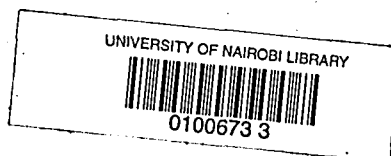


MIGRATION SURVEY IN KISUMU TOWN

John Oyaro Oucho

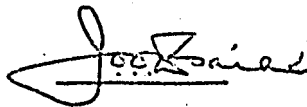
A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PART FULLFILMENT
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN
THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

1974



DECLARATION

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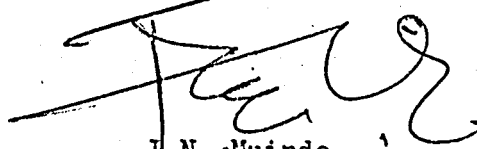


(Candidate)

This thesis has been submitted for examination
with our approval as University supervisors



S.H. Ominde



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ABSTRACT

In studying internal migration scholars of population studies have recognised four typologies, namely, rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-urban and urban-rural.. Most migration studies in Kenya have pivoted around rural-urban migration. This may be attributed to the fact that polarised development has occurred in urban centres to which migrants are attracted due to good job opportunities, availability of better educational, medical and other facilities. Whereas the process has been adequately studied on a national scale, its documentation on a regional scale is badly lacking. This study was therefore aimed at satisfying this requirement besides collecting data that would be useful in future planning of Kisumu town and region.

The town was stratified into three socio-economic groups - low, medium and high income areas - from which samples were drawn. By interviewing those residents who were included in the sample, it was possible to collect information, demographic and non-demographic, in the town. This was supplemented by other sources of information such as census data, municipality records and library material. Three basic items have been

examined in this study.

First, basic migration differentials have been discussed. These include personal attributes of respondents such as ethnic group, tribal affiliation, sex, age, marital status, educational attainment and economic activity. It was found that Africans are predominant and of this ethnic group Luos are by far the majority in the town. Also, male dominance was experienced although an anomalous sex ratio appeared among those aged 0-4 years where female dominance occurred. The peak of migration seems to be in the 20-29 age bracket, the youngest and best educated migrants. It became clear that high education increases people's propensity to migrate since it enhances employment opportunities particularly in skilled jobs. Economic activity was the most significant migration differential as, among other things, it determines stabilisation in urban residence.

Second, spatial migration system of the town has been examined at two levels: on a national perspective by provinces of Kenya and on a regional scale within the Kisumu Region (the town's hinterland). At both levels home information proved to be more reliable than birthplace as an index of determining

migrants. It was realised that theoretical migration models which have been developed by scholars elsewhere had only a marginal bearing on this study. But the theoretical inverse relationship between migration and distance turned out to be true. Several causes of migration were identified the most significant being economic.

Third, interdependence of migration and spatial physical planning has been probed into. The Kisumu Region is a "downward transitional" region where out-migration to "upward transitional" and "core" regions alleviates the burden imposed on its underdeveloped economy. Through physical planning and rural development programme, it is expected to dam floods of migrants from this region. Kisumu town occupies the highest position of the hierarchical structure of growth centres in West Kenya. There is need to adopt comprehensive urban and regional planning of metropolitan Kisumu taking cognizance of demographic realities. Planning of the town calls for an inventory of several facilities such as medical services, education and public transportation which require improvement as they are currently very inadequate.

A few conclusions may be drawn to this

study. In the first place provincial migrants are by far the majority in the town. But the town attracts population irrespective of ethnic or political boundaries. Also, education tends to sharpen migrants' perceptions and aspirations and gravitates them to urban centres. Economic reasons for migration were found to be paramount but non-economic factors should not be underestimated.

Experience got from this study heralds similar surveys to be conducted in other major Kenya towns, Nairobi, Mombasa and Nakuru. Again, migration studies could conveniently incorporate other priority interests, for example educational, manpower and agricultural policies. Inter-disciplinary approach to this complex phenomenon is likely to produce even better results thereby blurring theoretical boundaries between different disciplines which have a stake in migration studies.

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PREFACE

Migration studies which have been carried out in Kenya so far have been on a national or macro-scale. This conceals some vital features relating to the migration process and migration differentials on a regional or micro-scale. The present study attempts to fuse the two by examining migration to Kisumu and considering the implications of migration on urban and regional planning. It has been found that whereas internal migration studies have examined spatial interaction between different population regions, they have inadequately depicted the situation at the regional scale.

Kisumu town is situated in the heart of a significant population region, namely, the Lake Victoria Basin cluster. This is a region in which environmental hazards and population pressure have combined to create an adverse population-resource relationship thereby resulting in out-migration of the inhabitants. In order to diagnose development strategies it is necessary to collect demographic as well as non-demographic data that would form the basis for urban and regional planning in Western Kenya. This study is the outcome of such data collected through interviewing residents of Kisumu town.

Field surveys in the town were spread over one year. They included pilot studies, pretesting the questionnaire and other related items which were a prelude to the actual interviews. Scientific sampling procedure was adopted so as to select a representative sample from which inferences about the population have been made. The whole research programme involved funds, research assistants (here called enumerators) and help from several persons and institutions to which the author is indebted.

I would like to register my appreciations for help received from several persons and institutions, all of whom deserve mention but for lack of space. But mention may be made of the Office of the President particularly its Provincial and District Administration personnel in Kisumu who gave me a letter of introduction without which I would have made little headway in the field. I am also thankful to all officers of the Municipality of Kisumu who, in one way or another, undertook to ensure success of this research besides allowing me access to their records.

I am grateful to the Population Council, New York, for their grant which included making funds available for this research. This also embraced payment

of my six enumerators: Messrs. F. Oula, A.O. Opiyo, W. Odero, A. Ogutu, J.H.O. Owade and A.O. Resa whose names must be recorded in appreciation of their good work. With them lay the responsibility of data collection which forms the bulk of this work.

Various departments and institutions in the University of Nairobi were also instrumental in the success of this research. I am particularly thankful to the Finance Department staff for their understanding cooperation in providing research funds at appropriate times on demand. Also useful were the staff of the Gandhi Memorial Library and of the Institute for Development Studies Library for their guidance in getting the relevant reading material here and from libraries elsewhere. I owe a special debt of gratitude to members of staff of the Department of Geography for creating an atmosphere conducive to work. Thanks are due particularly to my supervisors, Professor S.H. Ominde and Mr. J.N. Muinde for their keen interest in my work and constructive criticisms which went along way in improving the work. I am indebted to Miss Jane A. Miduda and Mr. S. Mbugua for drawing several maps in addition to giving cartographic advice. Also to Mrs. Maria Nyawade for typing the thesis.

Last of all, I am thankful to all friends

and relatives for their constant encouragement in my undertakings. To my mother, wife and children whose warmth and understanding co-operation enabled me to accomplish this work.

To acknowledge the generous help received from the foregoing is not to suggest that any of them are responsible for the shortcomings of the finished product. For whatever errors there may be in either fact or analysis the author alone is responsible.

CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AREA

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AREA

Geographical Background

Kisumu town is the biggest urban centre in the whole of Western Kenya. Situated at the head of Winam Gulf of Lake Victoria the town rises gradually from about 1131 metres (3,720 feet) on the lake shore to over 1170 metres (3,850 feet) in the southern residential area and to no more than 1186 metres (3,900 feet) in the north-eastern residential area.¹ It stands on a downfaulted lava ridge in the floor of the Nyanza Rift Valley which extends some 129 kilometers (80 miles) from the lake until it is concealed beneath the volcanic outpourings of Tinderet Hills to the north-east.

Ominde states that the human geography of Western Kenya (Kisumu's sphere of influence) may be best understood against a background of five main physiographic units into which the area can be divided. These include the Elgon Mass, the Northern Plateau, the Southern Plateau, Kisii Highlands, and the Nyanza Rift Zone with its associated lowlands.² Probability of rainfall ranges from a mean annual of 875 millimeters (35 inches) in the lowest parts in the Nyanza Rift Zone and associated lowlands to just over 1,250 millimeters (50 inches) in the highest parts in

19 years out of 20. A well known fact is that the higher the rainfall amounts the greater the reliability in terms of its fall and duration (Fig. 1). These rainfall differentials are well translated into the agricultural activity and returns in different parts of the region; the end-products often rank as causes of out-migration from Western Kenya to Kisumu town as to other towns and rural parts of Kenya.

Administratively, the region formed Nyanza Province from 1910 until the definition of new boundaries in 1962. As Fearn suggests, the (defunct) Province derives its geographical unity from the structural history of the lake plateau and from the climatic pattern due to the influence of Lake Victoria especially in the distribution of rainfall.³ It is this unity on which the concept of "Kisumu Region" is based in this work since despite subdivision of Nyanza into relatively cultural provinces of Nyanza and Western respectively, Kisumu remains the focus of commercial, industrial and transport system.

A variety in the pedology and economic activities of the two dominant ethnic groups here, the Nilotic Luo and the Bantu peoples, has been identified by Allan:

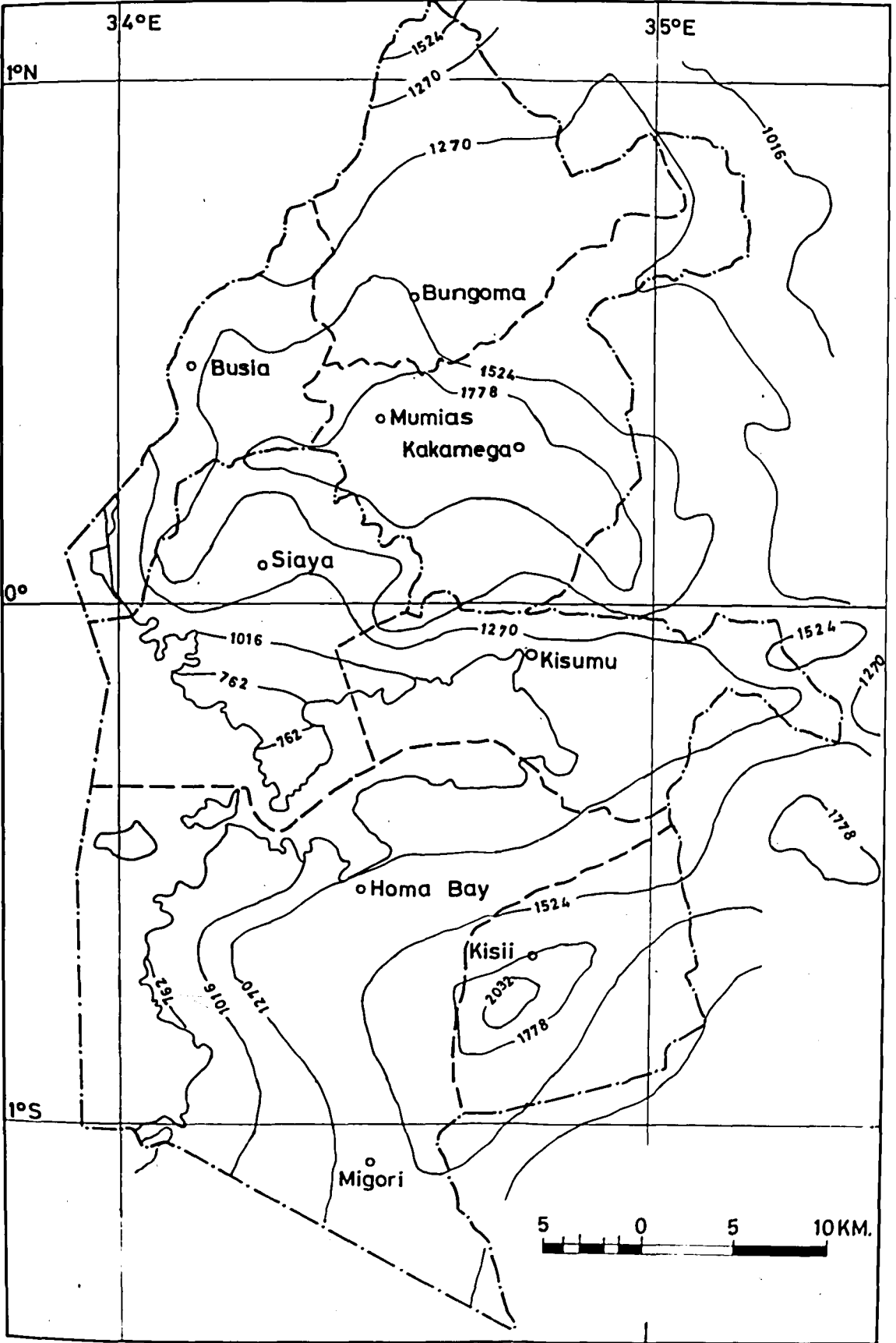


FIG.1 MEAN ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE KISUMU REGION

"The Nilotic Luo have, on the whole, the worst of the land, the poorer and drier parts, while the Kavirondo Bantu and other Bantu peoples occupy the larger and more fertile areas."⁴

Add to this is overstocking which further limits the carrying capacity of land already experiencing population pressure. It is not surprising, therefore, that preservation of environmental quality is at stake because of human cum-animal numbers and that out-migration becomes the most obvious alternative for the people.

The foregoing account helps to portray the background to the physical environment and its effects on human activity in the Kisumu Region. Further, it is possible to note differences in economic activity and life in general between Kisumu town and its immediate migration field.

Demographic Base

The region around Kisumu is peopled by four main ethnic groups, namely, the Nilotic Luo in the three districts of Kisumu, Siaya and South Nyanza; the Bantus, the Kisii and their kin brothers, the Kuria, in Kisii and

South Nyanza districts respectively; and the Luhya in the three districts of Western Province. But it should be realised that although "the word 'Avaluhia' (Abaluhya) meaning 'those of the same tribe' is propagated as a common designation for all Bantu Kavirondo, this creates the problem of the amorphous term 'Abaluhia'",⁵ and some people classified in this group resent their inclusion or even reference to the group. However, for the purpose of this work and as has occurred in all census counts, we prefer to refer to all of them as Luhya. The contiguous peoples belong to the Nilo-Hamitic group, the Nandi in Nandi District and the Kipsigis of Kericho District which was part of Nyanza Province until 1962 when it was transferred to the Rift Valley Province.

There have been three population censuses in Kenya, in 1948, 1962 and 1969 respectively. In all these censuses Kisumu town has maintained its fourth position after Nairobi, Mombasa and Nakuru in that order. (Fig. 2). In 1948 Kisumu recorded a population of 10,899 and in 1962 the population had increased to 32,526, a percentage increase of 113 percent. In the 1969 census it had a total population of 32,431 as compared with 509,286 for Nairobi, 247,073 for Mombasa and 47,151 for Nakuru.⁶ This represents an intercensal increase of 4.6 percent.

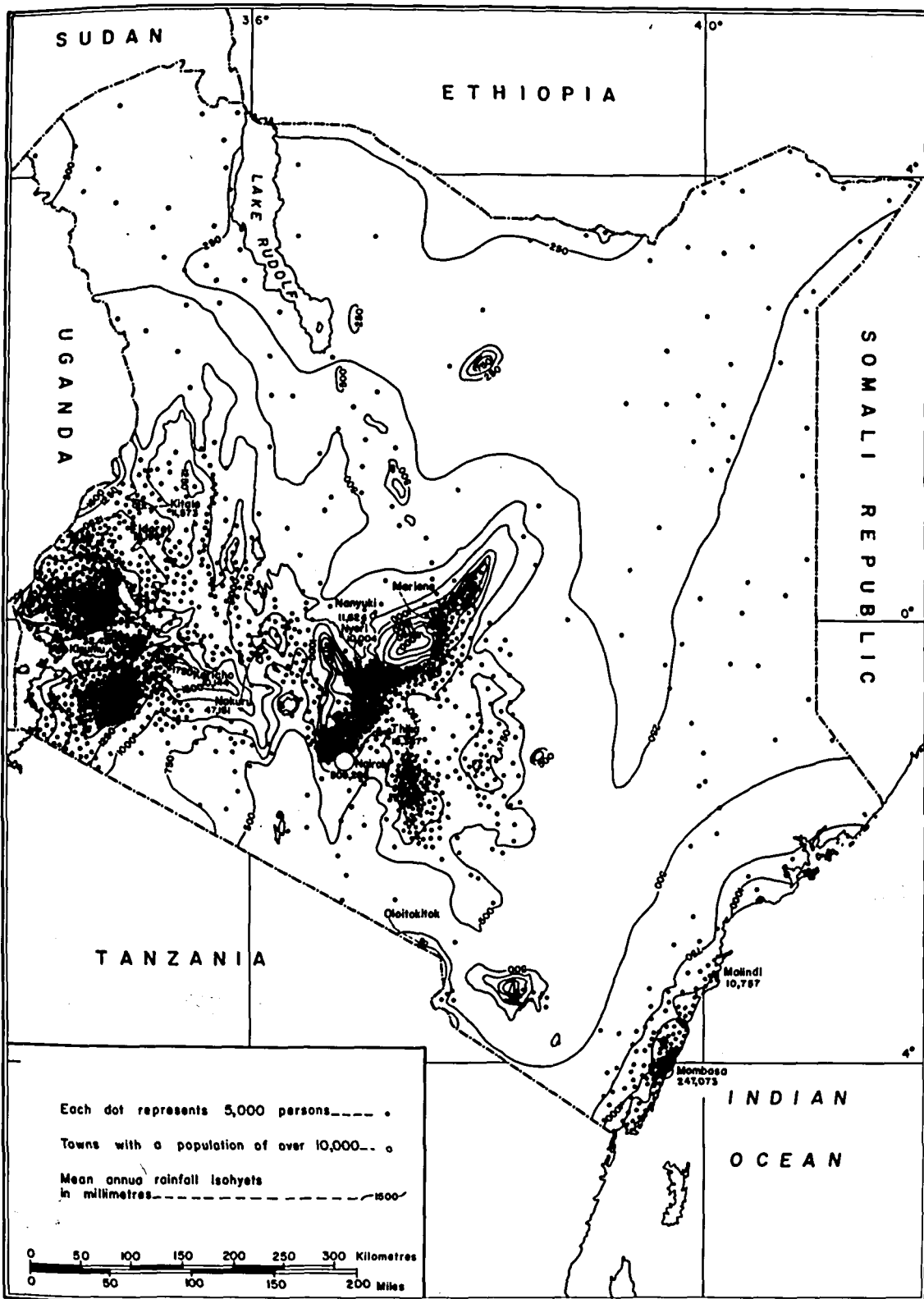


FIG. 2 POPULATION DISTRIBUTION AND RAINFALL IN KENYA

But with the extension of municipal boundaries Kisumu now encompasses a population of approximately 116,600⁷ in an area of 417 square kilometers of which 260 sq. km. is land area,⁸ and ranks third in both area and population to only Nairobi and Mombasa. Thus by the United Nations Population Commission definition, Kisumu ranks as a "city" on equal footing with Mombasa but Nairobi as a "big city". The town serves a population of 3 to 4 million within its sphere of influence in which densities of population are highest in Bunyore and Maragoli locations of Kakamega District. This region is one of the most densely populated parts in East Africa and experiences some of the highest rates of population growth. Also, it is among the most important source-regions of migration in Kenya, migrations which terminate mostly in Nairobi and as far afield as Mombasa. Apart from inferences made from census data regarding internal migration in the country, the role of Kisumu in the context of national and regional migration has not been explicitly discussed. In the light of this, it was thought necessary to probe into this aspect of migration by carrying out a sample survey in which the migration process, migration differentials and certain personal attributes of migrants as well as implications of immigration into Kisumu, are identified and analysed.

The geographical background as well as the demographic base of the Kisumu Region explain environmental hazards to rural economy. It appears that "The considerable out-migration of population which has been noted in the ... regions is thus a response to the attraction of traditional goal areas of labour migration, and to the increasing inability of an area of declining productivity to support the increasing population."⁹ Out-migration looks a rational response to problems in this environment but, unless planned development is fostered, it might have more far-reaching repercussions in the final analysis. Planners underline the key problem in Western Kenya in the terms overpopulation and underdevelopment in the rural areas and a lack of urban employment to absorb the surplus rural population.¹⁰ Overpopulation is intensified, inter alia, by fragmentation of land that is increasingly becoming more scarce for the teeming population; in the lake shores of Lake Victoria the soils are relatively poor and this factor coupled with unreliable rainfall results in too insufficient yields to feed the rapidly increasing population. Underdevelopment is posed by an apparent stagnant economy and lack of modernisation.

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

Migration is a complex phenomenon with both temporal and spatial dimensions. In spatial analysis of towns three aspects are often considered, namely, Central Place Theory, Industrial Location Theory and Migration.¹¹ Regarding migration Morrill states that "Migration is the spatial process which makes possible the redistribution of population. In the early stages of urbanisation, almost the entire population of the new cities must have migrated from rural life."¹² He further considers the pertinent spatial questions to be: How far do migrants move? What kinds of people move? and To what opportunities do they respond? In the context of the phenomenon these are questions about migration and distance, its selectivity or migration differentials and its causes.

A new town such as Kisumu is therefore a healthy ground in which to carry out a migration study since its increasing population is attributed mainly to in-migration from rural parts of Kenya and outside the national boundaries. Its nodality on the Lake Victoria transport system and the lake basin as a whole suggests

its accessibility from the neighbouring states of Tanzania mainland and Uganda.¹³ Problems now posed by migration in Kisumu as in other Kenya towns have their foundations in the colonial rule. The colonial system prepared the ground for large streams of migrants from rural to urban areas but advanced certain misconceptions about African migrants in the towns. It may be true that "what the colonial period achieved was first to create conditions making for free movements of people and secondly, to considerably stimulate these movements. The former it did through establishing a more permanent situation of law and order; the latter through improvements in transportation by rail, road, sea and air."¹⁴

It is plausible that following pacification of Africa and Kenya for that matter, a dual economy comprising the traditional and the modern sectors was created. The modern sector of the economy was confined to a few urban centres and islands of commercialised farming in some rural areas; transportation networks evolved to link these economic core areas; and migrants from poorer rural areas turned to these modern sector nodes by the transportation networks, particularly rail and road. In Kenya volumes of these migration streams have been illustrated along transportation networks by Ominde.¹⁵

Urban development in East Africa dates from late 18th and early 19th centuries in the mainland but was experienced earlier in the coastal belt during Arab and Portuguese exploits. For many years African migrants were regarded as temporary inhabitants of towns where they stayed only as long as their labour remained useful.¹⁶ As such, Africans kept and many still keep abreast of events, ceremonies and life in general in their rural homes where their families lived intact and made only brief visits there periodically. Since Africans in towns were paid meagre wages and were hardly provided with housing, most of them were attracted to the peri-urban areas where they bought land cheaply or secured free land on which they built their houses. This is the more permanent type of migrant encountered in most Kenya towns in that after settlement they were joined by their families and other relatives. Thus arose the "squatter rings" which characterise Kenya towns and which have recently become an integral part of Kisumu town (Fig. 3). With independence of Kenya in 1963 the stringent colonial policy was relaxed for Africans and migration into towns became more of an individual decision than before. Proper assessment of rural-urban migration therefore begins after independence because only then was the mechanism of migration, an

individual's decision to migrate due to economic disequilibrium in the country, and the length of migrants' stay in towns least subjected to governmental intervention. Admittedly target workers were found during colonial times but every aspect of migration was guided by governmental policies to which migrants duly responded. Recently, however, the Kenya Government has been compelled to take drastic decisions in order that the ever increasing floods of rural-urban migrants might be dammed at their rural sources. These include the Vagrancy Act passed by Parliament in 1972 to send back home job seekers and loiterers, the "Go-Back-to-the-Land" call by the President and, of even greater importance, the spatial Regional Physical Planning alongside the Special Rural Development Programme (SRDP). In urban centres these floods of migrants strain the amenities intended for only those already in them. Thus towns contend with such problems as overcrowding as seen in housing, medical and sanitary facilities as well as schools and traffic flows which cumulatively result in deterioration of the human environment.

Theoretical framework of the thesis involves the following:

Objectives

Hypotheses

Definition of certain terms

Objectives

Studies of migration in Kenya have been on a national scale with emphasis on rural-urban and rural-rural migration. This survey is on a micro-scale and has several objectives. In the first place it is intended to gather information for a study of the characteristics of the town's population in greater depth than before. The second objective is to highlight the effects of migratory behaviour on the resource and infrastructural base in and around the town by collecting and analysing demographic, economic and other relevant data. Thirdly, an attempt is made on forward projection of the demographic situation vis-a-vis urban and regional amenities of the town. Comprehensive physical planning of the Kisumu Region is only possible with availability of demographic data and requirements of inhabitants since planning relates to all phases of life. Analysis of the present and future migration plans of migrants and non-migrants, it is hoped, will enhance guided planning of the town by municipal authorities for these two sets of residents. Also, some light has been

cast on adequacy and inadequacy of medical, housing, public transportation, recreation and schools; these facilities and public utilities have been wighted by various personal characteristics of migrants and non-migrants alike.

Research Hypotheses

The main research hypotheses should not be confused with the null and alternative hypotheses tested by chi-square analysis. The latter are summarised in Appendix G.

Since E.G. Ravenstein formulated his "laws of Migration" in the 1880's, there has been a spate of literature to this effect. The so-called laws are actually hypotheses derived from analogues originated from the physical sciences, and adopted in studies in the social sciences, and geography. In this work the hypotheses tested include migration models advanced by social physicists.

It is hypothesised that an individual's decision to migrate is guided by his perceptions and intervening opportunities between the place of origin and the place of destination. This involves the migration

process as well as migration differentials to which a number of variables refer: questions on the migration process which relate to birthplace, home or permanent domicile, length of stay at present residence, number of previous moves, place of previous residence; and questions on attributes of migrants which include ethnic and tribal affiliation, sex, age, economic activity, marital status, education, contact with home area, and environmental conditions.

Besides, two well known social physics models, the gravity model and the potential model, are tested. The potential model is intended to test the hypotheses:

- a) that migration potential depends on the strength of specific complementarities from place to place in people's needs and available opportunities, for example employment;
- b) that people move to a place because perceived opportunities and the place itself attracts them more than any other destination entices them; and
- c) that Kisumu is the migration potential for Western Kenya irrespective of political and ethnic boundaries.

The Gravity Model is intended to test hypotheses relating to mass and distance. For our purpose population is regarded as mass and road distances by the most direct routes used to avoid cumbersomeness in computation of economic and social distances. As Dodd puts it, "Groups of people interact more as they become faster, nearer, larger, and levelled up in activity".¹⁸

While these migration models and other hypotheses improve understanding of spatial interaction of Kisumu with other places urban and rural alike, they form a rather subsidiary aspect of this study. The main focus is on a survey of migrants within Kisumu and whose origins are important in as far as spatial interaction is concerned.

Definition

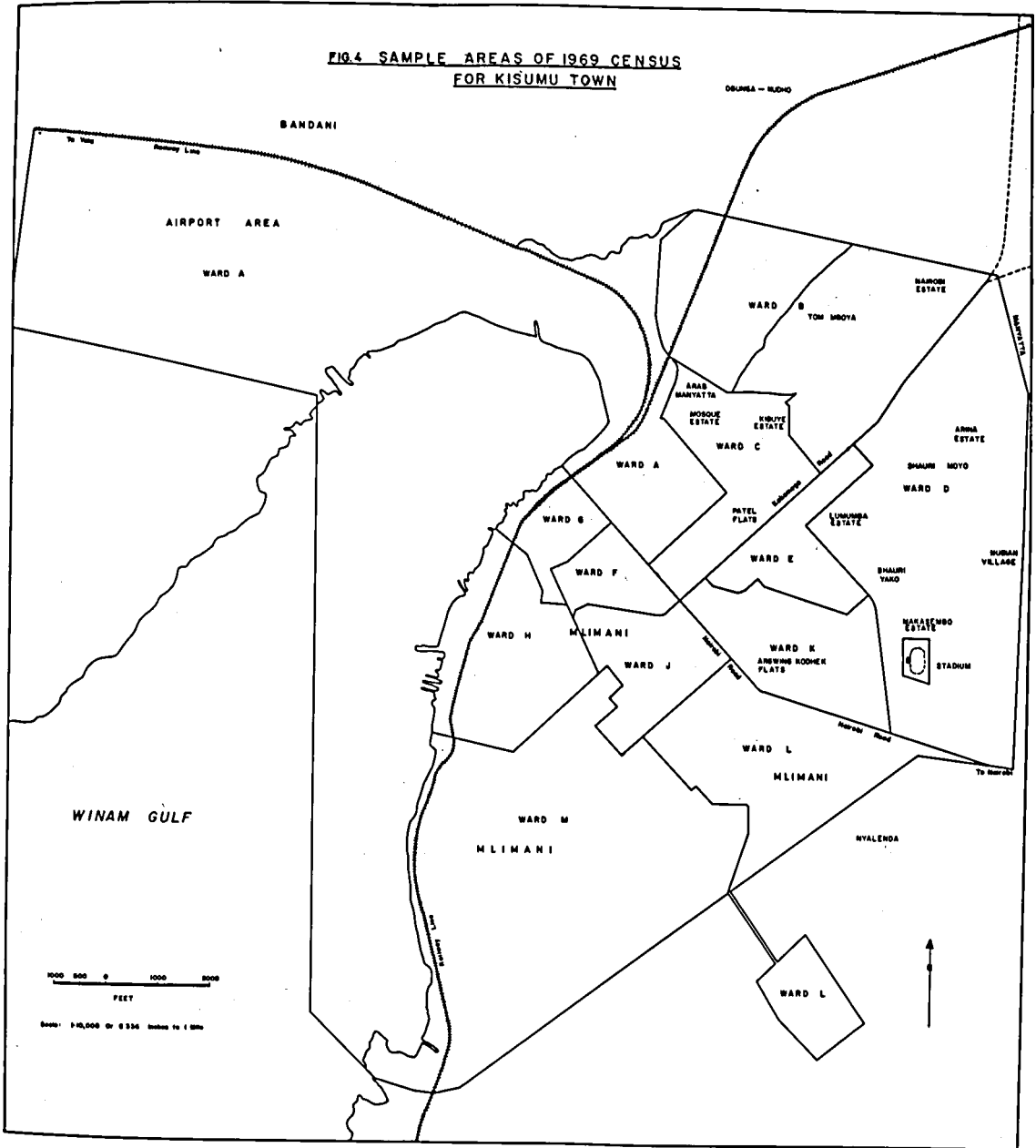
It is necessary to define migration and related concepts as generally known and as applied in this work. The International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences shows that migration comes from the Greek word "migare" which means to change one's residence, but which by current definitions means rather to change one's community.¹⁹ An example is cited that a person who moves

from one home to another in the same neighbourhood and who therefore retains the same social framework is not deemed a migrant.

In practice boundaries must of necessity be set across which one's movement is considered a migration. The above definition may also be refined by adding that a migrant changes residence by intending to stay temporarily or permanently at the new destination. Migrants in Kisumu are those who have traversed long distances or moved short distances only into the defined boundaries of the study area. The latter is the area from which the samples have been drawn and not the old municipal boundaries or the new municipal boundaries enclosing even ruralised parts. (Fig. 4). Furthermore, migrants have been classified as temporary or permanent: those who intend to leave Kisumu at one time and those expecting, after their migration, to live there for good. The index of classification is continued or loss of contact respectively with a (once) rural home. On the one hand non-migrants are those who were born in and who have no home other than Kisumu town. But those born in Kisumu and who will go back to their rural homes are classified as temporary migrants.

Definitions of terms such as marital status,

**FIG. 4 SAMPLE AREAS OF 1969 CENSUS
FOR KISUMU TOWN**



occupational categories, household, age and so on have been outlined in Appendix C.

In the neighbouring sub-locations of Kisumu, Kajulu and Kano locations either within or outside the new municipal boundaries a separate category of people were experienced. These are the commuters who travel daily to and from Kisumu town for work. Most of them ride bicycles and a few go in their own cars or by public buses. Their numbers cannot be ascertained because they were not interviewed as they are not migrant in the right context of the term; even an attempt to interview them would have been futile since all interviews were conducted in the evenings when they were just on their way back home. Inference of this category has been possible by considering the small number of short distance migrants from these sub-locations as against a larger number of those from farther off places such as Nyakach and Seme locations in the same district. A major problem here was the inability of some respondents to indicate that they have been included in the new Kisumu town. This reflects lack of commitment to urban life and suggests continued contact with home area where the age-long modes of life still predominate.

Previous Research and Literature Review

Migration is one of the most complex, albeit highly popular, aspect of population studies. In the developed as in the developing world migration studies have incorporated a wide range of economic, social and political phenomena. A short review of previous research and literature to this end is therefore necessary.

Sweden is an example of a developed country where migration studies have been sophisticated along theoretical as well as empirical lines. Hagerstrand's "Propagation of innovation waves" published in 1952 laid the foundations of theoretical concepts in migration studies in that country. Thus migration has been considered an important element of spatial diffusion which involves not only the flow of goods, information and ideas, but also movements of people. This effort culminated in a symposium on migration within Sweden where several aspects of the phenomenon were examined.²⁰ Developing countries can gain much from this comprehensive work particularly in proper analysis of internal migration. But even more closely related to the present study is the work of Garger, where the picture of migration to Vastervik is depicted through interviewing migrants.²¹ He tested many hypotheses

regarding migration process, migration differentials among others. In many ways this study reinforced the author's aspiration to probe into migration to one of the least studied urban centres of Kenya.

Don and Hovav also made a case study of Or Akiva town in Israel.²² The thesis that "a departure of population is a symptom of an absolute or relative decline in the attraction of the town for its inhabitants, whereas voluntary immigration (in-migration) to it should indicate a rise in such attraction" suggests the need to examine the roles of towns old and new. Kisumu has been dubbed a 'dying town' by many writers without really considering the major reasons for this. Perhaps the present study may reveal the truth or otherwise of this argument.

The Indian Sub-continent is also rich in migration studies. Bombay city has experienced two such studies. The first was by Lakdawala and others in 1963 who made a survey of work, wages and well-being of urbanites in the city.²³ They reached the verdict that analysis of birthplace information can never give a complete picture of population migration and can shed no light on migrants' frequency of movements in a lifetime: thus the volume, sources or direction and nature of migration were considered more important for analysis.

Though an economic survey it was similar in outlook to other migration surveys already mentioned. The second study in Bombay city was by the famous demographer K.C. Zachariah.²⁴ Its major peculiar feature is consideration of return migration in which age-sex characteristics are weighted with visitors to the city, government servants and other workers on transfer of service, unskilled labourers returning home to cultivate farms, retired workers going home, wives and children of low-income workers in the village and unsuccessful job seekers returning home. Returned migrants have not been adequately studied in Kenya and the present survey takes cognizance of this fact.

Latin American studies on migration are numerous. But mention may be made of those in Monterrey and Guatemala city respectively. H.L. Browning and Friendt examined the social and economic context of migration to Monterrey city in Mexico.²⁵ They discussed factors influencing migrants' choice of Monterrey as their destination, composition of the migratory group, and kinds of contact and forms of assistance given to new migrants in settling upon arrival there. The last item is particularly important in a new town such as Kisumu which is situated in the heart of one of the most

important out-migration regions of Kenya. In Guatemala, Thomas analysed the migration system of Guatemala city.²⁶ He focussed on two aspects of the migration system: identifying the generating centres of the migrant population, and analysing and explaining the spatial variation in out-migration. Hypotheses were tested about the relationship between the total population of origins of migration and the migrant population, and between migration and highway distances and so on.

Migration has been called the cinderella of population studies in the African continent. The study of modernisation in Sierra Leone by Riddel is one illustrative case. Riddel tests such models as the "bright light" theory of Johnson where it is argued that the African migrant was not acting solely in response to economic forces, but that he (the African migrant) continued to be drawn to the bright lights of the cities despite poor housing or job opportunities, while economic and social improvements in the rural home areas seem to have acted as a stimulus to urban migration.²⁷ It is necessary to examine the validity of Riddel's argument that improvements in the rural areas and provincial towns will not stem the flow, but serve to increase it. Also, Harvey has studied the implications of migration to

Freetown.²⁸ This is a very interesting analysis of the demand posed by migrants on housing and occupation in the urban centre. Yet one of its main weaknesses is the lack of methodological framework on which analysis rests.

In the East African environment most migration studies deviate from the foregoing in that they have been based on census data.^{29,30,31,32} The only study of migration to a single urban centre is that by Hirst.³³ But since Bukoba is a much smaller town than Kisumu a lot more detail was avoided by analysing only a few demographic variables. This study was of experimental nature and did not integrate other phenomena related with migration. However, the questionnaire used formed an important basis of the present study's questionnaire design particularly because of environmental similarity of the two towns. In Kenya the pioneering work of Ominde besides his numerous publications have detailed analysis of internal migration in both rural-rural and rural-urban contexts. Also, the study of modernisation in Kenya is a useful complement to Ominde's work.³⁴ Soja considers rural-urban migration as a significant element in spatial interaction and spatial diffusion by which process modes of modernisation are transferred from urban centres (innovators of socio-economic change) to rural areas.

Another work is by Rempel, Harris and Todaro regarding rural-to-urban labour migration to eight major urban centres of Kenya, namely, Nairobi, Mombasa, Kisumu, Nakuru, Eldoret, Thika, Nanyuki and Nyeri.³⁵ All these studies have properly explained the situation in Kenya on a national scale; but they have not explicitly studied migrants within a particular urban centre in order to put the town in the right hierarchy of spatial interaction.

It has been argued that migration studies should be integrated with other phenomena closely connected with them. For example Waller and others have studied basic features of planning in the region around Kisumu.³⁶ The most important contribution of this work is the classification of regions on demographic and developmental potentials and man's reaction to the environmental constraints. The latter human behaviour has been discussed by Ominde and Odingo in an attempt to translate Waller and others' work into demographic aspects of regional inequalities in Kenya.³⁷

Scope and Limitations

The foregoing review of previous research and literature on migration has been necessary in order

to understand the scope and limitations of the present study. It is important to bear in mind that this study is the first of its kind in Kenya and the second in East Africa. It differs slightly from the Bukoba survey in that both demographic and non-demographic data were collected. That it is more closely connected with the Vastervik study has been alluded to earlier.

The present study may also be regarded as a prelude to yet a more comprehensive research to be carried out by different scholars representing various disciplines. This team of experts expects to probe into all aspects of migration over a two-year period in the whole area of the new Municipality of Kisumu.³⁸ This multi-purpose survey will also yield information from those rural areas renown for increasing out-migration in order to analyse the situation of potential and returned migrants as well as non-migrants. Fig. 4 demonstrates the scope and limitations of the present survey on which the foregoing, however, will have to depend.

Fieldwork was spread over a period of one year with systematic deliberations at specific times. The actual data collection was conducted during the April-June period of 1973. It was thought that a mid-year survey would be most appropriate for conclusive

analysis of a whole year's population characteristics. Respondents were only those aged 15 years and above so that children below that age limit were ignored. The main reason for this was that interviews were intended for heads of families or youth entering the lower age limit of those most prone to migration.

Therefore the main source of data in this study was responses to the questionnaire. Other sources were the Municipality of Kisumu records, library research, census data and other relevant publications. Proper synthesis of all these culminated in producing this work.

OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

This section highlights what has been covered in the rest four chapters. It has been necessary to explain the geographical and demographic backgrounds of Kisumu town and region in order to appreciate this study. Also, the nature of the problem is examined in terms of objectives, hypotheses, definition of some concepts, review of previous research and other relevant literature, and the scope and limitations of the study.

Chapter II deals with Methodology and Data

collection. Data collection techniques adopted in this study are compared and contrasted with others which could be used. Also, sampling design is described in the context of appropriate sampling methods and sampling frame from which the sample size was drawn. The whole process of enumeration is then explained.

Methods of analysis are considered within the framework of data processing procedure as well as the chi-square (χ^2) test used for testing certain hypotheses.

Chapters III and IV analyse survey data per se. Tabular presentation of results has largely been used to express two forms of analysis. The majority of tables show frequencies of responses as recorded in the survey. But a few tables are compiled from chi-square analysis of some variables. This non-parametric test was favoured because there was need to test some hypotheses based on the observed and expected frequencies.

In Chapter III migration differentials have been discussed. These are based on responses to questions about ethnic and tribal affiliation, sex, age, marital status, educational attainment, economic activity and environmental perceptions of migrants. Thus analysis of personal attributes of migrants facilitates understanding of migration selectivity from the population at risk of

migration.

Chapter IV concerns the spatial migration system of Kisumu town. Basically this relates to analysis of the migration process which includes, inter alia, birthplaces and homes (permanent domicile) as well as mobility characteristics of migrants. Emphasis is placed on two poles of spatial migration system, namely, national and regional scales. A classification of migrants is made in order to consider the place of migration in urban and regional planning of Kisumu.

Chapter V covers the impact of migration on planning in the metropolitan region of Kisumu. Delimitation of the region on the basis of various indices is discussed. Given that the Kisumu Region is a "downward transitional" region whose developmental burdens are alleviated only by out-migration, it is necessary to examine the role that could be played by spatial physical planning and rural development programmes.

Chapter VI is a summary of and conclusions to the whole thesis. Furthermore, suggestions are made about potential fields of study to explore in future researches which have bearing on the present study. Only that way can such a complex phenomenon as migration be more closely examined.

Several appendices have been mounted to vivify a few things touched upon in the study. They should be considered an integral part of the study and should be referred to whenever necessary.

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CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

In the previous chapter it has been stated that the new Municipality of Kisumu is considerably a large area with an interesting dichotomy. (See Fig. 3). On the one hand, there is the urban core which includes the old town boundaries and the former peri-urban areas. The latter comprise stratum C in our samples: Nyalenda, Bandani, Obunga-Kudho, Nairobi and Manyatta and others. On the other hand, there is the adjoining agricultural and predominantly traditional rural areas which have been incorporated into the new town, but which contrast sharply with an urban community in terms of demographic, economic and social characteristics. Large and relatively heterogeneous as the town is, it was necessary to adopt the most economical yet appropriate means of eliciting information from the respondents. This Chapter therefore focuses attention on data collection instruments, sampling design, enumeration and methods of analysis, all of which blend into the methodological framework. But a post-survey evaluation of the questionnaire has been included in Appendix B in order to assess the viability of the survey.

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Harvey argues that data collection amounts to a set of rules for construction and filling some sort of data matrix, the latter refers to individuals which may be objects or events and to various observations made on the attributes of those matrices.¹ Techniques of data collection vary from one discipline as from one problem at hand to another and judicious judgement is necessary on the part of the researcher. In this section brief mention is made of various techniques of collecting primary data in order to justify preference to the one adopted in this survey. The prominent ones are census counts, mail questionnaires and direct interviewing.

Census Counts

The 1969 census data would make useful contribution to a survey such as the present one particularly if the objective was a follow up study. While this was not the main objective of the survey, it has been necessary to treat the census data as the basis of comparing and contrasting some population characteristics. Since this census boundaries of enumeration

areas within Kisumu town have so far been modified. Moreover, such shifts of population as have occurred in the process of extending the municipal boundaries created further complications in utilising the 1969 data. Fig. 4 shows the sample areas covered in the survey. * Samples were drawn from all electoral wards in the town.

Mail Questionnaire

This involves postage of printed questionnaire to respondents chosen according to a specified design. Respondents have only to read the accompanying instructions, answer the questions and post the questionnaire back to the researcher. Owing to its many demerits and taking into account the low level of education of most respondents in the town, it was expedient to avoid this technique of data collection. Moreover, mail questionnaire have been rarely used in places where direct interviewing would be most fitting in the final analysis. The major demerits which rendered the technique unsuccessful were: the difficulty of re-checking contradictory responses to different but largely related questions; inconvenience of the method particularly where spontaneous answers are wanted; the respondent's prerogative to disregard the sequence of answering questions

and to deliberately avoid some searching questions; the difficulty of ensuring that all questions in the questionnaire sheet are answered properly; limited or no chance of supplementing the respondent's answer so as to tally with observational data; non-response and so on.² Another shortcoming of this technique is that since a substantial proportion of the town's population as of other towns in the country is either illiterate or semi-literate, they would not stand the test of rigorous interpretation of questions. This would undermine keenness that is demanded in answering the questions and would eventually result in non-returns of the questionnaire sheets.

Interviewing

This technique was preferred to the foregoing two. Its commendable attributes include the high probability of eliciting response, minimal non-response since recalls can be made where a prospective respondent is found absent or busy during the first call, and the advantage of coming to grips with not only the problem at hand but also the atmosphere within which it is being conducted. In other words, the technique is adaptable

to the prevailing circumstances. Sometimes urbanites are too suspicious of or too sensitive to interviews especially when these hinge on such personal characteristics as age, sex, education, record of mobility, previous residence and reasons for migration to the present residence. However, by adopting a system of scaling responses, the author solved the onerous problem for enumerators of rationally ascertaining the validity and reliability of respondents' answers (see Appendix B). But even interviewing has such weaknesses as interviewer bias if he has the option to interview at his own will those encountered in a survey. The other is the tendency for respondents to answer incorrectly in order to dispose of interviewers who might be interfering with some of their undertakings. Conversely, the technique enables enumerators to probe into questions that are vague to respondents, to check contradictory answers on the spot and to reinterview doubtful cases as well as completing inadequate information. It is for the latter set of reasons that interviewing was considered superior to other data collection instruments. This primary source of data was a most vital supplement to secondary sources such as the municipality records, library research and other publications.

PRETESTING OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND PILOT STUDIES

Migration surveys reviewed in the previous chapter vary more in objectives than in procedure of approach and methods of analysis. Before the actual survey took off, it was important to make a few pre-survey arrangements which were vital for its success.

First, a visit was made to the town specifically for testing questions in different parts of the town from which samples were drawn later. This was aimed at assessing respondents' understanding of questions, duration of interviewing people with different attributes and of different backgrounds, repercussions of some questions which appeared too searching and likely to antagonise respondents and like features. This was followed by a discussion of the findings with the author's supervisors and other colleagues in the form of a seminar.

Experience gained in this pretesting period in Kisumu revealed certain weaknesses which were corrected before the final draft of the questionnaire was made. Also, it marked the end of an important phase in the project thus paving the way for arrangements relating to fieldwork. In several ways pretesting dispelled one major fear, namely, the possibility of the survey failing

to satisfy its main objectives. Another source of fear, was a recent announcement of General Elections in 1974 which would intensify respondents' suspicion of the survey and misinterpretation of it as a political exercise. But all those interviewed at this phase were very co-operative and some even suggested the most effective ways of formulating and putting across certain questions. However, not all of the suggestions influenced corrections of questions. The most popular item of the questionnaire was "environmental conditions" in which adequacy or inadequacy of certain facilities in the town, among other things, was asked. (see Appendix B).

The second aspect of pre-survey arrangements was pilot studies in the town. Despite the fact that the author knew the town well and only a year ago had conducted a research therein, it was still necessary to make pilot studies. Since the present study differed significantly from the previous one it was assumed that knowledge of the town was in itself inadequate, irrelevant in the context of the present study, and likely to yield irrational assumptions about the universe from which the sample was to be drawn. Reasons for pilot studies included the need for the latest information about housing units in the town both on maps and on the ground; an attempt to

ascertain different urban characteristics that would be considered in drawing samples; the need to acquaint myself with Municipal officers and administration of the town at large in order to plan effective strategies for fieldwork; and observations on momentary influx of migrants particularly school pupils and holiday makers either staying in the town or on transit to other destinations.

The second facet of pre-survey arrangements was important in other ways. It produced information about major employers' muster rolls, population data for different wards of the town, distribution and composition of housing units on which the sampling design was conclusively based. Even more important was revelation of demographic realities of the town which had only been postulated hitherto.

It may be seen that this phase was an inevitable prelude to the sampling design which would be impossible without a sample frame. Complete census in the town would have been not only a duplication of the 1969 census, but would have not probed deeper into demographic and other data about migrants.

SAMPLING DESIGN

The most objective procedure adopted in this study is probability sampling. This refers to "a formal procedure for selecting one or more samples from the population in such a manner that each individual or sampling unit has a known chance of appearing in the sample".³ In geography probabilistic spatial sampling is very important and may take one of the three forms, points, lines (traverses) and areas (quadrats). All sampling methods were critically considered but only two proved useful in the present study.

The more commonly used sampling methods include simple random, stratified random, systematic, cluster and quota. Only stratified and systematic random sampling techniques were adopted in this study. While the random element is common to both, they have certain discrepancies which merit clarification.

Stratified Random Sampling.

The town was divided into three strata, A, B and C on the basis of house rent as well as occupancy rates of housing units. This will be discussed fully in the next section of this chapter. Thus in

terms of the two indices the three strata consisted of "high", "medium" and "low" rent rates respectively, and "low", "medium" and "high" density respectively. (see all the plates illustrating different sample areas).

This technique was favoured because of three reasons. First, its administrative convenience facilitated supervision of sampling units which comprised each strata; in the context of our design these units were dwellings or housing units in different housing estates of the town. Even enumerators found it relatively easy to proceed with enumeration and to make recalls and other follow-up work during the survey. Secondly, stratification often enhances greater precision of estimates of the entire population since it is based on certain realistic differences between the strata. Migrants of various educational, income and occupational categories were here regarded to occupy corresponding housing units in different strata. Thirdly, the strata manifest differential attributes of the social structure of the population which in turn reflects differences in demographic variables.



PLATE 1 AN OLD HOUSING UNIT IN MLIMANI ESTATE. This is actually a home as can be explained by such features as the fence, sign post bearing the occupant's name and a single road leading to it.



PLATE 2 AN ULTRA-MODERN HOUSING UNIT IN MLIMANI ESTATE. This house is typical of the low density areas where high class people in the town reside. On the right is the car 'banda' in which the occupant's car is parked.



PLATE 3 PATEL FLATS IN KISUMU. These are predominantly Asian residential areas though recently a few Africans have come in. M

Mary

Systematic Sampling

Although stratification was applied for the entire town, some further refinement was necessary in stratum C where the sampling units, due to their temporary nature and former peri-urban situation, had never been mapped. Only recently did these estates become part of the municipality but they do not as yet enjoy most of the public utilities and facilities provided by the administrative authority. In fact, they are at best ambidextrous: on the one hand, they claim membership of the municipality by virtue of their inclusion in the new town; on the other, they are under the local authority, the County Council of Kisumu. Gregory shows that "By this (systematic sampling) is meant that items are picked at some regular interval, e.g. every 10th item on a list; every 20th grid square; every 100th line across a map."⁴ It may be argued that this technique was merely intended to systematise enumerating the sampling units in strata C. Every nth dwelling was enumerated in order to adopt uniform sampling fraction as in mapped parts of strata A and B where stratified random sampling was applied. In the latter two the housing units to interview were selected on the basis of random numbers, the first 25



PLATE 4 A HOUSING UNIT IN ONDIEK ESTATE OCCUPIED BY A MIDDLE INCOME EARNER. The occupants are in the house but the main door is left open apparently to keep watch on the car parked in front of the house. The house number on top of the door, R2/205 was invaluable for sampling purposes.

per cent being included "without replacement". In cases where there were no records pertaining to the exact number of housing units, rough estimates were made from which samples were drawn. It should be emphasised that stratum C has the highest proportion of Kisumu's population and that it is the least endowed with amenities.

Sampling Frame

In order to draw samples we require some sort of sampling frame which locates the individuals in the population. Sampling frames that could be used included, inter alia, registers of electors, taxpayers and tenants renting housing units; air photographs; a list of individuals; or housing units.

Since migration is a stochastic process it was decided to confine the sampling frame to those housing estates which had equal probabilities of being rented by all migrants. This meant exclusion of institutional houses owned by schools, companies, statutory bodies, government, the East African Community bodies and those reserved exclusively for municipal employees. In the context of employer typology used in this study these include those housing units exclusively occupied by

employees of the Government of Kenya (GK); Municipal Council of Kisumu (MCK); the East African Community institutions (EAC) such as the East African Posts and Telecommunications, the East African Civil Aviation and others; the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and so on. The thesis advanced here is that since such housing units are occupied by employed people only, they are biased in the category of migrants. Moreover, little or no data may exist about unemployment and underemployment especially for heads of households who have to be interviewed. All respondents would be employees from one and the same body who migrated to Kisumu due to hardly different reasons.

Another reason for this choice of sampling frame was that other alternative sampling frames were generally inaccurate, incomplete, subject to duplication, inadequate and out of date.⁵ Migratory behaviour is commonplace and frames referring to three or so years past were likely to suffer from these deficiencies.

Sampling frame adopted therefore consisted of lists of dwellings open to rent by all migrants whether as individuals or as a group of employees housed in one zone for the convenience of the renting employer, or body, Thus in some estates a number of houses were



PLATE 5 CHILDREN PLAYING INFRONT OF A HOUSING UNIT AT ONDIEK ESTATE. This suggests inter-family contact as children from different families meet at one point to play.

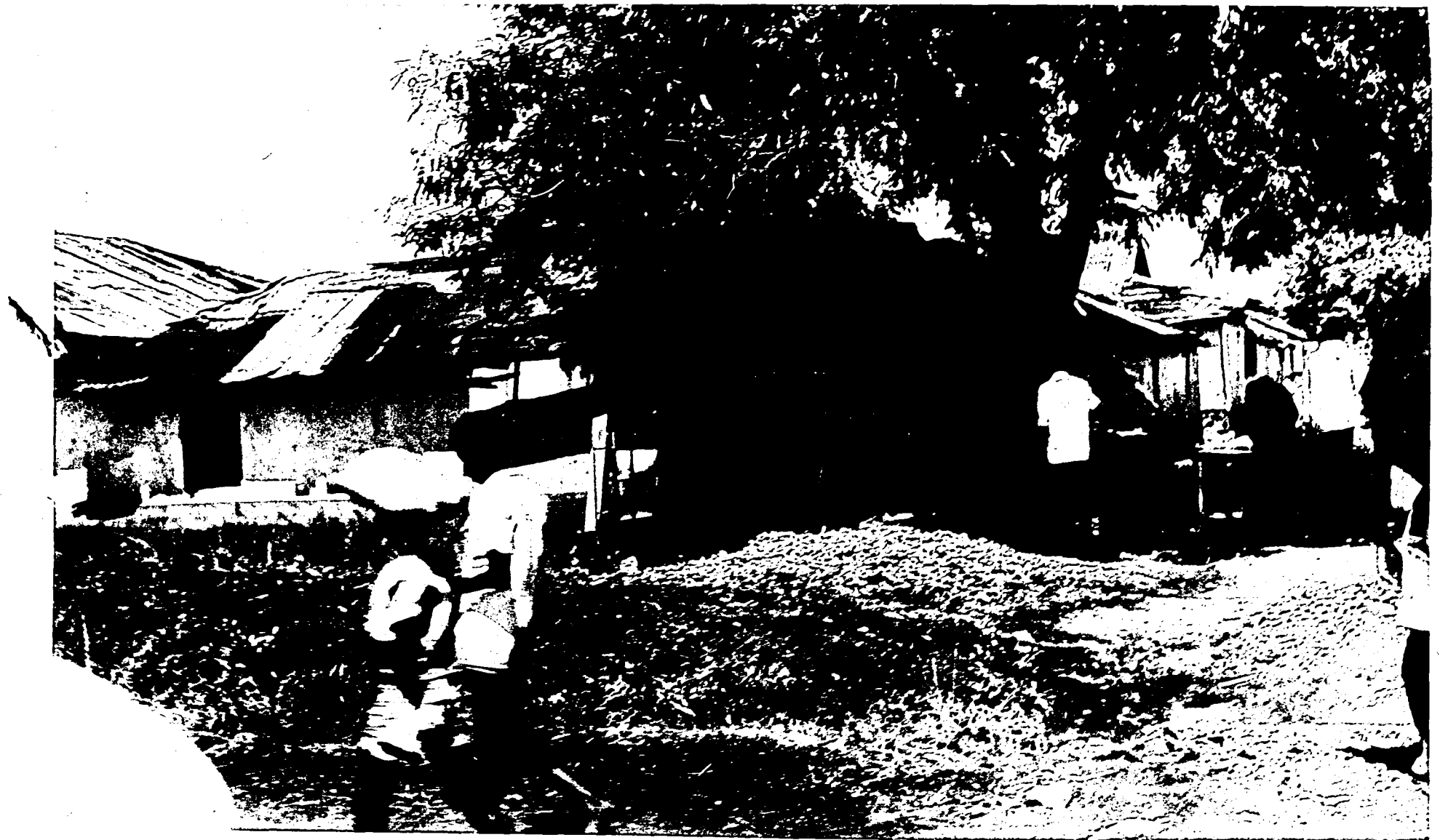


PLATE 6 SOME HOUSES TYPICAL OF KALOLENI ESTATE IN KISUMU. The appearance of corrugated iron sheets on the roof suggests that this is an old slum. Three gentlemen can be seen busy at woodwork in which they make furniture for sale in order to supplement their meagre incomes.



PLATE 7 ONE OF THE MORE DECENT HOUSES IN KALOLENI ESTATE. The pile of charcoal bags outside the house belongs to the occupant who sells them to supplement his income. On the left is the man's wife who makes local porridge ("Uji") to sell to customers. This way the family meets the requirements of urban life.

found to be rented by the East African Posts and Telecommunications; this is very different from the East African Railways Corporation quarters at Obaria, Mlimani, near Argwings Kodhek Flats intended specifically for rail workers. While sampling frames consisted of housing estates, sampling units were the housing units in them. An aggregate of 20 housing estates called sample areas in this study, was finally selected from which some 696 (25.0 per cent of the total universe) housing units were to be covered (Table I.1). Table I.2 shows the proportion of successful interviews (responses) and non-responses (refusals and those found away). The assumption that one dwelling unit was occupied by one head of household was found to be untrue as occupancy rates differed considerably in various parts of the town; households ranged from one nuclear family to several households under one roof. (see Appendix C for the definition of a household).

Sampling units in strata A and B respectively were drawn from six housing estates each by the help of random numbers. Those in strata C were drawn after making reconnaissance surveys of each of the eight housing estates. Both the author as supervisor of the survey and the enumerators visited the estates in question together just before the survey started. These two different procedures



PLATE 8 RAILWAY QUARTERS ADJACENT TO MLIMANI AREA IN KISUMU. These are occupied exclusively by the East African Railways Corporation employees. In the immediate background is the lake and the new industrial area. On the far background can be seen the Kisian range and Maseno and Bunyore hills.

demonstrate the diversity of the sampling units and demographic differences expected from them. Yet housing units constituted the most appropriate of all other sampling frames that could be used.

Sample Size

Sample size was based on the principle of uniform sampling fraction for all the sampling units. From a universe of 2,779 a total sample size of 696 (25.1 per cent) was drawn out of which 568 (81.6 per cent) successful interviews and only 128 (18.4 per cent) non-responses (refusals and those found away) were reported.

One striking feature is the negligible variation of sampling fractions from the mean sampling fraction for all samples (see Table I.1). The main advantage of this principle is elimination of such errors as are experienced in fluctuations in samples with variable sampling fractions. Also, it keeps constant the proportion of sampled population for all the sampling units thereby making the samples representative of their respective universe.

The samples so drawn are used to infer attributes of the entire universe. In a pioneering study

of this nature sampling design is an important basis for similar or slightly modified surveys at some future date.

ENUMERATION

Enumeration was a vital stage subsequent to the sampling design. While this is fully explained in Appendix C brief mention may be made of enumerators and the sequence of enumeration.

Enumerators

Enumerators were selected, trained and equipped with kit necessary for the survey work immediately before the actual survey began. In all, six male enumerators were selected on the basis of several requirements: proper knowledge of Kisumu town, ability to speak Luo, Swahili and English Languages fluently and ability to find accommodation from friends or relatives during the survey period. Luo is the language of the Luo, the predominant tribal group in the town. Swahili is generally preferred by non-Luo speakers particularly the Bantu group as well as little educated foreign ethnic groups especially the Asian or Arab shop-keepers and businessmen.

English is spoken not only by the foregoing, but also by foreigners professed in neither Luo nor Swahili. Questionnaire was, of necessity, translated into the three languages. See Appendices B and C for the questionnaire design and for definition of some terms. Enumerators were instructed to ask respondents to choose the language in which to be interviewed. But for consistency sake all responses were marked in the English translation of the questionnaire.

Training enumerators lasted for a week after which period a couple of days were spent in conducting pilot interviews in different housing estates in the town. This was confined to the sampling units not included in the sample so as to avoid duplication when the real survey got under way. After all this enumerators met with the supervisor to discuss their findings and to agree on certain aspects of uniform coverage of enumeration. No spectacular problems were encountered at this stage and within a much shorter period than originally scheduled the enumerators had grasped the necessary instructions. The interviewer's manual used for training enumerators is given in Appendix C.

Sequence of Enumeration

The internal structure of Kisumu town, like that of all other towns, varies from urban residential blights such as Kaloleni and Arab Manyatta to the new and ultra-modern housing estates such as Tom Mboya. It would have been unfair to subject enumerators to one such conditions throughout the survey; enumerators working in urban blights would naturally lack enthusiasm while those in better parts would be over-enthusiastic in their work. These two extremes would result in a lot of enumeration bias besides other problems. For this reason as for others all enumerators simultaneously worked from one sample area to the other each visiting only specified housing units. Thus enumerators were able to discuss general and particular problems experienced in each sample area in order to find a meaningful solution. Each morning completed forms were handed in to the supervisor for his perusal. Sometimes such inadequacies as careless work, incomplete coverage and inconsistency were detected and enumerator(s) in question requested to reinterview. It was interesting to note that within a few weeks of the survey enumerators had developed certain crude demographic ideas about the town. If enumerators had been confined to specific

sample area(s), their findings would be axiomatically accepted even though they might have cheated. When interviews were in progress the supervisor went round to check on whether the survey was being done properly and to help in solving problems beyond the scope of enumerators.

Apart from Mlimani housing estate where the highest number of non-response was reported all other sample areas had a good standard of response to the questionnaire. Another slightly problematic area was Obunga-Kudho where some respondents stated they had very remote connections with the municipal administration. Such problems, however, are characteristic of all social surveys. The negligible proportion of refusals (7.5 per cent of total) reflects the dependability of data collected for analysis (see Table I.2). Enumeration was generally smooth and no strange incidents were reported by either enumerators or respondents.

METHODS OF ANALYSIS

This section considers data processing procedure as well as quantitative methods of analysis used in reaching objective conclusions. It highlights

the method of approach adopted after applying methodology of data collection and following successful storage of data.

Data Processing

Three stages are involved in data processing, namely, editing, coding and tabulation.⁶ It should be pointed out at the outset that all these stages were done mechanically by the author in the light of too high expenses quoted for coding, punching and computerisation. Though this was a laborious task hardly devoid of mistakes inherent in analysis, it was the only alternative to the foregoing. Moreover, familiarity with characteristics of the data enabled the author to correct mistakes which would have been merely punched by card punchers who knew nothing of these characteristics.

Editing.

It is stated in Appendix C that enumerators met the supervisor at 9.00 a.m. every morning to return completed questionnaires and to discuss certain data characteristics. In the process quick editing of data

resulted. Even after the departure of enumerators each day the supervisor made further editing of questionnaire as to their completeness, accuracy and uniformity. As has been pointed out before doubtful cases were referred to enumerator(s) concerned.

Coding

The concept of coding is largely a process of translating word classifications into numbers so that it is feasible to transfer information on the questionnaires to a card or other record for tabulation.⁷ In this study since the whole data processing was done mechanically coding involved transferring information to records rather than cards. Two separate systems of coding were adopted. In the first place questions were precoded by indicating all the possible responses next to the corresponding question. This facilitated fairly quick interviews. Later when the survey had been completed another coding procedure was used in order to identify variables that were used in tabulations and other analyses. Thus it is important to differentiate between the two systems of coding used in this study. This stage of data processing required much keenness and concentration so as to check

consistency and proper interpretation of questions by respondents.

Tabulations

It was necessary to execute some judgement in the number of tabulations. Naturally tables which were lastly adopted were selected from an immense assemblage of simple and cross tabulations of a total of 52 variables. Whereas most of the tables present the results of the survey and are basically descriptive, a few of them are highly analytical of these results.

The first set of tabulations show frequencies and percentages of single and cross-tabulated variables. The second set are prepared from computations of chi-square (χ^2) test. Both the electronic FACIT desk calculator and the Friden 1152 Programmable Printing calculator were used for compiling the tables.

Quantitative Methods

Data in this study have been analysed by statistical methods both descriptive and inferential. The method of analysis therefore differs significantly

from the predominantly intuitive approach which has characterised social researches for many years in Kenya. The form of inferential statistics used in this study is chi-square (X^2), one of the non-parametric statistics.⁸

Chi-square Test and Hypotheses Testing

Chi-square test is generally used to test hypotheses involving either one-sample test or two independent samples for K independent variables. Siegel states that the "technique is of the goodness-of-fit type in that it may be used to test whether a significant difference exists between an observed number and an expected number based on the null hypothesis".⁹ Therefore the test has been widely used in migration surveys where the observed samples are used to compute expected cases in order to test some hypotheses.

Procedure of computing X^2 test involves four major stages: stating the null hypothesis (H_0) as well as the alternative hypothesis (H_1); choosing appropriate level(s) of significance (α) at which hypotheses are tested; stating the degrees of freedom (d.f. or v); and making a conclusion on the result got from the calculated X^2 as compared to probability X^2 estimates at different levels of significance. The formal way of

conclusion must be understood: the H_0 may not be rejected (or accepted) when the calculated X^2 is equal to or less than the probability X^2 at a specified level of significance and may be rejected (or H_1 accepted) when the calculated X^2 is the greater of the two.

Hypotheses in the present study have been tested at both .05 (5 per cent) and .01 (1 per cent) levels of significance.^{10,11} This means that decisions are made with 95 per cent and 99 per cent levels of confidence respectively. These hypotheses reinforce conclusions made on the migration process as well as migration differentials. Only results found to be significant at the stated levels have been included.

In summary, the foregoing section explains the methodological groundwork on which the whole research programme rests. Every stage in data collection, sampling design, enumeration and methods of analysis depends on sound judgement from several alternatives.

Evaluation of the questionnaire after completion of the survey is equally important. It analyses the validity as well as viability of the questionnaire schedule as a basis of the research findings. This can be seen in Appendix B.

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CHAPTER III

BASIC MIGRATION DIFFERENTIALS

BASIC MIGRATION DIFFERENTIALS

Introductory Remarks to Survey Data

The characteristics of migrants in Kisumu and the spatial migration system of the town may be best explained by findings of the survey. It was necessary to exercise careful selection of tables from an immense assemblage of all tables which were initially compiled. Two forms of tables may be identified. The first express responses of informants in both absolute (numbers) and relative (percentage) frequencies. These simple and cross-tabulations have enhanced presentation of data collected in the survey. The second form of tables are analytical in that they are compiled from chi-square analyses or other statistical computations which are secondary to the foregoing. Cognizance has been taken of the requirements that in chi-square test expected frequencies in each cell should not be too small, and that no cell should have an expected frequency of less than one.¹ Thus expected values less than one have been treated as zero in order to avoid inflation that would occur in calculated chi-square values. Certain hypotheses connected with various aspects of the study are tested and results analysed.

The next two chapters focus on analysis of the survey data. Frequent reference is made to relevant tables which have been appended at the end of the work so as to facilitate the flow of analysis in the text (see Appendix A). Also, an attempt is made to classify migrants in the town in order to throw some light on implications of migration and migrants on the planning process in and around Kisumu.

In this chapter migration selectivity is considered. Factors involved in this are also known as migration differentials. These consist of a host of migrants' attributes which are involved in the selective nature of migration. People of different socio-economic status and imbued with certain aspirations have different propensities to migrate.

ETHNIC STRUCTURE OF THE POPULATION

Ethnic Groups

Like any other major towns in Kenya Kisumu is inhabited by four main ethnic groups, namely, Africans, Asians, Arabs and Europeans. That their migration into the town was influenced by various factors explains the

futility of attempting to enlist all the factors. But it may be said that foreigners had distinct reasons from the Africans: the Europeans initially came as missionaries or as colonial servants, Asians and Arabs as traders or shopkeepers; Africans were motivated by a continuum of repellent conditions in the rural areas and "factors of attraction" in the towns. It is not surprising therefore that most of analysis in this chapter is attached to this ethnic group. Table II.1 shows that Africans are by far the majority. In fact the pattern of ethnic composition of Kisumu population agrees well with the 1969 census count.² Of these ethnic groups the most suspicious in the course of interviews were the Asians. For example, some argued that they could accept interviews only if directives had come from their religious leaders. The intricacy of such formalities induced enumerators to cancel interviewing subjects who had such excuses. These were recorded as refusals.

Tribal Affiliation

Tribal groups interviewed represent the major ethno-Linguistic groups of Kenya tribes, the Nilotics, Bantus and Nilo-Hamites (see Fig. 5). The absence in the

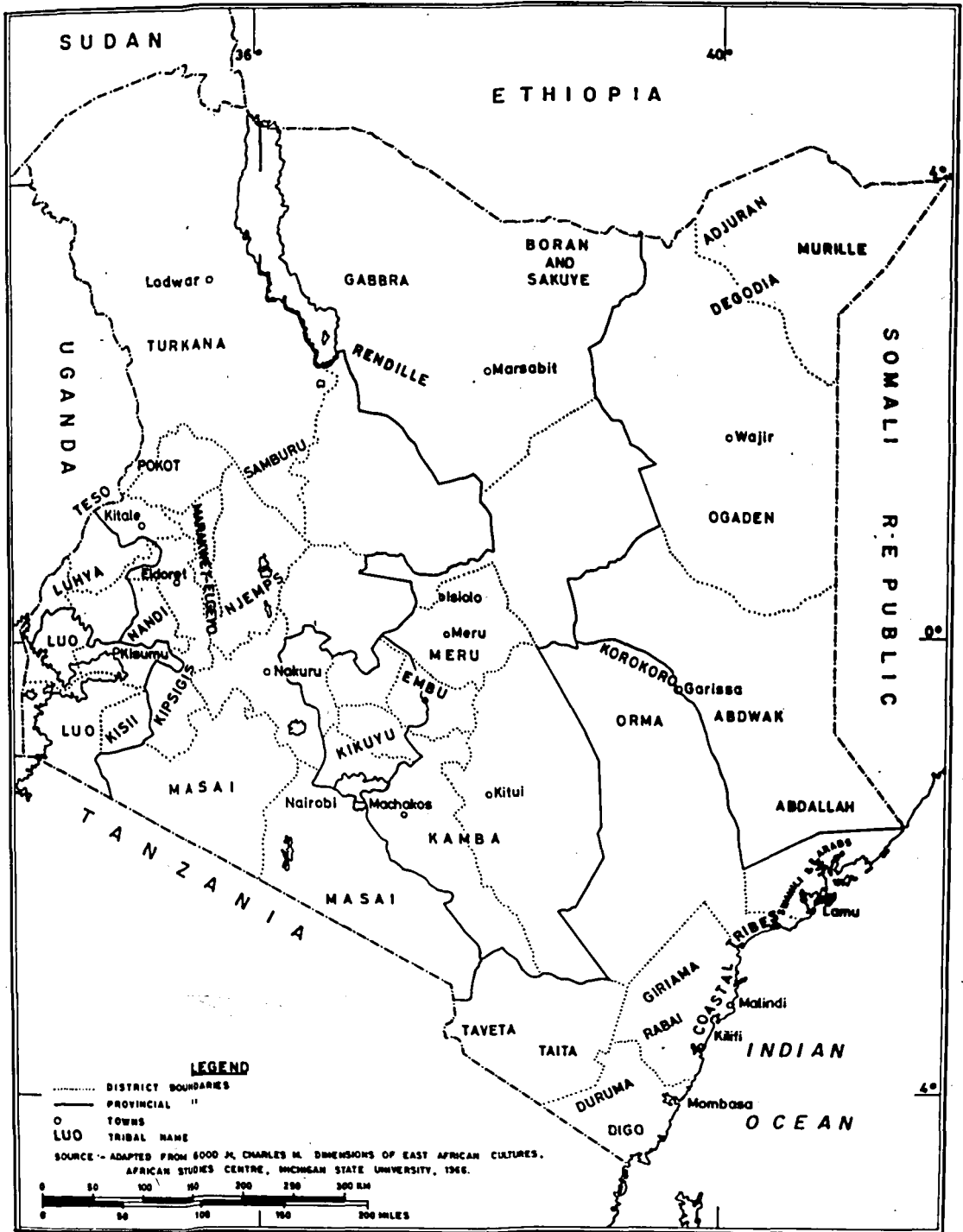


FIG. 5 TRIBAL UNITS AND NAMES IN KENYA.

sample of tribal groups from the Coast or North-Eastern Provinces can be noticed. This might be attributed to the directional bias of Coast migrants on Mombasa and to the tendency of North-Eastern migrants to confine themselves within their province. But the absence of migrants from the two provinces renders merely speculative our argument to this end. Table II.2 explains the composition of tribal groups interviewed in the survey. Expectedly the Luos are by far the predominant tribal group, a feature that was reported in all sample areas. They are followed, albeit not closely, by their neighbours, the Luhya. These two tribal groups are generally more migratory than all other Kenya tribes excepting the Kikuyu and are to be found in all the main urban centres of Kenya. That the Kikuyu rank third to other tribal groups closer to Kisumu is not therefore a surprising feature. The Kisii are relatively sedentary in their fertile area where favourable rainfall and soil fertility enhance intensive farming in cash crops, coffee, pyrethrum and others. Kalenjin peoples are also relatively sedentary and since the highest migration intensities are towards commercial farming areas and Nairobi, only a small number would be expected in Kisumu town. The Kamba are the most distant in terms of geographic situation of Kisumu and the Kamba districts of Machakos and Kitui.

Perhaps environmental hostility particularly in the latter has intensified their migratory behaviour; Kitui experiences unreliable rainfall and persistent famine which make it ecologically best suited to pastoralism.

Uganda and Tanzania tribes were also encountered in the sample. The former were recent migrants into the town which might have been their nearest and most direct destination of refuge following the unhappy incidents recently experienced in Uganda. Apparently, accessibility of Kisumu to all the Lake Victoria basin tribal groups makes it an important destination of inter-territorial migration which is expected to increase with the envisaged development of the town in future. Given a peaceful political co-existence it seems that a town strategically situated along neighbouring countries attracts migrants irrespective of territorial boundaries. For Kisumu co-existence may be seen in its role as a port which is under an important organ of the East African Community, the East African Railways Corporation.³

MIGRATION DIFFERENTIALS

Sex

This is an important migration differential. Although it is a common demographic feature that sex ratio favours males in urban populations, it may be fallacious to rely on this argument particularly when respondents are chosen according to predetermined design. For example, in this study four kinds of persons were likely to be interviewed at any one time: head of family, wife only, husband and wife, and others not so classified. In many cases heads of families, who often turned out to be males, were interviewed. Therefore the sex bias of respondents is not surprising and cannot be wholly attributed to migration selectivity. Proper analysis of sex ratio is deferred until we discuss it in the context of household data in a later section.

Table III.1 explains sex composition of respondents in the town. Out of 568 respondents 75.0 per cent consisted of males and only 25.0 per cent were females. This pattern of male dominance appears in not only individual sample areas but also in the three strata, high, medium and low income groups, which explain the socio-economic differentials of respondents.

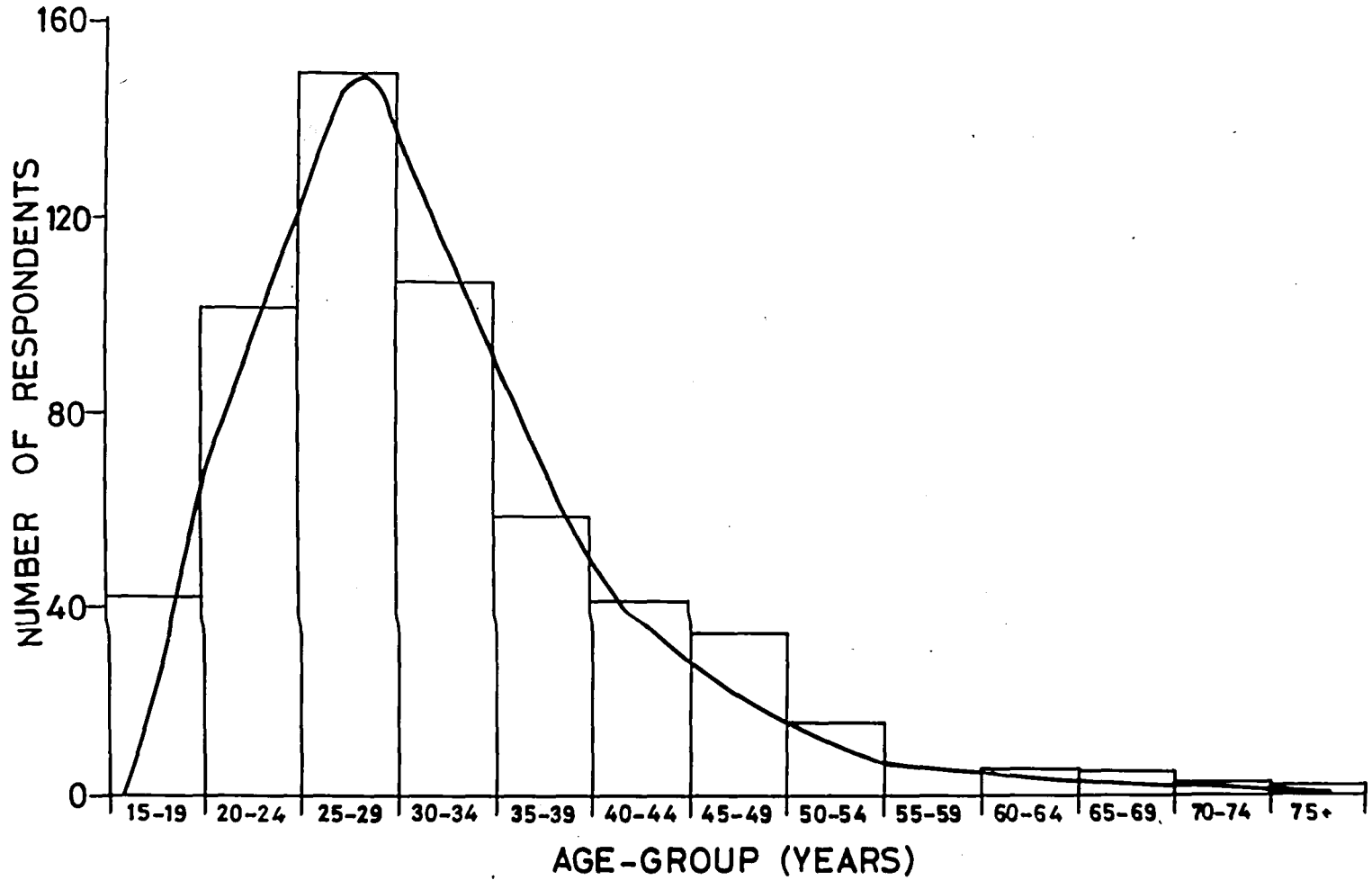
Age

Cross-tabulation of age and sex results in even more far-reaching understanding of respondents in the town. Unlike sex, age is difficult to use as a criterion for considering certain discrepancies in the population. Van de Walle has considered the causes of error and suggested improvements that could be made in age statistics. According to him age statistics may be improved by either matching ages recorded by conventional census methods with birth registration where data is available or by ranking all inhabitants by age in the context of a person being "older than X" or "younger than Y".⁴ But these methods have certain shortcomings. In a country such as Kenya where birth registration has not evolved satisfactorily the first method must be ruled out in the meantime. Data on birth registration is still scarce and highly sporadic. The second method might engender disagreement among inhabitants as they would resent reference to their children as base years against which others' ages are considered. Therefore, enumerators had to estimate respondents' ages, a feat wrought with difficulties but most appropriate in the circumstances (see Appendix D).

Conventional age reporting in five-year intervals has been adopted in this work. Age and sex distribution of respondents in Kisumu is shown in Fig. 6 and Table III.2. A few interesting features may be noted. The first is the absence of females aged 65 or more years in the sample. This may be due to the fact that old women often prefer to return home earlier after retirement from paid employment or it may be due to historical bias in the employment of males. Again, it seems more difficult to estimate female ages as natal complications sometimes cause physiological weaknesses which may be taken for old age. Thus a wrong age estimate may be made by enumerators and respondents alike as they attempt to compromise between two different estimates. In his Bombay migration study, Zachariah found about 43 per cent of migrants aged between 20 and 35 years.⁵ But in the present survey about 63 per cent of respondents were aged between 20 and 34 years. It seems true that migration intensity reaches a peak in this age bracket but decreases with age.⁶ Migration intensity and age-group gave a correlation coefficient of -0.78 in the present study.

Ominde in studying migration of the economically active age group made the following observation about certain characteristics of male and female migrants:

FIG. 6 HISTOGRAM AND FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION CURVE FOR RESPONDENTS BY AGE-GROUP



"But whereas the association of the migration of the 15-44 year age group with the main population centres as supplying areas and the economic growth points of the country underlines the economic factor, the importance of the female element in the age-group suggests that social factors may be of great importance."⁷

The efficacy of this argument will be seen when discussing age-sex pyramids for different parts of Kisumu town in the next chapter. Suffice it to say, higher probabilities of male migration is reflected in their presence in all age groups. Fig. 6 also shows some anomalies in age distribution of respondents. It can be seen that the influence of in-migration is demonstrated at the age of 20 years with much concentration in the 20-30 age bracket.

Besides, chi-square analysis was made to test the following hypothesis:

Ho: There is no significant difference
 in age distribution between male
 and female respondents.

H1: There is significant difference
 in age distribution between male
 and female respondents.

As the result was significant at both 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels, H1 was accepted (Table III.2a). Whereas male respondents were represented in all age groups female ones were clearly absent at age 65 or more years.

Both sex and age have been frequently cross-classified with several variables. In the first place the two attributes were reported by most respondents, sex being obvious. Secondly, they facilitated consistent analysis of other variables with which they were cross-classified.

Marital Status

This has an important influence in rural-urban migration. In many African societies marital status results in an individual's change of community membership, expansion of family relations, initiation into the status of responsibility and so on.

Migrants to a town may be in different combinations. The head of the family may move first while the rest of family members remain in the rural village. Sometimes the whole family may move together

especially when optimistic of easy establishment in the town of migration. These may be called split and simultaneous migration respectively. Split migration seems a common feature of the developing countries since it is necessary that one person, generally the head, ventures into the unknown before being joined by others. When the whole family migrates all at once they may face unhappy experience at the destination. Simultaneous migration may plunge a large family into insurmountable problems in the initial stages of establishment at the new residence.⁸ Table III.3 shows the marital status of the sample. Married persons were the dominant category with 73.7 per cent of total males and 72.5 per cent females reported in this category. Of the 417 married persons 291 (69.8 per cent) had their spouse living with them in Kisumu and 126 (30.2 per cent) elsewhere. This explains the importance of simultaneous migration into the town. Another interesting observation explained by Table III.3 is that 12 out of 18 widowed respondents were females. This suggests the usual higher death rates for males than females or the readiness of females to reveal their widowhood explains the rarity of this phenomenon among them particularly the Africans.

In Table III.3a it can be seen that the result

of chi-square analysis is highly significant at both 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels of significance. The hypothesis tested was:

Ho: There is no significant difference in marital status of the two sexes.

H1: There is significant difference in marital status of the two sexes.

The foregoing arguments are posed to qualify the Ho which is rejected on the basis of the result; in effect this means acceptance of H1 above. It was generally found that most of the long distance migrants lived together with their spouse in the town whereas shortdistance migrants had their spouse at their permanent homes which they frequently visited.

The younger migrants preferred staying together with their spouse in Kisumu. The older ones, however, left their spouse at home where they made periodic visits.

Educational Attainment

It has been realised that education is a most important index of migration selectivity. The existing educational system inherited from the colonial system is geared toward urban employment rather than rural economy.

Considering migration as a capital transfer Byerlee argues that:

"Because of the emphasis on education as a criterion for modern sector jobs, even of low skill requirements, the private returns to migration are likely to be higher than social returns, resulting in overinvestment in education and further out-migration from agriculture".⁹

This non-demographic parameter may be considered the fulcrum on which the propensity to migrate rests. The literacy situation in Kisumu does not differ significantly from that of other towns in the developing world. But the selective nature of the sample conceals this fact (see Table IV.1). Some 90.8 per cent of total respondents were literate compared with only 9.2 per cent illiterates. The small proportion of those currently in school is because though the lower age limit was 15 years, only a small number could be expected to feature as heads of households. An interesting phenomenon is the increasing tendency for secondary school pupils to live on their own in houses rented for them by parents, thus qualifying as heads of households. Age wise the relationship between illiterate and educated respondents produced a correlation

coefficient of only +0.28, that between primary and secondary education was +.60. In terms of age - sex structure correlation coefficients of +0.43 for males and +0.31 for females were found.

Table IV.2 shows interesting features. A negligible proportion of respondents failed to reveal the highest classes reached at school. But the dominance of Upper Primary graduates (42.6 per cent) suggests that most respondents attained primary education and above.

Educational attainment was cross-classified with sex and age group. Table IV.3 demonstrates that the highest proportion of those who did not state their classes or were illiterate was reported in the 45-49 age group. For lower primary it was the 30-34 age group but for upper primary, secondary upto 'O' level and 'A' level or above it was the 25-29 age group. The prominence of the 25-29 age group appears in not only educational attainment but also the peak of migration intensity. Since this is the most educated age group and granted that education enhances chances of securing employment in urban areas, the dominance of this group is only to be expected. The following hypothesis was tested:

Ho: Educational attainment does not differ significantly in all age groups.

H1: Educational attainment differs significantly in all age groups.

On the basis of chi-square test the result was found to be significant at both 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels of significance (see Table IV.3a). Thus H1 was accepted.

Further refinement of this variable was made by considering males and females separately. In the case of male respondents a few observations may be made. First, the 45-49 age group had the highest proportions of illiterates and those who failed to disclose their educational standards. Second, the 30-34 age group had the highest proportion of lower primary graduates. Upper primary and secondary upto 'A' level and above had this score in the 25-29 age group (see Table IV.4). For the female respondents these features are depicted by Table IV.5. The highest proportions in the "non and not stated" category and lower primary education were experienced in the 25-29 and 30-34 age groups respectively. The dominance of the 25-29 age group again occurred in both Upper and Secondary upto 'O' level. The only female with 'A' level or more educational standard was reported in the 20-24 age group. Two important features of education as an index of migration differential may be identified.

In the first place educational standards decrease as ages of respondents increase. It is true that some sixty or so years ago when the present post-60 year-olds were born education was basically intended to eradicate illiteracy and no more. This elementary education prepared ready hands for missionary work and unskilled workers. Demand for labour in urban centres was only minimal and even when it gathered momentum migratory behaviour had not evolved strongly among rural villagers. Migration intensity reflected in the young migratory age groups may be considered a consequence of improved educational standards. The second feature is the low educational standards of females. This may be attributed mainly to negative ideas attached to girls' education and partly to the increasing rates of drop-outs due to pregnancy or early marriages. It was also observed that there is a clear cleavage in educational standards between migrants and non-migrants in Kisumu although this has not been brought out in any table. Migrants are generally better educated qualitatively as well as quantitatively. Similar findings have been made by other scholars.^{10,11}

Economic Activity

Literature on migration studies strongly underline the dominance of economic motives among other migration differentials. In any model of migration economic factors are spelled out and other residuals considered rather amorously. In an expectational model of migration suggested by Fabricant, for instance, a labour market approach is adopted. She identifies three options open to a potential migrant, namely moving from i to j , moving elsewhere and staying in i (not moving at all).¹² This is consistent with the argument that the direction of migration is influenced by opportunities in the intended area of in-migration. In rural-urban migration process these opportunities are well explained by economic advantage in urban areas particularly employment opportunities.

It is not therefore surprising that more space was given to economic activity than any other item in the questionnaire. One way of ascertaining the importance of economic activity was to draw information about occupational characteristics of respondents before and after migration to Kisumu. Table V.1 reveals some important facts. Notable is the fact that there were

only 198 employees before as compared with 340 after migration into the town. Conversely, there were 180 students before and only 40 after migration. This suggests that on migrating to the town a large proportion of students had changed their status to employees. A decrease in the numbers of 'non' also stipulates likely change of status. Proportions of employees and own account workers increased whereas that of other categories decreased; the former two gained from the latter. The hypothesis tested was:

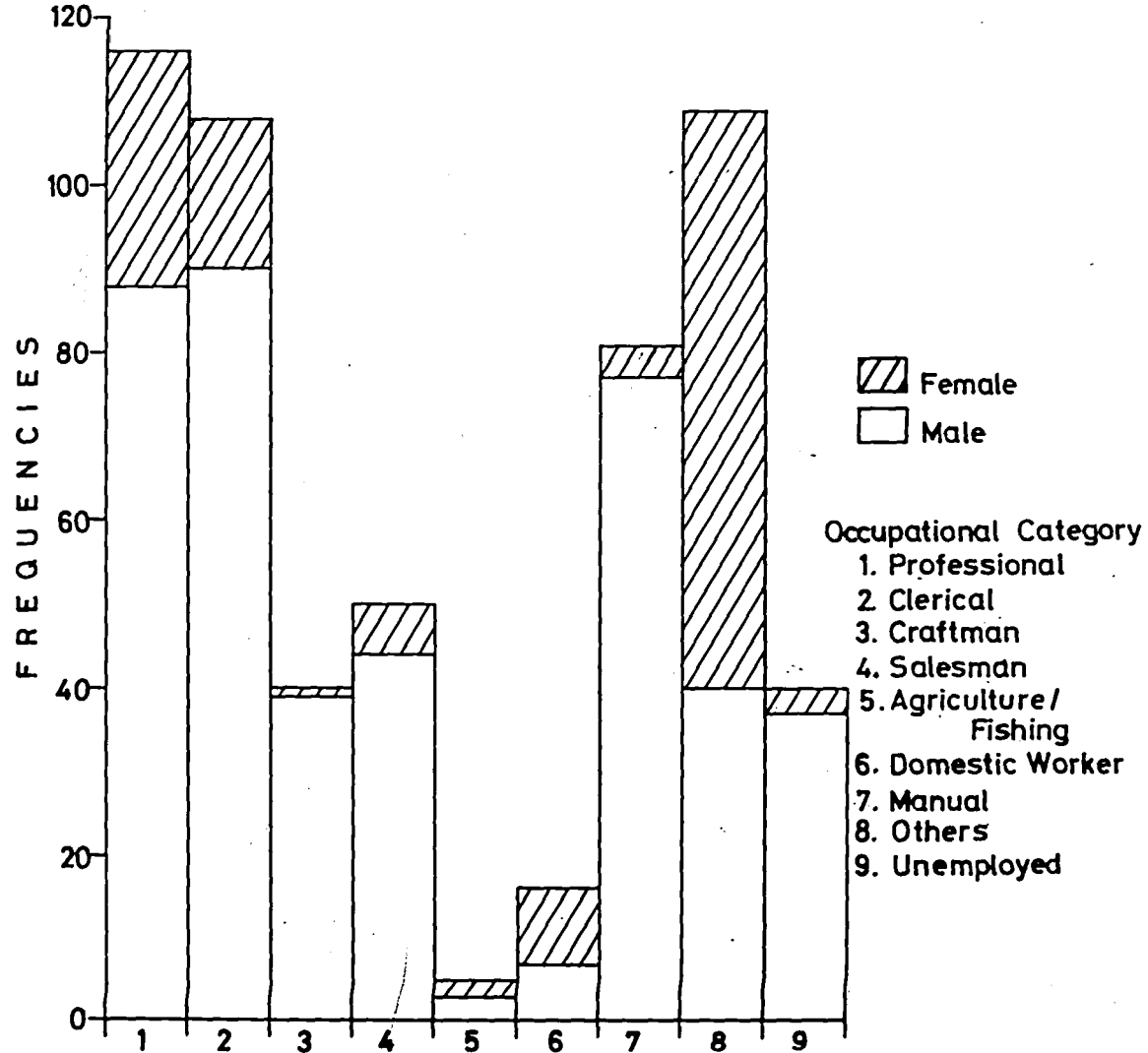
H₀: Respondents maintained the same economic status before as after migration.

H₁: Respondents changed economic status after migration.

The chi-square result was highly significant at both 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels of significance which meant that H₁ was accepted (Table V.1a).

Occupational category of respondents by sex can be seen in Fig. 7. On the whole professionals are dominant (20.7 per cent of the total). Those classified as 'other' are next; this category includes students and housewives not seeking employment. But of all males

FIG. 7 OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX



21.1 per cent are clerical. The complexity of this group and its inclusion of predominantly the male sex suffice to explain this. Surprisingly, however, agriculture/fishing category had only .0.7 per cent of all males compared with 1.4 per cent females. The highest proportion of females were classified as 'other' for reasons which have been given before. Secretarial work by females becomes clear in the clerical category which accounted for 12.7 per cent of all females. The number of respondents reported as unemployed is suspiciously small perhaps because some respondents related this category to the Vagrancy Law on the basis of which they might be repatriated back home. But it could also be attributed to the ambiguity in the term unemployment since no sharp boundaries could be identified by respondents and enumerators alike in the related terms "underemployment" or "unemployable", for instance.¹³ As Gutkind states the unemployed represent a highly diverse community which includes school drop-outs and wholly unskilled people who form the bulk of the group.¹⁴ This diversity in itself renders difficult the classification and analysis of unemployed persons. Bjerren quotes Gutkind's classification of urban unemployed as school-leavers actively seeking jobs but still unsuccessful; school-leavers

unwilling to accept just any type of employment (the selective job seekers); juveniles too young to be fit for heavy manual work; young boys who have dropped out of school for financial reasons; rural (under) unemployed; who seasonally swell the pool of existing urban unemployed; those unemployed as a result of technical reasons (lack of technical know-how or automation); and those unable or unwilling to hold down regular employment for long.¹⁵ Thus competition in employment becomes keen as the type of migrants becomes more diversified. Obviously, the list could be multiplied depending on what one wishes to emphasize. Table V.2 shows that the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in occupational category between males and females was rejected at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels of significance. Occupational category differed significantly between the two sexes.

Occupational category of respondents by age group was also analysed. (Table V.3). Apart from the 'other' category which is represented in all age groups a striking feature is the expected absence of the economically inactive age bracket, 64 years and above. Professionals are dominated by the 25-29 age group with the older age groups not well represented. As most professionals

had undergone further education or training after completion of formal schooling the dominance of this age group is explained by their high educational standards. The same age-group leads the clerical workers: secretaries, clerks or clerical officers, personnel officers as well as accountants must of necessity attain reasonable standards of education. It is interesting to note that craftsmen are prominent in the 30-34 age group; this is an occupation requiring relatively less education but more energy and experience. Salesmanship is even less demanding in education but requires at the same time older and more experienced workers; hence the prominence of the 40-44 age group. Also, it can be done by all age-groups since it is diverse and commonplace especially after retirement. Agriculture/fishing was well spread in five different age groups. This is one of the regular preoccupations for old adults as is reflected by the predominance of those aged 55-59 years. It was reported in the former peri-urban areas of Nyalenda, Manyatta, Bandani and Obunga-Kudho where inhabitants perpetuate the age - old traditional forms of agriculture with a few turning to fishing. Domestic workers are dominated by the most migrant age group, 25-29 years, and is confined within the 20-49 age bracket. Of the

manual workers the dominance of those aged 30-34 years is again noticeable. It is also one of the categories well distributed in all but one economically active age groups. The category called 'other' has been touched upon before. Interesting is the fact that unemployment is most experienced in 20-29 age bracket, the most migratory group. Since characteristics of this group have been alluded to earlier it is not necessary that they be repeated.

Spatial consideration of the town reveals some interesting features. It was found that professional and clerical categories were often encountered in sample areas of strata A and B and in Nairobi area of stratum C. In socio-economic terms residents of these areas hold "responsible" jobs wherever employed and are also the best educated of all respondents. "Other" as a category was well distributed in the town as students and housewives who dominate it can reside in any area with heads of families of all socio-economic status. Unemployed showed more or less similar characteristics as the foregoing. The rest of the occupational categories were found in sample areas of Stratum C in which resided people with relatively low education and

unskilled jobs. Thus it is a common feature to find these residents supplementing their meagre incomes with late evening personal work at their residence (see Plate 6)

A probe was further made into unemployment with particular interest in job seekers. Only 2.3 per cent of all respondents or 2.4 per cent of migrants stated that they had been seeking employment in the town. Table V.4 refines the information further: 46.1 per cent of total had sought employment for a period of 1-11 months and 30.8 per cent had done so for a year or more. But the table does not clearly illustrate the real situation in the town although the author is well aware that Kisumu town is never a popular ground with job seekers. It may be argued that since head offices of all government ministries as of other chief employers are in Nairobi or elsewhere job seekers may be employed in the latter thence transferred to provincial or regional offices as in Kisumu.

Table V.5 has therefore been included to emphasize this point. The dominance of the private sector among other chief employers explains the growing importance of the private sector in Kisumu as in other Kenya towns. Another interesting observation is that of own account workers who rank second. This diverse group

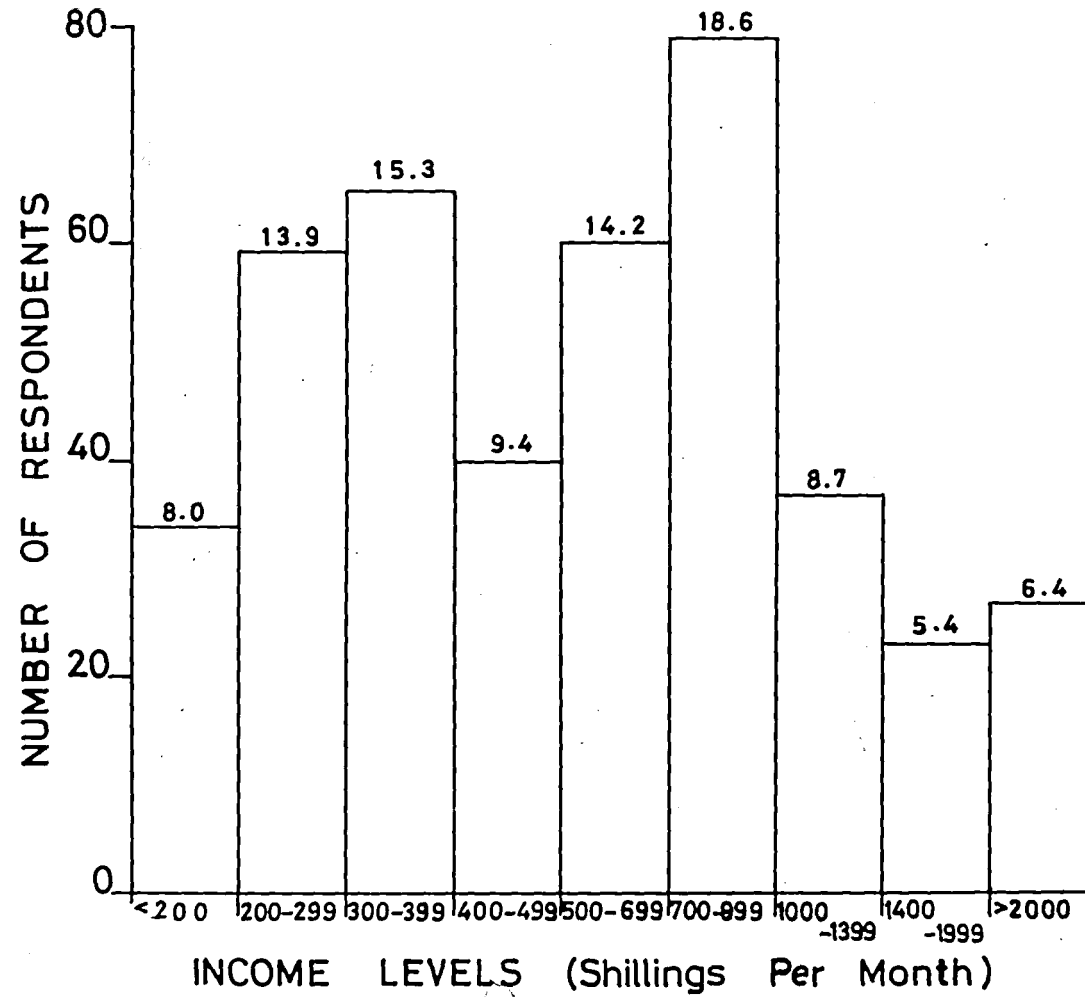
is expected to swell with the anticipated business allocation among Africans in the town following cancellation of non-citizen traders' licences. The ascendancy of the private sector over other chief employers may have been exaggerated by exclusion of residents of housing estates exclusively preserved for employees of specific employing bodies. Such exclusion has been explained in Chapter II as affecting employees of the Municipal Council of Kisumu, the East African Community for instance the Railways Corporation, Teachers Service Commission and Government employees resident in institutional housing units. All the employing bodies shown in Table V.6 accounted for 76.6 per cent of the total sample.

Since economic motives have been underlined as the most outstanding migration differential it has been necessary to consider migrants and non-migrants in the context of chief employers in Kisumu. The table mentioned explains some striking features. Of the 435 employees 418 or 86.1 per cent were migrants compared with only 17 or 3.9 per cent non-migrants. Migrants, endowed with better education which in turn reinforces their propensity to migrate, have greater advantages over non-migrants when competing for employ-

ment. But it is interesting that the non-migrant group is dominated by own account workers who account for more than half of the group. This may be attributed to several factors, the most obvious being proper knowledge of the town, in both temporal and spatial dimension, which enhances a non-migrant's involvement in diverse forms of self-employment including illicit occupations. Migrants' stay in the town depends largely on personal initiative which only assumes illicit forms as the last resort to unsuccessful job seeking or accidental loss of any occupation. Finally, the dominance of private sector employees in the case of migrants is only to be expected as has been alluded to before. However, there is insignificant discrepancy between migrant and non-migrant employees of the private sector.

Income levels of respondents were also analysed. In Fig. 8 the structure of income levels may be clearly seen. Of the 424 respondents to this question 18.6 per cent were in the shillings 700-999 - 300-399 income group. The percentage of those with monthly income above 1,000 shillings was 20.5. Thus four-fifths of the respondents fall in income groups below that mark. This finding does not differ much from another report which stated those earning 1,000 shillings or more to be

FIG. 8 INCOME LEVELS OF RESPONDENTS



14 per cent.¹⁶ Perhaps the present survey's findings are increased by the incomes of own account workers most of whom were proud to state that they had higher incomes than most employees. The same pattern observed in the sample areas in the case of occupational categories was also noted for incomes: the better educated people had better paying jobs. This is demonstrated by Table V.7. More than half of respondents with incomes of 2,000 shillings or more were in Stratum A, followed by Stratum C with a sizable proportion of own account workers. Conversely, more than three-quarters of those with 200-299 shillings were reported in Stratum C. In the case of the lower middle income group, namely shillings 700-999 more than half were in Stratum B. Careful study of the table reveals very important information.

To summarise the immense information about economic activity Table V.8 was compiled. Male dominance in employment is an expected feature as is female dominance in those classified as 'other'. The hypothesis tested was:

Ho: Employment situation in the
 town has no sex bias.

H1: Employment situation in the
 town has sex bias.

Since the calculated chi-square was significant at the stated levels of significant H1 was accepted (Table V.8a).

Age-sex specific activity rate, r , was also computed. It is given by the following formula:

$$r = \frac{P_e}{P_t} K$$

where, P_e is the number of economically active persons in the specified category of the population, P_t is the total number of persons in the same category, and K is a constant in this work 100.¹⁷

Household data was used as it was more meaningful than the respondents where sex bias was due to choice of informants (Table V.9). The post-64 year age bracket gives deceptive activity rates since in the correct context, it should not even be computed. Analysis is therefore confined to the economically active age group of 15-64 years. The highest male activity rate was in the 60-64 age group with the lowest in the 15-19 age group. Female activity rates are much lower than male ones. But as in the case of males, females aged 60-64 returned the highest activity rate, the lowest also being in the 15-19 age group. The latter consists mostly of school population whose preoccupation is school attendance. Absence of females aged 65 or more years may be attributed

to their earlier return migration back home and to their dependence upon husbands or working children. Finally in this item, mobility preference of migrants was considered* (Table V.10). More than half of the respondents wanted to retain their present employment in Kisumu. Older age groups opted for this on grounds of frequent visits home to solve problems there. The majority of those who wished to move elsewhere on promotion and at times even in the absence of promotion were the younger age groups. The most migratory age bracket, 20-29 years, is also known for employment mobility typified by frequent change of employers. The problem posed by migration has been underlined by an International Labour Organization (I.L.O.) team in these words:

"An inflow of job-seekers at roughly three times the rate of growth of job opportunities in the formal sector has inevitably made it very difficult to absorb the migrants into productive employment."¹⁸

* Mobility preferences in question were similar to Fabricant's options already mentioned.

In the absence of productive jobs opportunities migrants have no option but to be self-employed even in illicit occupations as has been mentioned before. The comprehensive work of Thomas sheds more light on migration differentials and may be consulted by those who wish to study them.¹⁹

Summary

This chapter has highlighted the basic migration differentials of Kisumu migrants. Africans constituted the dominant ethnic group followed by Asians, Arabs and Europeans in that order. Of the Africans Luos were numerically the most important tribal group. A few Uganda and Tanzania tribes were also encountered in the survey.

The chief migration differentials considered are sex, age, marital status, educational attainment and economic activity. Three-quarters of all respondents were males compared with females who accounted for only one-quarter. Age is an important attribute of migrants: the peak of migration intensity was found to be in the 20-29 age bracket. Both sex and age have been frequently cross-classified with several variables considered in the

study. Married persons were the most important of all the four marital status, single, married, divorced and widowed. But split migration seemed a common feature with one spouse moving into the town alone to be joined later by another at an appropriate time it seems an important factor in the changing sex balance of towns. Educational attainment tends to widen horizons of migrants' perceptions of opportunities. It has been found that higher educational attainment by the younger migrants intensified their mobility. Cross-tabulations of education with other migration differentials revealed interesting results concerning educated vis-a-vis illiterate respondents. Perhaps the most complex of the migration differentials was economic activity. A probe into occupational category, income, economic activity rates and other related factors confirmed the dominance of economic factors in rural-urban migration.

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CHAPTER IV

SPATIAL MIGRATION SYSTEM OF THE TOWN

SPATIAL MIGRATION SYSTEM OF THE TOWN

The foregoing discussion on migration differentials is an important prelude to migration intensity in spatial context. Migration process involves considering birthplaces, homes and mobility characteristics of migrants. Hirst suggests that from a geographer's point of view at least, a question on place of origin (birth or usual residence) with more elaborate questions related to mobility or duration of residence at the place of enumeration would be best administered through a sample survey. He further suggests that the question on place of origin should replace that on tribal affiliation.¹ It should be realised, however, that the two questions are at best complementary in that either information would be cross-checked by including them in a census or a survey.

This chapter analyses variables which constitute the migration process. These include the distance factor, birthplace and home information with more emphasis on the Kisumu Region, migrants' maintenance of contact with home, mobility characteristics of migrants, characteristics of households and environmental conditions which repel or attract migrants.

MIGRATION AND DISTANCE

Theoretical Migration Models

Ravenstein's thesis that most migrations occur over short distances only² has been endorsed by more scientific and sophisticated studies in different parts of the world. Little purpose may be served by describing in detail all studies which have contributed to this end. But mention may be made of Morrill's analysis of the diverse theoretical studies. In a study of the relevant migration theory Morrill classifies the relevant migration models as deterministic and probabilistic.³ Foundations of deterministic models was laid by Ravenstein in his inverse distance relationship, $f_{ij} = \frac{k}{D_{ij}^a}$ where a is 1 or 2. It was later evolved by Zipf who considered the factor of distance as having $P_1 P_2/D$ relationship: Zipf's $P_1 P_2/D$ hypothesis states that migration, like other types of interregional exchange, is directly proportional to the product of the populations between the two regions involved, and inversely proportional to the distance between the regions.⁴ The famous social physicist, Stewart⁵ and others such as

Reilly⁶ and Warntz and Stewart⁷ have formulated the gravitational or interaction principle using data respectively relating to population, retailing and the prices of goods. The second aspect of deterministic models relates to exponential functions in which migration has a decreasing function of distance in the form of "intervening opportunities". Stouffer has consistently argued that migration varies directly with the product of population but inversely with the intervening opportunities in between.⁸ Hagerstrand stresses that migration is a function of information and distance in that the friction of distance adversely affects spatial diffusion of phenomena: people, information, ideas or innovations.⁹ While it is thought that potential and gravity models are better formulated using census rather than sample survey data, all the foregoing have been incorporated to probe into the distance factor in migration to Kisumu. This is different from inter-regional exchange because the town is taken here as a receiving centre from other parts of the country thereby enlarging its size. The models may not therefore paint the correct picture of rural-urban migration as the urban-rural counter migration is even difficult to ascertain.

Probabilistic models treat migration as a

stochastic process. Thus Pyke has examined the theoretical basis of population migration models in that light.¹⁰ In Sweden, Kuldorff has found that the log-normal distribution best describes the probability of migrating across administrative boundaries.¹¹ But perhaps the best known study is that of Bachi which embodies statistical description of movement distances and effects.¹² Geographers have been keen to adopt this work particularly in the "nearest-neighbour" studies. Also notable is the contribution of Bateman whose computed exponential functions seem to fit various observed sets of data distances.¹³ Another interesting work is by Porter who argues that "Job vacancies (migration opportunities) and applicants (persons ready to migrate) occur randomly in time. Each applicant takes the nearest vacancy (in a small unit of time)".¹⁴

However, the main weakness of these probabilistic migration models is that they are derivatives of physical phenomena or theoretical considerations. Human behaviour is hardly predictable and cannot be considered analogous to physical phenomena without necessary modifications.

Distance Factor in this Study

In this study distance bands were drawn at intervals of 50 kilometres from Kisumu town (Fig. 9). These have been used to compile Table VI.1 which summarises the situation. The general observation is that migration to Kisumu town is inversely related to distance. Anomalies shown by the last two distance bands may be attributed to biases in the sample. In most cases migrants belonging to one extended family were frequently found to live under one roof even if they were separate households. Since they all qualified for interview their numbers were somewhat exaggerated in the aggregate sample. These two cases, however, do not invalidate the rule of inverse relationship between migration and distance. Also, the dominance of the 50-100 km. distance band over the 0-50 km. one is due to the fact that in the latter the majority of migrants were actually commuters nowhere interviewed in the town. The second distance band has most migrants from Siaya District of Nyanza Province. Perhaps, census counts would agree better with the expected migration - distance inverse relationship. It can be seen in the table that cumulative frequencies demonstrate insignificant additional migrants from one

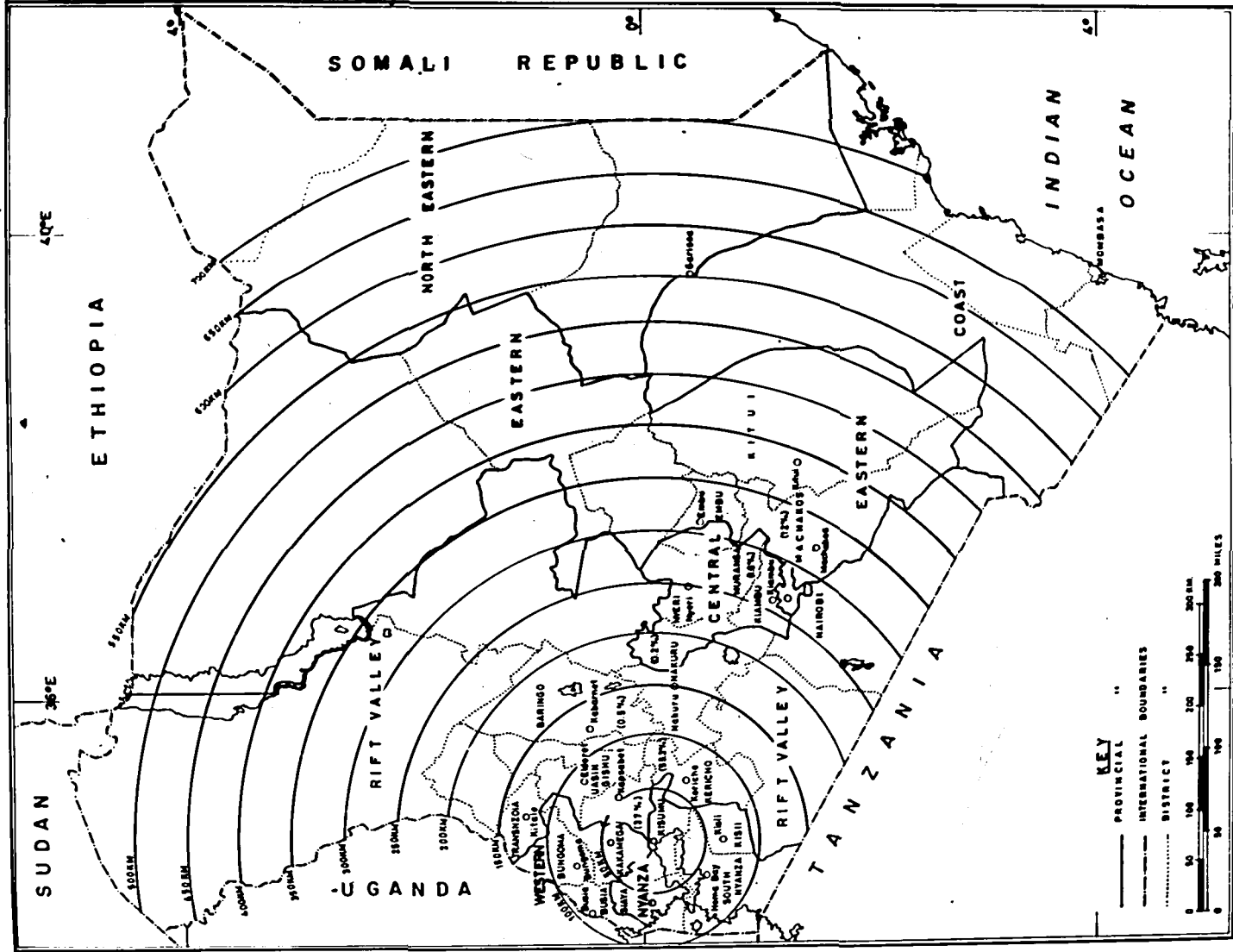


FIG. 9 MIGRATION AND DISTANCES FROM KISUMU TOWN

distance band to the other particularly from the second band onwards. The average number of migrants per district in each band gradually decreases except in the last two bands. A study of Freetown in Sierra Leone by Harvey had nearly the same results.¹⁵ Distance is an important factor which may be correlated with several variables in migration studies. Thus migration distances may be correlated with the level of income, the degree of unemployment and population size at the place of origin and destination as well as age of the migrant and the migrant's family income.¹⁶ Not all of the ten hypotheses tested by Olsson were tested in this survey owing to lack of data and because the rural component of migration was not probed into. However, two findings are in full agreement with Olsson's: the length of migration intensity, being negatively related to the age of the migrant; the majority of old migrants were from no more than 100 km. from Kisumu in the neighbouring districts of Kisumu, Kakamega, Siaya, parts of South Nyanza and Kisii. Secondly, the length of migration is positively related to the migrant's family income. Using education as an index of enhancing family income Olsson found that people with the highest education usually make the longest moves. This observation has been touched

upon in a preceding section dealing with educational attainment as a selective factor.

Potential and Gravity Models have not explicitly been tested in this work. It should be borne in mind that this study was not on inter-regional migration in which the "force of attraction" exerted by different regions could be determined from population and distance. The pioneering work of Ominde has demonstrated the usefulness of census data in studying internal migration.¹⁷ But it could be improved by testing the two models of spatial interaction using either the latest census data or a sample survey covering the whole country. Apparently, spatial interaction studies have depended heavily on census information. Besides the studies reviewed by Morrill, other notable contributions have been made by Abler, Adams and Gould,¹⁸ Dodd,¹⁹ Huff,²⁰ Anderson,²¹ and Isard and Bramhall.²² With recent emphasis on model building in human geography and other social science it can only be expected that more analytical contributions are yet to be published.

BIRTHPLACE AND HOME INFORMATION

General Consideration

Although it has been argued that "analysis of birthplace data can never give a complete picture of the movement of population and can give no indication of the number of moves an individual may take in his life-time,"²³ it is apparent that birthplace information is basic in any migration study. Especially is this so when it is to be considered against the permanent domicile (home) of migrants. In Tables VI.2 through to VI.4a both birthplace and home are shown to be interdependent in that changes between the two are due to several facets of migration. Of the 568 respondents 540 were born in Kenya and 28 elsewhere; of that number 555 reported their homes to be in Kenya and 13 elsewhere. Additions to home are attributed to Asians in particular who have taken up citizenship in the country. The rest of them stated that they were British rather than Indian (home country) citizens. Within Kenya spatial characteristics of birthplace and home are examined at two levels: the general level by Provinces and in details by the districts

around Kisumu town (see Fig. 10). Absence of migrants from Coast and North-Eastern Provinces is a notable feature.

The spatial pattern depicted by Fig. 11 reveals two important features. First, the majority of migrants come from Nyanza Province whether birthplace (80.5 per cent) or home information (80.9 per cent) is the index used. The whole of Kisumu Region accounts for 95.1 per cent for birthplace and 96.5 per cent for home information. Second, higher proportions of Nyanza and Western Provinces migrants exist for home than for birthplace. This means that some of those born in Kisumu town reported their homes in the two provinces or that marriage migration may have engendered change of residence. It was found that migrants were more willing to report their homes than birthplaces so that this could also cause the discrepancy. This is explained by 486 responses for home as compared with 432 for birthplace information. In general, however, no significant differences was found between migrants' birthplaces and homes since the two were generally identical.

Migration rates to Kisumu were also computed for the provinces using birthplace information. Migration



FIG. 10 OUT-MIGRATION FIELDS OF THE SAMPLE POPULATION IN KENYA.

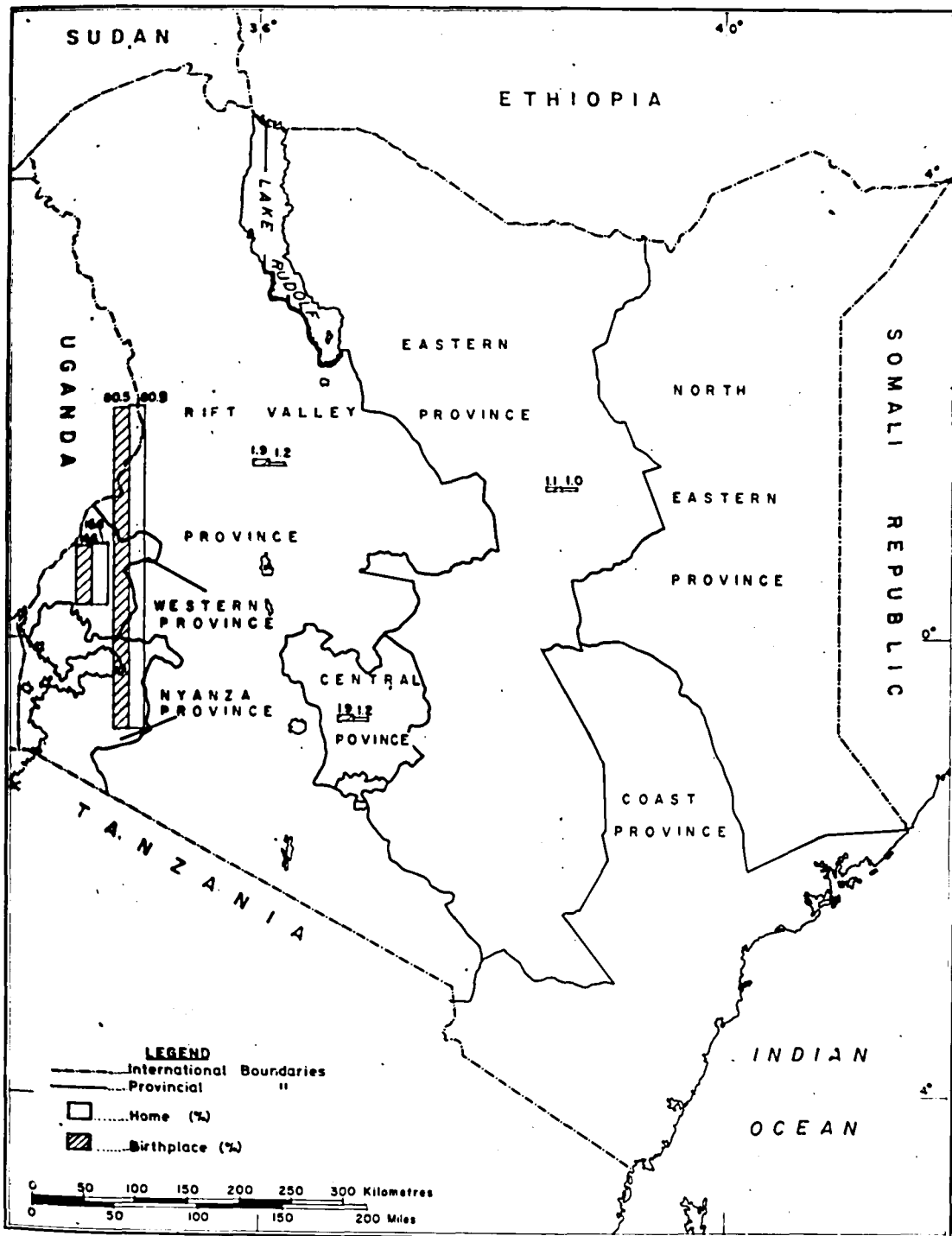


FIG 11 BIRTHPLACES AND HOMES OF RESPONDENTS FOR PROVINCES OF KENYA

rate, m , is expressed as

$$m = \frac{M.K.}{p}$$

where

m is the migration rate for the specified migration interval, M is the number of migrations or the number of persons migrating to the interval, and k is a constant, here 1,000.

In this study migration interval refers to all years covered in the survey (see Table VIII.3), M to migrants enumerated in the town reported by place of origin and p to those aged 15 years or more as at 1969 census.

Table VI.1 agrees closely with Fig. 11. It may be argued that migration rates differ according to the frequency of migration between different places. But the position of Rift Valley Province does raise some concern especially when compared with Central and Eastern Provinces. Table VI.3 shows migration rates of some 18 districts whose migrants were experienced in the survey. The significance of Siaya can be seen at a glance; the migration rate for Kisumu, the district in which the town lies, is almost half that of Siaya. As has been explained

in the preceding section the contribution of the district is distorted by large numbers of commuters who were not interviewed. It may also be noted that apart from the two districts, the rest of the districts have much lower rates of migration. South Nyanza and Kakamega each recorded just over one-tenth migrations out of 1,000 persons. The overall observation is that birthplaces and homes of migrants originating from the five provinces of Kenya are the same; a very insignificant proportion of migrants had changed the two.

The Kisumu Region

In Nyanza Province, too, there was little discrepancy between birthplaces and homes of migrants. More than half of all migrants reported their birthplaces or homes in Siaya District and only one third reported these in Kisumu District (Table VI.4). Again, the general observation is that more people reported their homes than their birthplaces. The slight difference in the Kisii District migrants confirms the argument that out-migration is minimal there.

As for Western Province the predominance of Kakamega District can be noticed (Table VI.5). It seems that Busia and Bungoma Districts "feel" the

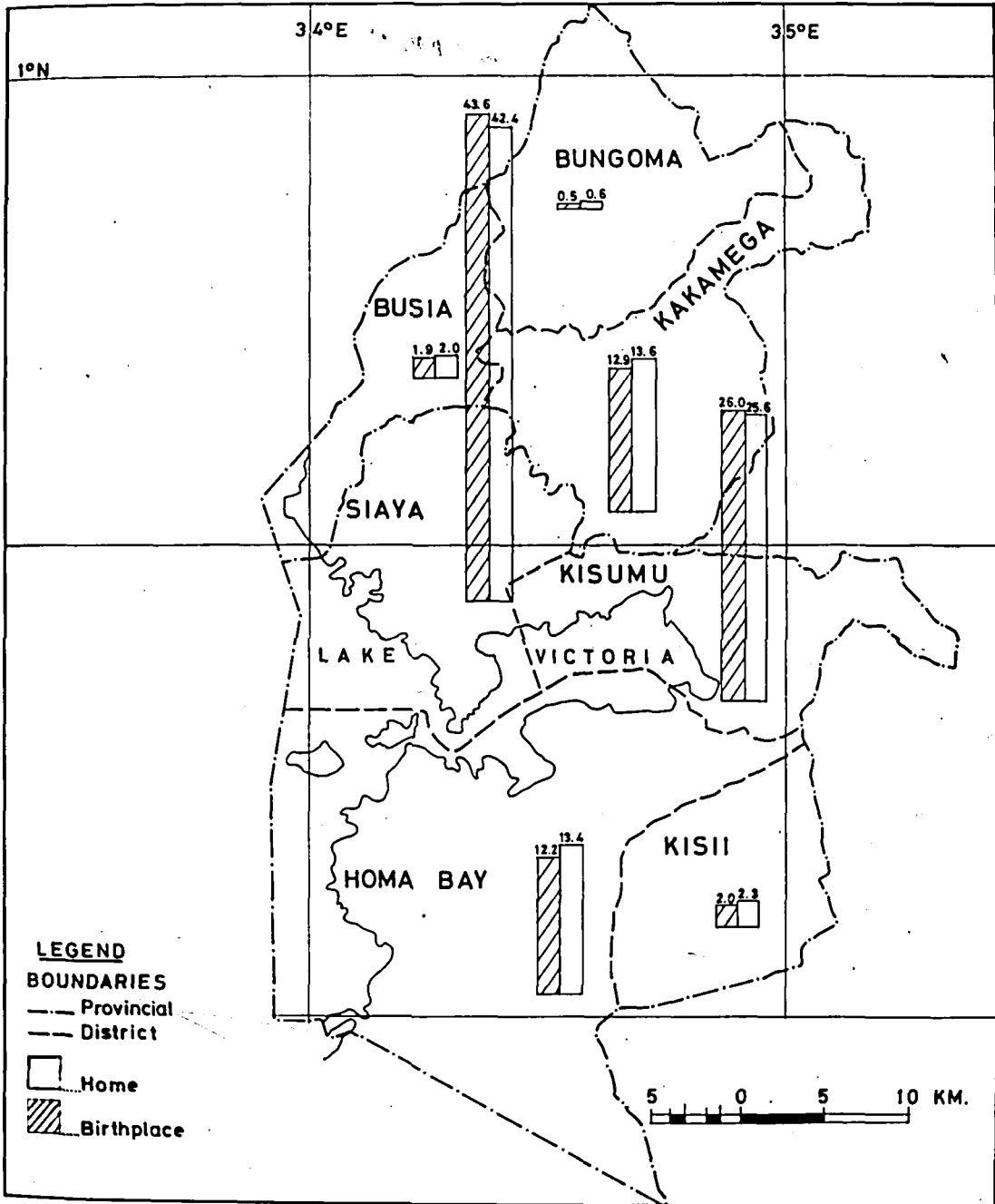


FIG.12 BIRTHPLACES AND HOMES OF MIGRANTS BY DISTRICTS IN THE KISUMU REGION.

influence of Busia as well as Jinja, in Uganda and Eldoret respectively so that this strengthens the position of Kakamega District. As in Nyanza, the province had more people reporting their homes than their birthplaces. No significant difference was found between reporting the two places.

The situation for the two provinces has been shown in Fig. 12. While 83.8 per cent reported their birthplaces in Nyanza Province only 15.3 per cent reported them in Western Province. For home information the two places recorded 83.8 and 16.2 respectively. Kakamega is the only district outside Nyanza whose migrants continue to show considerable interest in Kisumu town. Contributions of the seven districts should be studied carefully in Fig. 13.

One of the research hypotheses may now be cited, namely, that Kisumu is the migration potential for Western Kenya irrespective of political or ethnic boundaries. This hypothesis is confirmed by the contribution of Kakamega District in the effective sample of Western Kenya migrants. The contribution of Busia District is nearly similar to that of Kisii, the determining factor common to both being distance from Kisumu town. The author has oftentimes heard Luos and Luhyas

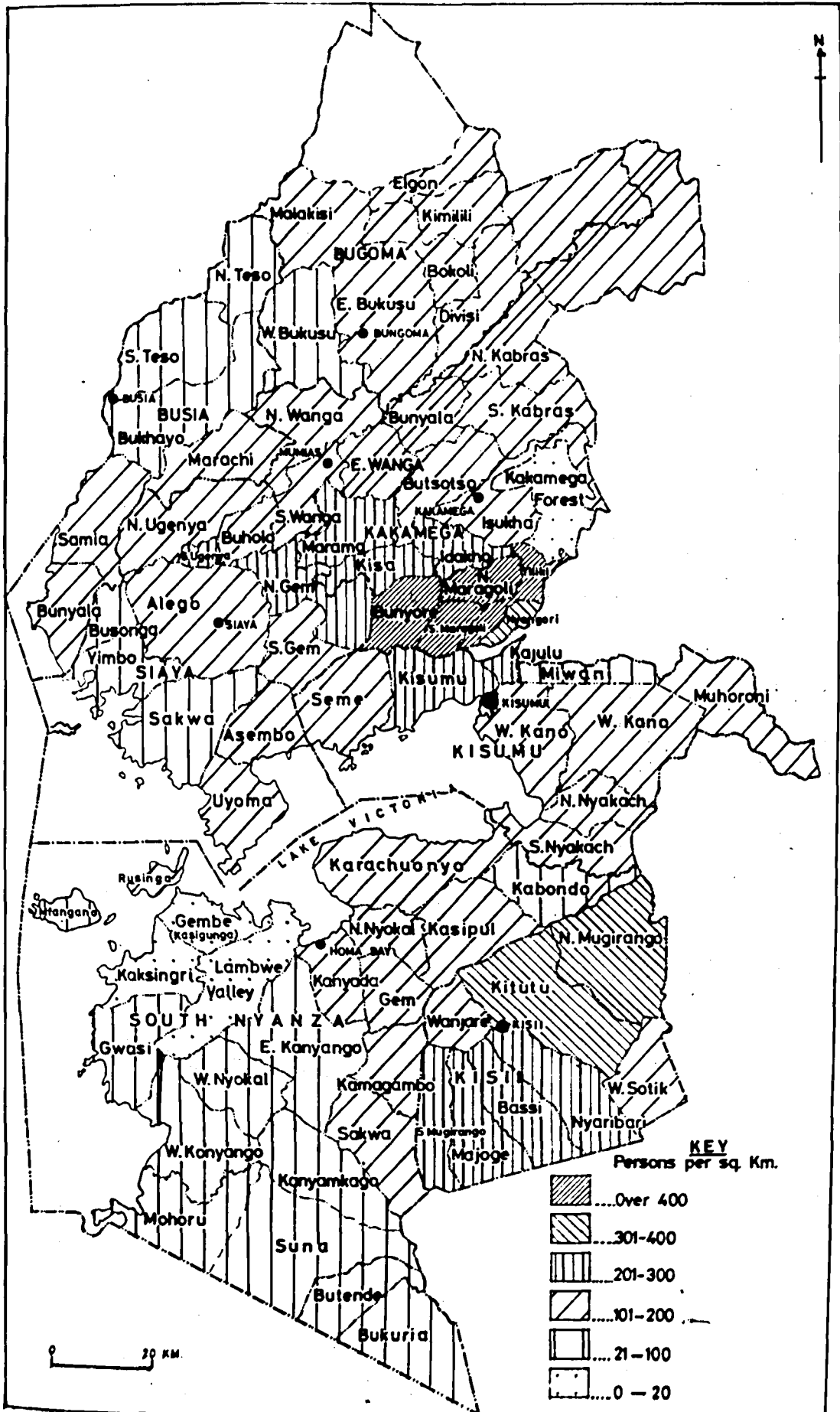


FIG 13 POPULATION DENSITY IN THE LOCATIONS IN THE KISUMU REGION (FROM 1969 POP CENSUS)

in Nairobi jokingly refer to themselves as "United Kisumu", a term understood to mean people who focus their attention on Kisumu as a Regional "City". In the same context they sometimes refer to anybody from Coast Province as a "Mombasa resident" even those having remote connections with the town. Thus inhabitants of an immediate hinterland focus their interests on the nearest town to their homes.

Migrants originating from the locations in the districts of the Kisumu Region were identified in order to probe deeper into regional migratory behaviour. A few remarks are made about each district (see Fig. 13).

Siaya District

Siaya borders Kisumu District on the West. For a long time upto late 1960s the two districts formed Central Nyanza (Table VI.7). Its geographical endowments are not favourable: much of it suffers from low and erratic rainfall as well as poor soils. As the Luo have been dubbed conservative, traditional agricultural and livestock raising methods persist. Gem Location, now Yala Division, had the highest proportion of migrants. This location leads all others, even in the whole of Western Kenya, in educational attainment at the highest rungs of the academic ladder. Enough has been said about

educated person's propensity to migrate. Most Gem and Alego migrants were actually permanent migrants living in the former peri-urban areas of Bandani, Nyalenda and Manyatta. Asembo Location, with its sandy soils and erratic rainfall characteristics of the lake shores, cannot comfortably carry a large and fast growing population. In much of Siaya District the main causes of migration are basically environmental hazards. In fact, Allan's comment on the Luo area quoted in the Introduction appears most relevant to Siaya of all the three Luo Districts.²⁵

Kisumu District

Kisumu District is endowed with better climatic conditions and agricultural products, cane sugar, rice and even dairy products. Situated within the climatic influence of Nandi and Tinderet Hills to the north the District receives more rainfall which has often-times led to flooding in the Kano Plains only a few miles east of Kisumu town. In the District Kano Location reported the highest proportion of migrants (Table VI.8). To meet environmental challenge posed by frequent floods it has been necessary to resettle the people of Kano in

settlement schemes leaving wide expanses of land for rice cultivation. The pilot irrigation scheme has yielded good results; but it has led to other ecological and human problems.²⁶ Out-migration is therefore seen here as the only alternative to human survival. It should be noted that the number of Kano migrants is reduced by non-enumeration of commuters. It may be for this reason, too, that some migrants equal Kano ones as the former have of necessity to reside in the town. Kajulu Location is now included in the new Municipal boundaries although some respondents originating from the location hardly consider themselves part of the town. Muhoroni is a settlement scheme area where out-migration is expected to be insignificant since farmers here have little interest in the town other than for shopping purposes.

South Nyanza District

This is the largest district in Nyanza Province. Its physical endowments are almost similar to those in Kisumu District. A few areas show characteristics of some locations in Siaya District. Table VI.9 shows that compared with Siaya and Kisumu, the District had much lower proportions of migrants. Even Karachuonyo,

one of the largest locations, compares favourably with only a few locations in the two districts. Whereas South Nyanza accounted for only 16.2 per cent of all migrants Kisumu accounted for 30.5 per cent and Siaya 50.6 per cent. The modal percentage of migrants from the Districts is 0.5 which only compares with Kisii locations of Nyaribari and Wanjare. Most permanent migrants who originally migrated from South Nyanza were found in Nyalenda Estate.

Kisii District

It has been stated elsewhere that this is the least migratory district in Nyanza and, in fact, in the whole Kisumu Region. Table VI.10 confirms this argument in that percentages of migrants out of the provincial total are considerably low. Kisii migrants interviewed in the town were recent arrivals mostly working at the Kisumu Cotton Mills (KICOMI). However, no investigations pertaining to employment bias were made.

Kakamega District

The major problem in much of Kakamega District

is the diminishing man-land ratio. This problem is already acute in the four locations of Bunyore East and West, and Maragoli North and South. This pressure of population on the land has been underlined by several studies about the area but it might be a good idea to defer discussing it until Chapter IV. Although the dominance of Maragoli and Bunyore are explained by Table VI.11, it should be noted that improved road services between Kisumu and Maseno as well as Kisumu and Kakamega have enhanced commuter transport. It seems that several commuters must have been omitted in the survey. The role of transport may also explain the position of Wanga and Marama locations: there is efficient daily road as well as road and rail transport on Kisumu-Mumias and Kisumu-Butere respectively.

Busia District

Busia has almost the same geographical features as Siaya District. For many years upto the 1962 much of the District was under the former Central Nyanza District. It is well known for cotton cultivation and the Yala Swamp which is to be reclaimed through irrigation

farming. That the district looks to Kisumu for most of her needs is due to its longstanding connections with the town in administrative matters. It is also due to good road transport between them. But the influence of Jinja and other lake towns in Uganda should not be underestimated. Compared to locations in Kakamega District, those in Busia showed lower rates of out-migration (Table VI.12).

Bungoma District

Of all the Western Province locations those in Bungoma District had the least proportion of migrants. Only two locations produced migrants (Table VI.13). As has been suggested before Bungoma District is also under some influence of Eldoret township.

The foregoing account does not exhaust all the locations in the Kisumu Region. Moreover, only the core locational names have been used instead of their smaller subdivisions explained by compass directions. Hence, we have used names such as Gem instead of North Gem, South Gem and so on. This has certain shortcomings but it was necessary in the light of some respondents' ignorance of such subdivisions. All the locations not

included in any of the tables had no migrants in the sample; of course, a census count would prove otherwise. There was a tendency for migrants from one location to nucleate in certain areas of the town, which fact suggests chain migration on lineage and locational bases.

MIGRANTS' MAINTENANCE OF CONTACT WITH HOME

It was important to ascertain the degree of migrants' contact with places they consider to be their homes. Two indices were used: these were relations and property left at home while staying in the town.

Relations at Home

The first index is explained by Table VII.1. Those who reported parents to be at home were nearly 78 per cent compared with 12.6 per cent for those with their spouses at home. A realistic figure could not be reached in the latter since some male respondents were reluctant to reveal that they were polygamists. Only one-tenth reported having other relatives and friends.

Property at Home

Property may be said to strengthen urban-rural links. It is clear from Table VII.2 that shamba alone accounted for 43.1 per cent of all kinds of property at home. Livestock was unimportant perhaps because as some respondents put it, livestock require constant care by their owners not relatives or friends; some 14.9 per cent of respondents to this question reported having neither of the two.

On the basis of the two indices it may be said that Kisumu migrants have very strong links with their homes. Indeed, Elkan has suggested that circular migration is an important phenomenon in East Africa as well as other parts of the continent.²⁷ Any developments advocated through physical planning and rural development programmes have to bear in mind this important situation. This point will be taken up in the next chapter for thorough analysis.

MOBILITY CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS

Mobility of people may be explained by several factors. These include the place of residence

at certain specified time periods, past experience in other urban centres, period of migration into the present residence, establishment on arriving in the town, and the nature and frequency of visits home if this is reported elsewhere. It is in this regard that migration histories may be unfolded in order to make some general conclusions pertaining to mobility characteristics of migrants.

Place of Residence in 1968 and 1972

The first attempt in this regard was to find out respondents' place of residence five years (1968) and one year ago (1972). In Table VIII.1 it can be seen that in 1968 329 respondents resided in Kisumu as compared with 239 who resided elsewhere: at their homes, in other places rural or urban. In 1972, however, the picture had drastically changed as 93.3 per cent of all respondents reported residence in Kisumu. An additional 201 represents a gain in net migration into the town or a loss of other places to it. Most of these recent arrivals were young school-leavers some of whom were still seeking paid employment in the town. Chi-square analysis of the

phenomenon was also made. The hypothesis that there is significant difference in residence of respondents between the two years was accepted since it was significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels (Table VIII.1a).

Previous Urban Experience

It was also necessary to consider the number of towns other than Kisumu in which migrants had lived (Table VIII.2). In the case of all respondents the majority had lived in two towns only and the lowest proportion in four towns. For temporary migrants the situation was similar to the foregoing with those having lived in only one town soaring high above those who had not lived in any town other than Kisumu. A different outlook may be noticed in the case of permanent migrants. Prominent in this group were those who had not lived in any town other than Kisumu followed by those who had lived in one town only. No permanent migrants reported having lived in four or five towns, which suggests that this group had greater attachment to Kisumu. There was very little difference in the characteristics of permanent migrants and non-migrants. Nearly 48 per cent of non-migrants had been in Kisumu throughout and slightly more

than one-fifth had been to one and two towns respectively. None of the group had lived in five towns.

The number of towns was limited to five so as to avoid memory lapse. Nairobi figured prominently among the Kenya towns in which migrants had lived; it was followed by provincial headquarters, Nakuru, Nyeri, Mombasa, Embu, Garissa and Kakamega and then other important towns such as Eldoret, Kitale, Thika, Murang'a and so on. Mere short-term visits to any of the towns were ignored as they would distort the information.

The following hypothesis was also tested:

Ho: There is no significant difference in the number of towns lived in between temporary and permanent migrants and non-migrants.

H1: There is significant difference in the number of towns lived in between temporary and permanent migrants and non-migrants.

The hypothesis was rejected at 5 per cent although not at 1 per cent level of significance (Table VIII.2a).

Time of Migrating to Kisumu

Different types of migrants moved to Kisumu at different periods in historical perspective. Table VIII.3 shows a few interesting features which require some explanation. Of all the respondents about one-twentieth were born in Kisumu town; 1 per cent did not state time of migration to the town; and the rest (93.4 per cent) migrated into the town at different periods. The period 1960-69 had the highest proportion followed by the period 1970 onwards. Since the latter is open-ended more migrants must have moved into the town between that date and May, 1973 so that the number might be much higher at the close of the decade. The same trend observed about all respondents appears in the case of temporary migrants. These recent arrivals consisted mainly of the school-age population and those aged between 20 and 29 years. But temporary migrants showed different characteristics in that the 1940-49 and 1950-59 periods each accounted for 32.7 per cent of the total. Non-migrants could not be represented in this time-chart because they were all reported as born in the town.

Absence of migrants relating to the 1910-19 period may be due to various reasons. It is apparent that memory lapse may have led to migrants confusing the correct decade of migration to Kisumu. Also, it may be that the 1914-18 War had robbed the town of its potential in-migrants as young and middle-aged adults turned to recruitment for the War. Thus the War may have wiped out the flood of rural-urban migrants by substituting war service for urban labour.

Chi-square analysis of this item relates to migrants only, temporary and permanent. It was found that there is very significant difference between the two kinds of migrants during the migration interval in question (see Table VIII.3a).

Establishment of New Migrants in the Town

A new migrant is faced with certain problems in the town the chief ones being housing, food and other aspects of daily maintenance. In many respects the presence of relatives or friends in the town is an important incentive to chain-migration along ethnic, tribal or family lines. Sometimes, however, their presence may have no influence at all. Table VIII.4 explains

the situation in respect of the town. Whereas, the response rate to presence of relatives accounted for 97.9 per cent that relating to staying with them accounted for 94.9 per cent of the total sample. There were 556 responses to the question relating to presence of relatives and friends in Kisumu. Of these only about one-twentieth reported having neither. Relatives were by far the majority. The subsidiary question on who of these had newly arrived migrants staying with them shortly elicited 539 responses of whom more than half were relatives. The proportion of those who stayed with neither of the two nearly doubled that of their presence. Out of 391 with relatives in the town 296 (75.7 per cent) stayed with them but 171.6 per cent were those who stayed with neither. The latter were mostly transferred workers who, before renting own houses, stayed in hotels or who took over houses of their predecessors in the case of institutional houses. Chi-square analysis tested the hypothesis that:

Ho: The presence of relatives and
 friends did not influence migrants'
 stay with them in the early stages
 of in-migration.

H1: The presence of relatives and friends influenced migrants' stay with them in the early stages of in-migration.

The result was found to be significant at both 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels. (Table VIII.4a). Thus H1 was accepted.

Perhaps further probe into the question might be useful for planning purposes. In their study of Monterrey, Mexico, Brown and Fiencht argued that the mere presence of relatives or friends does not insure that help will be forthcoming. They further identified forms of assistance to new migrants as provision of food and shelter as befits family members (70 per cent); help in finding a job (14 per cent); help in finding own housing (10 per cent); and direct financial assistance by paying trip or lending money and the like (7 per cent).²⁸ In the developing world where community comradeship is still the rule rather than the exception these forms of help explain the prerequisites of new migrants in a new scene.

Contact with Home since Migration into Kisumu

Contact with home since migration to

Kisumu was also examined. Tables VIII.5 through to VIII.7a demonstrate the importance of this fact. In Table VIII.5 it can be seen that those who had visited their homes since migrating to the town were by far the majority. They were followed by those who reported the town as their permanent home, namely permanent migrants and non-migrants. Less than one-fifth had never visited home since migrating. The table explains the importance of urban-rural links in an environment where an urban centre is a peculiar entity within an expanse of rural milieu.

Therefore it was necessary to consider the nature and frequencies of visits back home (Table VIII.6). A notable feature is the slight deviation of the four possible responses. Visits home were considered within the framework of non-working days, holidays, when money is most available and at irregular times as time and money may permit. Those visiting home on leave/holidays accounted for 30.8 per cent of all respondents to this question compared with weekend visitmakers who accounted for 28.9 per cent. This means that any form of rest constitutes a most welcome relief to Kisumu migrants. It was generally found that these two groups were short-distance migrants in the case of weekend

visits and short-and long-distance migrants in the case of leave/holiday visits. Irregular visits ranked third and wide ranging reasons were given for this. End of month visits accounted for the lowest proportion of migrants. This group comprised mainly adult males with their spouse at home who sent or carried with them remittances to relatives; these enabled them to solve such domestic commitments as cultivation, bush clearing and so on.

These visits home were also cross-classified with ages of respondents (Table VIII.7). The most striking feature is the dominance of those aged 25-29 years. In fact, those aged between 20-39 years show more interest in home visits than any other age brackets. Another important feature concerns those who made irregular visits (other). They are represented in all age groups except the 65-69 age group, which had no responses at all. Consistency of this group begins at the age 60 years. On computing chi-square for this item the hypothesis tested was:

Ho: There is no significant difference
in visits home between age groups.

III: There is significant difference in visits home between age groups.

Table VIII.7a shows that the result was significant at 5 per cent level.

Future mobility of urban migrants may take three forms. These may be continued stay at the present residence, movement to another urban centre i.e. urban-urban migration or urban-rural migration to the countryside. This question forms the basis of Table VIII.8. The majority of respondents reported continued stay in Kisumu. But potential out-migrants accounted for slightly more than one-fifth and nearly one-tenth respectively. Thus respondents in the town were relatively stable and those who expected to move out preferred urban-urban migration. Urban-rural migration is currently a rare phenomenon which involves a small number of retired workers and unemployed persons returning home.

CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSEHOLDS

It has been stated elsewhere that households ranged from a single occupant through a nuclear family to an extended or composite family. Since interviews were confined to heads of households some bias in reporting

occurred in different facets. Some heads of households gave incorrect information about themselves as about other members of the household: wives, children and other relatives. The anomalous sex ratio particularly among those aged 0-4 and 5-9 years may be attributed partly to misreporting by heads of households. Fig. 14 shows enumerated and graduated population for Kisumu. The yawning gap shows the influence of migration particularly in those ages most prone to migration.

Household Sizes

Table IX.1 shows some interesting features. It can be seen that the dominant household size had 4 to 6 persons notwithstanding the nature of combination. But the smallest household size accounted for 37.5 per cent of all sizes. Households with 10 or more persons accounted for little more than one-fifth of the total. However, the table fails to depict the true situation in the three strata which reflect different socio-economic characteristics of households. In order to identify these Fig. 15 should be studied carefully.

The smallest and largest household sizes show almost similar characteristics. In the former stratum C was outstanding followed by strata B and A

FIG.14 ENUMERATED AND ADJUSTED POPULATION FOR KISUMU TOWN

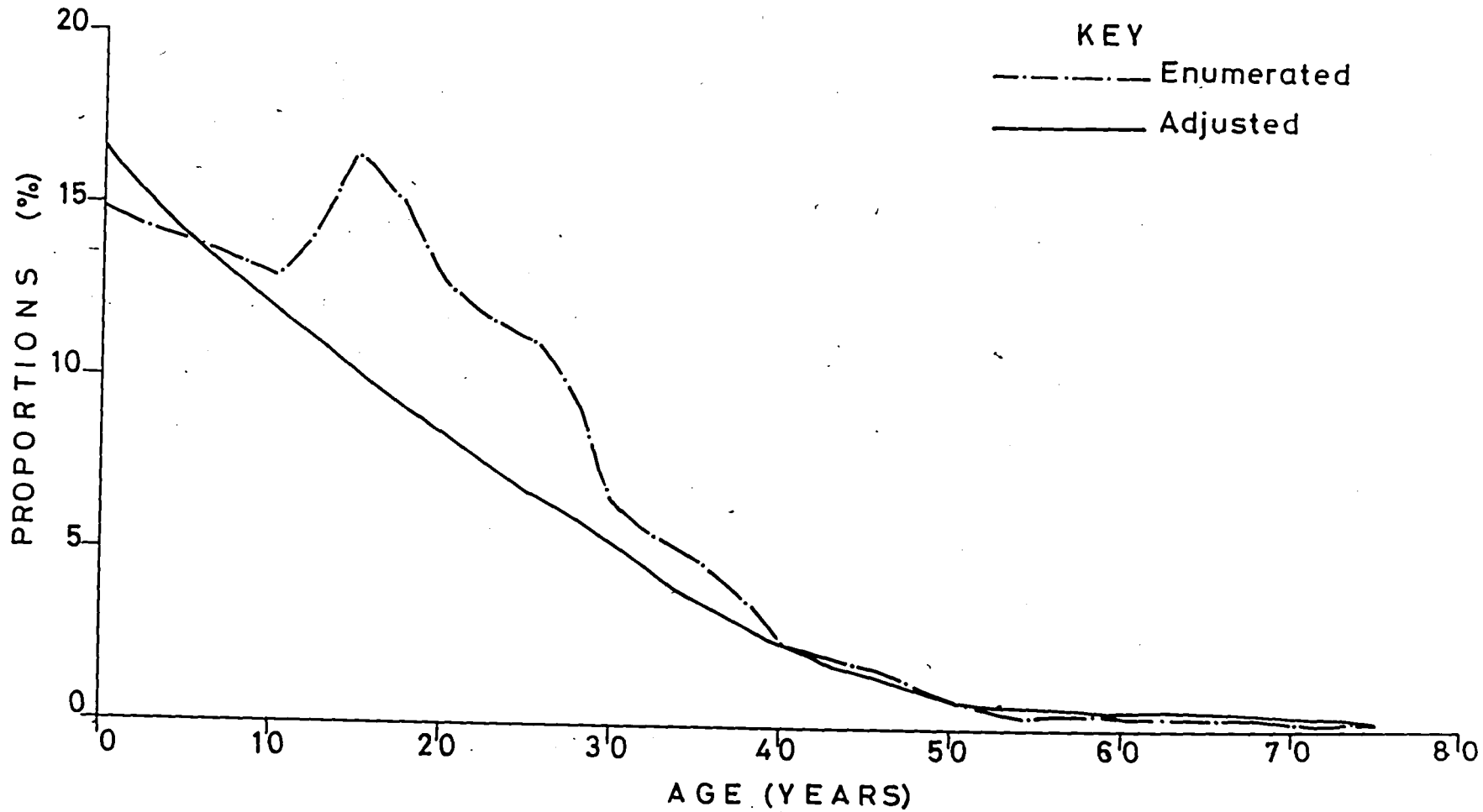
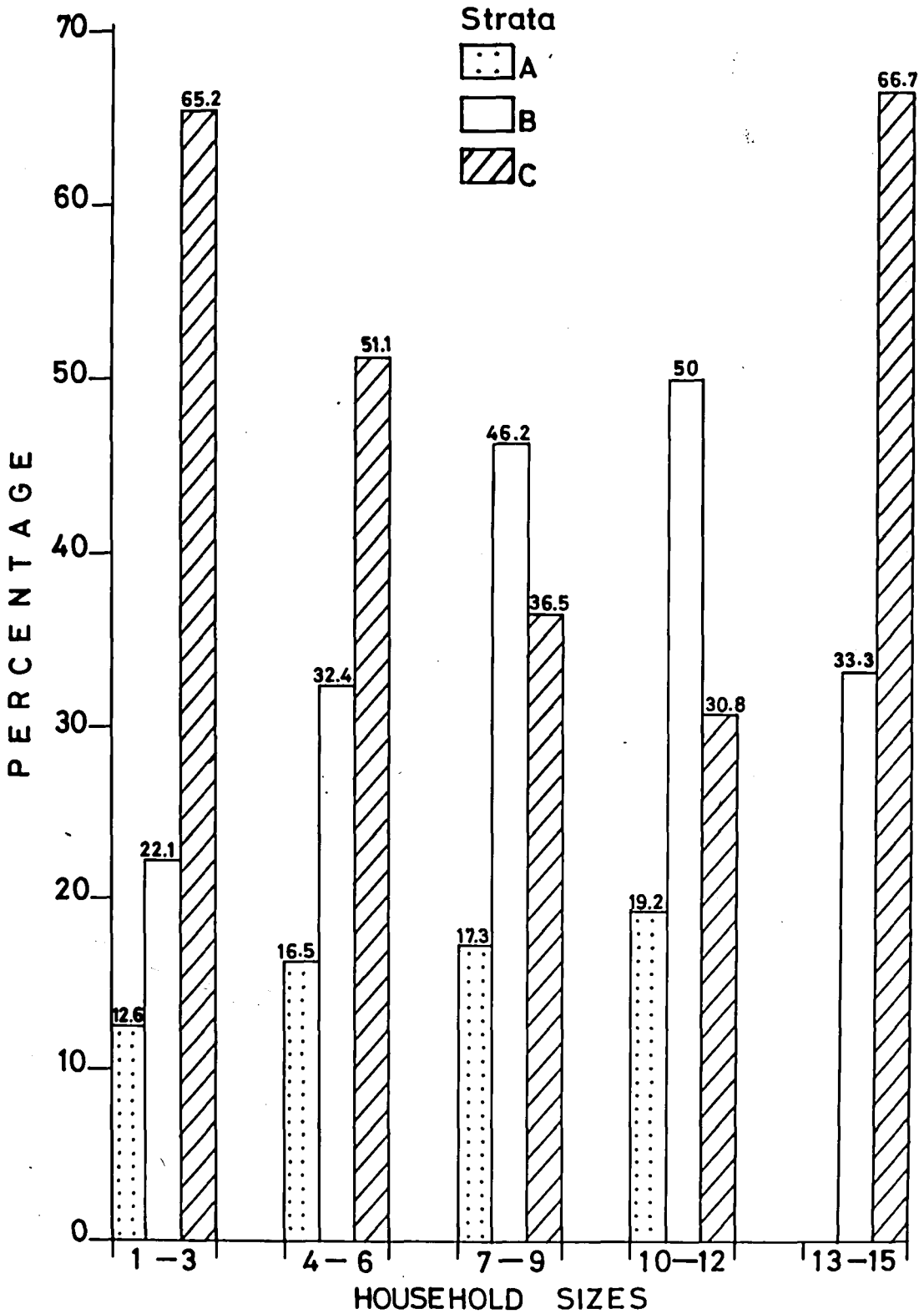


FIG.15 HOUSEHOLD SIZES BY STRATA



in that order. This dominance of stratum C is further experienced in household sizes with 4-6 and 13-15 persons. As has been explained in previous chapters stratum C consists of the African population most of whom still cherish polygamy and therefore have large households. In households with 4-6 persons the same pattern was noticed as in the preceding household size. It can be noted that strata A and B accounted for nearly half of the total in that size group.

In households of 7-9 persons a different pattern emerges. Both strata A and B accounted for 63.5 per cent of the total in this size group with stratum B alone being 46.2 per cent. These are the high and medium groups in the social structure of the town. But no convincing reason may be advanced in respect of stratum C which here loses its dominance to stratum B. Households having 10-12 persons also show the dominance of stratum B which accounts for exactly half of the total; the other half is shared by strata A and C. This household size was characterised by middle-aged or old heads of households living together with their wives, children and other relatives within the extended family system. It is a modal size for most households in not only Kisumu but also other towns in Kenya but

tends to typify medium income or medium density residential units. The largest household size with 13-15 persons was not experienced in stratum A which consists of high income and low density residential units. The dominance of stratum C may be attributed to the fact that most of the former peri-urban inhabitants had larger families and tended to stay with more relatives than in the other two strata. As has been explained in Chapter II, some inhabitants in this stratum actually have homesteads in which they perpetuate modes of rural life.

Information collected about numbers of people in a household may have been deceptive. Yet it is a vital indicator of the socio-economic differentials of different strata which constitute a given set of sample areas.

Age-sex structure of sample households gives a more representative situation in the town than that of respondents. The latter were distorted by the biased selection of respondents in terms of heads of households which tended to favour males. In Table IX.2 it can be seen that the predominant age-group for both sexes was 15-19. For males only the dominance of those aged 20-24 years was observed; the peak of migration

still occurs in the 20-29 age bracket. But for females those aged 15-19 years dominated. More than one half of 2,656 members of households were males. This confirms a high rate of masculinity which is characteristic of urban populations. Younger women showed flavour for urban living as can be seen in the table.

Some Demographic Parameters

Several parameters were computed from household data. These comprised sex, age, child-woman, and dependency ratios as well as labour force rates. Notwithstanding some biases in the sample these parameters explain roughly the demographic sketch of the town (see Table IX.3).

It can be seen that there was low sex ratio in the 0-19 age bracket. In other words, in every five-year age group within this bracket there was low sex ratio, i.e. women outnumbered males. From the age of 20 years onwards the influence of in-migration asserts itself. As masculinity increases with age so does sex ratio which hits the peak in the 40-44 age group. In Table IX.3 three stages of sex ratio are discernible: those aged 0-19 years may be classified as children,

those aged 20-29 years as young adults and those 30 and above years as middle aged and old adults. Differential influence of migration on these stages of human life may explain differences in sex ratio.

Age ratios were generally high. Male age ratios were generally higher than those for females and almost identical with both sexes considered together. A ratio of 1.0 indicates perfect correspondence of age groups; a higher ratio indicates an excess and a lower one shows deficit over the preceding age group. The excess of age group 5-9 for males and both sexes may be attributed to apparent over-enumeration of those aged 0-4 years. However, age ratio for females is consistent with the normal situation since there are usually about 1.0 female births compared to 1.05 male births. Two age groups show high age ratios which are due to immigration. The first is the 15-19 age group at which point an influx of secondary school population is experienced in the town. Female age ratios are more than for males in this age group because young women increasingly show the tendency of being more migratory than their male counterparts. The second is the 25-29 age group when rural-urban migration reaches the peak.

Besides these two ratios one fertility

ratio and two economic activity ratios were computed. On the basis of household data child-woman ratio was found to be 0.648 or 64.8 per thousand. It is computed as follows:²⁹

$$\frac{P_{0-4}}{f_{15-44}} K$$

where:

P_{0-4} is the number of children, both sexes, under 5 years of age,

f_{15-44} is the number of females between ages 15-44.

(Sometimes f_{15-49} is used), and K is 1,000.

This is a reasonably high estimate for Kisumu although figures may have been distorted by incomplete reporting of the number of children.

Dependency ratio was found to be 73.1 per cent for the total sample. Whereas that for males was 56.8 per cent, that for females was 97.0 per cent. The high dependency ratio for females was augmented by low average economic activity rates for the same sex (see Table V.9).

Of the total sample reported as economically

active 56.6 per cent were labour force for both sexes. Labour force rates for males and females were 62.4 per cent and 49.8 per cent respectively. These ratios corresponded very closely with the socio-economic characteristics of different strata, a situation reminiscent of the colonial economy. For example, heavy dependency ratios were experienced in much of stratum C; the ratios were medium in stratum B and light in stratum A which was exclusively for Europeans and Asians during colonial days. A similar pattern has been found in many colonial towns including Nairobi.³⁰ Census data analysed by Ominde gave dependency ratio as 69.73 per cent and labour force as 58.9 per cent.

Perhaps the situation may be better explained by age-sex pyramids for the whole and parts of the town. Figs. 16 - 22 should be studied carefully in order to follow the trend of analysis. Seven pyramids represent Kisumu town and two sample areas in each of the three strata.

The most striking feature in Fig. 16 is female dominance at age 0-4 years. This observation is inconsistent with the normal demographic situation but is not an isolated finding as will be explained shortly. It can also be seen that female dominance at age 0-4

FIG.16

KISUMU TOWN
SAMPLE POPULATION: 2,656

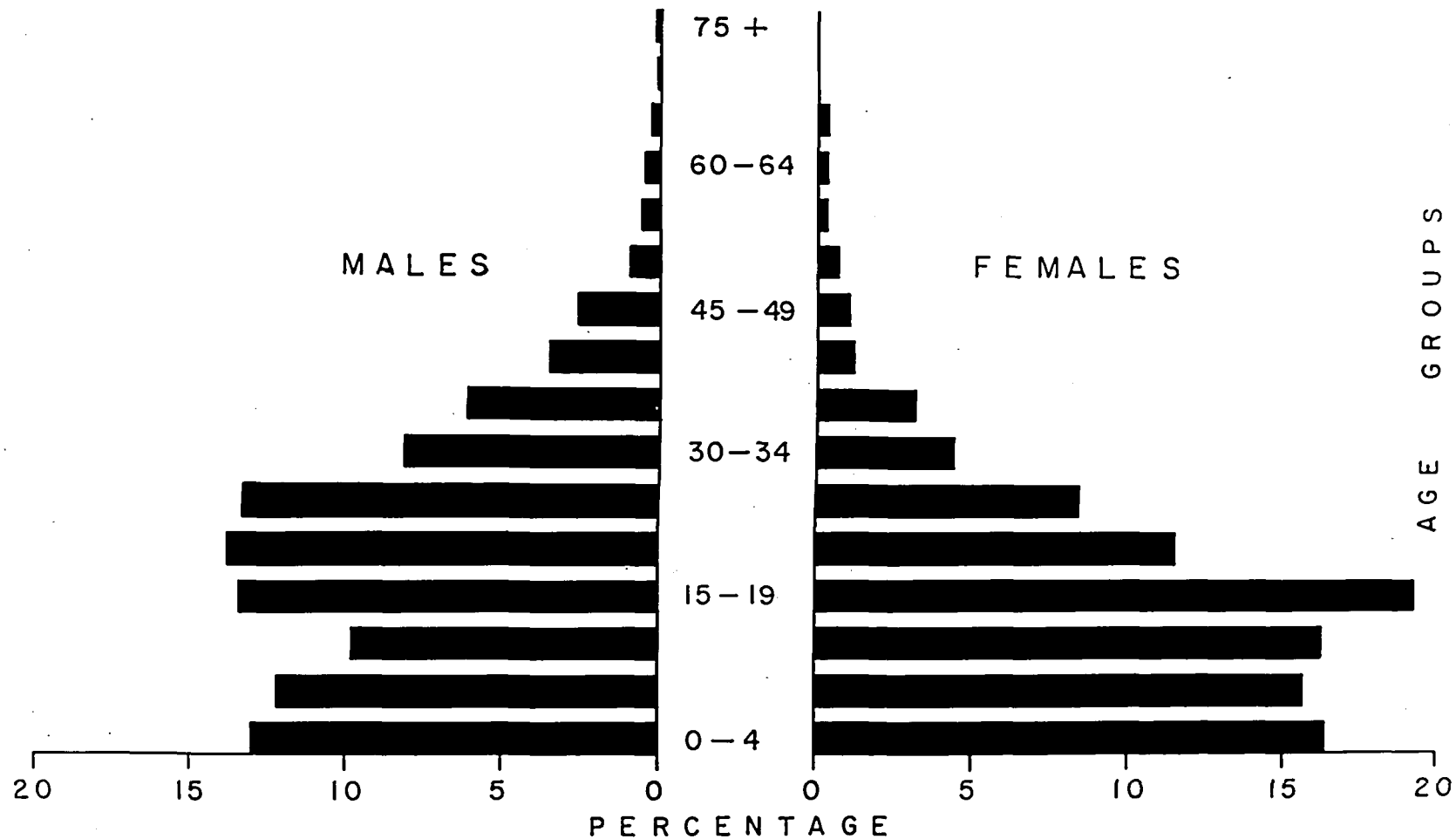
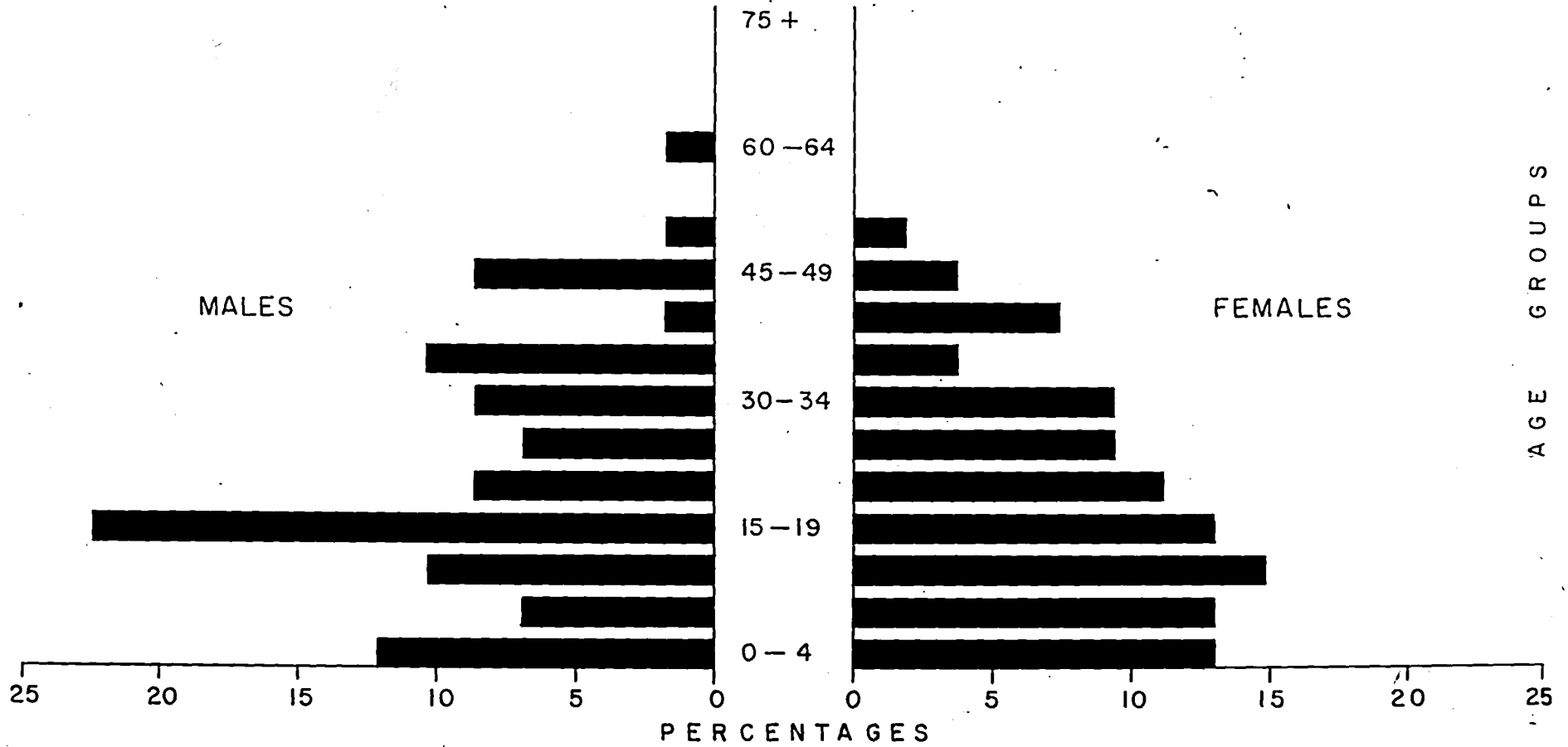


FIG. 17

MLIMANI ESTATE
SAMPLE POPULATION: 112



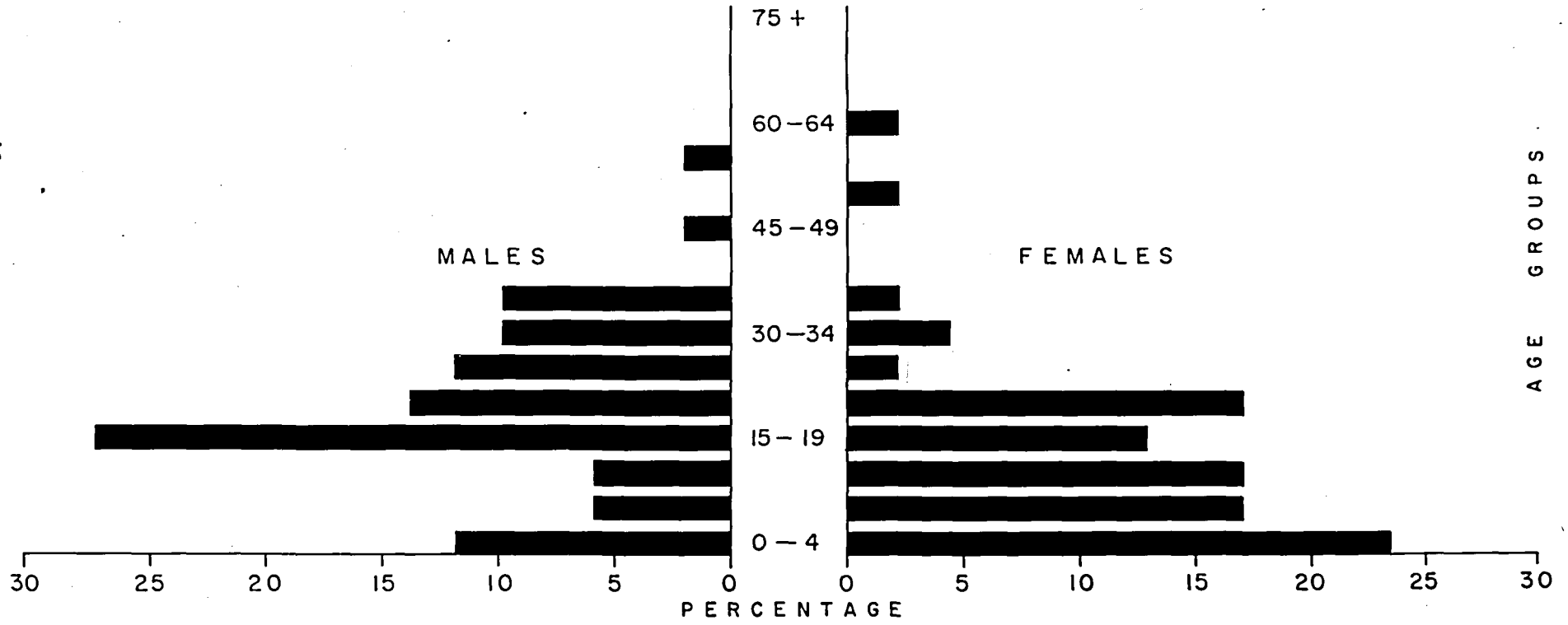
AGE GROUPS
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influences a similar situation in the 5-19 age bracket before male dominance sets in. The latter occurs from the age of 20 years onwards. This may be attributed to in-migration which reaches the peak in the 20-29 age bracket. Absence of females at age 70 and above may be due to the tendency for female migrants to return to their homes earlier than male migrants.

Although the age-sex pyramid for Kisumu town is basically similar to that of other urban centres, it shows anomalous sex pattern in the 0-19 age bracket. It is a demographic norm that there are more male than female births but that females have higher survival ratios than males. The expected situation should therefore be male dominance at age 0-4 and slight female dominance in the other ages. Ominde has found a similar anomalous situation in urban centres such as Wundanyi, and Nyeri.³¹ In order to probe into this anomalous sex pattern at age 0-4 the author carried out a short survey in both public and private maternity hospitals in the town. Information was procured from delivery registers for 1972 and 1973. The following summary explains the findings:

FIG. 18

PATEL FLATS
SAMPLE POPULATION: 98



SAMPLE DATA FOR POPULATION AGED 0 YEAR

Maternity of Delivery	Number of Births by Sex		
	Males	Females	Both
Kisumu Nursing Home ^a (1972)	105	111	216
(1973)	87	79	166
Victoria Hospital ^b (1972)	72	54	126
New Nyanza General Hospital ^c (1973)	796	851	1647
	1,060	1,095	2,155

^a Source: Delivery Register from 1972. This is a private maternity home.

^b Source: Register of Births, Med. 99, GPK 1531-1m Bks 7/71. This is a government hospital.

^c Same as b above.

The above information confirms female dominance at age 0 but it should be realised that not all births in these hospitals relate to the town only. Delivery cases can originate from farther off places in or outside the Kisumu Region. It may have been more useful to refine the information by finding how many of these births originated from Kisumu town itself. Also as data for 1973 refer to months upto August only, it is risky to make conclusive remarks from them. Anomalies in age-sex pyramids for the town may be due to some errors and other dubious reasons.

Errors might have occurred as a result of incorrect estimation of age based on either parents' deliberate misreporting or interviewers' arbitrary judgements in evaluation of ages. Underestimation of children aged 0-4 or 1 year is influenced by such stages as weaning, walking or talking which occur at different ages for different children.³³ The author is also well aware of the delicacy attached to babies and young children in an African community. As males are the more popular yet the less resistant sex, it is likely that revelation of male births is tantamount to a curse. As a result over-reporting of females and under-reporting of males are likely to happen in cases where enumerators

FIG. 19

ONDIEK ESTATE
SAMPLE POPULATION: 230

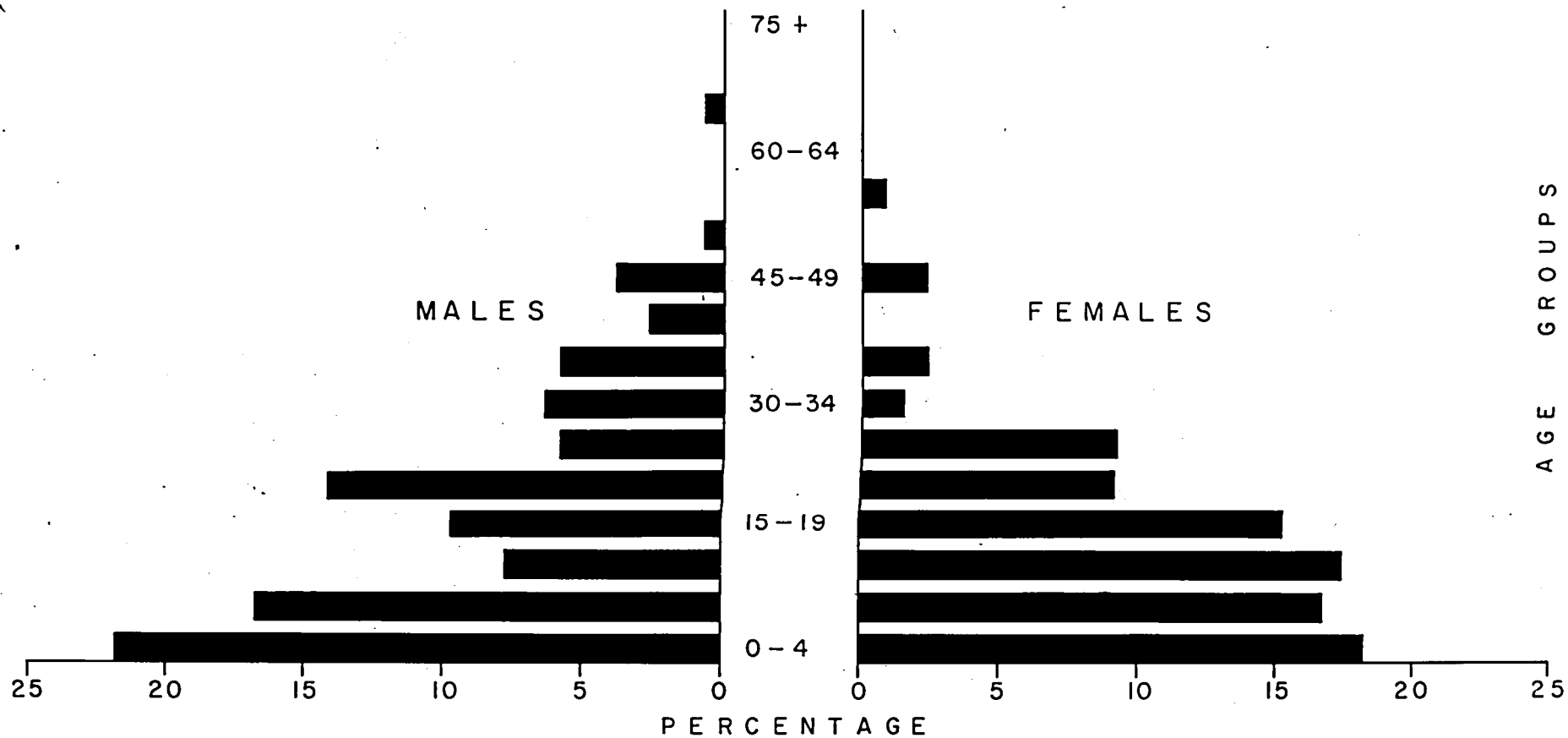
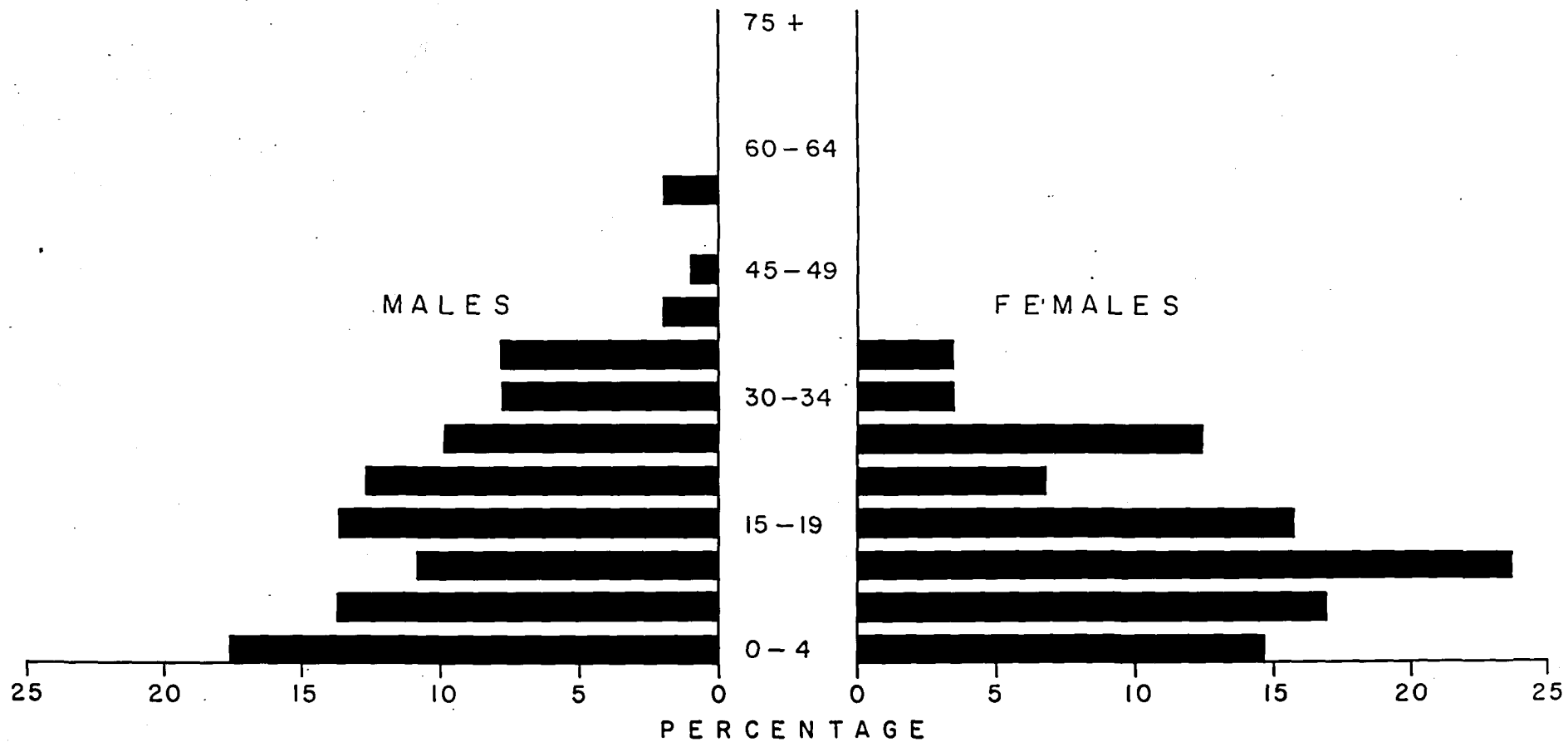


FIG. 20

ARINA ESTATE
SAMPLE POPULATION: 191



have no chance to see the children being referred to.

Other age-sex pyramids have been compiled for Mlimani, Patel Flats (Stratum A), Ondiek, Arina (Stratum B), and Nyalenda, Manyatta (Stratum C). Except for stratum B the rest of the sample areas had the foregoing anomaly. At Mlimani sex structure at age groups above 15-19 is nearly balanced although absence of females starts at age 55 onwards. But females survive at later ages in Patel Flats where most Asians were encountered. This ethnic group tends to stay in the town longer than other groups so that higher survival rates of females is demonstrated by their presence in older ages. Ondiek and Arina pyramids are very close representations of an urban age-sex pyramid in that the expected age-sex pattern can be noticed. The influence of in-migration may be explained by the dominance of young adults in Nyalenda and Manyatta. Absence of females from age of 60 years onwards is again an interesting feature.

Sex Ratio by Age Group from Census and Survey Data

Comparison of sex ratios by age group derived from census and survey data reveals close agree-

ment of findings (Table IX.4). At age 0-4 census data shows the expected sex ratio as different from survey data whose contrary results have been explained in the previous section.

However, between the 5-19 age bracket low sex ratios are experienced in the two sources of data. Conversely, the 20-29 age bracket has generally high sex ratios with census data having much higher estimates. In the last two age groups survey information gives higher sex ratios. Masculinity in the town which is portrayed by survey data may be attributed to longevity or urban living at the higher ages. The general pattern of sex ratio by age group derived from the survey data does not differ considerably from that derived from census information. They therefore constitute dependable data for analysis and projections.

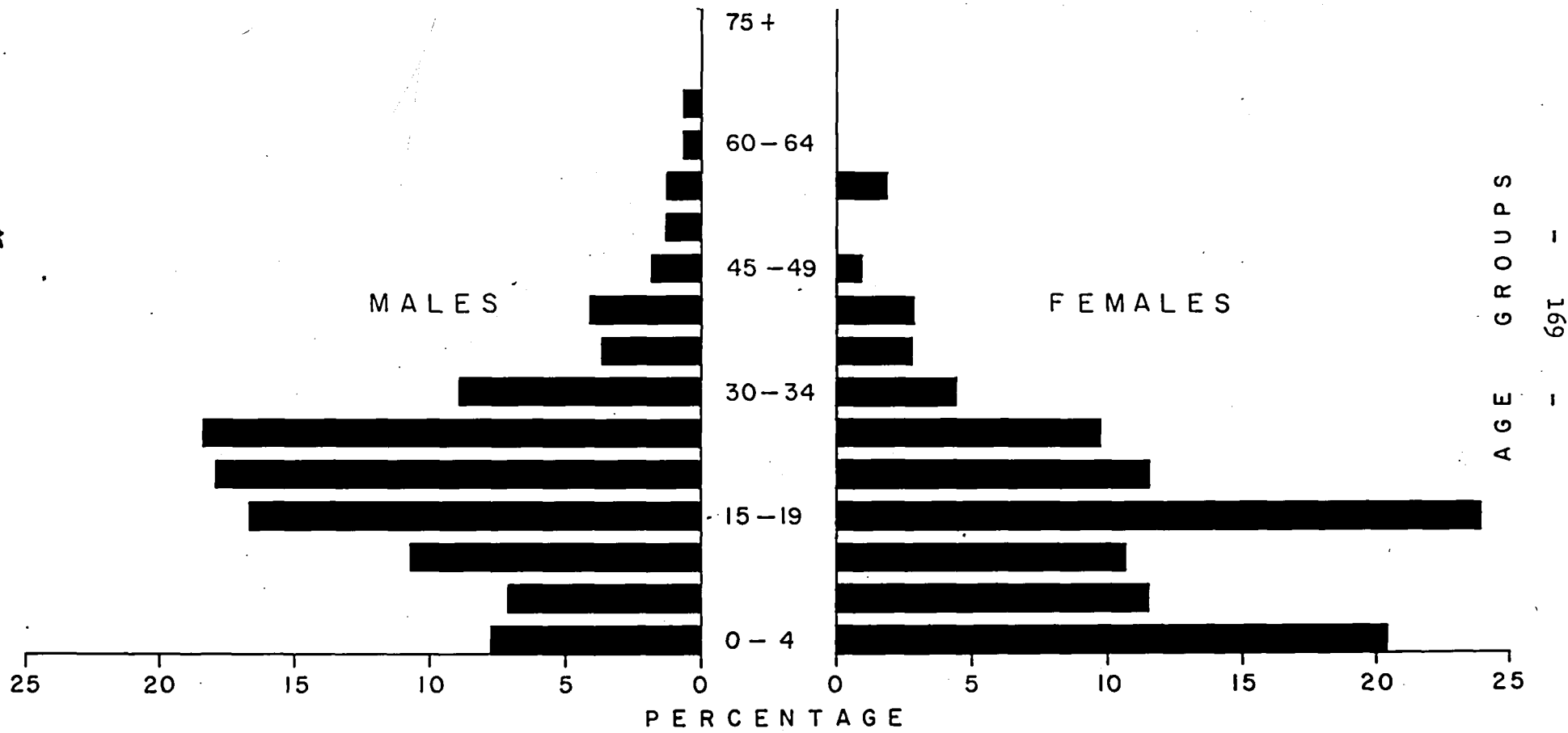
ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS

Broadly speaking, migration is an adjustment to rigours of the physical and human environments. Thus people generally migrate from areas with repellent to those with attractive environmental conditions.³⁴ However, other intangible factors may cause migration.

FIG. 21

NYALENDA ESTATE

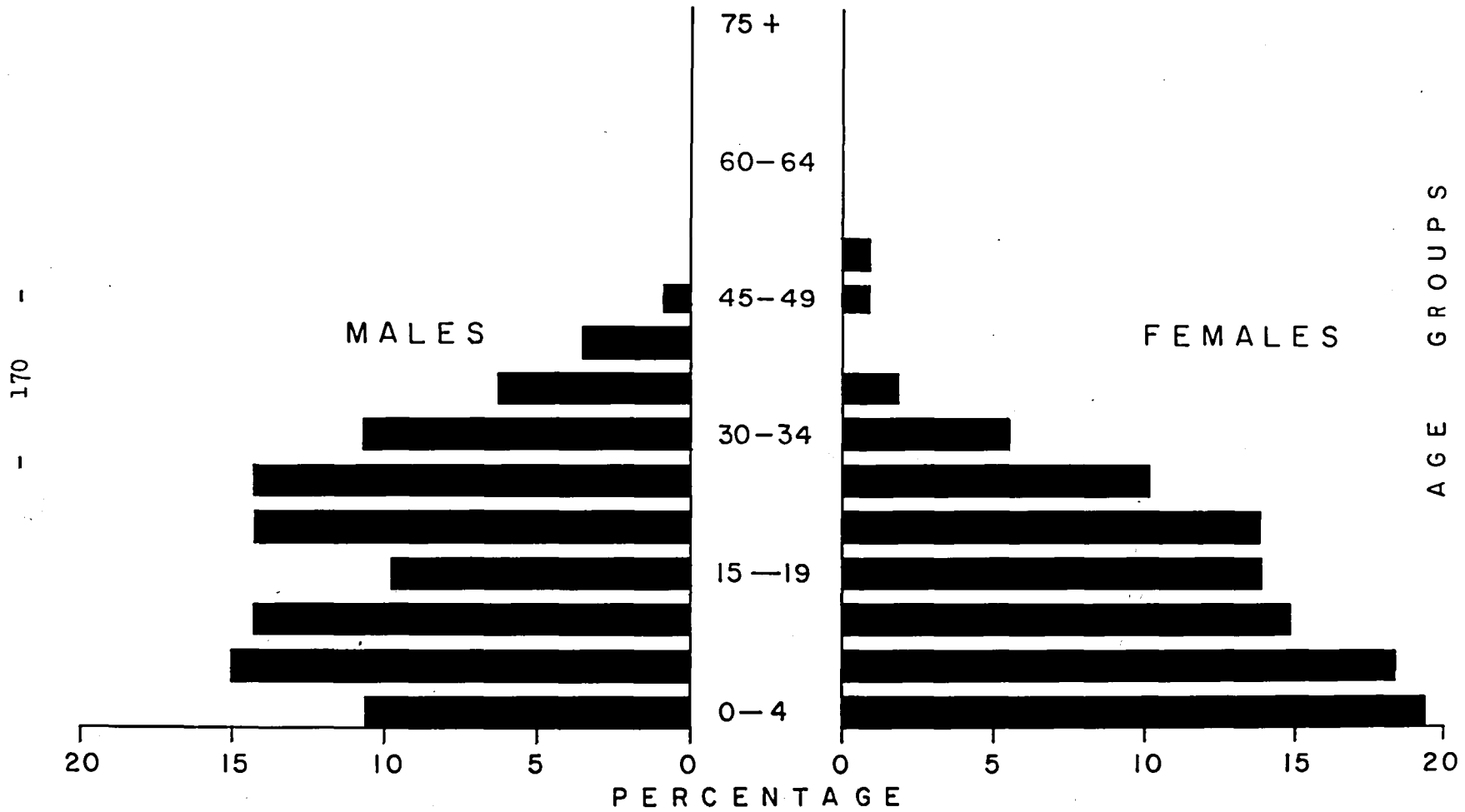
SAMPLE POPULATION: 282



AGE GROUPS
- 169 -

FIG. 22

MANYATTA ESTATE
SAMPLE POPULATION: 222



This section probes into reasons for migration, migrants' perceptions of salary and standard of living in out-and in-migration areas and future migration plans. An attempt is made to classify migrants on the basis of future migration plans in order to facilitate rational planning of the town and its region.

Reasons for Migration

Although no study can exhaust all reasons for migration, there are a few salient causes of migration. They range from the more easily recognised economic to the non-economic factors which are difficult to ascertain. More often than not, "the place taken by what are frequently called social and psychological (non-economic) factors is less clearly defined."³⁵ Even such factors of attraction as the highest paying jobs, best schools, liveliest dance bands and an increasing number of relatives in the towns explain the situation only partially.³⁶ However, they reflect the diversity of interests which induce different people to migrate.

It is apparent that "most people are scarcely aware themselves of all the considerations that enter into their decision to migrate."³⁷ Factors which

appear prominent at first sight may in fact be insignificant as a migrant continues to climb the social ladder thereby developing new aspirations. In a rural-rural migration study of Miwani Sugar Estate to the north-east of Kisumu town, Ogungo identified two sets of causes. These were economic and social causes on the one hand, and psychological and political reasons on the other. The influence of selected variables under the two was examined in terms of permanent workers and casual labourers. Of the 664 migrants interviewed those who reported economic and social reasons accounted for 76.2 per cent as compared with 23.8 per cent for psychological and political reasons.³⁸ It is interesting to note that some aspirations which appear insignificant turned out to be very important in that study. The only difficulty arises in comparing the frequencies which should have been expressed in relative rather than absolute form. Bogue argues that events leading to migration can be triggered by a vast array of situations; he lists 25 situations which are likely to stimulate migration. The list is supplemented by "pull" factors at the destinations as well as socio-economic conditions that can stimulate or retard the propensity to migrate among a population.³⁹

In formulating questions relating to reasons

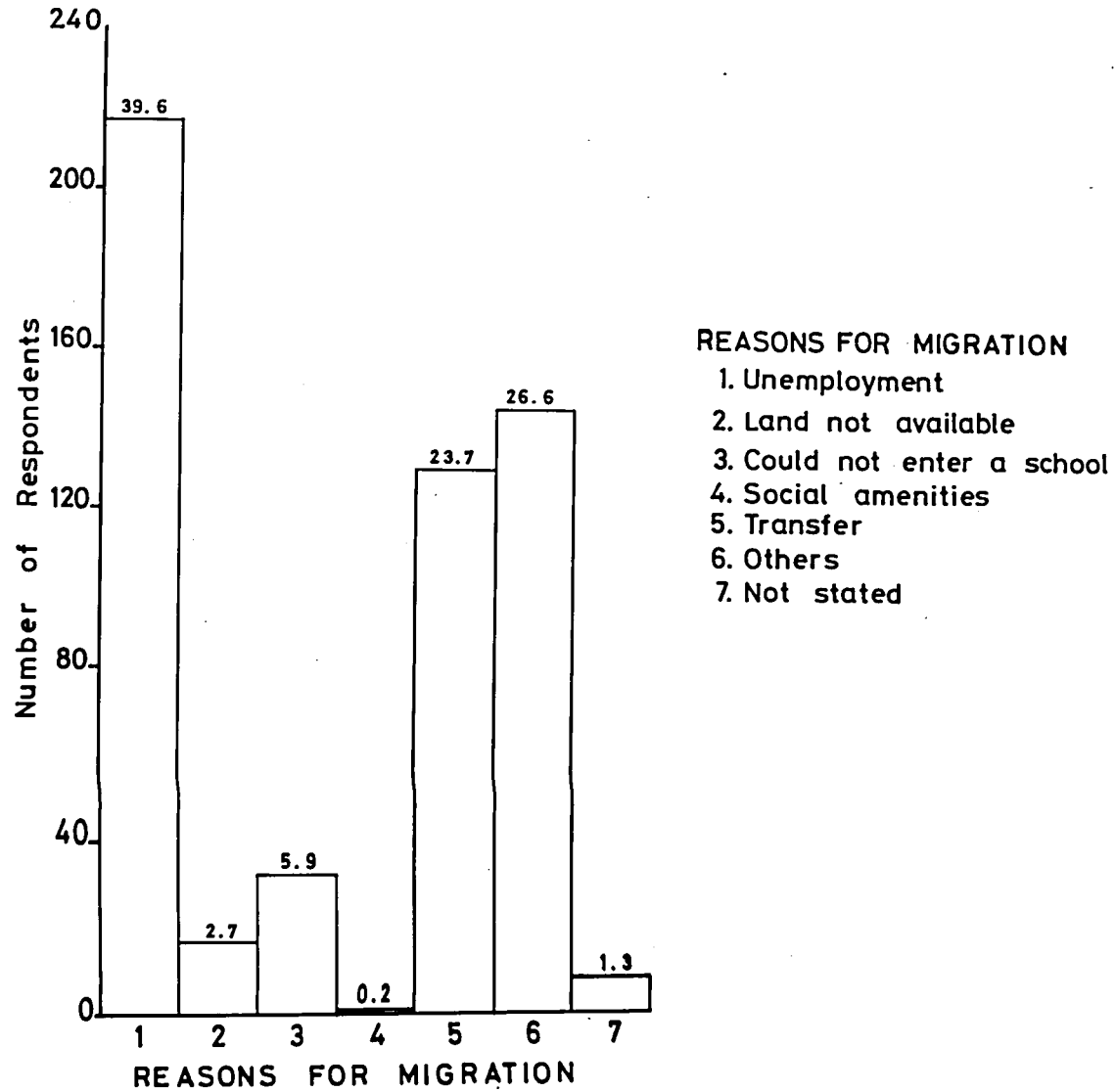
for migration to Kisumu the author considered economic, social, educational and those vaguely called "other" factors. The pattern of responses agreed closely with Gerger's findings in the Vastervik migration study.⁴⁰ Fig. 23 explains the situation in Kisumu. It can be seen that unemployment was by far the most important reason for migration. Considered together with "transfer to Kisumu", they demonstrate the predominance of economic reasons (63.3 per cent). Like the Varstervik study it was found that reasons lumped as "other" rank second to economic factors. They include the need to join the spouse already living in the town, marriage migration and other less tangible causes. The most outstanding non-economic reason was inability to enter a (secondary) school at the source of migration which accounted for one-twentieth of all reasons. Pressure of population on the land was prominent among the less important reasons for migration.

Reasons for Migration by Age Group

Reasons for migration were also analysed in terms of age groups (Table X.1). Unemployment influe-

nced mostly the 25-29, 20-24 and 30-34 age groups in that order. The least influenced were those aged 70-74 and 75+ years. As for land hunger those aged 50-54 years were most important followed by 40-49 and 25-29 age groups. It seems that older people realised the increasing diminution of land. Non-response in the 15-24 age bracket suggests either unawareness of land hunger or lack of interest in that item as a valuable resource. In the case of school as a factor those aged 15-19 years dominated followed by those aged 20-24 years. Non response from age 30 years onwards explains relative marginality of this factor. In recent years a vast turn-over of primary school graduates in rural areas has stimulated rural-urban migration with a view to securing any form of secondary school education. This involves mainly teenagers who accounted for one-half of all responses to that variable (see Table X.1). Lack of social amenities elicited only one response. Naturally young adults of the age 20-24 years have almost similar aspirations for social amenities to the preceding age group with whom they have much in common. Transfer to Kisumu affected mostly those aged 25-29 years followed by the next age group. As has been argued elsewhere, the former have flavour for mobility and could satisfy

FIG. 23 REASONS FOR MIGRATION TO KISUMU



this aspiration by initiating transfers themselves. On the other hand, older adults might wish to transfer to the town so as to enhance contact with their rural homes.

Other reasons recorded responses in all age groups. Again the predominance of the 25-29 age group can be noticed. But higher responses may be realised in the younger than older ages taking the foregoing as the median age group. This may be because younger wives often move into the town to join husbands, school population move there during holidays to stay with relatives and friends and so on.

The foregoing discussion has hinged on two premises of reasons for migration, namely the "push" factors and the "pull" factors. But the author avoided pigeon-holing of the reasons mentioned above within the framework of the two sets of factors, as it is difficult to ascertain their impact either singly or simultaneously. The decision to migrate has been attributed to migrants' environmental perception within physical or human realms, realistic or imaginative. This perception takes in differential human characteristics of which age is paramount. In economic terms perception may also take the form of salary and standard of living at the previous vis-a-vis present residence. This may be termed percep-

tion of the socio-economic environment (Table X.2). It can be noted that to most respondents salary was better at previous than at present residence (Kisumu). But the standard of living was more favourable at Kisumu than at the previous residence. It may therefore be argued that the loss incurred in salary was compensated by a gain in the standard of living. Comparison of Nairobi and Kisumu explains an interesting contrast. With the high standard of living in Nairobi a person earning Shs. 1,000/- per month may be worse financially than one earning half that in Kisumu. Lower standard of living in Kisumu tempers conditions particularly for migrants originating from Western Kenya itself. This sentiment was expressed by many migrants aged 30 years and above. But younger migrants were either indifferent or openly resentful of conditions obtaining in the town.

This section may be concluded by identifying the causes of migration in the words of Mitchell:

"Thus economic factors are probably necessary, but not sufficient and the rate of labour migration is probably determined by economic factors, whereas incidence probably depends upon social and psychological conditions."⁴¹

Put another way, economic factors are basic in the decision to migrate but social and psychological conditions may check or intensify the frequency of migration from a given source.

Future Migration Sketch

Since migration is a continuous process in human life future migration plans are as important as present or past experience. But future migration plans are actually rough sketches which may not necessarily hold. In Table X.3 three sketches may be identified: continued stay in Kisumu either permanently or temporarily, out-migration to another place and uncertainty in future conditions. In both sexes out-migration at one time accounted for half the total responses followed by uncertainty in future migration. Only 13.8 per cent reported willingness to stay in Kisumu permanently. Males showed almost a similar pattern except that the second most important plan was temporary stay in the town. Married females depended more on husbands' decisions; unmarried ones were generally uncertain about the future which would be shaped by marriage as well as other conditions. Hence a higher proportion were "uncertain about future

plans". The following hypothesis was tested:

Ho: Future migration plans have no sex bias.

H1: Future migration plans have sex bias.

Since the result was found to be significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels H1 was accepted on rejection of Ho (Table X.3a).

Future migration plans were also cross-classified with age of all respondents both migrants and non-migrants (Table X.4). Except for uncertain respondents those aged 25-29 years accounted for the highest proportions in the rest of the plans. Those aged 20-24 years were dominant among those uncertain about future plans. This may be attributed to their initiation in migratory behaviour which hits the peak in the 20-29 age bracket. Another interesting fact is reluctance of the 15-24 and 55-74 age brackets to stay in Kisumu for good. It may be argued that whereas the former are uncertain about future migration sketch the latter are mature enough to weigh continued stay in the town against migration elsewhere or permanent return home. Respondents staying in Kisumu until retirement were employees and wives conversant with husbands' future migration plans. This is explained by non-response in the economically inactive age groups.

Of those who planned to out-migrate at one time the 25-29 age group were clearly dominant followed by those aged 30-34 years. It is interesting that this was the only future migration plan which was responded to by all informants.

Chi-square test of future migration plans by age group involved the following hypothesis:

Ho: There is no significant difference between future migration plans for different age groups.

H1: There is significant difference between future migration plans for different age groups.

As the result was significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels Ho was rejected and H1 accepted (Table X.4a). At different ages in a life cycle a migrant develops different attitudes to migratory behaviour in accordance with changing physiological integrity as well as environmental perception.

TYOLOGY OF MIGRANTS

In order to appreciate the implications of migration in a wide range of urban activities it was

necessary to classify all respondents. Three types were identified, namely, migrants, non-migrants and commuters. It should be noted that the last were not interviewed since they did not qualify as migrants. But it is important to discuss commuting which faces a grim future unless immediate palliatives, if anything, are adopted.

Migrants and Non-Migrants

The typology of migrants was cross-classified with ethnic group, tribal affiliation, sex and age (Tables X.5 to 8a). Brief comments are made on each of these.

Table X.5 classifies migrants as temporary or permanent as well as non-migrants by ethnic group.

Typology of Migrants and Ethnicity

Temporary migrants were those who immigrated from elsewhere or who were born in the town but expect to move out at one time. On the other hand, permanent migrants expected to stay in the town for good. In the table it can be seen that Africans are predominant in the two types of migrants. Asians are next with nearly

one-quarter classified as permanent migrants. Europeans and the lonely "other" ethnic group expect to be temporary only in the town, the former surpassing Asians as temporary migrants.

Non-migrants were those born, bred and expecting to continue living in the town. The same sequence observed in the case of migrants appears in this group, but no Europeans and "other" ethnic group were so classified. Arabs accounted for slightly more than one-quarter compared with Asians who accounted for a little more than one-tenth of all non-migrants. Thus more intensive analysis of characteristics of Africans, Asians and Arabs is imperative for planned development of Kisumu. The following hypothesis was tested:

Ho: There is no significant difference between types of migrants in terms of ethnic groups.

H1: There is significant difference between types of migrants in terms of ethnic groups.

H1 was accepted at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

Naturally, the dominance of Africans in relation to foreign ethnic groups is commonplace in African towns and cities.

Similarly their commitment to live there is guided by

past, present as well as future experience on the one hand and type of citizenry in the country on the other.

Typology of Migrants and Tribal Affiliation

African tribal groups represent rural-urban migrants par excellence so that classification of them has more far reaching implications (Table X.6). The predominance of the Luo is an expected feature as has been explained in Chapter III. Temporary migrants were well distributed according to tribal groups. In the case of permanent migrants two tribal groups (Kikuyu and Kamba) originating outside and one (Kisii) from the Kisumu Region were not included. However, the Luhya and other tribal groups had the same proportion among permanent migrants; the proportion of Kalenjin was also higher than among temporary migrants. Apart from other tribal groups which included Swahili and Nubians only tribal groups from the Kisumu Region opted to be permanent migrants. Non-migrants were the Luo and other tribal groups such as Swahili and Nubians most of whom had no homes other than Kisumu. Absence of other Kenya tribes in this category does not necessarily demonstrate their marginal commitment to live in Kisumu. It may be due to some biases in the sample, for example, avoidance of institutional housing units.

In Table X.7 the frequency distribution of migrants by sex is shown. Migrants alone accounted for 95.9 per cent the majority being temporary compared with 4.1 per cent for non-migrants. Of male respondents 96.0 per cent were migrant and 4.0 per cent non-migrant. Corresponding proportions for females were 95.8 per cent and 4.2 per cent respectively. In order to determine the place of this migration differential the following hypothesis was tested:

- Ho: The type of migrants do not differ significantly by sex.
- H1: The type of migrants differ significantly by sex.

The result was found to be significant at 5 per cent level so that H1 was accepted (Table X.7a). Commitment to live in the town depends in the case of married persons, for instance, on the decision of the husband to which that of the wife is subsidiary. But unmarried persons have the preserve to make independent decisions to stay either temporarily or permanently in the town. Non-migrant women were relatively stable as the majority had never lived nor looked forward to living elsewhere.

Typology of migrants was also cross-classified with age (Table X.8). The predominance of the

25-29 can be seen at a glance in the three categories considered. After the peak age bracket, 20-29 age group, the proportion of temporary migrants began to diminish with those aged 55 years or more having less than 1 per cent. The other category of migrants show two contrasting features. Those aged 15-24 years and 55 years onwards had considerably low proportions. Conversely, those within the 25-54 age bracket had higher proportions totaling to 80 per cent compared with 20 per cent of the former. Thus the very young and the very old permanent migrants had nearly identical features. Non-migrants showed almost similar characteristics as permanent migrants. Absence of non-migrants in ages 70 years and above suggests return migration to their homes. The following hypothesis was tested:

Ho: There is no significant difference between ages of different types of migrants.

H1: There is significant difference between ages of different types of migrants.

As the result was significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels H1 was accepted (Table X.8a).

Commuters

Commuting is the regular journey between the place of residence and the place of work.⁴² In developed countries journey to work is by road (public transport and personal cars), rail or air. But in the developing countries it is mainly by road and rail the former including not only public transport and personal cars, but also bicycles. In this work no questions were formulated relating to commuters. From a small sample taken at places of work, commuters were identified as follows:

- a. Cyclists from around the town within a distance of not more than 19 kilometers from town.
- b. Car owners from around Kisumu whose commuting depends on distance, on the one hand and road conditions throughout the year, on the other.
- c. Passengers travelling by public buses or cabs with regular services to the town which they are able to reach before 8.00 a.m.
- d. Passengers travelling on Butere-Kisumu rail services who find it more advantageous to commute than to rent houses in Kisumu.

e. Pedestrians whose homes are no more than 8 kilometres from the town.

The first, second and fifth groups of commuters travel by the means of transport they control themselves. They are the nearest commuters to the town whose homes are found in places such as Kano, Kisumu, Kajulu and Seme locations of Kisumu District and the southern area of Kakamega District (see Fig. 13). Most of them have been included in the newly gazetted Municipal boundaries of Kisumu. Some of these who qualified as migrants and were therefore interviewed did not seem to realise their inclusion in the new town since they still perpetuated the age-old traditional life at their homes. This group constitutes the main challenge to environmental quality within and around Kisumu town.

Both the third and fourth categories commute by public transport which they do not control. The most important transport links by road include Ahero-Kisumu, Lwanda-Maseno-Kisumu, Bondo-Kisumu, Uyoma-Kisumu, Kakamega-Kisumu, Kaimosi-Kisumu and Busia-Yala-Kisumu. All of these are all-weather roads with murrum or tarmac surfaces. The latter roads have enhanced commuter transport to the town besides evolving intra-and inter-territorial trade. This group has to weigh travelling fares

against costs of living in Kisumu. At the moment housing problem in the town is far from acute so that it cannot be argued that their commuting may depend on this fact.

Since no town buses operate within the Municipal boundaries to serve the urban population, commuter transport is still sketchy and very unreliable. The implications of transport services within the town are taken up for analysis in Chapter V.

Summary

It has been seen that migration process involves a wide range of factors. In the first place it has been necessary to mention some theoretical migration models which have been developed by various scholars to explain the distance factor. But these theoretical models should not be applied to human phenomena without appropriate modifications. Conclusively, it was found that migration to Kisumu is directly proportional to the product of population between two regions involved and inversely proportional to the distance between the regions. No migrants from the Coast and North-Eastern Provinces were experienced in the sample.

Migrants were determined by both birth-place

and home information with more detailed analysis about the region around Kisumu town. The general observation was that most migrants reported birthplace as the same with home in which case there was no significant difference between the two. However, a few had changed the two due to migration engendered by various conditions: marriage, school attendance and so on.

Another interesting point that was investigated is migrants' contact with their homes on the basis of relations and property at, as well as visits made home since migrating to Kisumu. Return migration was found to be an important epilogue to migration following a migrants' retirement, loss of or failure to secure employment and like features.

Consideration has also been made to characteristics of sample households, for example, size, and their implications on migration. Some demographic parameters such as child-woman and dependency ratios as well as labour force rates have been computed from household data. There was close agreement between the findings derived from survey and census data.

Environmental conditions which induce migration have been discussed. These are basically reasons for migration which reveal interesting findings.

when cross-classified with sex and age. Also included is the future migration sketch which involves migrants' future mobility plans. The majority of respondents reported plans to leave Kisumu at one time.

The Chapter ends by classifying migrants into two basic types, migrants and non-migrants. But the former are classified further as temporary or permanent. Also the place of commuters is discussed briefly. Temporary migrants turned out to be the majority among migrants. Cross-classification of typology of migrants with other variables has enhanced further analysis of migrants in the town.

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CHAPTER V

MIGRATION AND PLANNING IN THE KISUMU REGION

MIGRATION AND PLANNING IN THE KISUMU REGION

The argument that migration is an adjustment to environmental resource base suggests inter-relationship between the phenomenon and planned development. Following political independence in 1963 the Kenya Government has adopted Five-Year Development Plans and lately the spatial physical planning for all regions (Provinces).¹ Basically, "planning aims at such an organisation of space that a better balance between space and society can be obtained".² But this balance may be upset by the effects of migration which may cause environmental deterioration. This Chapter undertakes to define the Kisumu Region and to consider migration and the planning process within the region.

THE KISUMU REGION

The term Kisumu Region has been used so frequently in the previous chapters that its connotation in the context of this work should now be explained. In many geographical studies the word "region" lends itself to numerous interpretations and easily leads to confusion

unless defined properly. This section covers two items. First, several indices are mentioned so as to delimit the region. The main purpose for this is to demonstrate the unity of the region focusing on Kisumu town. Second, a brief discussion is made of migratory behaviour in the region as well as in other parts of Kenya.

Indices of Delimitation of the Region

Geographers delimit regions on the basis of various factors. Dickinson defines a region as an area which is homogeneous in respect of some particular set of associated conditions, whether of the land or of the people e.g. industry, farming, the distribution of population, commerce, or the general sphere of influence of a city.³ The underlined characteristics were particularly relevant to delimitation of the Kisumu Region. Ominde has divided Kenya into five population regions, namely, the Lake Victoria Basin which focuses on Kisumu town, the Rift and Associated Highlands, the Eastern Plateau Foreland, the Coastal Region and the Southern and Northern Drylands of Kenya.⁴ A striking feature is the similarity of these population regions to the major geographical divisions of the country. The sphere

of influence of a city is explained by Dickinson as follows:

"The metropolitan (city) region thus considered is primarily a functional entity. Geographically it extends as far as the city exerts a dominant influence. Its influence is effected in its environs by a radiating system of traffic routes, each of which, in its turn, is a local centre of radiating routes through which it, rather than the metropolis, becomes the dominant centre for local affairs".⁵

This hierarchical dominance of polarised centres of development is evidence of the hierarchical nature of spatial physical planning in a region. In Fig. 26 it can be seen that Kisumu is by far the dominant metropolis in a large region interconnected with traffic routes. Add to the two indices are commerce and industry in which the dominance of Kisumu in the whole of West Kenya needs no emphasis.

Beaujeu-Garnier and Chabot note that the interdependence of a city and its region is due to commodities peculiar to each.⁶ This may be explained by industrial base of a city on the one hand and

agricultural base of its region on the other.

Waller and others stated that the city of Kisumu already constitutes a dominant core for the whole West Kenya with trade connections reaching every part of the region.⁷ They recognised Kisumu Region as encompassing the area whose economic activities (e.g. Bank connections, wholesale trade) are directed more towards Kisumu than towards other central places of the same order.⁸ But as they asserted the line demarcating the Kisumu Region will have to change with time as the town continues to expand.

Another index of delimiting the Kisumu Region is the demographic characteristics of the whole Lake Victoria Basin population region. In the first place there is generally a high density of population particularly in Bunyore and Maragoli locations in Kakamega District, much of Kisii District and a few isolated parts of other districts in the region (Fig. 13). Also, the distribution of population in the region distinguishes it from other population regions as can be noticed in Fig. 2. But perhaps the most significant demographic characteristic is out-migration which is caused by the hostile environment along the lakeshores, population pressure in the densely populated parts and

longstanding sophistication of migratory behaviour among the inhabitants.

From the foregoing discussion it can be seen that a wide range of indices may be used to delimit the Kisumu Region. The only urban centres that may encroach on the region are Eldoret and Nakuru which are situated in a different population region. Envisaged expansion programmes show that the position of Kisumu among central places of the same order is likely to remain potent and unaffected.

Migratory Behaviour in the Region

Like other "downward transitional" regions in Kenya, the Kisumu region is best known for out-migration of population to other parts of the country. But on a regional scale the town experiences net in-migration from the surrounding districts. For example, in a survey made by Moock among school students in Maragoli 28 per cent of boys and 24 per cent of girls expected to search for employment within a 40 kilometres (25 miles) radius of their home, the Vihiga-Kakamega-Kisumu complex.⁹ Although these potential migrants expect to move short distances only, it has been found

that they move farther afield to places such as the commercial farming areas in the Kenya Highlands, and to urban centres such as Nairobi and Mombasa. This is actually true with all school-leavers who usually swell the flood of migrants within and outside the Kisumu Region.

Out-migration from the region dates from the circular of the Chief Native Commissioner of October 23, 1919 paragraph 4 which undertook to recruit African labour for the settlers.¹⁰ This stage laid the foundation of voluntary migration among different people who wanted to satisfy their varied aspirations. For a long time, therefore, the Kisumu Region has been the most significant labour reservoir in Kenya to the detriment of the region's development.

MIGRATION AND THE PLANNING PROCESS

The spatial planning process in Kenya recognises two areas of emphasis. It takes cognizance of the interdependence of polarised centres of development and the regions around them. Urban planning concentrates in the urban community in order to improve the quality of urban environment which is very susceptible to deterioration. On the other hand, regional planning has been

launched to correct imbalances resulting from irrational location of central functions at different areas in a region.¹¹ This imbalance emanated from differential modes of modernisation at the onset of colonial rule when the administration, missionaries and other institutions each located a central function at different sites. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss issues involved in migration and the planning process in the Kisumu Region. These include facilities in the town, resource base of the region, effects of migration, the role of Kisumu in modernising the economy of its region and comprehensive physical planning of metropolitan Kisumu.

Facilities in Kisumu Town

The personality and quality of an urban community depend upon the facilities utilised there in. To find the position of this in Kisumu town questions were asked about adequacy or inadequacy of five basic facilities, namely, medical, schools, housing, recreation and transportation. As migration is the major cause of accelerating urbanisation within national boundaries, it poses serious problems to public health.

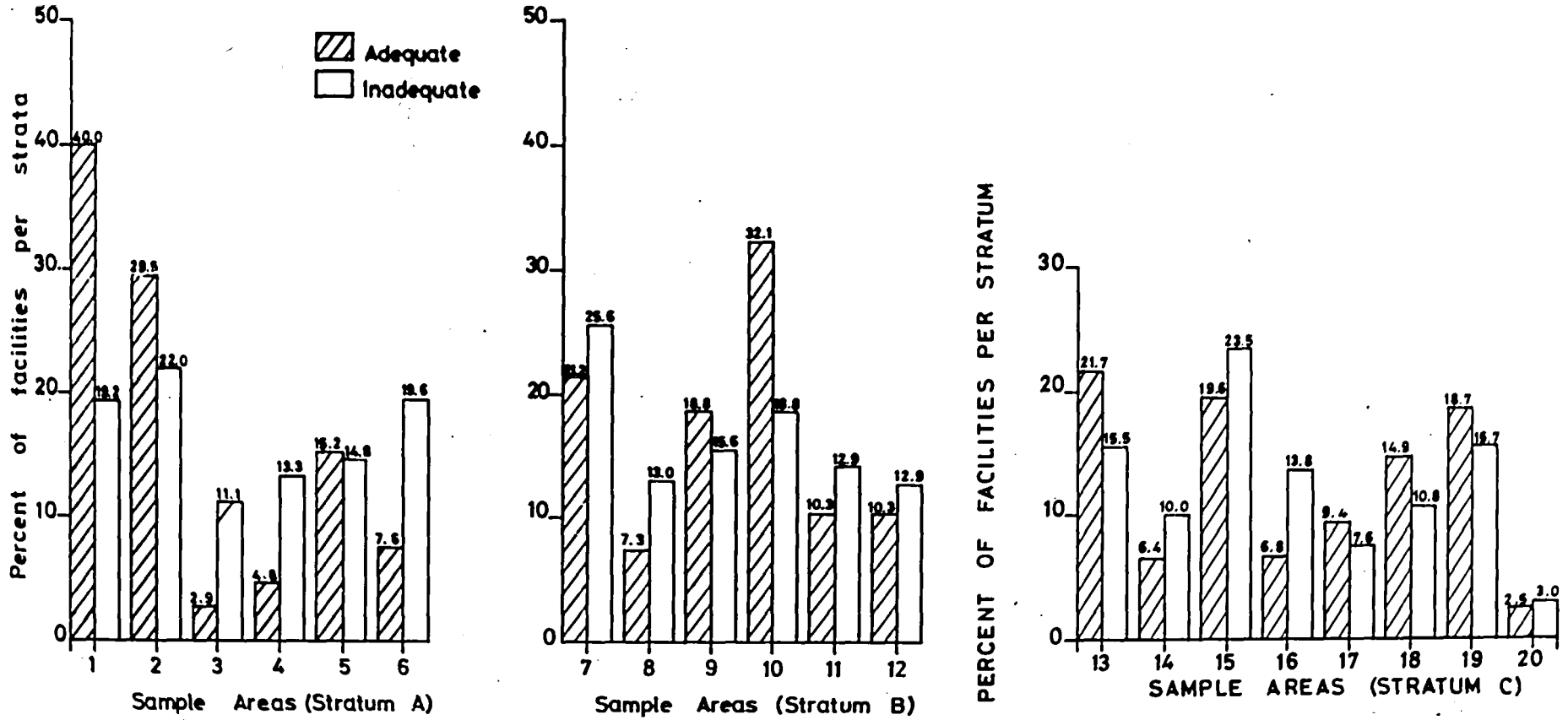
Situation of all Facilities

All the five facilities were examined as to their adequacy or inadequacy in all the twenty samples areas (Fig. 24). Respondents through their experiences had to state whether these facilities served them well or required improvements. At Mlimani and Patel Flats and Kibuye the facilities were generally considered adequate. But in the rest of the housing estates in stratum A, they were inadequate with Shauri Yako reporting nearly one-fifth of the facilities to be inadequate.

In the sample areas comprising stratum B the facilities were adequate only at Makasembo and Arina. The rest of the housing estates reported inadequacy of facilities. This stratum was dominated by the African population as compared with stratum A estates which were occupied by different races, the Africans there belonging to a higher socio-economic group. The latter could afford the expensive facilities not provided for by the Municipality of Kisumu.

Of the eight housing estates in stratum C half reported adequacy and the other half inadequacy of facilities. Nyalenda reported the highest proportion of inadequate facilities. Whereas Kaloleni is well catered for by its situation within the residential belt of the town, Nyalenda suffers from its location in the urban-rural fringe where the urban government is less committed in matters of development.

FIG. 24 SITUATION OF ALL FACILITIES BY SAMPLE AREAS



NB. For sample areas see Table I

Situation of Specific Facilities

Perhaps the situation of facilities in the three strata may be best understood by analysing each of the five facilities. This is shown in Fig. 25.

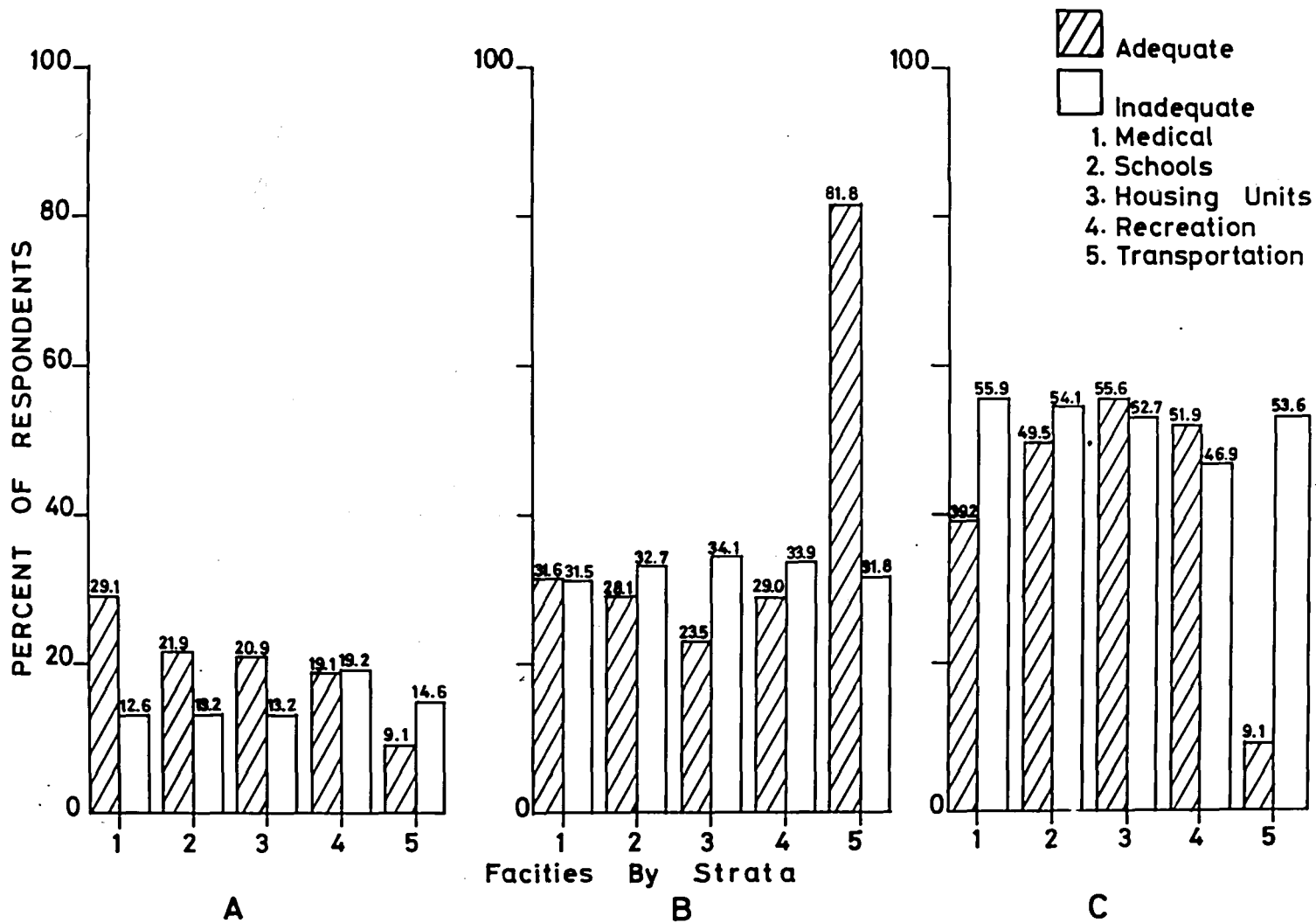
Stratum A

In this stratum three of the five facilities were adequate. Medical facilities were by far the most adequate followed by schools and housing units in that order. As the majority of people here could afford expensive medical facilities as well as schools and lived in the largest housing units they did not seem to experience any problems. Even the situation of recreation did not raise much concern as evidenced by the small discrepancy in response. The most inadequate facility was transportation.

Stratum B

The lower middle group were found in the housing estates which constitute stratum B. The only adequate facilities were medical and transportation.

FIG.25 SITUATION OF FACILITIES IN THE TOWN BY STRATA



However, the rest were significantly inadequate.

Adequacy of transportation in this stratum is a surprising feature as respondents did not state reasons for that. Perhaps it might be attributed to the relative accessibility of housing estates in this stratum to work places in the town.

Stratum C

Apart from housing units and recreation, the other facilities were generally inadequate in this stratum. Transportation is among the most inadequate facilities; the most inadequate facility, however, was medical. This demonstrates the extent to which health hazards can undermine the quality of the population in this stratum. As these are high density areas any epidemic is likely to claim numerous casualties. Schools were also inadequate; this stratum had the smallest number of schools particularly in the former peri-urban area.

Chi-square analyses of the situation of all facilities in the town as a whole and in individual sample areas confirm the foregoing findings (see Tables XI.1 and XI.2). In the first table the following

hypothesis was tested:

Ho: The facilities are generally
adequate in the town.

H1: The facilities are generally
inadequate in the town.

Since the result is significant at the two levels, H1
was accepted. In Table XI.2 the hypothesis tested was:

Ho: There is no significant difference
in the situation of facilities
between the sample areas.

H1: There is significant difference
in the situation of facilities
between the sample areas.

The result led to accepting H1 at 5 per cent and 1 per
cent levels of significance. The difference in the
situation of facilities is in itself reflected by the
basic differences between the strata.

These findings call for immediate action by
the Municipal Council of Kisumu. The new parts of the
town require alignment to other parts in terms of develop-
ment. Transportation must be given top priority as a
medium of improving accessibility of different parts of
the town. Otherwise, commuting will be most hard hit
as more and more people continue to adopt it.

Resource Base of the Kisumu Region

Resources of the region must be considered in the context of its development potential. Basically, this is an agricultural region in which people have the alternatives of selling their surplus food and livestock, producing cash crops or out-migrating to other areas to secure employment.¹² But a few pockets of forests are found in the high rainfall areas of Kakamega District and on the slopes of Mt. Elgon in Bungoma District. These are sparsely settled since they are secluded areas.

Agriculture which depends on climatic endowments, physiographic features and level of farming commitment may be summarised as follows:

- a. Food crops grown mainly for subsistence but the surplus sold elsewhere.
- b. Cash crops for export trade.
- c. Settlement schemes in which farmers grow cash crops and/or keep livestock.
- d. Special Rural Development Programmes (SRDP) aimed at ameliorating rural economy.

Several food crops are produced in the region. Along the lake shore where rainfall is generally poor and unreliable such crops as millet, beans and peas,

sweet potatoes, cassava for famine relief and a little maize are produced. The higher parts of this zone produce two crops per year during the long and short rains respectively. Much of Nyanza Province and Busia District of Western Province falls within this zone. In the higher rainfall areas found mainly in Kisii, Kakamega and Bungoma District crops such as maize, potatoes, bananas and quick-ripening crops predominate. Most of these crops are transported daily to Kisumu and other urban centres for sale.

Cash crops have recently been popular with most farmers because of their higher monetary returns. The low-lying lake shore districts produce cotton, ground-nuts, sisal and some sugar cane. But the diminishing acreages betray possibilities for expansion. Also, climatic hazards limit farmers' aspirations to dedicate themselves to farming as the sole source of income. Thus farmers have to weigh returns from these against minimum wages they might receive in urban employment. Since population pressure adversely affects the development potential of this part of the Kisumu Region, inhabitants have no alternative but to migrate to other places. The higher and better rainfall areas of the region produce cash crops such as coffee, pyrethrum besides keeping grade cattle.

But this economic base cannot withstand population pressure which is greater here than in the low-lying parts.

In order to improve agricultural economy in Kenya several settlement schemes have been set up in different parts. The most significant in the Kisumu Region is the Muhoroni-Chemelil-Koru complex which with Miwani form the largest sugar-belt in Kenya. In places such as Koru and Songhor maize is an important crop which supplements livestock produce. This complex will be an integral part of the larger metropolitan Kisumu in the near future. Presently it is an important immigration area which attracts migrants from the neighbouring locations.¹³ Fig. 26 shows them as resource based industrial centres together with the Mumias sugar schemes and the Webuye (Broderick Falls) Paper Mill industry. Also included in this category are the Kano Plains irrigation schemes for rice and the Yala swamp Reclamation project which will soon produce rice among other crops. These two areas have experienced flooding of the rivers Nyando and Yala which have wrought much havoc in the area. Smaller settlement schemes include Luhya schemes in Western Province.

The SRDP was born in the follow-up discussions of the 1966 Kericho Conference on education, employment

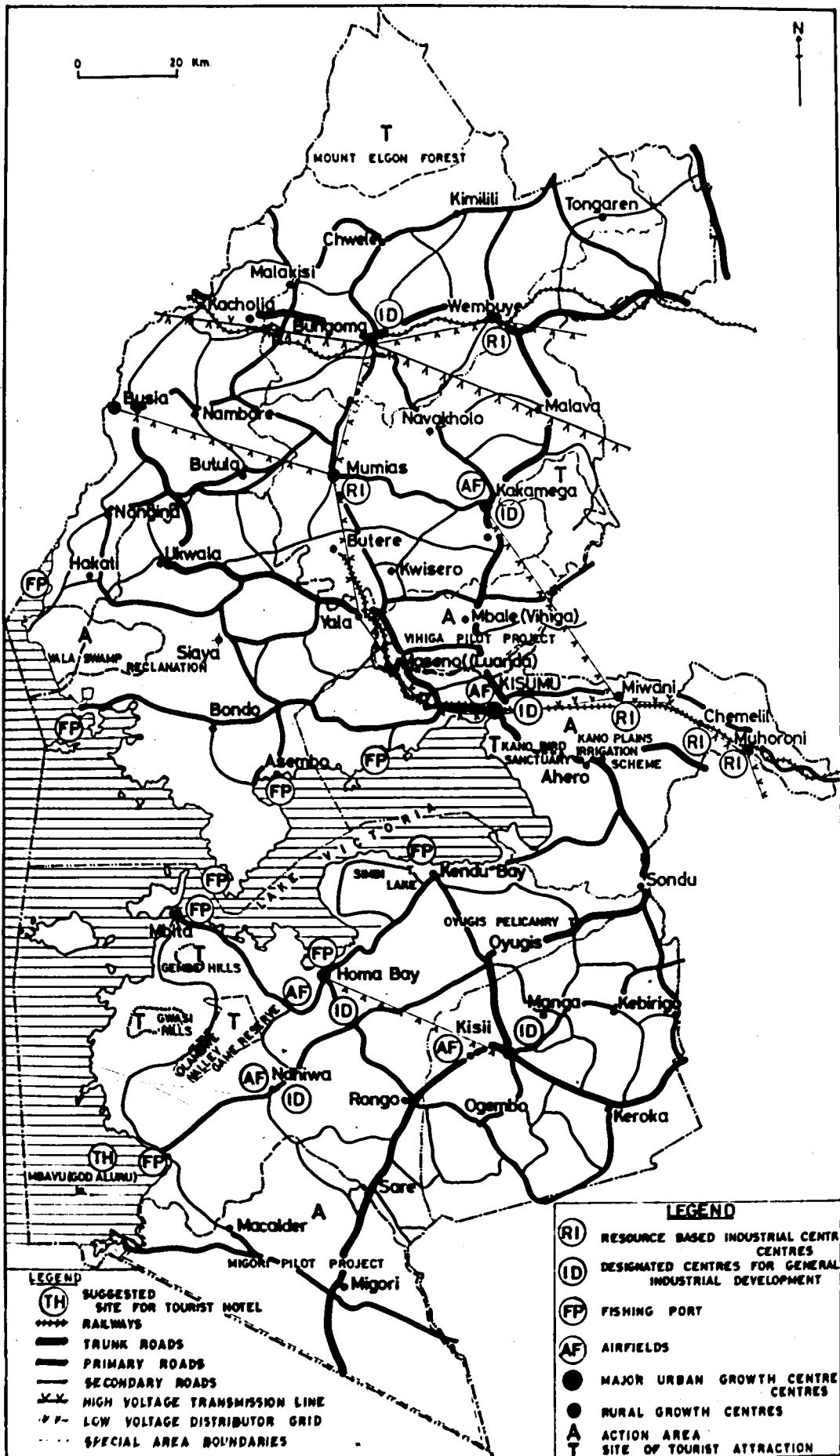


FIG.26 FUTURE DEVELOPMENT PATTERN OF THE KISUMU REGION.

SOURCE: Nyanza Province Regional Physical Development Plan

and rural development. There are 14 SRDP projects in Kenya of which the Kisumu Region has two at Migori and Vihiga in South Nyanza and Kakamega Districts respectively. However, it is too early to make any meaningful appraisal of these projects.

Although settlement schemes and SRDP projects were intended to dam floods of rural-urban migrants, they have not actually contained out-migration. In some ways, however, migrants have moved to them because of their quasi-similar roles to towns. Mabogunje argues that the extent to which pressure on the low level of resource base is felt is a function of population density but more so of the level of expectations. While a high level of expectations engenders a wholesome response to the need for economic advancement, a low level of expectations leads to a break-down of socio-economic conditions.¹⁵ In a society like the Kisumu Region where education levels determine the level of expectations the two end-products are experienced. Thus while some people out-migrate so as to meet their economic goals, others remain sedentary in a deteriorating economy. All in all, Kisumu town accommodates a complexity of resources which raise the level of migrants' expectations; hence its dominance as an area of in-migration.

Effects of Migration

The effects of migration may be considered at both the sources and the destinations. Ominde has analysed the consequences of rural-urban migration in Kenya rural as well as urban areas. In the rural areas he notes that out-migration may be a welcome relief to areas such as the Kisumu Region which experience population pressure; it may create a definite demographic pattern in which there is female dominance in the supplying and male dominance in the receiving areas; and may result in poor housing conditions due to absence of out-migrants working elsewhere. In the urban areas the consequences include the need to expand urban facilities such as education, water supply, hospitals, dispensaries and so on which are generally choked as a result of an influx of rural population.¹⁶ These are real constraints on the quality of urban environment which require immediate solutions in the process of urban and regional planning.

Sometimes the length of migrants' absence from their rural homes has serious repercussions on the home economy. As Miraole and Berry put it:

!Thus the effects of a migrant's absence

on production length of his absence is adjusted to the time pattern of the home economy's demand for his labour. This demand depends in turn on a combination of ecological, technical and institutional factors."¹⁷

In a place such as the Kisumu Region where the home economy rests heavily on the efforts of the residual population the result may be stagnation since this residual population consists predominantly of women and conservative old men who do not adjust readily to modern modes of development. Population pressure on the development potential of the region makes it a significant "downward transitional" region from which populations migrate to "upward transitional" regions such as the Kenya Highland farming areas and to "core" regions or urbanised centres of development.¹⁸

It has been argued by Friedmann that urban unemployment acts as an automatic stabilizer upon the rate of cityward migration.¹⁹ But this depends on migrants' awareness of unemployment in their prospective urban destinations. Moreover, migrants often prefer staying in urban areas where it is easier to secure some casual work such as in the construction industry than

staying in a rural community where much uncertainty prevails.

Thus effects of migration are multifarious at the two poles, source and destination. They demonstrate the intricacy of the phenomenon while creating some definite demographic patterns at the two poles. In any planning system these effects have to be examined in order to ascertain their implications on planned development.

Comprehensive Physical Planning of Metropolitan Kisumu

Although further expansion of Kisumu town is envisaged, four physical boundaries may undermine this. These include the Lake Victoria to the West, a government sponsored agricultural irrigation scheme in the Kano Plains to the South and East, a high potential sugar plantation area in the Miwani-Chemelil-Muhoroni complex to the North-East and an escarpment which rises about 457 metres (1,500 feet) to the North.²⁰ With the town's future expansion geared toward the North and North-East it is expected that an extensive metropolitan region will emerge.

Comprehensive physical planning of the

Kisumu Region on both short-term and long-term bases seems most appropriate for the region. Comprehensive planning is a "striving for the total welfare of the public so far as living conditions are affected by and through the physical environment, rather than a partial or sectoral welfare ... or to the urban and regional economy alone, or any other aspect of life taken in isolation.²¹

Data required for regional planning consist, inter alia, of the growth of population, investment in major sectors of the economy and inter-regional transport system. Intercensal growth rate of population between 1962 and 1969 counts was 3.7 per cent per annum for Nyanza and 4.0 per cent per annum for Western Province or 3.8 per cent per annum for the whole Kisumu Region. These estimates conceal two extremes estimated for Siaya and Busia (2.4 per cent) on the one hand, and Kisii (4.8 per cent) and Bungoma (6.4 per cent) on the other.²² Districts with higher out-migration rates thus show lower growth rates than those with lower out-migration rates. Future population projections for the region depicts a grim situation in an area where little investment has occurred.

The future development pattern of the Kisumu Region is explained by Fig. 26. Inclusion of the two provinces indicates the fact that political boundaries do

not destroy its unity evidenced by the realities of the physical environment. The figure shows Kisumu as occupying the highest position in the hierarchy of growth centres. It is followed at a lower level of the hierarchy by such urban centres as Homa Bay, Kisii, Kakamega, Busia, Bungoma and Mumias all of which except the last are district headquarters. Siaya is not thus shown as, though a district headquarter, it is relatively less developed than its counterparts. Rural growth centres which include divisional headquarters, big markets down to the local centres at the base of the hierarchy are by far the majority. Continued development of growth centres might diversify migration flows from the rural parts. Furthermore, it may alleviate constraints imposed by migrants who currently congregate at Kisumu as the most attractive destination.

Kisumu has for long been and may continue to be the core centre from which modernisation diffuses to all parts of its region. As transportation network improves accessibility will be enhanced in the region to the benefit of both urban and rural inhabitants alike. Many development planners believe that whereas urban populations are much more responsive to innovative actions, the rural areas are the repositories of traditional and

traditionalistic modes of behaviour and attitudinal structure.²³ Comprehensive planning may well blur the boundaries between these two district poles and harmonise development of the whole metropolitan region.

Summary

This chapter focussed on two things, namely, definition of the Kisumu Region and migration and the planning process in the region. Several indices used to delimit the region confirmed it as an entity irrespective of political boundaries. Thus the region is a logical unit for planning purposes taking Kisumu as the focus. A general feature of migratory behaviour here is out-migration to other areas of Kenya with a small proportion of migrants going to Kisumu town. For a long time this region has been a significant labour reservoir, an attribute which has undermined its development. Migrants consists of the younger able-bodied and more development conscious stamp of the population. But the residual population comprises women and old conservative men who perpetuate traditional modes of economy when they should be accepting innovations.

Planning has been adopted mainly to correct

imbalances resulting from irrational location of central functions guided by the defunct colonial policy. A probe was therefore made into the situation of facilities in Kisumu town and the resource base of the Kisumu Region. Facilities in the town were generally inadequate especially medical facilities and transportation; the areas least endowed with the five facilities - medical, schools, housing, recreation and transportation - were the housing units comprising stratum C. The region's main resource base is agricultural activity. But it is plagued with several problems, for example, diminishing acreages at the face of a rapidly growing population. Also, agricultural economy is susceptible to environmental hazards such as poor and unreliable rainfall, soil erosion due to overstocking and so on.

Solution to the development of metropolitan Kisumu may be possible through comprehensive physical planning. But certain physical boundaries limit expansion of the town along the North-East corridor. Thus a bigger metropolitan region of Kisumu may develop toward the Miwani-Muhoroni-Chemelil area thus reinforcing its role in the modernisation of its region.

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CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Although this study portrays the diverse features of rural-urban migration, it should be noted that this was not the main interest. Rather, emphasis was on the situation of migration within Kisumu town. This Chapter is therefore an epilogue to the study in that it summarises and draws conclusions to the main findings.

Kisumu town is the largest urban centre in West Kenya and the third in Kenya after Nairobi and Mombasa. It is the focus of the Lake Victoria Basin population region, and the commercial and industrial centre of Western Kenya. Three main physiographic units may be identified in the Lake Basin, namely, the lowlands and the Nyanza Rift Valley along the Lake shores; the plateaus which are relics of an ancient peneplain; and the highlands which comprise Mt. Elgon and the Kisii Highlands among others. Rainfall amounts and reliability improve with altitude in this region; the worst hit areas are the lakeshore lowlands. But the higher rainfall areas are too densely populated to provide adequate food and other subsistence requirements for the population.

Lake Victoria Basin is among the most

important population regions of Kenya. Its significant demographic characteristics include a rapidly growing population with a much slower pace of economic development lagging behind it, diminishing man-land ratio and out-migration. Waller classified it as a "downward transitional" region where out-migration might relieve the situation. The Luo and Luhya tribes who dominate this region are also the most migratory of the Kenya Africans.

Migration studies in Kenya have been on a national scale at the expense of probing into regional studies. This study was intended to analyse the migration system of Kisumu on a regional as well as national basis, to determine the feasibility of the survey by questionnaire method, to highlight the effects of migratory behaviour on the resource base in and around Kisumu town and to attempt forward projection of the demographic vis-a-vis urban and regional amenities in and around the town. But the last objective was not met as the data collected did not permit useful demographic projections. For example, no data was collected about fertility and mortality which together with migration affect both population structure and change.

Several hypotheses and models were tested. However, only implicit discussions of the potential and

gravity models could be made because these two models best fit data pertaining to inter-regional spatial interaction of phenomena. As the rural component of rural migration was inadequately probed into inter-regional migrations could not be ascertained. This migration study was unidirectional, all movements originating outside but terminating at Kisumu town.

Throughout this work migration connotes a change of place of residence for some particular reason or set of reasons. Previous research and literature about migration are too many to permit easy analysis. They demonstrate the popularity of this phenomenon in demographic, economic, social and even political studies, let alone its complexity. It should be realised that the survey was confined to the old and parts of the new (former peri-urban area) of the Municipality of Kisumu (see Fig. 4). A much bigger area remained unsurveyed.

Kisumu is a big town with an interesting dichotomy. Fig. 4 shows that the town proper which was covered in the survey is only a small part of the 260 square kilometres taken by land area. The larger part comprises the newly added sub-locations in which agricultural activity and other modes of traditional living predominate. Interviewing respondents was

preferred to other data collection techniques due to its many merits. These include adaptability of the method to prevailing circumstances, high response rates and minimal non-response. The method proved successful and must be recommended for any similar studies in future. Prior to the start of the survey pretesting of the draft questionnaire and pilot studies were made in order to make any necessary modifications that would have frustrated the survey. The two forms of preliminary arrangements were of vital importance; pilot studies enriched the author's knowledge of the town and proved useful for sampling purposes.

Probability sampling procedure was adopted. In this all items in the universe have known chances of being selected in the sample. Random element makes them have equal chances of selection. Both stratified random and systematic sampling were applied. The town was divided into three strata A, B and C, which reflected socio-economic status, differential house rent and occupancy rates. Sample areas in which rents were high, medium and low were respectively low, medium and high density areas. Systematic sampling was particularly useful in the unmapped parts of Kisumu such as the former peri-urban areas in which it was difficult to identify sampling

units for interview. Of several sampling frames that could be used housing estates (here called the sample areas) were most appropriate. In each of these housing estates housing units whose occupants were interviewed constituted sampling units. Uniform sampling fraction was adopted in selecting all samples; the total sample size of 696 respondents represents 25.1 per cent of the universe from which samples were drawn. Of that number 568 successful responses were recorded and it is these that form the basis of this work.

Enumeration in the town took place between April and June, 1973. Six male enumerators were chosen on the basis of good command of Luo, Swahili and English languages, proper knowledge of Kisumu and ability to find own accommodation during the survey period. No spectacular problems were experienced with enumerators during their training as well as in the course of enumeration. Apart from relatively poor response rates at Mlimani and Obunga-Kudho sample areas, all other areas recorded very good response rates. It was later realised that Asian enumerators should have been engaged in the survey as they would have been more acceptable to Asian respondents who were generally suspicious.

The whole process of data manipulation was done mechanically by the author. This was due to high expenses quoted for punching and computerization. Thus data processing, editing, coding and tabulation took about

three months to accomplish. Two machines were used for calculation, namely, the electronic Facit and programmable printing calculator.

Chi-square technique was used in testing certain hypotheses about different variables (see Appendix G). But these hypotheses should not be confused with research hypotheses which harness certain theoretical conceptions. In order to assess the success of the survey a post-survey evaluation of the questionnaire was made. Some questions were simple and created no problems of interpretation. A few asked for too confidential information to be acceptable to respondents. But stress on anonymity and treating all answers as confidential induced respondents to co-operate with enumerators. In the final analysis, data collected was dependable and rendered the survey successful.

The ethnic structure of Kisumu town does not paint a different picture from that of the 1969 census. In numerical importance the major ethnic groups are the Africans, Asians, Arabs, Europeans and others not so classified. Africans alone represent the major ethnolinguistic groups in Kenya, namely, Nilotics, Bantus and Nilo-Hamites. A marked feature is the absence of tribal groups resident in Coast and North-Eastern

Provinces. The Nilotic Luo are by far the majority, followed by Luhya and Kikuyu. These three are the most migratory of the Kenya tribes. Relative sedentarism of the Kisii and Kalenjin tribes was realised through their small numbers in the town. A few Uganda tribes and one Tanzania tribe were covered in the survey. However, it was observed that there is little ethnic and tribal diversity in the town. Dominant ethnic and tribal groups contrast sharply with others.

Basic migration differentials include sex, age, marital status, educational attainment and economic activity. Three-quarters of all respondents consisted of males. This does not necessarily explain masculinity in the town since most heads of families interviewed turned out to be males. However, a demographic anomaly was experienced at ages 0-4 and 5-9 years where females dominated. The usual situation is male dominance at these ages because male and female births are in the ratio of 105 to 100. This anomalous situation is therefore attributable to age misreporting for the two sexes. Those aged 20-34 years accounted for 63 per cent of all ages. There was significant difference in age distribution of respondents. Considering all the marital status it was found that married persons staying together with their spouses

in Kisumu accounted for 69.8 per cent of the total. This suggests that simultaneous migration is a significant feature of Kisumu migrants although it is possible that split migration may be very important. Younger migrants showed a tendency of staying with their spouses in the town unlike older ones whose frequent visits home benefited their spouses' stay there. There was significant difference in marital status of the two sexes.

Educational attainment enhances the propensity to migrate to urban centres where job opportunities exist for educated labour force. Whereas those aged 25-29 years had the highest educational attainments, those aged 45-49 were most outstanding among respondents who did not state their education or were illiterate. Those who attained upper primary education accounted for 42.6 of all other educational categories. Three main findings should now be echoed. First, educational standards were found to decrease with the age of respondents, the younger migrants being better educated than their older counterparts. Second, females had generally lower standards of education than males due to frequent drop-outs from school. Third, a marked cleavage in educational standards was observed between migrants and non-migrants.

Economic activity was by far the most complex item in the study. It embraces occupational characteristics, chief employers, income levels, sex and age-specific economic activity rates and employment situation of respondents. It was evident that the majority of migrants changed their economic status after migrating to Kisumu - from unemployed to employed, from school pupil to employed and so on. This confirms the force of attraction exerted by employment. Further, respondents were classified into nine occupational categories, professional, clerical, craftsman, salesman, agriculture, fishing, domestic worker, manual, other and unemployed. One-fifth of all categories consisted of professionals. But the number of unemployed persons was suspiciously small; apparently some respondents feared that those who indicated that they were unemployed would be repatriated back home as provided for in the Vagrancy Act. Only 2.3 per cent of the respondents were unemployed job seekers. The professional and clerical categories were dominant in strata A and B as well as the Nairobi area of stratum C; they comprised the group of those who held responsible positions wherever they were employed. Those classified as "others", mainly school pupils and housewives, were well distributed in

the town. The rest of occupational categories were found mainly in stratum C. Chief employers in Kisumu town were Government of Kenya, Municipal Council of Kisumu, East African Community, Teachers Service Commission and the private sector. Also, there was a fair proportion of OAW particularly resident in stratum C, half of them being non-migrant. Private sector was the most important of all the chief employers in Kisumu town. One-fifth of Kisumu residents earned shillings 1,000 or more per month; some 79.5 per cent of the total earned below that income. In terms of the three strata into which the town was divided income levels reflected different socio-economic groupings. More than half of all respondents who had incomes of shillings 2,000 or more per month were in stratum A, followed by stratum C which had a sizable proportion of own account workers who generally had high incomes. Again, more than half of those in the shillings 700-999 income group were reported in stratum B, the middle income group. Lastly, more than three-quarters of those in the shillings 200-299 income group were in stratum C. It can be seen that stratification of the town had many things to commend it. It was also found that employment situation in the

town had sex bias; the females were generally not employed. Economic activity rates were rather deceptive, the highest rates being reported in the 60-64 age group and the lowest among those aged 15-19 years. On probing into mobility preference of migrants based on economic activity it was found that more than half wished to retain present occupations in Kisumu. However, younger ages wished to move elsewhere on promotion or even without it.

Spatial migration system of the town involves analysis of migration and distance, birthplace and home information within and outside the Kisumu Region, mobility characteristics of migrants and environmental conditions. Also, migrants are classified according to their stabilisation in the town.

Since Ravenstein published his Laws of Migration in 1885 a spate of literature has followed to this end. His view enunciated what his analysts have called migration models, both deterministic and probabilistic. Deterministic migration models include potential and gravity models. This study was not appropriate for testing the two models which best fit inter-regional migration. Analysis of migration and distance in this study confirmed certain tenets of the two models.

For example, the inverse relationship between migration and distance was confirmed as Table VI.1 shows. Probabilistic migration models like the foregoing are derivatives of physical phenomena as well as theoretical mathematical considerations; migration in the latter context is regarded as a stochastic process. But the major weakness of these analogues is that human behaviour cannot be controlled in the same way as physical phenomena by making certain factors constant. Man is not passive to his environment. Rather, there is a reciprocal influence between the two.

More responses were reported on home than on birthplace information. This is because some people having been born outside their home areas later went or will go to live in the latter. Also, some foreigners born outside Kenya have now become citizens. The dominance of Nyanza Province in both types of information confirms the argument that provincial migrants are the majority at provincial headquarters. Siaya District of Nyanza Province had the highest number of migrants of all Kenya districts; it has one of the highest out-migration rates in the country. It was evident from analysis of birthplace and home information that Kisumu town is the population potential of the Kisumu Region irrespective of

political and ethnic boundaries. Two different factors seem to be responsible for out-migration in the region: environmental hazards experienced in Siaya, Kisumu, South Nyanza and Busia districts and population pressure in Kisii and Kakamega districts. The phenomenon is only minimal in Bungoma District.

Between 1968 and 1972 there had been significant difference in the residence of respondents. Those who had made previous urban moves were mostly migrants but non-migrants seemed relatively sedentary. The period 1960-69 saw the highest proportion of in-migrants. However, the majority of temporary migrants arrived into the town in the two decades between 1940 and 1969. It appears that the peace which reigned after World War II gave stimulus to rural-urban migration. On arrival in the town most migrants stayed with friends and relatives before establishing themselves to set a basis for further chain migration.

Migrants had a tendency of visiting homes during leave/holidays, weekends or irregularly. Only one-fifth of the total had never visited their home since migrating to the town. There was a significant difference in visits home between age groups, older people being the more frequent visit makers. Migrants from the Kisumu Region showed continued contact with their homes.

Household data were used in computing some

demographic parameters. These include sex ratio, age ratios, child-woman ratio, dependency ratio and labour force rates. The findings did not differ greatly from studies carried out by other scholars. Age-sex pyramids reveal certain defective features of data collected; the most notorious was age statistics.

Environmental conditions have an important bearing on migration. They include reasons for migration and future migration plans of individual migrants. The former consisted of economic factors which were easily identified and the more amorphous non-economic (psychological, social and other personal) factors. Unemployment was particularly rife among ages below 30 years. Though the operation of "push" and "pull" factors was recognised it was difficult to ascertain the singular or combined influence of the two. Future migration plans had three features: continued stay in Kisumu, out-migration to another town and uncertainty in future conditions. Those aged 25-29 years preferred out-migration to other places but the 15-24 and 55-74 age brackets were reluctant to stay permanently in the town. Only 13.8 per cent of the total were classified as permanent migrants. Two conclusions may be drawn to this item. In the first place, future migration plans have sex bias; married females

have subsidiary plans which depend on the husbands' decisions. Secondly, there is significant difference between future migration plans for different age groups.

Respondents were classified as migrant (temporary and permanent) and non-migrant. But observations have also been made about commuters. The majority of foreigners ranked as temporary migrants. Of the African tribal groups Luos dominated the category of permanent migrants and non-migrants. Significant differences were found between the type of migrants on grounds of ethnic, sex and age. Commuters constitute a diverse group comprising pedestrians and cyclists travelling the shortest distances; car owners; and passengers travelling by public road transport or by rail. Their increasing importance paints a gloomy picture of transportation in the new town.

Urban and regional planning has been adopted in Kenya to correct certain imbalances in the distribution of central functions and to determine rational utilisation of space. The Kisumu Region whose boundaries cover both Nyanza and Western Provinces is an area where rational planning might solve some environmental hazards currently encouraging out-migration. Several indices used to determine the compactness of the region proved very useful.

Waller and others have classified it as a "downward transitional" region from which inhabitants out-migrate to the "upward transitional" and "core" regions. For a long time it has been the major labour reservoir of Kenya. The situation of five facilities in the town, namely, medical, schools, housing, recreation and transportation, was considered to analyse urban planning. Medical facilities and transportation were inadequate; most respondents in stratum C reported all facilities to be generally inadequate. Perhaps a more detailed inventory of all facilities in the town would have been more informative.

Agricultural activity is the dominant resource base of the Kisumu Region. But in much of the region it is precluded by environmental hazards such as unreliable rainfall, floods in the low-lying areas and so on. Industrial activity is becoming increasingly important with progress made in the sugar belt, the Mumias sugar scheme and the Webuye (Broderick Falls) Paper Mill. They are likely to dam streams of migrants that are currently directed to a few places outside the region.

Migration adversely affects rural economy. It deprives rural areas of the most educated, young and

most development conscious breed of the population. In the urban areas, on the other hand, it imposes strains and stresses on the developmental base, thereby resulting in overcrowding explained by inadequate facilities, traffic congestion and the like. But returned migrants have a positive impact on modernisation of rural economy.

By adopting comprehensive physical planning the problems posed by migration may be solved in the region. This requires data on the growth rate of population, investment in major sectors of economy and inter-regional transport system. It is apparent that "grass root" planning, which involves incorporating public, private and peoples' interest, has not evolved well in this as in other regions of Kenya. With Kisumu as the focal point this region is logical enough as a planning unit without regarding the political boundaries between the two provinces as watertight.

General Conclusions

The main general conclusions may be summarised as follows:

1. The majority of Kisumu migrants reported their birthplace and/or homes in Nyanza

Province.

2. Kisumu is the population potential of Western Kenya irrespective of ethnic or political boundaries. Only distance factor influenced migration intensity to the town from districts in the Kisumu Region.
3. Migration is directly proportional to the product of the population of the two regions involved and inversely proportional to the distance between the regions. Any slight distortions that occurred were due to certain biases of the sample.
4. Migration intensity decreases with the age of migrants and hits the peak in the 20-29 age bracket.
5. Educational attainment tends to increase peoples' propensity to migrate to urban areas where there are better job opportunities.
6. Economic reasons were by far the most significant causes of migration though respondents might have migrated for certain non-economic reasons.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study widened the author's horizon on rural-urban as well as other aspects of migration. To this end some recommendations have been made regarding future fields that could be explored in migration studies. However, these should be treated as illustrative rather than exhaustive.

It seems that migration surveys of other major towns in Kenya, Nairobi, Mombasa and Nakuru, is long overdue. Hitherto, emphasis has been placed on rural-urban migration to the major towns without probing into demographic and other characteristics of migrants within them. Such surveys should be multi-purpose in order to cater for various disciplines which partake of this complex phenomenon: geography, economics, sociology, political science and so forth.

Also, detailed studies of migration sources have been lacking. Some of the "push" factors have only been assumed by scholars without collecting data pertaining to views of rural inhabitants. By collecting data about those who have already migrated to urban centres only academic conjectures can be made about their origins. This is an area which would illuminate other features

of rural economy and which would be most useful to rural planners.

Theoretical migration models have been constructed in many countries. In Kenya, scholars including the author have merely felt thresholds of these models. Mathematicians, staticians, regional analysts and others should endeavour to test these models.

Current influx of school-leavers into towns explains the importance of education among other migration differentials. For this reason, research on migration needs to be linked with research on education for policy analysis. Both academicians and professional educational planners could co-ordinate their efforts to exhaust this field.

Last, but by no means least, research on migration should be integrated into policy analysis in general. For instance, implications of migration should enhance formulating policy toward population distribution and industrial decentralisation. In developing countries industrial decentralisation has been popularised as a means of improving rural economy thereby discouraging out-migration.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TABLES

TABLE I.1
SAMPLING DESIGN OF THE SURVEY

Sample Area	Universe ^a	Sample Size	Sampling Fraction (%)
Mlimani	300	75	25.0
Patel Flats	120	30	25.0
Tom Mboya	46	12	26.1
A. Kodhek Flats	48	12	25.0
Kibuye	60	15	25.0
Shauri Yako	40	10	25.0
STRATUM A	614	154	25.1
Ondiek	226	57	25.2
Lumumba	100	25	25.0
Makasembo	125	31	24.8
Arina	175	44	25.1
Mosque	120	30	25.0
Pembe Tatu	80	20	25.0
STRATUM B	826	207	25.1
Kaloleni	220	55	25.0
Nubian	93	23	24.7
Nyalenda	300	75	25.0
Bandani	180	45	25.0
Obunga-Kidho	150	38	25.3
Nairobi	136	34	25.0
Manyatta	220	55	25.0
Arab Manyatta	40	10	25.0
STRATUM C	1,339	335	25.0
ALL SAMPLE AREAS	2,779	696	25.1

a Number of housing units

TABLE 1.2

DISTRIBUTION OF INTERVIEWS IN KISUMU TOWN

Sampling Unit	Sample Size		Successful interviews		Unsuccessful interviews			
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Refusal		Away	
					Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent
Mlimani	75	100	23	30.7	24	32.0	28	37.3
Patel								
Flats	30	100	22	73.4	1	3.3	7	23.3
Tom Mboya	12	100	8	66.7	-	-	4	33.3
A. Kodhek								
Flats	12	100	9	75.0	-	-	3	25.0
Kibuye	15	100	14	93.3	1	6.7	-	-
Shauri								
Yako	10	100	10	100.0	-	-	-	-
STRATUM A	154	100	86	55.8	26	16.9	42	27.3
Ondiak	57	100	49	86.0	2	3.5	6	10.5
Lumumba	25	100	23	92.0	1	4.0	1	4.0
Makasembo	31	100	27	87.1	1	3.2	3	9.7
Arina	44	100	36	81.8	3	6.8	5	11.4
Mosque	30	100	26	86.6	2	6.7	2	6.7
Pembe								
Tatu	20	100	20	100.0	-	-	-	-
STRATUM B	207	100	181	87.4	9	4.3	17	8.2

.....cont.....

Kaloleni	55	100	52	94.6	1	1.8	2	3.6
Nubian	23	100	22	95.7	1	4.3	-	-
Nyalenda	75	100	71	94.7	3	4.0	1	1.3
Bandani	45	100	41	91.2	2	4.4	2	4.4
Obunga-								
Kudho	38	100	21	55.3	9	23.7	8	21.0
Nairobi	34	100	31	91.2	1	2.9	2	5.9
Manyatta	55	100	53	96.4	-	-	2	3.6
Arab								
Manyatta	10	100	10	100.0	-	-	-	-
STRATUM C	335	100	301	89.8	17	5.1	17	5.1
T O T A L	696	100	568	81.6	52	7.5	76	10.9

TABLE I.3

ENUMERATORS' COVERAGE OF RESPONDENTS IN THE TOWN

Enumerator	Respondents interviewed	
	Number	Percentage
1	124	21.8
2	100	17.6
3	113	19.9
4	67	11.8
5	84	14.8
6	80	14.1
ALL ENUMERATORS	568	100.0

TABLE II.1

THE MAJOR ETHNIC GROUPS INTERVIEWED IN KISUMU TOWN

Ethnic Group	Number	Percent
African	527	92.8
Asian	20	3.5
Arab	14	2.5
European	6	1.0
Other	1	0.2
ALL ETHNIC GROUPS	568	100.0

TABLE II.2

THE AFRICAN TRIBAL GROUPS INTERVIEWED IN THE TOWN

Tribal Group	Number	Percent
Luo	404	76.7
Luhya	72	13.7
Kikuyu	13	2.5
Kisii	11	2.1
Kalenjin	8	1.5
Kamba	5	0.9
Other Kenya Tribes ^a	10	1.0
Uganda Tribes	3	0.6
Tanzania Tribes	1	0.2
ALL TRIBAL GROUPS	527	100.1

^a These include such groups as the Swahili and Nubian.

TABLE III.1

SEX COMPOSITION OF RESPONDENTS BY SAMPLE AREAS

Area	SEX					
	Both		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Mlimani	23	4.0	18	4.2	5	3.5
Patel Flats	22	3.9	17	4.0	5	3.5
Tom Mboya A. Kodhek	8	1.4	7	1.6	1	0.7
Flats	9	1.6	6	1.4	3	2.1
Kibuye	14	2.5	11	2.6	3	2.1
Shauri Yako	10	1.8	6	1.4	4	2.8
STRATUM A	86	15.2	65	15.2	21	14.7
Ondiek	49	8.6	32	7.5	17	12.1
Lumumba	23	4.0	18	4.2	5	3.5
Makasembo	27	4.7	20	4.7	7	4.9
Arina	36	6.3	22	5.2	14	10.0
Mosque	26	4.6	19	4.5	7	4.9
Pembe Tatu	20	3.5	13	3.1	7	4.9
STRATUM B	181	31.7	124	29.2	57	40.3

Lower Middle Group

.....cont.....

Kaloleni	52	9.2	38	8.9	14	10.0
Nubian	22	3.9	16	3.8	6	4.2
Nyalenda	71	12.5	60	14.1	11	7.7
Bandani	41	7.2	32	7.5	9	6.3
Obunga-						
Kudho	21	3.7	16	3.7	5	3.5
Nairobi	31	5.5	24	5.6	7	4.9
Manyatta	53	9.3	42	9.9	11	7.7
Arab Manyatta	10	1.8	9	2.1	1	0.7
STRATUM C	301	53.1	237	55.6	64	45.0
ALL AREAS	568	100.0	426	100.0	142	
Percent	100.0		75.0		25.0	

TABLE III.2

AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS IN KISUMU

Age-Group	SEX					
	Both		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
15-19	42	7.4	22	5.2	20	14.1
20-24	102	18.0	69	16.2	33	23.2
25-29	149	26.2	104	24.4	45	31.7
30-34	107	18.8	84	19.7	23	16.2
35-39	59	10.4	48	11.3	11	7.7
40-44	41	7.2	38	8.9	3	2.1
45-49	33	5.8	31	7.3	2	1.4
50-54	15	2.6	12	2.8	3	2.1
55-59	6	1.1	5	1.2	1	0.7
60-64	7	1.2	6	1.4	1	0.7
65-69	4	0.7	4	0.9	-	-
70-74	2	0.4	2	0.5	-	-
75+	1	0.2	1	0.2	-	-
	568	100.0	426	100.0	142	99.9

TABLE III.2a

AGE AND SEX STRUCTURE OF RESPONDENTS

Age-Group (Years)	SEX				Both
	Males		Females		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
15-19	22	31.5	20	10.5	42
20-24	69	76.5	33	25.5	102
25-29	104	111.7	45	37.2	149
30-34	84	80.2	23	26.7	107
35-39	48	44.2	11	14.7	59
40-44	38	30.7	3	10.2	41
45-49	31	24.7	2	8.2	33
50-54	12	11.2	3	3.7	15
55-59	5	4.5	1	1.5	6
60-64	6	5.2	1	1.7	7
65-69	4	3.0	-	1.0	4
70-74	2	1.5	-	-	2
75+	1	-	-	-	1
ALL COHORTS	426		142		568

Degrees of freedom: 12

Chi-square: 33.95

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE III.3

MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX

Matital Status	SEX					
	Both		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Single	126	22.2	101	23.7	25	17.6
Married	417	73.4	314	73.7	103	72.5
Divorced	7	1.2	5	1.2	2	1.4
Widowed	18	3.2	6	1.4	12	8.5
TOTAL	568	100.0	426	100.0	142	100.0

TABLE III.3a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS BY SEX

Marital Status	SEX				Both
	Males		Females		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Single	101	94.5	25	31.5	126
Married	314	312.7	103	104.2	417
Divorced	5	5.2	2	1.7	7
Widowed	6	13.5	12	4.5	18
TOTAL	426		142		568

Degrees of freedom: 3

Chi-square: 18.54

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE IV.1

LITERACY SITUATION IN KISUMU TOWN

Literacy status of respondents	Number	Percent
Currently out of school but attended it at one time	483	85.0
Never attended school at all	52	9.2
Currently attending school	33	5.8
	568	100.0

TABLE IV.2

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF RESPONDENTS

Educational attainment		Number	Percent
Class reached in school	Type of institution		
Not stated	Not stated	12	2.1
None	None	52	9.2
Standard 1-4	Lower Primary	59	10.4
Standard 5-8	Upper Primary	242	42.6
Forms I-IV ¹	Secondary upto E.A.C.E.	188	33.1
Forms V+ ²	Secondary above E.A.C.E.	15	2.6
		568	100.0

1 Forms I-IV represent classes 9-12.

2 Form V+ represents class 13+

TABLE IV.3

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL
ATTAINMENT OF RESPONDENTS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-Group (Years)	Educational Attainment											
	ALL INSTI- TUTIONS ALL CLASSES		None and not stated		Lower Primary Stdsl-4		Upper Primary Stdsl-5-8		Secondary 'O' Level Formsl-IV		Secondary 'A' Level Form V+	
	Num- ber	%	Num- ber	%	Num- ber	%	Num- ber	%	Num- ber	%	Num- ber	%
15-19	42	7.4	2	3.1	2	3.4	8	3.3	30	15.9	-	-
20-24	102	18.0	2	3.1	6	10.2	43	17.8	46	24.5	5	33.3
25-29	149	26.2	9	14.1	6	10.2	71	29.3	57	30.3	6	40.0
30-34	107	18.8	10	15.6	17	28.7	53	21.9	24	12.8	3	20.0
35-39	59	10.4	5	7.8	9	15.2	26	10.7	19	10.1	-	-
40-44	41	7.2	9	14.1	3	5.1	22	9.2	7	3.7	-	-
45-49	33	5.8	10	15.6	7	11.9	11	4.5	5	2.7	-	-
50-54	15	2.6	5	7.8	5	8.5	4	1.7	-	-	-	-
55-59	6	1.1	1	1.6	3	5.1	2	0.8	-	-	-	-
60-64	6	1.1	5	7.8	-	-	1	0.4	-	-	-	-
65-69	5	0.9	3	4.7	1	1.7	1	0.4	-	-	-	-
70-74	2	0.3	2	3.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
75+	1	0.2	1	1.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ALL COH- ORTS	568	100.0	64	100.0	59	100.0	242	100.0	188	100.0	15	100.0

TABLE IV.3a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT
OF RESPONDENTS BY AGE-GROUP

	None and Not stated		Primary		Secondary		Total
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
15-19	2	4.7	10	22.2	30	15.0	42
20-24	2	11.5	49	54.0	51	36.4	102
25-29	9	16.8	77	79.0	63	53.2	149
30-34	10	12.1	70	56.7	27	38.2	107
35-39	5	6.6	35	31.2	19	21.1	59
40-44	9	4.6	25	21.7	7	14.6	41
45-49	10	3.7	18	17.5	5	11.8	33
50-54	5	1.7	9	7.9	1	5.4	15
55-59	1	-	5	3.2	-	2.1	6
60-64	5	-	1	3.2	-	2.1	6
65-69	3	-	2	2.6	-	1.8	5
70-74	2	-	-	1.1	-	-	2
75+	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
ALL COHORTS	64		301		203		568

Degrees of freedom: 24

Chi-square: 99.94

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE IV.4

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-Group (Years)	Educational Attainment											
	ALL INSTITUTIONS ALL CLASSES		None and Not stated		Lower Primary Stds. 1-4		Upper Primary Stds. 5-8		Secondary 'O' Level Forms I-IV		Secondary 'A' Level Form V+	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15-19	22	5.2	-	-	-	-	2	1.1	20	13.2	-	-
20-24	69	16.2	-	-	3	7.9	28	15.7	34	22.4	4	28.5
25-29	104	24.4	5	11.4	3	7.9	43	24.2	47	30.9	6	43.0
30-34	84	19.7	7	15.9	11	28.9	42	23.6	21	13.8	3	21.4
35-39	48	11.3	1	2.3	6	15.8	23	12.9	18	11.8	-	-
40-44	38	8.9	7	15.9	3	7.9	21	11.8	7	4.6	-	-
45-49	31	7.2	9	20.4	6	15.8	11	6.2	5	3.3	-	-
50-54	12	2.8	3	6.8	4	10.5	4	2.2	-	-	-1	7.1
55-59	5	1.2	1	2.3	2	5.3	2	1.1	-	-	-	-
60-64	5	1.2	4	9.1	-	-	1	0.6	-	-	-	-
65-69	5	1.2	4	9.1	-	-	1	0.6	-	-	-	-
70-74	2	0.5	2	4.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
75+	1	0.2	1	2.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ALL COHORTS Percent	426	100.0	44	100.0	38	100.0	178	100.0	152	100.0	14	100.0

TABLE IV.5

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-Group (Years)	Educational Attainment											
	ALL INSTITUTIONS ALL CLASSES		None and Not stated		Lower Primary Stds. 1-4		Upper Primary Stds. 5-8		Secondary 'O' Level Forms 1-IV		Secondary 'A' Level Form V+	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15-19	20	14.1	2	10.0	2	9.4	6	9.4	10	27.8	-	-
20-24	33	23.2	2	10.0	3	14.3	15	23.4	12	33.3	1	100.0
25-29	45	31.7	4	20.0	3	14.3	28	43.7	10	27.8	-	-
30-34	23	16.2	3	15.0	6	28.6	11	17.2	3	8.3	-	-
35-39	11	7.8	3	15.0	4	19.0	3	4.7	1	2.8	-	-
40-44	3	2.1	2	10.0	-	-	1	1.6	-	-	-	-
45-49	2	1.4	1	5.0	1	4.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
50-54	3	2.1	2	10.0	1	4.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
55-59	1	0.7	-	-	1	4.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
60-64	1	0.7	1	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
65-69	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
70-74	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
75+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ALL COHORTS Percent	142	100.0	20	100.0	21	100.0	64	100.0	36	100.0	1	100.0

TABLE V.1
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF OCCUPATIONAL
GROUP OF RESPONDENTS BEFORE AND AFTER
MIGRATION TO KISUMU^a

Occupational Group	Before Migration		After Migration		Absolute Change
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Not stated	17	3.0	-	-	-17
Employee	198	34.9	340	59.9	142
Own account					
Worker	64	11.3	99	17.4	35
Student	180	31.7	40	7.0	-140
None	109	19.2	89	15.7	-20
T O T A L	568	100.0	568	100.0	-

a. The category of 'employer' was not met in the sample.

TABLE V.1a
OCCUPATIONAL GROUP OF RESPONDENTS BEFORE
AND AFTER MIGRATION TO KISUMU

Occupational Group	Before Migration		After Migration		Total
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Not stated	17	8.5	-	8.5	17
Employee	198	268.5	340	268.5	538
Own account worker	64	81.5	99	81.5	163
Student	180	110.0	40	110.0	220
None	109	98.9	89	98.9	198
	568		568		1136

Degrees of freedom: 4

Chi-square: 153.12

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE V.2
OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY BY RESPONDENTS BY SEX

Occupational Category	SEX				Both
	Males		Females		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Not stated	1	-	-	-	1
Professional	88	88.5	30	29.5	118
Clerical	90	81.0	18	27.0	108
Craftsman	39	30.0	1	10.0	40
Salesman	44	37.5	6	12.5	50
Agriculture/ Fishing	3	3.7	2	1.2	5
Domestic worker	7	12.0	9	4.0	16
Manual	77	60.7	4	20.2	81
Other	40	81.7	69	27.2	109
Unemployed	37	30.0	3	10.0	40
TOTAL	426		142		568

Degrees of freedom: 9

Chi-square: 137.74

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE V.3

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCIES OF OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY OF RESPONDENTS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-Group (Years)	Occupational Category										
	ALL OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES	Profes-sional	Clerical	Crafts-man	Sales-man	Agri./Fishing	Domestic Worker	Manual	Other	Unemp-loyed	Not Stated
15-19	7.4	-	0.9	2.5	-	-	-	3.7	26.6	20.0	-
20-24	18.0	16.9	16.7	12.5	20.0	-	12.5	12.3	19.3	40.0	-
25-29	26.2	28.0	39.8	20.0	18.0	20.0	31.2	24.7	17.4	25.0	1
30-34	18.8	19.5	18.5	37.5	16.0	20.0	18.8	29.6	10.0	5.0	-
35-39	10.4	15.3	9.3	12.5	8.0	20.0	18.8	12.3	6.4	2.5	-
40-44	7.2	8.5	5.6	7.5	18.0	-	12.5	6.2	4.6	2.5	-
45-49	5.8	9.3	4.6	5.0	12.0	20.0	6.2	8.6	-	-	-
50-54	2.6	1.7	4.6	2.5	2.0	-	-	1.3	2.8	5.0	-
55-59	1.1	0.8	-	-	2.0	20.0	-	-	2.8	-	-
60-64	1.2	-	-	-	2.0	-	-	1.3	4.6	-	-
65-69	0.7	-	-	-	2.0	-	-	-	2.8	-	-
70-74	0.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.8	-	-
75+	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.9	-	-
ALL COHORTS	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE V.4
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS
WHO HAVE BEEN SEEKING EMPLOYMENT DURING
DIFFERENT PERIODS OF TIME IN THE TOWN

Period of Seeking employment	Respondents	
	Number	Percent
1-3 weeks	3	23.1
1-11 months	6	46.1
1 year or more	4	30.8
	13 ^a	100.0

a This represents 2.3% of the total respondents

TABLE V.5
CHIEF EMPLOYERS OF RESPONDENTS IN KISUMU

Employing Body	Respondents		
	Number	Percent	Rank
Government of Kenya (GK)	71	16.3	3
Municipal Council of Kisumu (MCK)	24	5.5	6
East African Community (EAC)	36	8.3	4
Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	29	6.7	5
Private Sector (companies or persons)	177	40.7	1
Own account work (OAW)	96	22.1	2
Other	2	0.4	7
ALL EMPLOYING BODIES	435	100.0	

TABLE V.6

MIGRANTS CLASSIFIED BY THEIR CHIEF EMPLOYERS

	Type of Migrant			
	Migrants ^a		Non-migrants	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
GK	71	17.0	-	-
MCK	23	5.5	1	5.9
EAC	35	8.4	1	5.9
TSC	29	6.9	-	-
P.S.	171	40.9	6	35.3
OAW	87	20.9	9	52.9
Other	2	0.5	-	-
TOTAL	418	100.0	17	100.0
Percent of Total	96.1		3.9	

^a This includes both temporary and permanent migrants.

TABLE V.7

PERCENTAGE INCOME LEVELS ACCORDING TO SAMPLE AREAS

Area	Income Levels (shillings per month)									
	All levels	Less than 200	200-299	300-399	400-499	500-699	700-999	1000-1399	1400-1999	2000 and more
Mlimani	5.0	11.8	-	-	-	1.7	3.8	5.4	8.7	33.4
Patel Flats	3.5	-	-	-	2.5	5.0	5.1	10.8	8.7	3.7
Tom Mboya	1.6	-	-	-	-	-	1.3	2.7	8.7	11.1
A. Kodhek Flats	1.6	-	-	-	2.5	1.7	3.8	-	4.3	3.7
Kibuye	2.6	-	1.7	3.1	2.5	-	2.5	5.4	8.7	3.7
Shauri Yako	1.6	-	-	-	2.5	1.7	2.5	5.4	-	3.7
STRATUM A	15.9	11.8	1.7	3.1	10.0	10.1	19.0	29.7	39.1	59.3
Ondiek	10.0	8.8	3.4	4.6	10.0	10.0	17.7	19.0	8.7	3.7
Lumumba	4.5	-	1.7	1.5	-	10.0	12.7	2.7	-	-
Makasembo	4.5	-	3.4	4.6	2.5	8.3	5.1	5.4	4.3	3.7
Arina	5.9	-	-	4.6	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.1	8.7	3.7
Mosque	4.2	3.0	1.7	1.5	5.0	-	7.6	5.4	13.1	7.4
Pembe Tatu	3.8	-	-	3.1	5.0	8.3	6.3	5.4	-	-
STRATUM B	32.9	11.8	10.2	19.9	32.5	44.9	58.2	46.0	34.8	18.5

cont....

Kaloleni	9.0	17.6	11.9	13.8	15.0	8.3	2.5	-	-	11.1
Nubian	3.8	5.9	6.8	3.1	-	8.3	-	2.7	8.7	-
Nyalenda	10.4	17.6	25.4	10.8	15.0	5.0	3.8	8.1	-	3.7
Bandani	6.6	8.8	16.9	13.8	5.0	3.3	1.3	2.7	-	-
Obunga-Kudho	3.5	8.8	8.5	9.3	2.5	-	-	-	-	-
Nairobi	6.3	8.8	5.0	6.2	5.0	6.7	5.1	5.4	17.4	3.7
Manyatta	10.0	3.0	11.9	18.5	12.5	11.7	8.8	5.4	-	3.7
Arab Manyatta	1.6	5.9	1.7	1.5	2.5	1.7	1.3	-	-	-
STRATUM C	51.2	76.4	88.1	77.0	57.5	45.0	22.8	24.3	26.1	22.2
ALL AREAS	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE V.8

EMPLOYMENT SITUATION IN THE TOWN BY SEX

	SEX					
	Both		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Employed	350	61.6	294	69.0	56	39.4
Unemployed	40	7.0	37	8.7	3	2.1
Other	178	31.3	95	22.3	83	58.5
	568	99.9	426	100.0	142	100.0

TABLE V.8a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYMENT

SITUATION IN KISUMU TOWN BY SEX

Sex	Employment Situation						TOTAL
	Employed		Unemployed		Other		
	Obse- rved	Expe- cted	Obse- rved	Expe- cted	Obse- rved	Expe- cted	
Males	294	262.5	24	27.0	108	136.5	426
Females	56	87.5	12	9.0	74	45.5	142
BOTH	350		36		182		568

Degrees of freedom: 2

Chi-square: 34.72

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE V.9

ECONOMIC ACTIVITY RATES OF MALES AND FEMALES

Age Group (Years)	Males			Females		
	Sample Population	Labour Force	Activity Rate	Sample Population	Labour Force	Activity Rate
15-19	191	21	11.0	235	17	7.2
20-24	196	54	27.6	141	32	22.7
25-29	189	93	49.2	102	45	44.1
30-34	116	80	69.0	54	25	46.3
35-39	88	45	51.1	38	13	34.2
40-44	50	37	74.0	14	3	21.4
45-49	37	31	83.8	12	2	16.7
50-54	14	10	71.4	7	2	42.9
55-59	8	5	62.5	3	1	33.3
60-64	7	6	85.7	2	1	50.0
65-69	4	4	100.0	2	-	-
70-74	2	2	100.0	-	-	-
75+	2	1	50.0	-	-	-
	904	389	43.0	610	142	23.3

TABLE V.10

MOBILITY PREFERENCE OF MIGRANTS
RELATING TO ECONOMIC ACTIVITY^a

Mobility Preference	All Migrants	
	Number	Percent
To retain present employment in Kisumu	245	50.3
To go elsewhere on promotion	141	29.0
Other	101	20.7
ALL MOBILITY PREFERENCE	487	100.0

^a Only responses of employed persons including own account workers are included here.

TABLE VI.1
MIGRATION AND DISTANCE FROM KISUMU TOWN

Distance Band	Average distance (kilometres) ^a	Number of districts	Total migrants ^b	Cumulative total migrants	Percentage of total population	Cumulative Percentage	Average migrants per district
1	0-50	2	160	160	38.0	37.0	80.0
2	50-100	8	256	416	59.3	96.3	32.0
3	100-150	2	2	418	0.5	96.8	1.0
4	150-200	1	1	419	0.2	97.0	1.0
5	200-250	1	1	420	0.2	97.2	1.0
6	250-300	2	7	427	1.6	98.8	3.5
7	300+	2	5	432	1.2	100.0	2.5

a Taking Kisumu Town as the radius distance bands were drawn on the map of Kenya at an interval of 50 kilometres. These distance bands give different distance values from road distances and are actually the shortest routes from the town.

b Migrants here were determined from birthplace information given by respondents.

TABLE VI.2
MIGRATION RATES OF PROVINCES TO KISUMU

Province of out-migration	Migration Rate ^a
Nyanza	327
Rift Valley	99
Central	9
Rift Valley	6
Eastern	5

a Number of migrants per 1,000 persons in the Province

TABLE VI.3

MIGRATION RATES OF DISTRICTS TO KISUMU

District of out-migration	Migration Rate ^a
Siaya	889
Kisumu	488
South Nyanza	145
Kakamega	143
Busia	79
Kisii	39
Nandi	17
Kiambu	16
Tans Nzoia	16
Bungoma	12
Baringo	11
Machakos	11
Nyeri	11
Uasin Gishu	10
Murang'a	9
Kericho	8
Nakuru	6
Kitui	5

a: Number of migrants per 1,000 persons in the District.

TABLE VI.4
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF BIRTHPLACE AND HOME
OF MIGRANTS BY DISTRICTS IN NYANZA PROVINCE

District	Respondents			
	Birthplace		Home	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Siaya	179	51.4	199	50.6
Kisumu	107	30.7	120	30.5
South				
Nyanza	50	14.4	63	16.0
Kisii	12	3.4	11	2.8
NYANZA PROVINCE	348	99.9	393	99.9

TABLE VI.5
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF BIRTHPLACE AND HOME
OF MIGRANTS BY DISTRICT IN WESTERN PROVINCE

District	Migrants			
	Birthplace		Home	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Kakamoga	53	84.1	64	84.2
Busia	8	12.7	9	11.8
Dungoma	2	3.2	3	3.9
WESTERN PROVINCE	63	100.0	76	99.9

TABLE VI.6
MIGRANTS FROM LOCATIONS IN SIAYA DISTRICT*

Locations	Number	Percent of District	Percent of Province
Gem	59	29.6	15.0
Asembo	35	17.6	8.9
Alego	34	17.1	8.6
Sakwa	27	13.6	6.9
Uyoma	16	8.0	4.1
Ugenya	14	7.0	3.6
Yimbo	11	5.5	2.8
Uholo	3	1.5	0.8
SIAYA DISTRICT	199	99.9	50.6

* To avoid errors due to recent subdivisions of locations, a location is here regarded as an administrative unit irrespective of geographical divisions e.g. West, North, etc.

TABLE VI.7
MIGRANTS FROM LOCATIONS IN KISUMU DISTRICT

Location	Number	Percent of District	Percent of Province
Kano	34	28.3	8.6
Seme	34	28.3	8.6
Kisumu	24	20.0	6.1
Nyakach	23	19.2	5.9
Kajulu	4	3.3	1.0
Muhoroni	1	0.8	0.3
	120	99.9	30.5

TABLE VI.8

MIGRANTS FROM LOCATIONS IN SOUTH NYANZA DISTRICT

Location	Number	Percent of District	Percent of Province
Karachuonyo	15	23.8	3.8
Gembe	6	9.5	1.5
Kamagambo	6	9.5	1.5
Rusinga	4	6.3	1.0
Kanyamkago	4	6.3	1.0
Kaspul	4	6.3	1.0
Konyango	3	4.8	0.8
Gem	3	4.8	0.8
Kanamwa	2	3.2	0.5
Kabuoch	2	3.2	0.5
Sakwa	2	3.2	0.5
Kabondo	2	3.2	0.5
Mfang'ano	2	3.2	0.5
Nyokal	2	3.2	0.5
Karungu	1	1.6	0.3
Kadem	1	1.6	0.3
Gwasi	1	1.6	0.3
Kanyada	1	1.6	0.3
Olabwe	1	1.6	0.3
Suna	1	1.6	0.3
	63	100.0	16.2

TABLE VI.9

MIGRANTS FROM LOCATIONS IN KISII DISTRICT

Location	Number	Percent of District	Percent of Province
Kitutu	4	36.4	1.0
Majoge	3	27.3	0.8
Nyaribari	2	18.2	0.5
Wanjare	2	18.2	0.5
	11	100.1	2.8

TABLE VI.10

MIGRANTS FROM LOCATIONS IN KAKAMEGA DISTRICT

Location	Number	Percent of District	Percent of Province
Maragoli	21	32.8	27.6
Bunyoro	14	21.9	18.4
Wanga	8	12.5	10.5
Marama	4	6.2	5.3
Nyang'ori	4	6.2	5.3
Kisa	4	6.2	5.3
Isukha	3	4.7	3.9
Idakho	3	4.7	3.9
Tiriki	2	3.1	2.6
Butsotso	1	1.6	1.3
ALL LOCATIONS	64	99.9	84.1

TABLE VI.11

MIGRANTS FROM LOCATIONS IN BUSIA DISTRICT

Location	Number	Percent of District	Percent of Province
Bunyala	4	44.4	5.3
Samia	2	22.2	2.6
Teso	2	22.2	2.6
Marach	1	11.1	1.3
ALL LOCATIONS	9	99.9	11.8

TABLE VI.12

MIGRANTS FROM LOCATIONS IN BUNGOMA DISTRICT

Location	Number	Percent of District	Percent of Province
Bukusu	2	66.7	2.6
Bokoli	1	33.3	1.3
	3	100.0	3.9

TABLE VII.1

MIGRANTS WITH RELATIONS BACK HOME

Relations	Frequencies	Per cent of		Proportion of sample population	
		total frequencies	sample population	Number	Per cent
Mother	350	43.3	61.6	218	38.4
Father	278	34.4	48.9	290	51.1
Spouse	102	12.6	18.0	466	82.0
Other relatives	76	9.4	13.4	492	86.6
Friends	3	0.4	0.5	565	99.5
	809	100.1	100.0	-	-

TABLE VII.2

MIGRANTS WITH PROPERTY AT HOME

Property	Frequencies	Per cent of		Proportion of sample population	
		total frequencies	sample population	Number	Per cent
Shamba	206	43.1		362	63.7
Livestock	11	2.3		557	98.1
Both shamba and and livestock	190	39.7		378	66.5
None	71	14.9		497	87.5
	478	100.0			

Response rate: 84.15

Per cent of migrants only: 87.7

TABLE VIII.1

PLACE OF RESIDENCE IN 1968 AND 1972

Place of Residence	Year				Net Change	
	1968		1972			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Kisumu	329	57.9	530	93.3	+201	+35.4
Elsewhere	239	42.1	38	6.7	-201	-35.4
	568	100.0	568	100.0	-	-

TABLE VIII.1a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF PLACE OF RESIDENCE

IN 1968 AND 1972

YEAR	Place of Residence				
	Kisumu		Elsewhere		TOTAL
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
1968	329	429.5	239	138.5	568
1972	530	429.5	38	138.5	568
TOTAL	859		277		1136

Degrees of freedom: 1

Chi-square: 192.90

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels

TABLE VIII.2

NUMBER OF TOWNS LIVED IN BY MIGRANTS

Towns lived in (number)	ALL MIGRANTS		Migrants					
			Temporary		Permanent		Non-migrant	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0*	147	25.9	118	23.8	18	36.0	11	47.9
1	141	24.8	119	24.0	17	34.0	5	21.7
2	162	28.5	145	29.3	12	24.0	5	21.7
3	71	12.5	67	13.5	3	6.0	1	4.3
4	22	3.9	21	4.2	-	-	1	4.3
5	25	4.4	25	5.1	-	-	-	-
ALL TOWNS	568	100.0	495	99.9	50	100.0	23	99.9

* Those who have lived in Kisumu only. The rest include those who have lived in towns other than Kisumu.

TABLE VIII.2a

MOBILITY OF MIGRANTS ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF TOWNS LIVED IN

Towns lived in (number)	Migrants				Non-migrant		ALL MIGRANTS
	Temporary		Permanent				
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
0	118	128.1	18	12.9	11	5.6	147
1	119	122.8	17	12.4	5	5.7	141
2	145	141.2	12	14.3	5	6.6	162
3	67	61.9	3	6.3	1	2.9	71
4	21	19.2	-	1.9	1	-	22
5	25	21.8	-	2.2	-	1.0	25
ALL TOWNS	495		50		23		568

Degrees of freedom: 10

Chi-square: 19.92

Significant at 5 per cent level.

TABLE VIII.3

PERIOD OF MIGRATION TO KISUMU BY TYPE OF MIGRANTS

Period (years)	ALL RESPONDENTS		Migrants				Non-migrants	
			Temporary		Permanent			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Born in Kisumu	32	5.6	8	1.6	1	1.9	23	100.0
Not stated	6	1.0	3	0.6	3	5.8	-	-
1900-1909	1	0.2	1	0.2	-	-	-	-
1910-1919	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1920-1929	2	0.4	-	-	2	3.8	-	-
1930-1939	5	0.9	4	0.8	1	1.9	-	-
1940-1949	26	4.6	9	1.8	17	32.7	-	-
1950-1959	50	8.8	33	6.7	17	32.7	-	-
1960-1969	260	45.8	253	51.3	7	13.5	-	-
1970-	186	32.7	182	36.9	4	7.7	-	-
ALL PERIODS	568	100.0	493	99.9	52	100.0	23	100.0
Percent all periods	100.0		86.8		9.2		4.0	

TABLE VIII.3a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF MIGRATION TO KISUMU - MIGRANTS ONLY

Time of migration (years)	Type of Migrant				TOTAL
	Temporary		Permanent		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Born in Kisumu	8	8.1	1	-	9
Not stated	3	5.4	3	-	6
1900-1909	1	-	-	-	1
1910-1919	-	-	-	-	-
1920-1929	-	1.8	2	-	2
1930-1939	4	4.5	1	-	5
1940-1949	9	23.5	17	2.5	26
1950-1959	33	45.2	17	4.8	50
1960-1969	253	253.2	7	24.8	260
1970-	182	168.2	4	17.7	186
	493		52		545

Degree of freedom (excluding 1919-1919): 8

Chi-square: 148.42

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE VIII.4
MIGRANTS AND RELATIONS PRESENT
AND/OR STAYED WITH IN KISUMU

Relations	Present in Kisumu		Stayed with at one time	
	Frequency	Per cent	Frequency	Per cent
Relatives	391	70.3	296	54.9
Friends	56	10.1	56	10.5
Neither	109	19.6	187	34.7
ALL RELATIONS	556	100.0	539	100.0
Percent of total sample	97.9	-	94.9	-

TABLE VIII.4a
RESPONDENTS' RELATIONS PRESENT
AND THOSE STAYED WITH ON MIGRATING

Relations	Present in Kisumu		Stayed with		TOTAL
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Relatives	391	348.8	296	338.1	687
Friends	56	56.8	56	55.1	112
Neither	109	105.3	187	145.7	296
	556		539		1095

Degrees of freedom: 2

Chi-square: 33.48

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE VIII.5
RESPONDENTS' CONTACT WITH HOME
SINCE MIGRATING TO KISUMU

Contact with home (on basis of visits/no visits)	Respondents		
	Number	Percent	Rank
Those having Kisumu as permanent home	78	13.7	2
Those who have never visited home since migrating	27	4.8	3
Those who have visited home since migrating	458	80.6	1
Non-response	5	0.9	4
T O T A L	568	100.0	

TABLE VIII.6
FREQUENCY AND NATURE OF VISITS HOME

Nature of visit	Frequency	Percent	Rank
During weekends	138	28.9	2
When on leave/holidays	147	30.8	1
Every end of the month	80 [†]	16.8	4
Other	112	23.5	3
ALL VISITS	477 ¹	100.0	

1 This represents 87.5 per cent of all respondents

TABLE VIII.7

PERCENTAGE FREQUENCY OF VISITS HOME

BY NATURE OF VISIT AND AGE-GROUP

Age-group (years)	Nature of Visit (% frequency)				
	ALL VISITS	During weekends	When on leave or holidays	Every end of the months	Other
15-19	7.3	-	15.6	1.2	9.8
20-24	18.9	18.1	19.7	22.5	16.1
25-29	28.1	30.4	25.2	28.7	28.6
30-34	19.5	19.6	19.0	23.8	17.0
35-39	10.9	13.1	8.2	15.0	8.9
40-44	7.8	9.4	5.4	6.3	9.8
45-49	4.2	5.8	3.4	2.5	4.4
50-54	1.7	2.9	2.1	-	0.9
55-59	0.6	-	0.7	-	1.8
60-64	0.6	0.7	0.7	-	0.9
65-69	-	-	-	-	-
70-74	0.2	-	-	-	0.9
75+	0.2	-	-	-	0.9
ALL COHORTS	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE VIII.7a

FREQUENCY OF VISITS HOME BY NATURE OF VISIT ACCORDING TO AGE-GROUP

Age- Group (Years)	Frequency of Visits								
	During Weekends		When on leave or holidays		Every end of the month		Other		TOTAL
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
15-19	-	10.1	23	10.8	1	5.9	11	8.2	35
20-24	25	26.0	29	27.7	18	15.1	18	21.1	90
25-29	42	38.8	37	41.3	23	22.5	32	31.5	134
30-34	27	26.9	28	28.7	19	15.6	19	21.8	93
35-39	18	15.0	12	16.0	12	8.7	10	12.2	52
40-44	13	10.7	8	11.4	5	6.2	11	8.7	37
45-49	8	5.8	5	6.2	2	3.4	5	4.7	20
50-54	4	2.3	3	2.5	-	1.3	1	1.9	8
55-59	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	3
60+	1	1.4	1	1.5	-	-	3	1.2	5
	138		147		80		112		477

Degree of freedom: 27

Chi-square: 44.19

Significant at 5 per cent level

TABLE VIII.8

MOBILITY PREFERENCE OF RESPONDENTS IN FUTURE

Mobility Preference	Respondents	
	Number	Percent
To continue staying in Kisumu	374	66.1
To move to another town	123	21.7
To move to the countryside	51	9.0
Not stated	18	3.2
	566	100.0

NOTE:

Only 2 persons failed to respond to this question.

TABLE IX.1

HOUSEHOLD SIZES IN THE TOWN

Household Size	Number	Percent
1-3	213	37.5
4-6	219	38.6
7-9	104	18.3
10-12	26	4.6
13-14	6	1.0
ALL HOUSEHOLD SIZES	568	100.0

TABLE IX.2

AGE-SEX STRUCTURE OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

Age-group	SEX					
	Both		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Not stated	53	2.0	30	2.1	23	2.0
0-4	386	14.5	187	13.0	199	16.3
5-9	364	13.7	173	12.0	191	15.6
10-14	339	12.8	141	9.8	198	16.2
15-19	426	16.1	191	13.3	235	19.2
20-24	337	12.7	196	13.7	141	11.5
25-29	291	11.0	189	13.2	102	8.4
30-34	170	6.4	116	8.1	54	4.4
35-39	126	4.7	88	6.1	38	3.1
40-44	64	2.4	50	3.5	14	1.1
45-49	49	1.8	37	2.6	12	1.0
50-54	21	0.8	14	1.0	7	0.6
55-59	11	0.4	8	0.6	3	0.2
60-64	9	0.3	7	0.5	2	0.2
65-69	6	0.2	4	0.3	2	0.2
70-74	2	0.1	2	0.1	-	-
75+	2	0.1	2	0.1	-	-
ALL COHORTS	2,656	100.0	1,435	100.0	1,221	100.0
Per cent	100.0		54.0		46.0	

TABLE IX.3
SEX AND AGE RATIOS OF
SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS BY AGE*

Age-group	Sex			Sex Ratio ^a	Age Ratios ^b		
	Both	Males	Females		Both	Males	Females
0-4	386	187	199	94	-	-	-
5-9	364	173	191	91	1.004	1.055	.962
10-14	339	141	198	71	.858	.775	.930
15-19	426	191	235	81	1.260	1.134	1.386
20-24	337	196	141	139	.940	1.032	.837
25-29	291	189	102	185	1.148	1.212	1.046
30-34	170	116	54	215	.815	.838	.771
35-39	126	88	38	232	1.077	1.060	1.118
40-44	64	50	14	357	.731	.800	.560
45-49	49	37	12	308	1.153	1.156	1.143
50-54	21	14	7	200	.700	.622	.933
55-59	11	8	3	267	.733	.762	.667
60-64	9	7	2	350	1.059	1.167	.800
65-69	6	4	2	200	1.091	.889	-
70-74	2	2	-	-	.500	-	-
75+	2	2	-	-	-	-	-

* These ratios were computed from stated ages only. But together with unstated ages the total population of 2,656 comprised 1,435 males and 1,221 females.

^a This has been expressed in proportion of males per 100 females.

^b An "age ratio" is a ratio of an enumerated age group to the average of its two adjoining groups, each sex being considered separately.

TABLE IX.4
SEX RATIO BY AGE GROUP IN KISUMU TOWN
FROM CENSUS AND SURVEY DATA

Age-group	Sex ratio	
	Census data*	Survey data
0-4	103	94
5-9	88	91
10-14	81	71
15-19	88	81
20-24	151	139
25-29	163	185
30-34	265	215
35-39	336	232
40-44	452	357
45-49	573	308
50-54	527	200
55-59	561	267
60-64	233	350
65-69	264	200
70-74	75	200
75+	93	200

* Source:

Ominde, S.H.- Some Population
Characteristics of the main
Urban Centres in Kenya, 1973.

TABLE X.1

REASONS FOR MIGRATION TO KISUMU BY AGE-GROUP

Age group	Reasons for migration															
	ALL REASONS		Unemp- loyment		Land was not available at home		Could not enter a school		Lack of social amenities		Tran- sfer to Kisumu		Other		Not stated	
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent
15-19	39	7.2	3	1.4	-	-	16	50.0	-	-	2	1.5	17	11.7	1	14.3
20-24	97	17.8	50	23.1	-	-	14	43.8	1	100.0	10	7.7	20	13.8	2	28.6
25-29	144	26.4	67	31.0	3	20.0	2	6.2	-	-	35	27.1	37	25.5	-	-
30-34	104	19.1	39	18.1	2	13.3	-	-	-	-	33	25.6	28	19.3	2	28.6
35-39	56	10.3	23	10.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	21	16.3	12	8.3	-	-
40-44	41	7.5	15	6.9	1	6.7	-	-	-	-	14	10.9	11	7.6	-	-
45-49	31	5.7	9	4.2	3	20.0	-	-	-	-	9	7.0	9	6.2	1	14.3
50-54	14	2.6	4	1.9	4	26.7	-	-	-	-	4	3.1	2	1.4	-	-
55-59	6	1.0	2	0.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.8	2	1.4	1	14.3
60-64	6	1.0	1	6.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	2.1	-	-
65-69	3	0.6	-	-	1	6.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1.4	-	-
70-74	2	0.4	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	-	-
75+	2	0.4	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	-	-
	545	100.0	216	100.0	15	100.1	32	100.0	1	100.0	129	100.0	145	100.1	7	100.1

TABLE X.2
RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF SALARY AND STANDARD
OF LIVING AT PRESENT AND PREVIOUS RESIDENCE

Response	Salary or standard of living			
	Number Percent		Number Percent	
Better at Kisumu (present residence)	183	41.1	235	52.0
Better at previous residence	225	50.4	190	42.0
Doubtful/don't know	38	8.5	27	6.0
ALL RESPONSES	446	100.0	452	100.0
Response rate	78.5 percent		79.7 percent	

TABLE X.3
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF FUTURE
MIGRATION PLANS BY SEX

Migration Plans	Sex					
	Both		Males		Females	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
To stay in Kisumu for good	78	13.8	52	12.2	26	18.3
To stay in Kisumu until retirement	90	15.8	77	18.1	13	9.1
To leave at one time	285	50.2	223	52.3	62	43.7
Uncertain about future plans	115	20.2	74	17.4	41	28.9
ALL MIGRATION PLANS	568	100.0	426	100.0	142	100.0

TABLE X.3a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF FUTURE MIGRATION PLANS BY SEX

Future Migration Plans	Sex				Both
	Males		Females		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
To stay in Kisumu for good	52	58.5	26	19.5	78
To stay in Kisumu until retirement	77	67.5	13	22.5	90
To leave at one time	223	213.7	62	71.2	285
Uncertain about future plans	74	86.2	41	28.7	115
ALL MIGRATION PLANS	426		142		568

Degrees of freedom: 3

Chi-square: 16.83

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE X.4

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF FUTURE

MIGRATION PLANS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-group	Migration Plans									
	ALL MIGRATION PLANS		To stay in Kisumu for good		To stay in Kisumu until retirement		To leave at one time		Uncertain about future plans	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15-19	42	7.4	4	5.1	-	-	22	7.7	16	13.9
20-24	102	18.0	3	3.8	11	12.3	44	15.4	44	38.3
25-29	149	26.2	15	19.2	23	25.6	79	27.7	32	27.8
30-34	107	18.8	9	11.5	18	20.0	68	23.9	12	10.4
35-39	59	10.4	8	10.3	13	14.1	34	11.9	4	3.5
40-44	41	7.2	8	10.3	10	11.1	19	6.7	4	3.5
45-49	33	5.8	13	16.7	10	11.1	7	2.4	3	2.6
50-54	15	2.6	7	9.0	4	4.4	4	1.4	-	-
55-59	6	1.1	3	3.8	11	1.1	2	0.7	-	-
60-64	6	1.1	4	5.1	-	-	2	0.7	-	-
65-69	5	0.9	3	3.8	-	-	2	0.7	-	-
70-74	2	0.3	1	1.3	-	-	1	0.4	-	-
75+	1	0.2	-	-	-	-	1	0.4	-	-
	568	100.0	78	99.9	90	100.0	285	100.0	115	100.0

TABLE X.4a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF FUTURE MIGRATION PLANS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-group (years)	Future Migration Plans								TOTAL
	To stay in Kisumu for good		To stay in Kisumu until retirement		To leave at one time		Uncertain about future plans		
	Obse- rved	Expe- cted	Obse- rved	Expe- cted	Obse- rved	Expe- cted	Obse- rved	Expe- cted	
15-19	4	5.8	-	6.7	22	21.1	16	8.5	42
20-24	3	14.0	11	16.2	44	51.2	44	20.6	102
25-29	15	20.5	23	23.6	79	74.8	32	30.2	149
30-34	9	14.7	18	16.9	68	53.7	12	21.7	107
35-39	8	8.1	13	9.3	34	29.6	4	11.9	59
40-44	8	5.6	10	6.5	19	20.5	4	8.3	41
45-49	13	4.5	10	5.2	7	16.5	3	6.7	33
50-54	7	2.1	4	2.4	4	7.5	-	3.0	15
55-59	3	-	1	-	2	3.0	-	1.2	6
60+	8	1.9	-	2.2	6	7.0	-	2.8	14
ALL COHORTS	78		90		285		115		568

Degrees of freedom: 27

Chi-square: 146.90

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE X.5

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF TYPOLOGY OF MIGRANTS BY ETHNIC GROUP

Ethnic group	Typology							
	Migrants and non-migrants		Temporary migrant		Permanent migrant		Non-migrant	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
African	527	92.8	483	97.6	30	60.0	14	60.9
Asian	20	3.5	3	1.0	12	24.0	3	13.0
Arab	14	2.5	-	-	8	16.0	6	26.1
European	6	1.0	6	1.2	-	-	-	-
Other	1	0.2	1	0.2	-	-	-	-
	568	100.0	495	100.0	50	100.0	23	100.0

TABLE X.5a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF TYPOLOGY OF MIGRANTS BY ETHNIC GROUP

Ethnic group	Typology of migrants						TOTAL
	Temporary migrant		Permanent migrant		Non-migrant		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
African	483	459.3	30	46.4	14	21.3	527
Asian	5	17.4	12	1.8	3	-	20
Arab	-	12.2	8	1.2	6	-	14
European	6	5.2	-	-	-	-	6
Other	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
ALL ETHNIC GROUPS	495		50		23		568

Degrees of freedom: 8

Chi-square: 127.02

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE X.6

TYPOLOGY OF AFRICAN MIGRANTS BY TRIBAL GROUP

Tribal group	Typology							
	MIGRANTS AND NON-MIGRANTS		Temporary migrant		Permanent migrant		Non-migrant	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Luo	404	76.7	369	76.4	25	83.3	10	71.4
Luhya	72	13.7	70	14.5	2	6.7	-	-
Kisii	11	2.1	11	2.3	-	-	-	-
Kalenjin	8	1.5	7	1.4	1	3.3	-	-
Kikuyu	13	2.5	13	2.7	-	-	-	-
Kamba	5	0.9	5	1.0	-	-	-	-
Others	14	2.6	8	1.7	2	6.7	4	28.6
ALL TRIBAL GROUPS	527	100.0	483	100.0	30	100.0	14	100.0

TABLE X.7

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS IN KISUMU BY SEX

Typology of migrants	Sex					
	Both		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<u>MIGRANT:</u>	<u>545</u>	<u>95.9</u>	<u>409</u>	<u>96.0</u>	<u>136</u>	<u>95.8</u>
Temporary	495	87.1	379	89.0	116	81.7
Permanent	50	8.8	30	7.0	20	14.1
Non-migrant	23	4.1	17	4.0	6	4.2
ALL RESPONDENTS	568	100.0	426	100.0	142	100.0

TABLE X.7a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF TYPOLOGY OF MIGRANTS IN KISUMU BY SEX

Typology of migrants	Sex				TOTAL
	Males		Females		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Temporary	379	371.2	116	123.7	495
Permanent	30	37.5	20	12.5	50
Non-migrant	17	17.2	6	5.7	23
	426		142		568

Degrees of freedom: 2

Chi-square: 6.66

Significant at 5 per cent level

TABLE X.8

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF TYPOLOGY OF MIGRANTS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-group	Typology of migrants							
	MIGRANTS AND NON-MIGRANTS		Temporary migrants		Permanent migrants		Non-migrants	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15-19	42	7.4	39	7.9	2	4.0	1	4.4
20-24	102	18.0	99	20.0	1	2.0	2	8.7
25-29	149	26.2	135	27.3	9	18.0	5	21.7
30-34	107	18.8	99	20.0	5	10.0	3	13.0
35-39	59	10.4	51	10.3	6	12.0	2	8.7
40-44	41	7.2	33	6.7	6	12.0	2	8.7
45-49	33	5.8	22	4.4	8	16.0	3	13.0
50-54	15	2.6	8	1.6	6	12.0	1	4.4
55-59	6	1.1	3	0.6	3	6.0	-	-
60-64	6	1.1	2	0.4	2	4.0	2	8.7
65-69	5	0.9	2	0.4	1	2.0	2	8.7
70-74	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	2.0	-	-
75+	1	0.2	1	0.2	-	-	-	-
ALL COHORTS	568	100.0	495	100.0	50	100.0	23	100.0
Percent	100.0		87.1		8.8		4.1	

TABLE X.8a

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF TYPOLOGY OF MIGRANTS BY AGE-GROUP

Age-group (years)	Typology of migrants						TOTAL
	Temporary migrant		Permanent migrant		Non-migrant		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
15-19	39	36.6	2	3.7	1	1.7	42
20-24	99	88.9	1	9.0	2	4.1	102
25-29	135	129.8	9	13.1	5	6.0	149
30-34	99	93.2	5	9.4	3	4.3	107
35-39	51	51.4	6	5.2	2	2.4	59
40-44	33	35.7	6	3.6	2	1.7	41
45-49	22	28.7	8	2.9	3	1.3	33
50-54	8	13.1	6	1.3	1	-	15
55-59	3	5.2	3	-	-	-	6
60-64	2	5.2	2	-	2	-	6
65-69	2	4.4	1	-	2	-	5
70-74	1	1.7	1	-	-	-	2
75+	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
	495		50		23		568

Degrees of freedom: 24

Chi-square: 52.50

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE XI.1

ADEQUACY AND INADEQUACY OF FACILITIES IN KISUMU

Situation of facilities	Facilities										TOTAL
	Medical		Schools		Housing		Recreation		Transportation		
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Adequate	79	100.9	105	100.5	115	100.7	162	95.3	44	107.3	505
Inadequate	483	461.1	455	459.4	446	460.2	369	435.6	554	490.6	2,307
TOTAL	562		560		561		531		598		2,812

Degrees of freedom: 4

Chi-square: 110.91

Significant at 5 per cent and 1 per cent levels.

TABLE XI.2

SITUATION OF FACILITIES BY SAMPLE AREAS IN THE TOWN

Area	Situations of Facilities				
	Adequate		Inadequate		TOTAL
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
1	42	19.0	64	86.7	106
2	31	18.6	73	85.1	104
3	3	7.2	37	32.8	40
4	5	8.8	44	40.1	49
5	16	11.7	49	53.3	65
6	8	13.1	65	59.8	73
7	35	40.9	193	186.9	228
8	12	19.7	98	90.2	110
9	31	26.7	118	122.0	149
10	53	35.0	142	159.9	195
11	17	22.1	106	100.8	123
12	17	20.5	97	93.4	114
13	51	43.1	189	196.8	240
14	15	24.6	122	112.4	137
15	46	59.8	287	273.1	333
16	16	33.2	169	151.6	185
17	22	20.6	93	94.1	115
18	35	29.9	132	136.8	167
19	44	42.4	192	193.6	236
20	6	7.7	37	35.1	43
	505		2,307		2,812

Degrees of freedom: 19

Chi-square: 96.20

Significant at 5 per cent and
1 per cent levels.

APPENDIX B

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

POST-SURVEY EVALUATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

THE QUESTIONNAIRE (English Translation)

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY

MIGRATION SURVEY IN KISUMU TOWN

Date of Interview	_____	<u>Code</u>
Field Worker	_____	
	head of family	_____
Person interviewed	wife only	_____
	husband and wife	_____
	other	_____

I. IDENTIFICATION

- a. Full name of respondent _____
- b. Location of Respondent' house:
- Address of residenc: House No. _____
- Street No. or Name _____
- Plot No. (if any) _____
- Municipal Ward _____
- Locality (Estate) _____
-

II. SEX

Male _____

Female _____

III. ETHNIC AND TRIBAL AFFILIATION

- ✓ a. Ethnic Origin: African _____
 Asian _____
 Arab _____
 European _____
 Other _____

If African

b. Which tribe do you belong to? _____

✓ c. If Luo/Luhya/Kisii/Kuria (cross out that
not applicable)

Give the following details:

District _____

Division _____

Location _____

Sub-Location _____

✓ IV. AGE

How old are you in completed years? _____

V. MARITAL STATUS

- ✓ a. Are you Single _____
- Married _____
- Divorced _____
- Widowed _____

If married

- ✓ b. Is the wife/husband staying with you in Kisumu?
- YES _____
- NO _____

VI. EDUCATION

- a. Have you been to school?

Not attending school now but

attended at one time _____

Never attended school at all _____

Attending school now _____

If attended or attending school now

b.		<u>Std.</u>				<u>Form</u> K.J.S.E.			
		1	2	3	4	I	II		
	L.P.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____		
		5	6	7	8	III	IV	V	VI
	U.P.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

'O' LEVEL 'A' LEVEL

If not attending school now

c. Have you had any further education or training in form of

University _____

Teachers College _____

Other higher education/training _____

Give details of other higher education or training _____

VII.. ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

a. To what occupational group did you belong before your migration to Kisumu?

Employer _____

Employee _____

Own account worker _____

Student _____

None _____

Specify none if it is the response _____

b. To what occupational group do you belong now?

Employer _____

Employee _____

Own account worker _____

Student _____

None _____

Specify none if it is the response _____

- c. Were you working or doing something else most of last week?

Working _____

Something else _____

If something else

- d. Were you looking for a wage job? YES _____
NO _____

If you have been looking for a wage job

- e. How long have you been looking for a wage job?

1 - 3 weeks _____

1 - 11 months _____

1 year _____

Over 1 year _____

If always working but not at work most of last week

- f. Why were you not at work?

Leave _____

Illness _____

Other _____

Specify other _____

If working

g. Who are your employers? _____

h. In what occupational category do you fall?

Professional _____

Clerical _____

Craftsmen _____

Salesmen _____

Agriculture/Fishing _____

Domestic worker _____

Manual _____

Other _____

Unemployed _____

i. How many hours do you work?

Monday-Friday _____

Saturdays _____

Sundays _____

j. How many working days do you have in a week?

Five _____

Six _____

Seven _____

Other _____

Specify other if it is the response _____

k. Can you indicate your monthly income from your regular pre-occupation?

Shillings	2000	_____
	200 - 299	_____
	300 - 399	_____
	400 - 499	_____
	500 - 699	_____
	700 - 999	_____
	1000 - 1399	_____
	1400 - 1999	_____
	2000	_____

l. Given the chance which would you prefer?

To retain your present employment in Kisumu _____

To go elsewhere on promotion _____

Other _____

Specify other _____

Not to be filled in

Employed _____

Not employed _____

Underemployed _____

Other _____

Specify other _____

VIII. PLACE OF BIRTH

a. Where were you born?

Kenya _____

Another country _____

If another country

b. Name of Country _____

Name of District _____

If Kenya

c. Were you born in a town or in the countryside?

Town _____

Countryside _____

If born in a town

d. Which town _____

If born in the countryside

e. Where exactly were you born?

Province _____

District _____

f. If Nyanza/Western Province

District _____

Division _____

Location _____

Sub-Location _____

Village _____

IX. HOME

a. Where do you consider your home to be?

Place of Birth _____

Somewhere else _____

If somewhere else

b. Where exactly is your home?

Kenya _____

Another Country _____

If another country

c. Which Country? _____

Which District? _____

If Kenya

d. Is your home in a town or in the countryside?

Town _____

Countryside _____

e. If in a town

e. Which town? _____

If in the countryside

f. Which province? _____

Which district? _____

If in Nyanza/Western Province

District _____

Division _____

Location _____

Sub-location _____

Village _____

g. While in Kisumu, who lives at your home?

Father _____

Mother _____

Husband/Wife _____

Other relatives _____

Friends _____

h. Do you have a shamba or own livestock at home?

Shamba only _____

Livestock only _____

Both _____

None _____

X. MOBILITY

a. Where were you living five years ago? _____

b. Where were you living one year ago? _____

c. Which was the first town you ever visited? _____

Year of visit _____

d. Have you lived in towns other than Kisumu?

YES _____

NO _____

	<u>Towns lived in</u>	<u>Arrival year</u>	<u>Length of Stay</u>	
			<u>YEARS</u>	<u>MONTHS</u>
i.	_____	_____	_____	_____
ii.	_____	_____	_____	_____
iii.	_____	_____	_____	_____
iv.	_____	_____	_____	_____
v.	_____	_____	_____	_____

e. When did you first come to live in Kisumu? _____

f. Were there any relatives or friends in Kisumu
at the time of your coming to live there?

Relatives _____

Friends _____

Neither _____

g. Whom did you stay with for some time?

Relatives _____

Friends _____

Neither _____

If neither, give details _____

h. Have you visited your home since you came to Kisumu?

YES _____

NO _____

d. Generally speaking do you now find more satisfaction in life in terms of salary or standard of living in Kisumu than at your previous residence?

	<u>Salary</u>	<u>Standard of living</u>
YES	_____	_____
NO	_____	_____
Doubtful/Don't Know	_____	_____

e. What are your future plans with regard to migration

Plans to stay in Kisumu _____

Plans to stay until retirement _____

Plans to leave at one time _____

Uncertain about future plans _____

Not to be filled

Temporary Migrant _____

Permanent Migrant _____

Non-migrant _____

INTERVIEW INFORMATION

a. Interviewer _____

b. Date _____

c. Approximate length of interview _____

d. Place of interview _____

e. How co-operative was the respondent? _____

f. Do you have any comments on the reliability or otherwise about the information given by the respondent? _____

If so, give details _____

g. Was the Respondent keen in listening to and interpreting the questions? _____

h. Do you think he was sober or having no defects to influence his/her power of understanding and answering of questions? (Give details) _____

i. Give any useful comments that will help to understand the Respondent's answers

(To be completed as soon as possible after each interview so as to avoid recall lapse).

POST-SURVEY EVALUATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

It has been stated elsewhere that the questionnaire adopted in the survey aimed, inter alia, at experimentation in migratory behaviour within a particular town. But careful assessment of the size and workability of the questionnaire had to be made besides ensuring adequate coverage of all aspects that are involved in the phenomenon. The questions may be broadly classified into two categories. First, the questions relating to the migration process: birthplace information, home and mobility characteristics of respondents. Second, questions relating to migration differentials or selectivity due to differential attributes of migrants, namely, sex, ethnic/tribal affiliation, age, marital status, educational attainment, economic activity, household characteristics and environmental conditions. The present section highlights the reasons underlying choice of questions and compilation of the questionnaire, post-survey evaluation of the questionnaire and recommendations regarding their use in other similar surveys.

The questionnaire sheet covered twelve basic items as follows:

- I. Identification
- II. Sex

- III. Tribal Affiliation
- IV. Age
- V. Marital Status
- VI. Education
- VII. Economic Activity
- VIII. Place of Birth
- IX. Home
- X. Mobility
- XI. Household Data
- XII. Environmental Conditions

It can be noticed that the sequence of these items did not necessarily obey the two aspects of migration mentioned above. The questionnaire format was therefore based rather on orderly coverage of migration variables than on pigeon-holing of the variables into the two aspects of migration. The discussion which follows is actually a probe into these items in order to understand their contribution to the survey. Besides, an interview information was appended to the questionnaire sheet and was designed for enumerators' assessment of his respondents' answers. But many omissions that occurred in this section induced the author to ignore it for analytical purposes.

I. Identification

This consisted of the respondents' name and location of his/her house in Kisumu town. The name was necessary because ethnic or tribal affiliation of a respondent could be determined by or cross-checked against it. But since it is a rather sensitive factor enumerators were advised to ask it at the close of the interview if the respondent had not introduced himself before the interview. Only in one case did a respondent refuse to give his name. The second item here presented some problems: some housing units had no numbers, no street names and occupants were often ignorant of plot numbers and municipal wards in which they were duly registered as voters. The most problematic areas turned to be in stratum C for reasons that have been mentioned before. Perhaps names of respondents would not be necessary particularly when the political climate is unfavourable within the country. But together with other factors it facilitates identification of respondents in terms of not only ethnic or tribal origin but also birthplace or home areas within the country.

II. Sex

This is self explanatory.

III. Tribal Affiliation

a. Ethnic Origin

The major ethnic groups reported in censuses of East African countries are African, Asian, Arab, European and others not so classified. Though this classification has such vague synonymous terms as European and Whitoman or Asian and brown/yellow skins and so on, it was adopted in this work to avoid detracton from the usual nomenclature. "Other" included respondents who did not belong to any of the stated ethnic groups.

b. Tribe

Fig. 5 shows the tribal groups in Kenya from whom internal migrants into Kisumu town come. Other African tribes from Uganda and Tanzania or outside East Africa were also to be included. Some details concerning District, division, location and sub-locations were asked about tribal groups who hailed from the

Kisumu Region, that is, Nyanza and Western Provinces. Despite some resentment on the part of some Luhya peoples such as the Maragoli of inclusion in the tribal name, this item presented no major problems. The details about administrative units helped to check whether respondents really belonged to the tribal groups that they claimed membership of or whether they lived in otherwise peculiar areas for marital or other reasons.

The main reason for asking ethnic or tribal groups was to explain the ethnic or tribal structure of respondents and to make inferences about the town's population as a whole. To some respondents the question was commonplace; but to a few others especially non-Luos it aroused much suspicion.

IV. Age

Age reporting in tropical Africa is a significant source of error in demographic data whether reported in broad physiological age intervals - 1 and below, 1 to

puberty, puberty to menopause and after menopause or in terms of conventional age distribution with 5-year or 10-year intervals²² the problem still remains. In developing countries where birth registration is still in its infancy the only alternative is estimation of age on the basis of a list of some major past events, famines, wars, epidemics and so on. It was therefore expedient to compile a list of such events by depending both on that used in the 1969 census and on prominent old men in and around Kisumu town who explained the chronology of the events (see Appendix D).

As age estimation is wrought with errors any anomalies regarding age structure of respondents deliberately reported incorrect ages for quite different reasons: youth below 18 years inflated their ages in order to qualify as voters in the forthcoming General Elections while adults lowered them to lengthen their working years and avoid retirement at what was otherwise the correct age. In the final analysis, however, age structure of respondents by five-year age groups is reasonably consistent with the normal situation; any discrepancies or anomalies are due to the influx of certain age-groups into the migration system of Kisumu as of other towns.

Also, inconsistencies might be due to the tendency for females to report incorrect ages or enumerators to estimate wrong ages dependent upon physical outlook of females who, belonging to the same age-group, might look quite different due to socio-economic status of their families or natively induced bodily weaknesses.

V. Marital Status

The meanings attached to the four marital status, namely, single, married, divorced and widowed, have been given elsewhere. Some problems arose here with males and females alike. Young females were shy to indicate that they were widowed as were females in stating whether single or married; the latter problem was experienced with barmaids, prostitutes and others classifiable as vagrants. Married persons were asked to state whether the spouse stayed together in Kisumu or elsewhere. However, this question did not pose any problems concerning its administration.

VI. Education

This non-demographic factor was important

for considering migration selectivity by the level of education reached. Education generally sharpens migrants' perceptions and aspirations and opens more avenues for some particular migrants.

a. Literacy Situation

Respondents had to state whether they were completely illiterate or whether they had passed or are still in the process of passing through the formal schooling system. It became clear that the level of education reached influenced response to such questions as required memory work.

b. Class Reached in School

The problem experienced here was conversion of nomenclature of classes over the years since the school system evolved in Kenya. But most respondents clarified the position by their sceptical conviction that contemporary educational standards are lower than at their time, an irrelevant but

useful fact in knowing the classes reached in school.

c. Any Further Education or Training

This question was straightforward.

Respondents easily stated the kind of education or training they had after completion of formal schooling.

VII. Economic Activity

That the lower age limit of respondents was 15 years suggests the importance attached to information pertaining to economic activity of the population. The question on occupational group: employers, employee, own account worker, student and none before and after migration to Kisumu was intended to yield information of occupational mobility or changes in the process of spatial relocation of migrants. No respondent was reported as employer which suggests either unnecessary inclusion of the item or respondents' misinterpretation of the term.

The question on looking for a wage job (regular employment) presented some difficulties. Married women, for instance, were reluctant to give positive

answers here even if looking for employment. The number of those reported as unemployed is therefore suspiciously small (see Table V.2), and that of those effectively seeking employment even smaller (Table V.4).

Occupational category was based on Hirst's classification in Bukoba for comparative purposes and because the International Standard for Industrial Classification is too cumbersome to render comprehensible analysis of facts. Definitions of the nine occupational categories are found in Appendix B.

Working hours throughout the week had a lot of confusion as employees had difficulty in stating the specific number of hours. Also, the number of working days could not be properly ascertained in the case of those working in shifts or under some irregular systems. The two items were therefore overlooked in data analysis.

Incomes of respondents presented no major difficulties. But a few respondents complained that the question asked for too confidential information, aimed at income tax assessment and other related matters. Where no income was specified it could be estimated from an employee's designation at the place of work.

In filling the information as to whether a respondent was employed, unemployed, underemployed or other,

some difficulties were experienced. For this reason the term "underemployed" was completely deleted since it was badly confused with "unemployed". "Other" included school pupils, students and housewives who were not employed, while at the same time not effectively looking for employment.

VIII. Place of Birth

This question was rather ambiguous: place of birth could mean either the particular place in which a person was born, for example, hospital, or the country, district, division, location, sub-location or village of birth. It is the latter meaning of the question that was intended in this survey and enumerators had to clarify it to respondents before recording any responses. Recent sub-divisions of smaller administrative boundaries from the division downwards to the sub-location level injected some mistakes. Some respondents were completely ignorant of the most recent boundary changes.

IX. Home

All the information pertaining to the place

of birth was repeated in this question. Home is hereby defined as the usual permanent domicile of a respondent. Thus there were:

- a. those whose homes and birthplaces were the same whether it be Kisumu town or outside, and
- b. those whose homes and birthplaces were different because of migration for various reasons, change of residence, change of work places or change of community membership e.g. marriage.

Besides contact between Kisumu and home (if outside Kisumu) was probed into with respect to parents, spouse, other relatives or friends as well as property or estates at home. These presented no administrative problems for enumerators and were easily understood by respondents.

X. Mobility

Mobility was considered by asking residence five years and one year ago. Whereas these are specific time period recent enough to present no problems in memory lapse, the places of residence were too multifarious to be

easily classified. Thus in coding it was decided to classify places of residence as Kisumu or elsewhere for the two time periods, 1968 and 1972 respectively. Also, specific dates should have been given as the base lines relating to five years and one year ago since a migrant who arrived in Kisumu in December, 1972, and interviewed in April, 1973, had not logically completed a year in the town. Logistics to this effect were ignored and what mattered was the year of arrival in the town.

Town lived in other than Kisumu was an important question in the context of mobility tendencies of migrants. Year of arrival and duration of stay in those towns explained some commitment in those towns vis-a-vis Kisumu. All responses pertaining to journeys on transit or a few days' stay in the towns were safely discarded.

The time of first coming to live in Kisumu referred to residence in the course of which the present enumeration was made. This is the basis of Table VIII.3. Presence of relatives or friends might have influenced the new migrant's stay with them before becoming more established to go it alone in the town. It is suggestive of chain migration on lineage or ethnic bases. No major

problems were experienced here.

Visits made home since the current residence in Kisumu, like relatives and friends at home, reflect continued contact with home. Frequency of these visits no doubt depends on several factors, distance, income, sex, age, urban commitment and so on but suggest the importance of circular migratory movements of which are the end-product of these short-term home visits. Several scholars have recognised circular migration in East as in other parts of Africa.

Unlike mobility preference on economic activity grounds, mobility preference here did not concern only employees. Rather, it included all respondents who might be either urban-urban or urban-rural migrants.

XI. Household Data

This question was rather touchy and sometimes elicited indifferent responses. Respondents suspected why information was needed about their relations in the household, their sexes and their ages. Different ethnic or tribal groups had fears due to differential traditions and customs and taboos; educational and fiscal suspicions also took effect. Perhaps the anomalous sex differentials at

age 0-4 years might be attributed to the fact that such tender members of the household particularly males were thought to be adversely affected by revelation of their numbers or ages. See age-sex pyramids for Kisumu and some housing estates in the town. (Figs. 16 to 22). This was among the most difficult questions to administer by enumerators.

XII. Environmental Conditions

Environmental perception is an important factor in migratory activity of population. Some people may move to a town because of its sheer size in relation to other towns or because of certain pressing socio-economic factors. Eventually they may move to other places after realising other attractives or when their initial illusions fail to hold.

The questions in this section apparently presented no problems of interpretation or administration. In fact, this was the most popular section of the questionnaire since, among other things, it recorded respondents' feelings about several facilities in the town. However, some respondents were reluctant to state reasons for migration, to compare salary and standard of living between

present and previous residence and to reveal their future migration plans.

On the basis of the last point migrants were classified on grounds of stabilisation in the town. On the one hand, are the temporary migrants who expect to move away at some future date; on the other, are permanent migrants and non-migrants whose continued stay calls for more appropriate urban planning on the basis of existing and potential urban facilities and regional resources.

Interview Information

This was important for assessing validity and reliability of data collected. But most respondents did not complete it well, hence its deletion in analysis.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEWER'S MANUAL

INTERVIEWER'S MANUAL

A. GENERAL INTERVIEWING RULES

This manual has been prepared to assist you in carrying out this task successfully. It is hoped that you will make it your standard reference in case you doubt anything; preparation that has gone into the survey will be futile if interviews are not properly conducted and the questionnaires not properly and accurately completed. Always aim at interviewing households at their residence not individuals met on the street.

A successful enumerator should note the following points:

Ability to meet people

Since you are likely to come across people of all walks of life, it is important that you talk to them politely, that you listen more rather than talk more, that you be persuasive but not overuly so, and that you explain the purpose of the survey to them.

Manners and Temperament

Always say the right thing at the right time. Be careful about your behaviour and other mannerisms which may offend or anger the respondents, and do not lose your temper even if faced by difficult situations.

Flexibility

A successful enumerator must be able to adjust his plans quickly whenever unforeseen circumstances necessitate this. For example, if you find a prospective respondent throwing a party to friends in his house, do not insist on interviewing him. Ask him to give you an appointment to come back another day; and please keep to the appointed day and time as this will earn you good reputation. Also, be adaptable to the urban conditions by being prepared to work from the oldest slum to the most modern housing estates.

A successful enumerator should impress his respondents at a glance. He should be tactful and sociable but not at the expense of his work. He should be available for the sort of routine and hours demanded in surveys.

Refusals to accept interview

Whenever you find an antagonistic respondent who simply refuses to answer any questions, simply go on to the next dwelling unit. Insistence on interviewing the person may result in wrong answers and may lead to other respondents hating you.

Recalls

Sometimes you may call in a house only to find the supposed respondent absent at that time. This forces you to call at other times or on a different day. When the respondent is out at the time of call, make two recalls and, if you still cannot find him, forget all about him.

Whom to interview

Please interview only the person selected for the survey. If that person is not at home at the time you call, try to find out when he/she will return. Meanwhile continue with the other sample units (dwelling places) and make an effort to return when you promise to.

When the supposed respondent is to be away for long

There are cases when the supposed respondent is expected to be away for a long time e.g. on leave, on safari, etc. In this case find out when he/she is likely to come back so that you may make further calls to interview him/her.

Introducing yourself to respondents

The successful enumerator will usually begin by stating what organisation he represents and perhaps showing an authorisation card. This may be followed by a brief statement of why, and for whom, the survey is being done, what is expected to emerge from it, to whom the results will be of interest and so on.

However, in this survey it is suggested to begin on a light note:

"Good afternoon/evening. I am _____ from the University of Nairobi. Here is my identification. The Municipality of Kisumu in conjunction with the University of Nairobi is making a survey of the people in Kisumu in an attempt to plan well this expanding town. I have some questions I would like to ask you, please."

If the respondent goes on to ask you to explain certain things, please be ready to do so. But do not be so weak as to go too far in, say, discussing politics and other irrelevant matters. However, if the respondent agrees to answer your questions, go ahead without wasting any more time.

B. ASKING THE QUESTIONS

The paramount aim of surveys is to attain uniformity in the asking of questions and recording of answers for all households to be interviewed. Enumerators are expected to ask all the applicable questions, to ask them in the order given and with no more elucidation and probing than is allowed. The questions should be asked as printed on paper throughout the interviews. Words like "really", "very" and other adjectives, adverbs should be avoided unless they appear in a question.

It should be realised that the respondent's answer depends on the question asked him/her. Thus, a change in wording can very easily change the answer he/she gives.

Example: "How old are you in completed years?"

If you ask this question as

- (1) "How old are you?", you have left out in completed years, which helps to restrict the respondent to his age in years completed, not months; or
- (2) "When were you born?". This is asking for the year of birth and age will be in years and months. Moreover the actual year of birth always presents a problem to respondents.
- (3) "Were you born before/during/after... (event)? This is a completely different question."

The example above illustrates the importance of sticking to the question as printed on paper. But whenever a question seems vague, repeat it or paraphrase it to make it clearer to the respondent without changing the meaning.

Probing procedures

Sometimes you may need to express your interest or appreciation of what the respondent says. Do this without being emotionally involved. Below are examples of probing techniques.

(a) Brief comment in agreement with the
respondent's answer

To make conversation flow you may say:

"Yes, I see". This enables the respondent to realise that you are interested in what he says and stimulates him to talk further and more freely. But do not be too fond of "I see" lest the respondent should suspect your truthfulness.

(b) Repeating the question

This is necessary when the respondent does not seem to understand the question; you may see this by his going astray or being absent-minded in answering the question. Instead of rudely interjecting, "Anyway, I did not ask you that...", you may repeat the question at a slower speed and in an enquiring tone without changing the words in the question.

Sometimes you may repeat the respondent's answer without adding your own words or ideas. This may help in confirming whether the respondent actually means what he says. A sharp demanding and authoritative tone of voice can destroy good relations with the respondent.

It has been found that remarks such as "I'm not sure what you mean by that", "Could you tell me a little more about that?", arouse the respondent's desire to co-operate with you. But be attentive so that the respondent does not get the impression that you are not interested in what he says, or that you don't know what you are doing or saying, or that you do not recognise a properly answered question.

Basic procedure by a skillful enumerator

The procedure should be:

1. to know the question objective roughly,
2. to know how to probe when the answer is inadequate, and
3. to maintain good relations with the respondent throughout the interview.

Closing the interview

It is important that when you come to the end of interviewing the respondent, you leave him with a friendly feeling towards you. After reviewing a

respondent's answers with your supervisor you may find it necessary to go back to the respondent for more information. How would he react if at the close of interview you had left him with bad feelings towards you?

The order of closing the interview should be as follows:

(1) Look through the questionnaire to check whether all questions have been answered by the respondent.

(2) When everything is in order, tell the respondent that you have enjoyed talking with him, that you would have stayed longer but for pressure of time, and that, on the whole you have been thankful for his co-operation.

NB.

Thus you may say:

"It has been very exciting talking to you Mr/Mrs/Miss..... (at this juncture you may ask for the name if you didn't at the beginning of the interview)... I must regret that my stay has been too short but it is because time does not allow since I have to see other people. Once again, I thank you very much for your kindness and co-operation. Good-bye/night.

C. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED*

Personal data

Age: in completed years or age at last birthday.

This is to be given in full years not in years and months.

Where the actual age is not known an estimate is to be given based on "Guidance for age estimation".

Marital Status

"Single" means a person who is not married and has never been married ever since.

"Married" includes all persons living together as husband and wife whether they were married according to local custom, or in a church or civil wedding or simply living together; either of the two must recognise each other as married.

* These are terms used in the questionnaire. Enumerators had their manuals attached to these terms in order to bring about consistency in the interviews.

"Divorced" includes those who were previously living together as husband and wife but are no longer doing so (unless by now they have married someone else).

Ethnic group tribal affiliation

The major ethnic groups are African, Asian, Arab, and European "other" refers to those not so classified.

Note:

Enumerators should not ask whether a person is born of (African) man and (African) woman. Respondents should state their ethnic group, which should be recorded by enumerators as such.

African tribes

In Nyanza and Western: Luo, Luhya, Kisii,
Kuria, Kalenjin group.

Other Kenya tribes: e.g. Kikuyu, Kamba, Embu,
Meru, Mjikenda, etc.

Non-Kenya tribes: will be known by respondents' countries of origin and domicile.

Economic activity

"Employer" - somebody who employs people, when he pays wages, to work for him/her.

"Employee" - somebody employed by another person, government body, company or other private concern to work for him or it, and who receives wages or other benefits for his labour, e.g. messenger, teacher.

"Own account worker" - a person who runs his/her own business without being employed by somebody else and whose income depends solely on his efforts. He himself may rank as an employer e.g. shopkeeper with a few salesmen in his shop.

"Student" - this includes a person attending school, college, university or other institution full-time.

"None"-- not falling in any of the above categories, e.g. unemployed and underemployed people.

Something else "other" includes doing something other than the regular work most of last week - home makers

(housewives, etc.), pupils and students, retired persons and those who after resignation were doing nothing; plus those specified (on leave, or ill).

Occupation: or, the kind of work. The following classification is but illustrative:

1. Professional workers: teachers, preachers, nurses, orderlies, extension officer, administrators, urban court assessors, policemen, prison warders.
2. Clerical workers: clerks, typists, interpreters, office messengers.
3. Craftsmen: shoemakers, mechanics, carpenters, other wood workers, blacksmiths, builders, bricklayers, curio makers, barbers, tailors, painters, plumbers.
4. Salesmen: shop-assistants, shop-owners, butchers, hawkers, traders.
5. Agriculture Fishing: This includes peasant farmers, gardeners, fishermen and fishmongers. Most of the former peri-urban residents have a bias to rural life.
6. Domestic workers: houseboy, housemaid, cook, garden boy, ayah, waiters, cleaners.
7. Manual workers: general labourers, machine operators,

watchmen, drivers, firemen, packers, sorters, herdboys, dairy-hands, tree planters, lumbermen.

Note

It is enough to state the occupation itself or to describe the actual job done at place of work, not the class of occupation, which may later be recorded by the enumerator.

Household data

Household: a group of persons who live together and share their living expenses. Usually this will be a nuclear family i.e. the husband, wife and children. Also to be included here are other relatives, boarders, visitors and servants if they are present in the household at the time of enumeration or are expected to be members of the household until such a time as they may decide to stand on their own.

Persons living alone, in, say a room within the same dwelling unit, where they do not depend on another household, should be considered as a separate households.

Housing unit: a room or group of rooms occupied as separate living quarters. Its essential characteristics are: it is intended for occupancy as separate living quarters; it has cooking facilities for the use of the occupants; it has direct access i.e. not through another housing unit.

Relationship to Respondent: these may include the following:

Wife

Son

Daughter

Other relative (exact relationship not
necessary)

Boarder

Visitor

Servant

Anyone usually resident elsewhere, even if a relative should be considered as a visitor.

Age: in completed years or age at last birthday. Where the actual date is not known an estimate may be given. Age should not be given in years and months.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS

This item is intended to draw information about respondents' environmental perceptions and aspirations relating to future mobility.

New Kisumu as Population Centre

This includes the newly gazetted municipal boundaries considered as a unit. Size of the town would be related to that of other towns already visited by respondent; those without experience of other urban centres might relate it to their nearest local centres. Respondents realisation of rapid urbanisation of the town might be gauged from their responses.

Facilities:

The list is illustrative rather than exhaustive. These facilities can easily combat the major transitional problems in the development of post-independence Kenya, namely, illiteracy (schools), poverty and disease (medical facilities). Medical facilities include public hospitals, clinics and

dispensaries and private practitioners which, however, are not within reach of most people in the town. Schools comprise primary, secondary and technical educational systems which enhance elimination of poverty by producing highly skilled manpower. Housing units consist of rental houses occupied by urban residents. They are important as far as stabilisation of migrants in the town is concerned. Recreation includes sports and games, cinemas, theatres, nightclubs, bars and restaurants and other facilities intended for physical or mental refreshments after routine work which often dulls both body and mind. Transportation covers public transport within the town by public buses connecting different parts of the town. It excludes personal cars which have very little bearing on members of the public.

Reasons for migration to Kisumu.

As in the foregoing the reasons spelled out here are not exhaustive. They were chosen to yield some information respectively concerning economic opportunities (unemployment is the "push" factor); population pressure on land (land was not available); education as a "pull" factor in the town (could not enter a school); social

attractiveness of the town in terms of several amenities (lack of social amenities at previous residence); involuntary or sometimes voluntary migration (transfer to Kisumu by employers or on a migrant's initiative) and other reasons different from these. The possible responses are underlined.

Perceptions of salary and standard of living

Salary may be regarded as the criterion for urban in-migration and as the fulcrum on which the urban standard of living rests. Satisfaction due to these two parameters of socio-economic status may enable migrants to weigh their life in the present against the previous residence. Furthermore, it may enhance stabilisation in the present or engender the desire to migrate to another town.

Future migration plans

These were based on the current socio-economic position of migrants in the town. There were those who expected to stay in Kisumu for good notwithstanding any adverse shocks and strokes in their lines;

the employed or self-employed migrants who expected to out-migrate after retirement; those who expected to leave at one time whether they be economically active or inactive; and others who were uncertain about their future mobility in terms of time or direction of the move.

Classification of migrants

From the future migration plans of respondents, enumerators easily classified migrants as temporary, permanent and non-migrants. Likely combinations were as follows:

Future migration plan	Where Born	Typology of migrant
Plans to stay in Kisumu for good	Kisumu town	Non-migrant
Plans to stay in Kisumu for good	Elsewhere	Permanent
Plans to stay until retirement	Both	Temporary
Plans to leave at one time	Both	Temporary
Uncertain about future plans	Both	Temporary

In the last case it was postulated undecided responses be treated as temporary migrants since they have little commitment in the town.

APPENDIX D

GUIDANCE FOR AGE ESTIMATION

GUIDANCE FOR AGE ESTIMATION

<u>Year</u>	<u>Luo Name</u>	<u>Meaning in English</u>
1880	Ongong'a Ndinya Onduso Apamo	Various zones for one form of cattle epidemic.
1901	Gari Cyuooyo	First train in Kisumu Famine
1902	Ndhuru	
1903	Oruongo	
1904	Osogo	<i>bird</i>
1905	Arungu	
1906-08	Opande Odila Obong'o	Famine Famine

<u>Year</u>	<u>Luo Name</u>	<u>Meaning in English</u>
1910	Athiany	Fish
	Kanga*	Famine
1911	Jometho	
	Mumbo	
	Bilek	Black-market (Mazendo) <i>BLEK NO!</i>
1913	Magadi	Soda
1914-18	Bitu	The War
	Jobita	
	Kea	
1917-18	Ongere	
	Kanga*	
1919	Mbeka	Influenza
1919-20	Maranda or	
	Oraya	

*7
?
Silenced two*

* Occurred at different periods in Central Nyanza (now Siaya and Kisumu) and South Nyanza Districts.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Luc Name</u>	<u>Meaning in English</u>
1920	Oruko	Literally, "one who does things quickly". (A reference to a former D.C., Mr. Cox).
1920-24	Ndhune	
1921 (1922-24 in S. Nyanza)	Ndege	The first aeroplane
1921-24	Kipande	Identity Card for adult males
1924-25	Siling	Silver currency i.e. shilling
1926	Ariri	
1926-28	Omwagore	
1930-31	Bonyo	Yellow locusts
1931-33	Nyangweso	
1933-35	Ajana	
1935-36	Owalo	
1938-39	Ahanda	
1939-41	Panyako	Pioneer Corps of World War II
1939-45	Bitu	The War
	Jobita	
	Kea	

Source: Guide to Events, Kenya Population Census 1969, Ministry of Finance and Planning.

APPENDIX E

ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICTS OF RURAL KENYA

ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICTS OF RURAL KENYA*

NYANZA PROVINCE

Kisii

Kisumu

Siaya

South Nyanza

WESTERN PROVINCE

Bungoma

Busia

Kakamega

RIFT VALLEY PROVINCE

Baringo

Elgeyo-Marakwet

Kajiado

Kericho

Laikipia

Nakuru

Nandi

Narok

Samburu

Trans Nzoia

Turkana

Uasin Gishu

West Pokot

CENTRAL PROVINCE

Kiambu

Kirinyaga

Murang'a

Nyandarua

Nyeri

EASTERN PROVINCE

Embu

Isiolo

Kitui

Machakos

Marsabit

Meru

NORTH-EASTERN PROVINCE

Garissa

Mandera

Wajir

COAST PROVINCE

Kilifi

Kwale

Lamu

Mombasa

Taita

Tana River

* There are 41 administrative districts in Kenya, 40 rural districts and the Nairobi Extra-Provincial district which is administered as a Province.

APPENDIX F

URBAN CENTRES OF KENYA BY POPULATION

URBAN CENTRES OF KENYA BY POPULATION*

<u>Urban Centre</u>	<u>Population</u>
ALL CENTRES	1,079,908
<u>CENTRES ABOVE 100,000 MARK</u>	<u>756,359</u>
1. Nairobi	509,286
2. Mombasa	247,073
<u>CENTRES WITH 10,000-99,999 POPULATION</u>	<u>170,267</u>
3. Nakuru	47,151
4. Kisumu	32,431
5. Thika	18,387
6. Eldoret	18,196
7. Nanyuki	11,524
8. Kitale	11,573
9. Malindi	10,757
10. Kericho	10,144
11. Nyeri	10,004

*

In Kenya all centres with population of 2,000 or more rank as urban centres. This gave a total of 47 such centres in the 1969 Population Census. Population figures here were reported in the census.

<u>Urban Centre</u>	<u>Population</u>
<u>CENTRES WITH 5,000-9,999 POPULATION</u>	
	<u>71,396</u>
12. Isiolo	8,201
13. Nyahururu (Thomson's Falls)	7,602
14. Lamu	7,403
15. Naivasha	6,920
16. Marsabit	6,635
17. Machakos	6,312
18. Kakamega	6,244
19. Kisii	6,080
20. { Athi River	5,343
{ Elburgon	5,343
22. Voi	5,313
<u>CENTRES WITH 2,000-4,999 POPULATION</u>	
	<u>81,886</u>
23. Murang'a (Fort Hall)	4,750
24. Meru	4,475
25. Bungoma	4,401
26. Wundanyi	4,385
27. Molo	4,240
28. Gilgil	4,178
29. Lokitaung	4,090
30. Embu	3,928

Urban Centre

Population

CENTRES WITH 2,000-4,999 POPULATION con...

31. Maralal	3,878
32. Galole	3,609
33. Homa Bay	3,252
34. Kitui	3,071
35. Njoro	3,037
36. Londiani	2,994
37. Kiambu	2,776
38. Eldama Ravine	2,692
39. Kilifi	2,662
40. Wamba	2,650
41. Narok	2,608
42. Lumbwa	2,577
43. Kinango	2,450
44. Karatina	2,436
45. Baragoi	2,383
46. Kapsabet	2,298
47. Migori	2,066

APPENDIX G

HYPOTHESES TESTED FROM DATA COLLECTED

HYPOTHESES TESTED FROM DATA COLLECTED

Hypotheses	Level of Significance	
	5%	1%
1. There is significant difference in age distribution between male and female respondents.	x	x
2. There is significant difference in marital status of the two sexes.	x	x
3. Educational attainment differs significantly in all age groups.	x	x
4. Respondents changed economic status after migration.	x	x
5. There is significant difference in occupational category between males and females.	x	x
6. Employment situation in the town has sex bias.	x	x
7. There is significant difference in residence of respondents between 1968 and 1972.	x	x
8. There is significant difference in the number of towns lived in between (temporary and permanent) migrants and non-migrants.	x	
9. The presence of relatives and friends influenced migrants' stay with them in the early stages of in-migration.	x	x

- | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|
| 10. | There is significant difference in visits home between age groups. | x | |
| 11. | Future migration plans have sex bias. | x | x |
| 12. | There is significant difference between future migration plans for different age groups. | x | x |
| 13. | There is significant difference between the type of migrants in terms of ethnic groups. | x | x |
| 14. | The type of migrants differ significantly by sex. | x | |
| 15. | There is significant difference between ages of different types of migrants. | x | x |
| 16. | The facilities are generally inadequate in the town. | x | x |
| 17. | There is significant difference in the situation of facilities between the sample areas. | x | x |
-