasa. On the other hand, different occupations had, completion of education as being their target for departure. This indicates that people in different occupation still pursue professional exams with which they will feel better equipped to leave Mombasa in search of greener pastures elsewhere. Children education in Mombasa holds some parents in this district. 7.3% of the respondents therefore, indicated their intentions of intending to leave Mombasa once their children completed their education.

Occupation before migrating and the time of departure from Mombasa had a very weak correlation. It was .27697 on the Cramer's V statistic.

ADVICE TO POTENTIAL MIGRANTS

The level of contentment of the migrants might not be measurable in financial gains only. It is, however, reflected on the advice they give to potential migrants.

Time changes a person's perception. A student has a different measure of satisfaction, the same is true for businessmen, employed and the unemployed. Therefore, the advice given to potential migrants is correlated with the migrant's period of stay in Mombasa. 63.6% of those who had stayed in Mombasa for a period less than one year discourage potential migrants from moving to Mombasa. See table 6.11 below:-

TABLE 6.11   ADVICE TO POTENTIAL MIGRANTS AGAINST PERIOD OF STA

IN MOMBASA

PERIOD OF STAY IN MOMBASA	ADVICE TO POTENTIAL MIGRANT				TOTAL	
	NONE	ENCOURAGE MIGRATION	DISCOURAGE MIGRATION	DON'T KNOW	NO	%
Less than one year	0	36.4	63.6	0	11	3.7
1-4 years	16.5	22.4	50.6	10.6	85	28.2
5-9 years	11.2	37.1	43.8	7.9	89	29.6
10-19 years	14.7	48.0	29.3	8.0	75	24.9
20-29 years	6.7	20.0	66.7	6.7	30	10
30-39 years	0	40	60	0	5	1.7
40-49 years	50	25	25	0	4	1.3
Unknown	50	0	0	50	2	0.7
TOTAL NUMBER	40	101	135	25	301	-
	13.3	33.6	44.9	8.3	-	100

Source: 1989 survey data

Respondents who had lived in Mombasa for a period of between 1-4 years had a greater percentage of respondents who will advise potential migrants not to move to Mombasa. This accounted for 50.6%. 22.4% will encourage potential migrants to move to Mombasa while 16.5% will offer no advice.

Respondents who have lived in Mombasa for a period of 5-9 years have' more respondents discouraging the potential migrants than those encouraging potential migrants. These respondents most probably are in age groups 30-35 years. The respondents who have lived in Mombasa for a period of 10-19 years however, encourage the would be migrants to move to Mombasa. This are people in age groups 35-44 years. These are respondents at the prime of their life. It should be realized by now that most of the migrants who fail to establish themselves by way of acquiring employment or having business migrate from Mombasa to other places or their home districts. It is unfortunate that a survey of an area of in-migration does not capture migrants who have failed in achieving their goal thus moving elsewhere.

The 10-19 years group of migrants could be termed successful migrants. This serves in explaining why 48% of the 75 migrants in this category encourage potential migrants to move into Mombasa.

The following age groups after 10-19 years of stay are poorly represented. Inferences from this period therefore, might be misleading. However, an argument can be put forth that for period 30-39 years of stay, 60% discourage potential migrants. These are people on the retirement age who now have greater urges to return home. Their jobs almost coming to a close and the "bright light" effects seeming brighter no more, these aging migrant see little hopes from the town as they now see the associated evils of urban life.

For respondents who have lived in Mombasa for a period exceeding 40 years appear indifferent. It would be expected anyway for people past the retirement age and yet in Mombasa.

MIGRATION AND DISTANCE

The expected inverse relationship between migration and distance holds very little in Mombasa. It was established that whereas 61 respondents moved from distances of less than 100 Km, the bulk of the migrants, 198 moved from areas more than 500 Kms away from Mombasa accounting for 65.7% of the total number of migrants. It will be interesting to note that 118 respondents accounting for 39.2% migrated from areas in excess of 800 Km. These are the main source areas of Kakamega, Siaya, Busia, Kisumu, Bungoma and Kisii. Distance alone therefore, can not be used to explain migration rates. There are other factors in play. Among these factors are the expenses and difficulty of travelling over long distances, the wish to maintain contacts in the area of origin and the rate of information flow. Knowles and Anker (1977) observed that higher rates of origin area urbanization and greater proximity to smaller major urban centers outside the districts boundaries stimulate the districts out-migration rate to larger towns as well as to rural areas. They observed that distance may be a proxy for non-economic costs of migration.

MIGRATION SEQUENCES

On assessing the migrants place of birth versus place of previous residence it was realized that most of the

respondents in the Mombasa study did not move directly to
Mombasa, but had a 'stop over' before eventually settling in
Mombasa.   Table 5.2 therefore points out the existence of
step by step migration process.

Chapter five discusses at length these moves using ethinc
affiliations and district of birth to advance the inherent
discussions.
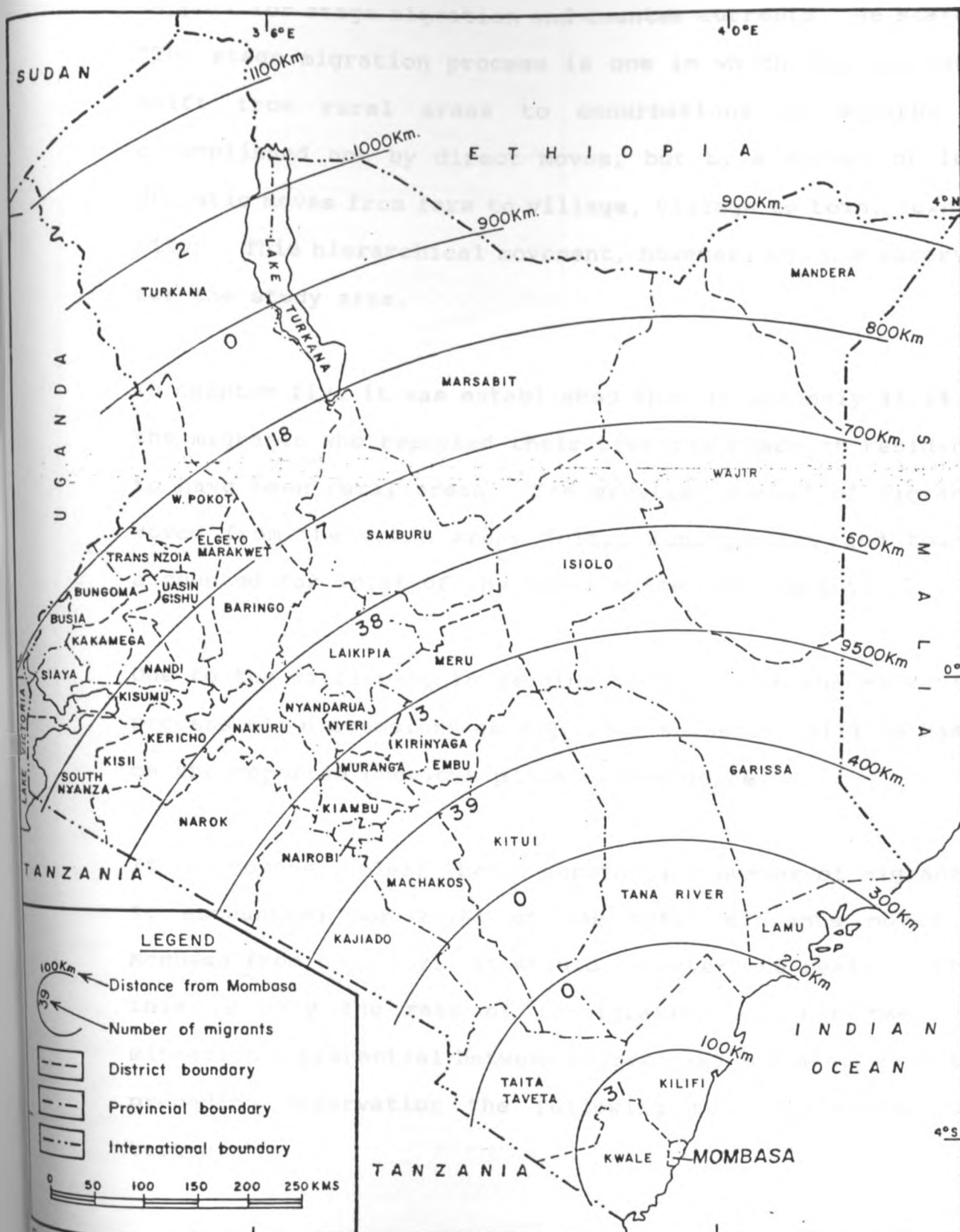
FIG. 6.1. KENYA : NUMBER OF MIGRANTS AND MIGRATION DISTANCE
FROM MOMBASA.

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Taeuber et al (1968) was able to establish a strong empirical support for stage migration and counter currents. He stated, "The stage migration process is one in which the aggregate shift from rural areas to conurbations or suburbs is accomplished not by direct moves, but by a series of less dramatic moves from farm to village, village to town, town to city". This hierarchical movement, however, was not observed for the study area.

In chapter five it was established that it was only 41.2% of the migrants who reported their previous place of residence to have been rural areas. The greatest number of migrants moved from the urban areas (city, municipality and towns) accounted for 58.1% of the total number of migrants.

Due to the difficulty in gauging each step in the migration process all discussions on migration sequences will be based on the reported previous place of residence.

It is, however, clear that a substantial number of migrants, 86 accounting for 28.6% of the total migrants moved to Mombasa from the city. It should, however, be realized that this is only the rate of in-migration and not the net-migration differential between Nairobi and Mombasa. From the preceding observation the following null hypothesis was tested:
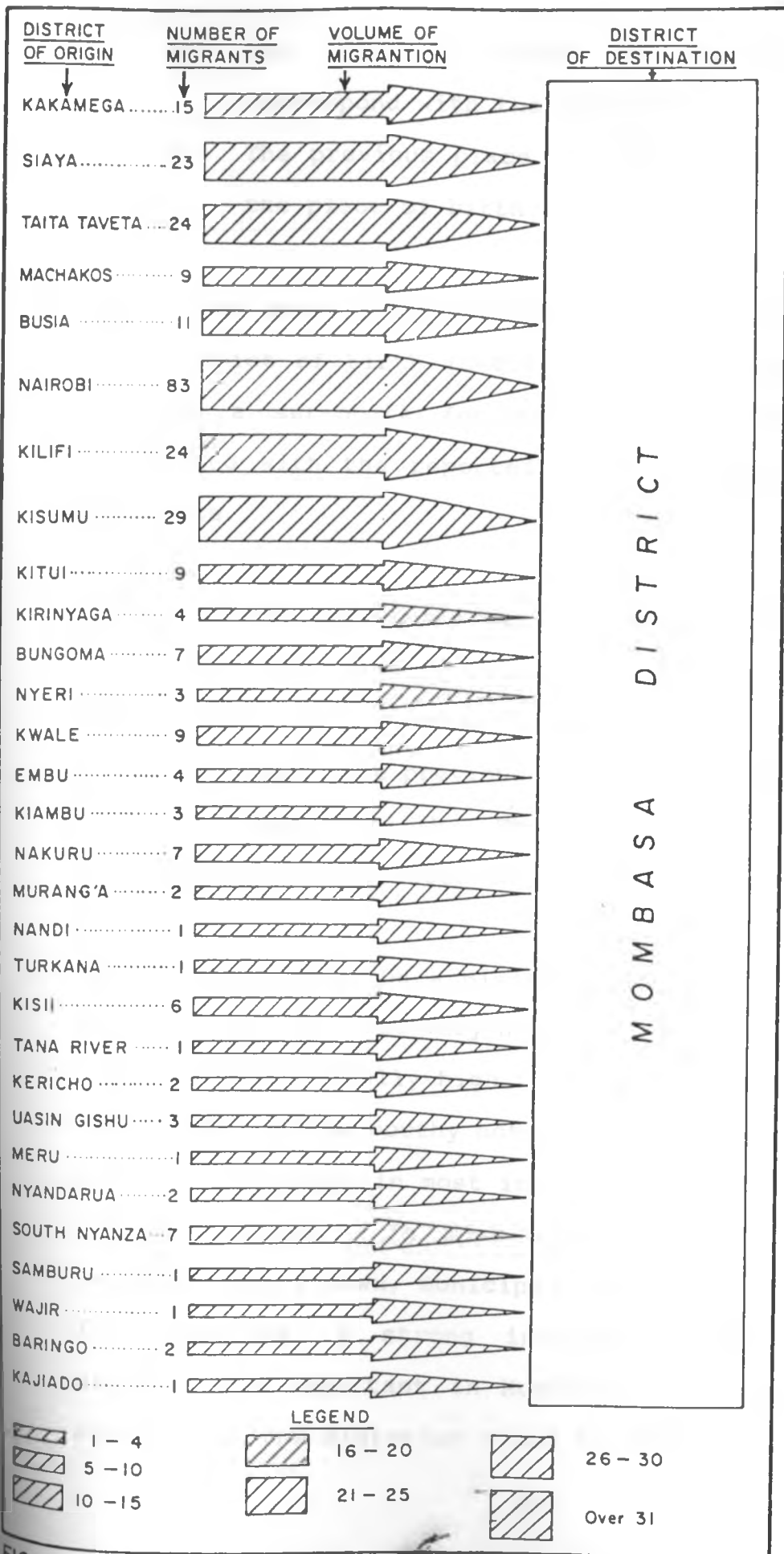
FIG 6.2. VOLUME OF MIGRATION TO MOMBASA BY DISTRICT OF ORIGIN

H_0: The previous place of residence does not correspond with the place of birth.

H_1: The previous place of residence corresponds with the place of birth.

Due to the great relationship between the ethnic group and the district of birth (c=0.9461) data on ethnic group was used as a surrogate for the place of birth which was correlated with the reported place (district) of previous residence.

The calculated chi-square value is greater than the critical chi-square value at 0.001 significance level. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that, the previous place of residence corresponds with the place of birth. The relationship is very strong. It is given as: V=0.64822 on the Cramers statistic.

This might however be a misleading finding. The number of cells in table 5.6 was very high and therefore the chi-square value was also equally high, thus making us reject the null hypothesis. It is worthy noting, however, that the place of previous residence in most instances was different from the place of birth. In most cases the place of previous residence was a town, municipality or even the city. There is, therefore, a strong indication that step by step migration is important in Mombasa. Secondly it is worth noting that the migration trend to Mombasa is changing from

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the previously much publicized rural-urban to urban-urban.

The study realized that the decision maker for the migration process is important especially when we are looking at determinants of migration.

It would also be important to take note of the main motives of the migration process which though not addressed to under such a heading in this study has been adequately covered in the discussion where reasons for migrating were analyzed against a set of different dependent variables, viz age, marital status, education, occupation as well as tribal affiliation.

The author has tested a number of specific hypothesis while the general hypothesis have been used as base for argument and, therefore, also been proven or rejected according to the quality of data available.

A number of issues, however, have escaped the authors in depth investigation and therefore empirical analysis due to a number of constraints in the quality of data, available method of analysis as well as the restraint due to the intended scope of this study. This make a basis for the next chapter on recommendations and conclusions.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CONCLUSIONS

It has been established by this survey that Mombasa is a major destination for migrants from all over the country as well as those from abroad.

In 1962, 59.3% of the total number of residents in Mombasa district were born out of the district. In 1969 this number increased to 63% of people born outside Mombasa but residing in Mombasa at the time of enumeration. In the 1979 census year this number fell slightly with 60.7% of those enumerated indicating that Mombasa was not their district of birth. From the survey data it was established that all the districts indicated a fall in the number of people who reported their district of birth as also the place of previous residence. This was true for all districts other than Nairobi, Kisumu, Kwale, Embu, Nakuru, Kericho, Uasin Gishu and Nyandarua. 14 respondents had indicated Nairobi to be their place of birth. This number drastically increased to 83 who reported Nairobi to have been the place of previous residence. This then supports the notion that Nairobi was a major in-migration center for migrants before they disperse to other places.

As indicated in the earlier discussion of the importance of Kisumu in the Western region, despite having had only 23 respondents indicating that Kisumu was their place of birth,

we had 29 who indicated that it was the place of their previous residence.

Kwale in the Coast province had a greater number of respondents indicating to have resided in the district than those born in the district. It is possible to explain this because of the rich farm lands in Shimba Hills and Lunga Lunga area where people from other districts have settled. Ethnic affiliation data (table 5.6) indicate that of those who recorded Kwale as their place of previous residence 22.2% were Taitas, 33.3% were Kambas and 11.1% were Rabais while the remaining 33.3% were Digos. Embu had an equal number of those who indicated the district to be their place of birth and those who recorded it as the place of previous residence. This could be explained by low out-migration rates as well as in-migration especially into the Mwea-Tabere Irrigation Scheme which the district shares with Kirinyaga district. Other settlement districts like Uasin Gishu, Nyandarua and Nakuru had similar results. Kericho with its expansive tea estates also indicated a greater number of those who reported it to be a place of previous residence than those who reported it as their district of birth.

This is a clear indication that there was a marked increase in migrants between 1962 and 1969. Between 1969 and 1979 the number of in migrants fell slightly. This could have been due to the post
independence surge into urban areas brought by uhuru euphoria where people went into towns in great numbers in search of

new opportunities. As indicated earlier, there was a general fall in migration rates to Mombasa with the opening of tourist hotels in the fringes of the district's boundaries. Mombasa must have served as a stopping station for settlement migrants destined for Lake Kenyatta Settlement Scheme in Lamu, Magharini Settlement Scheme in Malindi, Bura Settlement Scheme in Tana River as well as the bulk of migrants moving towards Lunga Lunga and Shimba Hills in the neighboring Kwale district. In the seventies most of the landless had already been allocated lands and in mid-seventies this crucial stage of development had reached an end. Therefore the role Mombasa played as a stopping center drastically fell, thus resulting in lower migration rates.

The sex ratio on the other hand indicated a decrease in the number of males over the three census years 1962, 1969 and 1979. In 1962, the sex ratio was 152. This fell in 1969 to 139 and further in 1979 to 126.6. This could either mean that there were increasing numbers of female migrants or that the wives of the migrants later moved to live with their husbands. The sex ratio, however, is still far from unity (100) thus indicating a higher presence of male in the increasing population of Mombasa and indication that migration to a greater extent be attributed to the high rate of population growth.

The study established that ethnic factors are important in individual's decision to migrate and also where to migrate to. Age and marital selectivity were identified to affect

the pattern of migration. Age takes the expected trend for rural-urban migration with a peak being in the age group 18-25 years. Marital status does not, however, take the expected pattern. The survey discovered that most of the migrants to Mombasa were married at the time of migrating.

Existence of step by step migration was discovered. Most of the migrants to Mombasa move here from places which are not their reported districts of birth.

Relatives were identified as the most important medium of communication with the would be migrants. The role played by mass media was insignificant.

Relatives and friends were also very important in offering support to the new migrants. This came either in form of accommodation and food or even helping the new migrants to acquire jobs or housing.

Distance was discounted as being an intervening obstacle as a great number of migrants moved 500 Kms or more in their migration process. The bulk of the migrants came from the western part of Kenya, including Nyanza, Siaya and Kisumu. It would be realized that most of the districts surrounding Mombasa are semi-arid, viz Garissa, Tana River, Taita Taveta (excluding the wet highland areas to the west, Machakos, Kajiado and Kitui. These areas are sparsely populated. However, application of the gravity model would but give inconclusive results. This is because it is not the low

population density which holds many of the inhabitants of these district, rather it is their mode of life. The Maasai, Giriama, Pokomo and Galla still practice age old transitions of pastoralism and many are still guided by cultural values in decision making. For these people their ethnic linkages explain better their low rates of migration into Mombasa than any distance related model will explain.

Occupation was identified as a major determinant for the migration process. It was realized that occupation of the potential migrant made an important basis for the decision to migrate or not to migrate. Many migrants in search of jobs were unemployed, were in disguised unemployment or far still were underemployed in such areas as farming or jua kali businesses. Students made a substantial proportion of migration stream. Most of the migrants in employment gave the main reason for their move as being job transfers.

The study established that hierarchical migration patterns were not reflected in the Mombasa study. Nairobi being mid-way between the main migration source areas of western and central Kenya, therefore, served as a stopover for many migrants who later settled in Mombasa. The nature of migration pattern identified using the survey data indicated that urban-urban moves were dominant in the Mombasa migration pattern.

The study established that migration flow in Mombasa district are taking an up-turn. The mentioned increase in sex ratios

is an indication that migration still plays an important role in explaining the population growth rate. Direct return migration figures could not be measured for Mombasa. This is because the study was basically designed for the in-migrants. However, knowing the important role of return migration in any study of migration, a question on contemplation of leaving Mombasa in the future was asked. 88.7% of the respondents indicated their wish to leave Mombasa in the future. Only 10.6% stated they were not going to leave the district. Therefore, we can conclude that Mombasa will be experiencing high return migration flows as only 10.6% of the respondents qualify to be called permanent migrants.

It was also established that the relationship between marital status and the intention to move out of Mombasa was insignificant.

On decision making to leave previous place of residence, it was realized that personal decisions were the most important. This accounted for 35.2% of all decision making. Parents were important in making decisions for the single migrants than for the married ones. A correlation between decision to migrate and marital status established a significant and positive relationship.

In conclusion the study, therefore, established that urban to urban migration has now become important in Mombasa as we see many migrants moving into Mombasa from other urban centers. Ethnic linkages are still important. They serve as a basis

for information flow as well as receiving stations for the homeless-jobless migrants. Economic motives still remain dominant as the main cause for migration.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Quite a number of observations were made from this study. These observations were on the existing techniques of analyzing migration data as well as the quality of survey data vis a vis census data. The study also established empirically past and present migration trends. The determinants of the prevailing migration trend were assessed in depth. From these, recommendations were made both for students of migration as well as the policy makers. These recommendations are important to planners who in their planning strategy have to cater for the migrants as well as coming up with remedial measures if migration has to be directed according to the developmental goals of this country.

Migration has been viewed as the ciderella of population studies. This has been basically due to the restrictive nature of migration data as well as the available methods of measuring migration.

Migration is important because it does change the rate of population growth, either by increasing it due to high in-migration rates or reducing it due to high out-migration rates. Migration has also been noted to change the age composition of population, and to modify the labor force even

more, since a disproportionately large share of migrants are of working age.

Employment of many geographical models can not be successfully done with data collected from only an area of origin or an area of destination. These is because even in calculating migration rates data on population at risk at destination is important. In most instances these can not be deduced in studies done only at the area of destination. There is also need to do studies in both rural areas and urban areas so as to have a comprehensive coverage of potential migrants, out-migrants and return migrants in migration studies.

Due to the many shortcoming of census data especially in migration studies, more studies need to be conducted using survey methods which are more reliable.

With the new planning strategy based on the district there is need to have similar district level migration studies for the purpose of having a more comprehensive coverage as well as comparisons.

Tracer studies have been recommended. By following migrants through addresses obtained in their home districts, a researcher is able to compare the situation at the place of origin with the one at the destination. Therefore, comparisons can be drawn on income levels at origin as well as assessing the part played by the push factors in migration

studies.

There is great need for micro studies in migration research. These will enable the researcher to dwell on individual components of the migration phenomenons be they distance, income, family ties, remittances, ethnicity, etc., in the Kenyan context. There is, therefore, need for migration researchers to come up with studies giving the application of various migration models.

There is a great need of refinement of techniques for analysis of migration data from sample surveys as it is now evident that survey data is more reliable than census data in migration studies. The later has been researched on at length and thus existence of varied methods of analysis.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Increase in migration rate is caused by both push and pull factors. From the study it was realized that pull factors are the most important for migrants to Mombasa district.

There is, therefore, need to make the situation in the rural areas better by expanding the production capacity in agriculture as well as having industries started in rural areas. Caution must, however, be taken since it has been established by other studies in migration as well as from this survey that this approach has its own limitations. Anker and Knowles (1983) noted that when we increase the growth rate of small urban centers relatives to that of Nairobi and Mombasa may serve to increase the overall rate of rural-urban migration. Again the earlier policy of back to the land could be counter effective. That is because returning people to the rural areas increases population density thus encouraging even higher out-migration.

The most effective method of countering migration from the rural areas is by increasing the rural areas earning. This could be achieved by increasing prices of agricultural commodities. But with the realization that most of the cash crops' prices are determined in the international market, then the government ought also to remove subsidies for goods in the urban areas. The structural adjustment programme has proved an effective way of reversing migration flows from the urban areas into the rural areas (Osirike, A.B. 1989).

In conclusion then we should note the fact that migration need not be viewed as a negative phenomena. This is because migration first helps in redistributing population from areas of high density and low opportunities to areas of higher potential and at times less density. This movement does release pressure from agricultural lands thus in many cases increasing agricultural productivity. Migration into industrial districts means cheaper labor, returns to investment and in most cases re-investments do occur.

Migration also does result in uplifting the standards of living for the successful urban migrants whose remittances back home can be used to stimulate agricultural productivity.

Migration also does result in diffusion of new innovations and techniques through home visits as well as return migration.

Finally, whereas the unborn has no chance of reverting birth and the fact that even modern technology can but increase life expectancy but not stop death altogether, a migrant has the choice to decide to migrate or even at any stage of migration, terminate the move and return home.

While planning for the migrants through increasing housing and other social amenities it should be realized that migration to a large extent supports development. Where the migrant is unsuccessful or does not achieve the pre-set objective, many move elsewhere where opportunities may exist.

Other unsuccessful migrants move to their home area.

Migration process, therefore, needs to be looked at not only as a liability but also as an asset to the developmental process.

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QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE IN-MIGRANTS INTO MOMBASA DISTRICT:

===

QUESTIONNAIRE NO.

-------------------;   ----------

ALL THE INFORMATION GIVEN IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL BE
TREATED WITH STRICT CONFIDENCE AND WILL BE USED ONLY FOR THE
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY ON MIGRATION TRENDS IN MOMBASA DISTRICT
. ANSWERING IS PURELY VOLUNTARY AND ONE MAY CHOOSE NOT TO
ANSWER ANY PARTICULAR QUESTION(S).

DATE OF INTERVIEW:
------------------   ------------------------------

INTERVIEWER'S NAME:
------------------   ------------------------------

NAME AND PARTICULARS OF THE RESIDENCE:

DIVISION: ---------------------------

ESTATE: ---------------------------

HOUSE NO.   ---------------------------

LOCATION: ---------------------------

SUB-LOCATION: ---------------------------

VILLAGE: ---------------------------

NAME OF THE RESPONDENT: --------------------------------------

SEX   MALE: ¦ ¦   FEMALE: ¦   ¦

ETHNIC GROUP AND TRIBE OF THE RESPONDENT:--------------------

MARITAL STATUS:

	SINGLE	┊ ┊
	MARRIED	┊ ┊
	DIVORCED	┊ ┊
	SEPARATED	┊ ┊
	WIDOWED	┊ ┊
	OTHERS	┊ ┊
	SPECIFY	------------------------

AGE:----------- YEARS.

1(b) Where were you born?

                          Country ---------------_
                          District ---------------
                          Village/Town -----------

 (b) At that time, what sort of place was it?

	City	1.	┊ ┊
	Town	2.	┊ ┊
	Village	3.	┊ ┊
	Estate/		
	Plantation	4.	┊ ┊
	Others	5.	┊ ┊
	Specify	--------------------

 (c) Was this your mother's usual place of residence at the time of your birth?

                     YES   1. ┊ ┊
                     NO   2. ┊ ┊

   If 1(a) and 1 (c) are YES move to (e) If NO then (d).

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(d) What was your mother's usual place of residence at the time of your birth?

Country   ------------------

District   ------------------

Village/Town   ------------------

Don't know   ------------------

(e) At that time what sort of a place was it?

City   ---------------

Town   ---------------

Village ------------------

Estate/

plantation ----------------_

Others   ------------------

Specify   ------------------

2. How long ago did you move to live in Mombasa? .

Years -------------- Months ------------

3. What was your age when you moved to Mombasa? ------------

4. (a) Where did you live before moving to Mombasa?

Country --------------

District -------------

Village/

Town   -------------

(b) What sort of place was this previous residence at the time you left? City_____ Town------- Village -- ----- , Estate/plantation------ Others---- Specify - ---------------5(a) What is your occupation now ?------------ ------------------

(b) What was your occupation before migrating?.----------------

----

6 (a) What was your father's occupation, when you were

growing up, say when you were 12 years old. ------------------

----

---------------.

7 a) Was (is) your father able to read and write?

     YES   1.¦ ¦   NO 2.¦ ¦   DON'T KNOW 3.¦ ¦

IF NO, SKIP TO 8.

If Yes then (b).

 (b) What was the highest level of schooling your father

completed.

None	1.¦	¦
Primary	2.¦	¦
Secondary	3.¦	¦
College/University	4.¦	¦
Don't Know	9.¦	¦
Others	6.¦	¦
Specify	------------------------------------	

8. Is (was) your mother able to read and write?

       YES 01.¦ ¦   NO. 02.¦ ¦   DON'T KNOW 09.¦ ¦

  (b) What was the highest level of schooling that your

mother attained? 01. ¦ ¦ 02. ¦ ¦ 03.¦ ¦ 04. ¦ ¦ 09.

¦ ¦ 05.¦ ¦

Specify   --

9.a) What were the main reasons for your moving to Mombasa?
Tick up to three.

Job transfer	01	:	:
No work in previous place of residence	02	:	:
Work was in-sufficient to support family	03	:	:
Nature of work unsatisfactory	04	:	:
Bought land/Business here	05	:	:
To seek better job/income	06	:	:
Was offered better job/income	07	:	:
To get education for self	08	:	:
To get education for children	09	:	:
To get married	10	:	:
To accompany family	11	:	:
Family/social feuds in previous place of esidence	12	:	:
I had other relatives and friends here	13	:	:
Poor amenities in previous place of residence	14	:	:
Don't know	09	:	:

(b) Which of these reasons was the most important?-----------

----

10. a) At the time of moving here, what was your marital
status?

Married	01	:	:
Consensual Union	02	:	:
Never married	03	:	:
Widow/widower	04	:	:
Divorced	05	:	:
Separated	06	:	:

Others   09 ¦   ¦
                Specify--

----

b) Highest level of schooling completed?

        None   01
¦   ¦

        Primary   02
¦   ¦

        Vocational technical training (post-primary)   03
¦   ¦

        Secondary   04
¦   ¦

        Vocational technical (post secondary)   05
¦   ¦

        College/University   06
¦   ¦

        Others   07
¦   ¦

        Specify--.
c) Years of schooling completed? Years --------------------
11.(a) Did you have any friends or relatives living with you
in your previous place of residence (before you moved to live
here)   YES 01.¦   ¦   NO.02. ¦   ¦
If YES, move on to (b). If NO move to 14.

   (b) Did someone move with you from the place of previous
residence?

            YES 1.¦   ¦   NO 2.¦   ¦

(c) If YES, who was it?

Spouse	1. ┆ ┆
Children	2. ┆ ┆
Parents	3. ┆ ┆
Brothers/sisters	4. ┆ ┆
Others	5. ┆ ┆

Specify --

(d) If NO, [11(b)] Did anyone follow you from the place of previous residence?

YES 1. ┆ ┆   NO 2. ┆ ┆

If NO, skip to 12.

(e) If YES, who was it?

		Month	Year.
Spouse	1.	-----------	---------
Children	2.	-----------	---------
Parents	3.	-----------	---------
Brothers/sisters	4.	-----------	---------
Others	5.	-----------	---------

Specify --

12.a) Who made the decision for you to move from (to leave) your previous place of residence?

Myself	01. ┆ ┆
Spouse	02. ┆ ┆
Child(ren)	03. ┆ ┆
Parent(s)	04. ┆ ┆
Other relative(s)	05. ┆ ┆

```
Employer               06. ¦  ¦

Others                 07. ¦  ¦

Specify  -------------------------------------------
```

b) Who chose the destination of Mombasa for you?

```
        Myself              01. ¦  ¦

        Spouse              02. ¦  ¦

        Child(ren)          03. ¦  ¦

        Parent(s)           04. ¦  ¦

        Other relative(s)   05. ¦  ¦

        Employer            06. ¦  ¦

        Others              07. ¦  ¦

        Specify  ------------------------------------
```

13 a) Before you moved to live here, did you have any information about employment opportunities in this place?

```
        YES 01. ¦  ¦          NO 02. ¦  ¦
```

If NO skip to c)

b) What was the main source of this information?

```
        Relatives                   01. ¦  ¦

        Friends                     02. ¦  ¦

        Newspaper                   03. ¦  ¦

        Radio/TV                    04. ¦  ¦

        Visited Mombasa before      05. ¦  ¦

        Employed exchange           06. ¦  ¦

        Others                      07. ¦  ¦

        Specify  ----------------------------------
```

b) Before you moved to live here did you have any information about living conditions or facilities here such as schools and hospitals? YES   01. ¦   ¦   NO   02. ¦   ¦

If No skip to 14.

c). Did you have any relatives or friends living here before you moved to live here?

YES 01. ¦   ¦   NO   02. ¦   ¦

If YES (b), if No skip to 15.

b) Did any of your relatives or friends living here help you settle down?   YES 01. ¦   ¦   NO   02. ¦   ¦

If YES (c), if NO skip to 15.

c) What were the main types of assistance that you got from them?

Provided lodging and food	01. ¦ ¦
Provided money	02. ¦ ¦
Provided information about job possibilities and accommodation	03. ¦ ¦
Helped to find employment/work	04. ¦ ¦
Helped to find house	05. ¦ ¦
Others	06. ¦ ¦
Specify ---	

15a) How would you compare your income here with that in your previous place of residence (before you moved to live here?)

Far better	01. ¦ ¦
Better	02. ¦ ¦
Not so good	03. ¦ ¦
Worse	04. ¦ ¦

Don't know   09. | |

Others Specify --

16 a) Do you contemplate moving from Mombasa in the
foreseeable future?

              YES 01.| | NO 02.| |

b) If YES, When?

        On making enough money   01. | |

        On my children completing school   02. | |

        On retiring   03. | |

        Others   04. | |

              specify ------------------------------------

17. a) Have you visited your previous place of residence
during the last 12 months?

              YES 01. | NO 02. | |

If YES, (b) If No skip to (c)

  (b) How many times during the last 12 months?

              Once   01. | |

              Twice   02. | |

              Several times   03. | |

              Don't know   04. | |

c) What advice would you give to your friends and relatives
in previous place of residence/place of origin regarding
migration to Mombasa?

        None   01. | |

        Encourage them to move here   02. | |

        Discourage them from moving here   03. | |

        Don't know   09. | |

              Specify ------------------------------------

If none skip to (d).

1d) Why would you give this sort of advice? ----------------

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THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR GIVING THIS VALUABLE INFORMATION AND
MORE SO YOUR INVALUABLE TIME.

                                        MAINA J. KIRANGA
                                        SEPTEMBER 1989.

                                        =================

APPENDIX II

MOMBASA DISTRICT
ENUMERATION AREAS FOR 1989 POPULATION CENSUS

ENUMERATION AREA/ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS	NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS
Mji Wa Kale	1,541
Old Town	1,524
Mwembe Tayari	2,202
Majengo	4,183
Kingorani	3,973
Tononoka	3,929
Bondeni	1,794
Tudor Estate	2,041
Tudor Four	3,150
Shimanzi (Makande)	1,224
Shimanzi (High Level)	1,001
Ganjoni	2,328
Kizingo	1,265
Kisauni	22,104
Kongowea	16,195
Mwakirunge	645
Bamburi	3,237
Shika-Adabu	642
Likoni	14,706
Mtongwe	3,097
Port Reitz	14,944
Changamwe Estate	2,100
Kipevu	10,496
Mikindani	6,947
Miritini	807