

RURAL – URBAN MIGRATION AND EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

A CASE STUDY OF HURUMA ESTATE IN NAIROBI-KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

I declare that the material in this book has not been presented else where for any academic qualification.

Signed: 

Opano Orangi Josephat

Date: 25/08/08

APPROVAL

This research is submitted for examination with my approval as the supervisor.

Signed: 

Ssekajugo Derrick

Date: *28/08/08*

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Huruma is a residential estate located in the northeastern of Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya. To get to Huruma from Nairobi you pass through Kariobangi and Dandora to the East, Moi Airbase and to the south, Mathare to the North and East Leigh to the West. Huruma has a population of 6,569 people who have an average household monthly income of Kshs 5,000 (US \$ 62) (Weru, 2004). A study conducted by Pamoja in 2001 showed that though an upgrading of the housing, sanitation and health facilities was vital for Huruma residents, the greater need was for a regularization of tenure for its residents in light of the forced evictions that regularly took place this statistical research was conducted by Pamoja trust an NGO that is based there.

Kenyan based NGOs, Pamoja Trust and the Huruma Project have tried to combat challenges that have resulted due to rural-urban migration in the area by improving the living conditions of the Huruma people in several ways which include: -

1. Developing a consensus among its residents on issues of land and structure entitlements before negotiating with government for land and infrastructure.
2. Establishing community based savings schemes to fund these housing and infrastructure initiatives for example in 2000, Pamoja Trust started its first project in Huruma.

Many hurdles were faced by it in conducting this study and in attempting to uncover the real statistics and needs of the Huruma community for instance; a lot of anxiety was expressed by Huruma residents on the viability of the project. There were both tribal conflicts and conflicts between structure owners and tenants (“Structure owners want to acquire full legal tenure of the land on which their structures are built; tenants want recognition of their right to live there and the possibility of becoming land and house owners” Weru, 2004). Some groups also provided false information to surveyors in an

attempt to maximize their individual gains from the project. The lack of a government policy also served to exacerbate the issues.

House construction in Huruma finally began in 2003 and it was the successes of their initiative in upgrading their living conditions from the squalor that characterizes slum settlements that were commended and celebrated in the community development segment of the Hatua Show.

Large-scale private landlordism dominates low-income housing provision in Huruma estate, with extreme residential densities in districts where rooming tenements reach seven floors above ground. This trend differs from the small-scale private landlordism, predominantly with owner occupation, which has been documented for the developing world. Huruma's large-scale multi-storey private rental has remained unmentioned in housing and tenure literature for the rest of the world. The terms 'tenement' and 'tenement city' are largely associated with nineteenth and early twentieth century rental investment in Europe and the US when cities were shaped by the profit-margin interests of landlords. In this study, two case studies of tenement areas in Huruma estate, low-income and middle-income in Umoja Inner Core are analyzed in terms of the evolution of the tenement investment and current residential densities. The ongoing, mostly unauthorized construction of tenements suggests that Huruma could be termed as tenement town, a reality that is not currently addressed by the urban discourse.

There has been a great deal factor that problems in the area are resulted from movement of a vast number of people from villages to town.

1.1.1 Statement of the problem.

Constant Movement of people from near and further villages to Huruma estate play a major role in political, social and economical related problems. These are movements from which a vast number of people of varying ages have come and many of them being youth and have same reasons of seeking for better life in terms of better jobs and access to better medical services. Owing to these movements of people, problems associated

with them have been resulted. There is a high relationship between Rural-urban migration and employment opportunities in the area. This is because the population increases and the state of an employment is resulted and other un becoming societal behaviors that are associated with then are also drastically increasing. Indiscipline cases like theft, killings of innocent people, drug abusing etc have risen in the town of Huruma and many more.

1.2 Purpose of the study

To examine the effects of Rural-Urban migration and state of employment opportunities in relation to the population in Huruma state

1.2.1 Objectives of the Study

1.2.1.1 General objectives

To study the relationship between rural-urban migration and employment opportunities as well as the effects caused by such migration to the people of Huruma in Nairobi.

1.2.1.2 Specific objectives

- (i). To investigate reasons for rural-urban migration, the example of Huruma estate in Nairobi Kenya.
- (ii). How to combat challenges that have resulted due to rural-urban migration, especially in Huruma estate in Kenya.
- (iii). The effects of rural urban migration in Huruma estate.

1.2.2 Significance of the study

This study is very significant to the end users of the research results, who are parents, guardians, teachers, and administrators in the government — not forgetting students. A good foundation laid in the early years of the child in terms of physical, mental and social development has far-reaching benefits not only to the individual student, but to the society. Supporting authorities to combat these effects in economy, social and political sectors. This progress is later linked to increased economic productivity and good behaviors in the area.

1.2.3 Scope

The researcher dealt with the major reasons for rural urban migration, effects in urban areas and rampant unemployment in urban centers. Due to the shortage of time and funds, the research was limited to Huruma estate as a case study. It was approximately four kilometers with a population of 6000 people. Therefore, the findings thereof were a representative of the body of knowledge concerning reasons for rampant unemployment in Huruma.

Due to the shortage of time and funds, the research was limited to Huruma estate as a case study. It is a suburb of Nairobi and is approximately four kilometers square with a population of approximately six thousand (6000) people. A large percentage of the people were reached by the research. Therefore, the findings thereof were representative of the body of knowledge concerning reasons for rural urban migration, effects and solutions.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In literature review the researcher reviews what various authors and scholars have done about rural — urban migration and employment opportunities in the study.

House construction in Huruma finally began in 2003 and it was the successes of their initiative in upgrading their living conditions from the squalor that characterizes slum settlements that were commended and celebrated in the community development segment of the Hatua Show.

2.2 Rural-urban migration

This refers to the movement of people from rural areas into cities. When cities grow rapidly, like Nairobi, this rapid growth is due to the movement of people from rural communities into cities and it is considered to be the main cause. This kind of growth is especially common place in developing countries. Rural migrants are attracted by the possibilities that cities can offer, but often settle in shanty towns and experience extreme poverty. In the 1980s, this was attempted to be tackled with the urban bias theory which was promoted by Michael Litpon who wrote: "...the most important class conflict in the poor countries of the world today is not between labor and capital. Nor is it between foreign and national interests. It is between rural classes and urban classes. The rural sector contains most of the poverty and most of the low-cost sources of potential advance; but the urban sector contains most of the articulateness, organization and power. So the urban classes have been able to win most of the rounds of the struggle with the countryside."(Varshney, 1993, p.5)

In cities of the developed world in-migration is another important factor causing city growth. In- migration refers to migration from former colonies and similar places. The fact that many immigrants settle in impoverished city centers led to the notion of the "peripheralization of the core", which simply describes that people who used to be at the periphery of the former empires now live right in the centre.

Squinting in the sunlight, George Ng'ang'a leads me up a mound of dirt and rubbish on the edge of his Nairobi neighborhood to take in the view to the south unfolds a safari scene of grassy plains dotted with acacia bushes as far as I can see. To the north stands a dense gathering of gangly shacks cobbled together with cloth, mud, tin, rocks, and sheets of plastic. There are about 800 homes in all crowded onto some 5 to 6 hectares, says Ng'ang'a.

On city maps, the location of this settlement — called “Mtumba” by the 6,000 people who live there shows up as prime habitat for rhino and giraffe. That's because this unsanctioned community lies on the edge of Nairobi National Park. Mtumba is only one of the many slums around Nairobi. In fact, more than half of the residents of Kenya's capital city cannot afford to live in “formal” housing, and have been forced to find shelter in slums like this one.

2.3 Dependence on government

Ng'ang'a turns to me and tells me to call him “Castro,” which, he says, is his nickname. He has the physique of a bear and is clean shaven, but he insists that he was thin and bearded in his youth. I'm not sure if he was joking about the physical resemblance, but it's clear that he was passionate and politically active.

For several years in a row, the people of Huruma have chosen Castro to be the leader of the community's governing council in informal elections — informal because, the city government does not serve slums, so the people of Mtumba have found their own ways to organize and police themselves.

2.4 Poverty is rapidly urbanizing

In many cities-particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia — explosive urban growth is combining with the world's worst poverty to fuel the proliferation of slums. The world's population increased by 2.4 billion in the past 30 years, and half of that growth was in cities. Over the next three decades, global population is expected to increase by another 2 billion. Demographers expect that nearly all of that population

increase will end up in developing-country cities, due to urban migration and high birth rates.

While most poor people still live in rural areas, poverty is rapidly urbanizing. As of 1998, more than 1.2 billion people were living in extreme poverty (on less than the equivalent of about US \$1 a day), unable to meet even basic food needs. Martin Ravallion of the World Bank estimates that the urban share of the world's extreme poverty is currently 25%. He projects that it is likely to reach 50% by 2035.

A number of factors are driving the growth of cities worldwide. Rural economies in many regions have been hard hit by environmental degradation, military or ethnic conflicts, and the mechanization of agriculture, which has curbed the number of rural jobs. The prospect of better-paying jobs has drawn many people to cities.

Latin America is by far the most urbanized region of the developing world. About 75% of people in Latin America live in cities — along with 75% of the poor. While only 37% and 38% of Asians and Africans live in cities respectively, a number of nations in these regions are beginning to see poverty shift to urban centers. For instance, the proportion of people living below the poverty line in rural Kenya between 1992 and 1996 increased from 48% to 53%, while the share of people living below the poverty line in Nairobi doubled from 25% to 50%.

Castro tells me that his family's land was taken by the colonial Kenyan government in 1952 to build a golf course. "My father was a businessman," he says, "so we went to different places, like nomads." Castro continued the itinerant lifestyle as a young man, but then he got married and began looking for a better life for his family. Eventually, he says, "we came to the Nairobi slums, even though I have an education."

2.5 Short-term benefits and long-term Costs

In general, the “off-the-books” nature of Huruma and other informal communities confers certain advantages. Rents are lower than in formal housing. There are no property taxes. Residents can skirt cumbersome zoning laws that separate housing from businesses, and set up shop inside their homes or just outside. Huruma’s commercial strip boasts rows of brightly painted storefronts, each about one meter wide. There are produce stands, coffee shops, a “movie house” showing videos, a barber shop, and an outfit that collects old newspapers. But the short-term benefits of living and working outside the formal economy rarely outweigh the long-term costs to residents — and to the cities that have failed to address their needs.

Slums are often located in a city’s least-desirable locations — situated on steep hillsides, in floodplains, or downstream from industrial polluters — leaving residents vulnerable to diseases and natural disasters. Another long-term cost is the premium residents pay for basic services. The African Population and Health Research Center recently released a report showing that Nairobi’s slum dwellers pay more than residents of wealthy housing estates for water — and, as a result, use less than is adequate to meet health needs. “A family needs 100 liters per day for drinking and cleaning,” says Mtumba Tom Werunga. As that much water costs 25 Kenyan shillings (US \$.30), it could easily eat up half the income of people who, on average, make about 50 to 60 shillings (US \$.60 to .75) per day.

Landlords operating in slums can easily gouge their tenants without fear of legal recourse. And the proportion of renters in slums is higher than commonly thought, as vacant land close to employment opportunities tends to be quickly developed by enterprising landlords. In fact, four out of five slum residents in Nairobi are renters, according to a study done by the Kenyan government and UN-Habitat, the United Nations Human Settlements Program, which happens to be headquartered in Nairobi. The shacks are lucrative investments, finds the survey, yielding a return in less than two years (compared to 10 to 15 years in the formal property market). Yet landlords do not

typically reinvest their profits in the shacks by repairing them or hooking them up to electricity or water, and tenants have no way to hold landlords accountable.

Lacking adequate access to water, toilets, and trash removal, crowded slums also breed diseases that threaten the public health of entire cities.

More than half of Nairobi's 3 million people live in slums, squeezed into just 5% of the city's land area. In urban centers throughout the developing world, the AIDS virus is facilitating outbreaks of tuberculosis — and both diseases are spreading rapidly. In the Nairobi slums, the mortality rate of children less than five years of age are 151 per 1,000 births, far higher than the average of 61 per 1,000 for the city as a whole.

Economic inequalities may significantly hamper public health, according to several new studies. The Society and Population Health Reader has brought together journal articles showing that economic inequality in the United States and parts of Europe correlates with reduced public health. In Nairobi, where slums occasionally abut posh, gated enclaves, the economic disparities are as glaring as the public health nightmare.

The growth of slums in an era of unprecedented economic prosperity may also contribute to tensions that threaten local, national, and even global security. "Poor urban settlements are breeding grounds for disease, crime, and terrorism," warned Anna Tibaijuka, the Executive Director of UN-Habitat, in April 2002. While desperate situations may foster problems, it is the poor who are disproportionately the victims of crime. Some slums are crime ridden and others are nearly crime free, but those that lack municipal or community policing are usually more dangerous.

Following the September 11, 2001 attacks in the United States, New York Times columnist Thomas Friedman wrote that in an increasingly interconnected world, it will be impossible to ignore the problems of people living in desperate conditions at home or abroad: "if you don't visit a bad neighborhood, a bad neighborhood will visit you."

Walking again with Castro, I am being pursued by a friendly, giggling swarm of small children, none taller than my waist. They want to hold my hands. My tour guide is talking about the three vehicles owned by various people in Huruma: one old car and two bicycles — but my attention is drawn to the children. Many of them have no shoes, yet are following us over sharp rocks, human and animal waste, and all sorts of garbage.

It is impossible to watch bright-eyed children play in toxic trash and human waste, and listen to their articulate parents describe their efforts and their hopes to build a better life, and not feel obliged to help somehow. This well-intentioned impulse to help slum dwellers into better housing, however, has been carried out with rather disastrous consequences throughout history.

2.6 Poor people improve communities more effectively than government projects

Brazil, Colombia, Egypt, and South Korea were among the developing nations that launched huge public housing campaigns in the 1960s. These costly efforts destroyed the networks of family and friends that poor people had used to survive. Communities often had to move from inner-city locations to outlying areas with fewer job prospects. Added transportation costs meant less could be spent on food.

In many cases, the people whose homes were destroyed could not afford the new public projects, which ended up housing wealthier residents. “Urban renewal” projects often had the perverse effect of worsening living conditions for the people they were intended to help.

A major shift began to occur in the 1970s, as city planners were faced with the fact that poor people had been improving their neighborhoods more effectively and with less money than many government projects. Drawing on his experiences working in the slums of Lima, Peru in the 1960s, British architect John F.C. Turner challenged the prevailing orthodoxy with his influential 1972 book, *Freedom to Build*, warning that officials should stop doing more harm than good.

Lacking city services, some communities have managed to close the gap themselves. One of the trailblazers was Akhter Hameed Khan, who in 1980 began mobilizing the community of Orangi, the largest squatter settlement in Karachi, Pakistan. He started a research institute called the Orangi Pilot Project to help residents organize and build a sewer system. Each block collected money and began construction of their own sewers, which served some 90% of Orangi's residents by the late 1990's. Between 1982 and 1991, infant mortality rates in the settlement dropped from 130 per thousand to 37 per thousand.

In the slums of Nairobi, communities long neglected by the government are just beginning to gain some level of political effectiveness. In Mtumba, for instance, residents have begun to organize. "On our own," says Tom Werunga, "we have built a school." Four teachers juggle morning and afternoon shifts to teach more than 400 children in three classrooms. The classroom I saw boasted a small chalkboard, and about 30 to 40 small children, who jumped up smiling from their desks as we passed.

With the help of a local non-governmental organization, the Pamoja Trust, Mtumba has started a savings scheme and opened a bank account to pool funds. They hope to save up enough to purchase land at a better location. So far, they have saved about 300,000 Kenyan shillings (US \$3,800) altogether. According to Pamoja Trust's Jack Makau, his organization would like to match the savings accrued by the Mtumba families, shilling for shilling, and help them invest it, to speed the time necessary to reach the 5 million or so shillings that will be needed.

The residents of Mtumba and Nairobi's other slums are starting to flex some political muscle, bolstered by a city-wide federation, Muungano wa Wanavijiji. "Unity is strength," says Jane Weru, the head of Pamoja Trust, which is supporting the federation in 40 of Nairobi's more than 100 slums. Muungano members are setting up savings groups, which help build trust and can be turned into revolving loan funds. They are also collecting data on their neighborhoods and sharing experiences to help build coalitions that will help sway government policies in their favor.

Slum residents in Nairobi are also learning from their counterparts around the world, loosely organized by Shack/Slum Dwellers International (SDI). The group was founded in 1996 when the Asian Coalition for Housing Rights joined forces with the South African Homeless People's Federation. Today, the group boasts members from Argentina, Cambodia, Colombia, India, Kenya, Madagascar, Namibia, Nepal, the Philippines, South Africa, Swaziland, Thailand, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. "A lot of what we do in Nairobi" says Pamoja Trust's Jack Makau, "has been tried out in other cities by the SDI network."

In recent years, these new coalitions have articulated ground-breaking strategies for urban development, where governments engage slum dwellers as equal partners in efforts to improve communities. "We are not coming here to beg," declared Jockin Arputham, the head of Shack/Slum Dwellers International, at UN-Habitat's World Urban Forum in Nairobi in May 2002. "We can sit together with you — national governments, city authorities, and bilateral aid agencies — to plan the city."

2.7 Obstacles to effective political partnership

Where local and national governments have been willing to seriously engage those living in urban slums, the partnership has often produced significant results. But for the most part, governments still have a long way to go to help address the problems faced by people living in slums. In general, slum leaders like Arputham have identified three key obstacles that governments must surmount in order to become more effective partners:

2.8 Home security

"Land is the key to implement any project for development," says a Mtumba woman who is involved in the community's self-run school. She explains that the people of her community have difficulty convincing themselves — let alone anyone else — to invest in water, toilets, or any sort of improvement. Why bother if the neighborhood could be bulldozed the next day? Indeed, a central obstacle to any sort of "self-help" in many slums is that the residents do not belong to the land where they live in the eyes of the law.

If governments were to grant people in informal settlements, legal recognition or titles to the property where they live, it could open up new opportunities for development, and even credit. Buildings without titles are “dead capital,” says Peruvian economist Hernando De Soto. They are useful only for whatever shelter they provide. Buildings with titles, in contrast, can have a second “life” in capital markets, where their owners can leverage them.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This study followed descriptive research design. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. The quantitative techniques were used to collect and analyze data on rural-urban migration and employment opportunities as well as different responses from both residents in all sectors in relation with migration the qualitative techniques were used to assess the factors affecting residents in respect to their daily life. For purposes of this study, then survey design provided quantitative and numeric descriptions of the population.

3.2 Subjects

The research was carried out in the center of Huruma town. Hawkers were interviewed. As a matter of sampling, people in the business, social and political sector also provided information on the subject matter of research. Institutions of learning example schools, colleges and other also provided important information that enabled the success of the research. Therefore a total of three hundred and forty people were sampled. The study also included ideas from authority like local councils, districts commissioners of Huruma town and institutions including the heads of these institutions.

Interview was used to obtain first hand information. It also provided an opportunity for an interview to input forward opinions and suggestions. In interview, first hand information is availed. The interview was to involve students, teachers, parents and education officers and business people in the area.

Observation method was used because it was highly reliable and also enabled the researcher to see clearly what was being done. It also enabled measurement to be done and the entire subject was put under observation.

3.3 Procedure

We first sought permission and an introduction letter from the institute of continuing and distance studies. This enabled the researcher to go to the field to carry out the study. Secondly, local administrators of Huruma such as Chiefs were notified of the research so as to avoid any incident of suspicion that would have come by.

Random sampling was employed. This ensured giving equal chances to every potential source of information concerning rural urban migration effects and solutions.

Oral interviews were used to collect data from those who were reached and were ready to respond.

Observation techniques were also used in this case, the researcher was able to observe congestion in slums, the quality of houses in relation to distance from the urban center. The researcher also observed the state of sanitation in slums and garbage disposed.

In this study, schedules were not used since they were expensive to train and pay data collectors. The work of collecting data was done during the day time as from 8:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m. at night was time to rest.

3.4 Employment Opportunities

Most people come to cities seeking jobs. And the slums that many of these people end up living in — with rickety homes, mounds of refuse, and inadequate water supplies — could become key sources of employment. At little cost, municipal authorities could employ slum dwellers to build sewers, collect trash, compost organic waste, or otherwise improve their communities. If organic waste is composted, it can be used to nourish urban agriculture, which can provide both food and jobs. Cities could also revamp their policies on transportation, land use, and small-scale credit to improve the ability of poor people to make a living.

In 2000, the Kenyan government committed itself to working with the slum dwellers federation, local authorities, and the UN on a seven year slum-upgrading initiative. This program aims to make physical improvements — to extend roads and services into slums to connect them to the rest of the city. “We’re looking at all possible sources of job generation,” says UN-Habitat’s Chris Williams, including providing housing, water, electricity, and other services.

Schemes to collect and compost organic waste — such as paper, food scraps, and even human excrement — can help nurture urban gardens and reduce the problems and costs of waste management while producing food and money. The UN Development Program (UNDP) estimates that 800 million urban farmers harvest 15 percent of the world’s food supply — and the share could grow if governments promoted, rather than discouraged, the practice. Agriculture provides the highest self-employment earnings in small-scale enterprises in Nairobi, and the third highest in all of urban Kenya.

High transportation costs limit poor people’s access to jobs. Zoning laws that separate homes from businesses discriminate against the poor, as do decisions to invest in infrastructure for private cars, rather than dedicated bus lanes, cheap transit, safe pedestrian walkways, or bicycle paths. “More than 95% of money that is meant to tackle transport issues in Kenya go to motorization, while less than

5% of Kenyans actually own cars,” says Jeff Maganya of the Nairobi office of the global Intermediate Technology Development Group (ITDG). Today more than 40% of Nairobi’s residents can’t afford to pay bus fares.

Most people would benefit if governments were to shift their priorities towards cheaper forms of transportation, including informal jitneys (small buses called Matatus in Huruma) and bicycles. For many years, high luxury taxes on bicycles and a large fee for registering bicycles prevented poor people from buying and keeping them in Huruma. Isaac Mburu, a bicycle mechanic who lives in Mtumba, had his bicycle confiscated by local authorities because he could not pay the fee. When Kenya reduced its tax on bicycles from 80% to 20% between 1986 and 1989, bicycle sales surged by 1,500%.

Governments can also take steps to open up lines of credit in informal communities, not only for home improvement, but for small-business development. Even in the poorest neighborhoods, there are buildings and money-making activities that could be leveraged to increase economic opportunities and strengthen communities. Nairobi’s jua kali, or “hot sun,” workers — street hawkers selling vegetables, motor parts, and all manner of goods and services — act as a crucial source of income for many poor people.

3.5 Government Representation

A number of factors can contribute to silencing the voices of the poor and limiting public scrutiny of key decisions about how resources are allocated: collusion between politicians and real estate developers; government influence over or control of the press; or a weak civil society, for example. The wealthy, even if a small minority, simply have greater political power.

Government corruption also takes a disproportionate toll on slum residents. “When you take a complaint to a local authority employed by the government,” says Isaac Mburu, who lives in Nairobi’s Mtumba slum, “if you go without cash, you won’t be served.” While 67% of all Kenyans surveyed recently by Transparency International-Kenya said that interactions with public officials required bribes, 75% of the poorest and least

educated said they were forced to pay bribes. An independent fact-finding team visited Kenya in March 2000 and concluded that “the land and housing situation is characterized by forced evictions, misallocation of public land, and rampant land grabbing through bureaucratic and political corruption.” According to Transparency International’s Michael Lippe, “corruption is a tax on the poor.”

In some parts of the world, however, corruption is being thwarted by community organizers and committed leaders. Porto Alegre, Brazil has become famous for a municipal budgeting experiment started in 1989 that invites citizens to engage in setting public priorities and shows people how funds are allocated. A survey done after the first year of participatory budgeting in Porto Alegre revealed that the process had amplified the voices of the city’s poor. Most of that city’s slum population had indicated that clean water and toilets were their highest priority, whereas the government previously assumed that public transport was at the top of their list.

Today, more than 200 cities in Latin America have introduced participatory budgeting. In July 2001, Brazil enacted a national “City Statute” that requires municipalities to include citizens in urban planning and management, through participatory budgeting, among other measures. While only a small share of a city budget is usually up for grabs, the process does get important issues on the agenda and helps thwart corruption.

In Mumbai, India; both the municipality and poor neighborhoods have gained as a result of the evolving partnership between local authorities and the National Slum Dwellers Federation (NSDF). “Fifteen years ago, we were just trying to get poor people to be part of the city,” said Sheela Patel, director of the India-based Society for the Promotion of Area Resource Centers (SPARC). “Now there’s a realization that this is a key component of good governance.” For example, she says, “When hawking is illegal, the municipality loses 170 million rupees (US \$3.5 million) per month by not giving the hawkers licenses.”

In Nairobi, citizens convened the first ever Nairobi Civic Assembly in January 2002 to demand that the government open itself up to all citizens, including the poor majority. "We have a city without citizens because most of them have no voice," said Davinder Lamba, the head of the local human rights group, Manzigira Institute. Participants discussed how they might tackle a number of specific problems, from the city council's failure to provide water in poor neighborhoods to corrupt "land-grabbing" by public officials.

Neighborhood by neighborhood, things are beginning to change. For years, whenever residents of a Nairobi slum called Huruma Ghetto tried to repair their homes, the city council blocked them, forcing them to pay bribes or forbidding their efforts on the grounds that they were squatters on public land. The community's initial efforts to organize themselves to overcome these obstacles met with failure.

Once, when the community collectively refused to pay the bribes, their houses were set ablaze.

Banding together, and fortified by allies, Huruma Ghetto's residents are getting local authorities to work with them, rather than against them.

In May 2002, I watched as the Huruma Ghetto held a groundbreaking ceremony for a model home paid for by its locally organized savings group and approved for construction by the Nairobi City Council. Residents of Mathare, Mtumba, and other Nairobi slums, as well as activist friends from all over the world (including Jockin Arputham of Shack/Slum Dwellers International), came to Huruma Ghetto to take part.

"With the savings scheme, we are not only collecting money, we are collecting people," says David Mwaniki, a 37-year old father of five children who makes a living selling utensils. He also serves as the assistant to the secretary of Huruma's community council, which organized the savings group. "We want to eradicate poverty, and we want people living in informal settlements all over the world to join us, so we can wipe out slums."

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CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction:

The chapter provided data presentation, interpretation and analysis and results. The presentation of data was in a form of tables where applicable and the research findings were discussed. The researcher used two methods of data collection namely, person interview and observation. The use of these methods had been reasoned out in the previous chapter where the research stated why use of other methods failed.

4.1 Results and analysis by personal interview method.

The sample taken was (340) three hundred and forty and was randomly taken. The result was as tabulated below.

Table 1

Designation	No of respondents	Original/p home		Age bracket
		UC	UD	
Teachers	13	10	3	28-50
Parents	22	12	10	40-60
Students	13	12	18	15-20
Politician	2	—	2	40-70
Education officers	3	3	—	30-50
Hawkers	50	35	15	18-35
Shopkeeper	40	15	25	30-70
Job seekers	185	135	50	18-45
Total and %	340	65%	34%	

Key

UC__up country

UD__urban dweller

The researcher presented the information on table 1 above which clearly indicates that a greater percentage of job seekers came from up country. The researcher also established that a good number of people were attracted to work in town due to provision of electricity, piped water, security, good health facilities and housing. In this respect, the teachers who were interviewed accepted that the above mentioned conditions encouraged them to stay and work in town.

The parents who were interviewed said that their economic ability made them to stay in town as shopkeepers and owners of other business at the same time to enjoy the above mentioned facilities.

Hawkers who were interviewed, majority of whom came from rural communities said that they came to town to look for jobs and due to lack of suitable jobs, they resorted to hawker business of selling vegetables and various other items so as to be able to sustain themselves in town. They said that they started their small business with meager funds. This situation made them to stay in cheap and poor residential houses commonly called slums. Shanties are commonly characterized with poor sanitation, poor sewerage system, poor roads, poor health facilities, poor security and more others.

The job seekers who were interviewed revealed or reflected that most of them came from rural communities to look for jobs. Most of these people were aged between eighteen to forty five years and when asked where they stayed and how they survived in town, some said they were staying with relatives while others said they were staying in real shanties including polythene paper shelters.

Some youths among the job seekers said that they were not ready to go back to their rural homes because there was good entertainment in town such as clubbing, public exhibitions and chances of getting a job.

Table 11

Designation	No of respondents	Level of education		Trained	Untrained
		F4	C/U		
Teachers	30	2	28	28	2
Hawkers	100	16	40	20	80
Bankers	20	—	20	20	—
Job seekers	190	140	50	50	140
Total	340	41.18%	40.59%	40%	60%

KEY

F4- Form four

C/U- College or university

The researcher noted rampant unemployment in Huruma estate. This was analyzed as shown above in **table 11** above

The researcher noted that approximately 60% of job seekers were untrained and this is one good reason why they did not readily get jobs since they are not trained in any profession. In the same way 40% of the respondents were professionals and therefore trained. Some of those trained ones were already in the job market and included teachers and bankers as can be seen above. The others were still looking for jobs opportunities respectively.

From **table ii** above the percentage of form four levers was **41.18%** while the percentage of college or university levers was **40.59%**.

This means that a good number of untrained people struggle to look for jobs which is not fourth coming due to unprofessionalism.

Lack of job opportunities was also attributed few industries in Huruma. Asked on how they would be assisted, some of the job seekers suggested that it could be good if the government gives them soft loans to start their own small scale businesses for self employment.

4.2 Result and analysis by observation method:

The researcher made several observations in Huruma .He noted that there is lack of adequate access to water and toilets. He observed crowded slums with poor sanitation. In the same way, it was observed that the quality of housing decreased from the town center outwards away from the center.

The investigator concluded that crowded shanties were established to accommodate poor immigrants from rural area. The researcher suggested that the government should build better houses to replace shanties.

The government should also improve the sewerage system and provides piped water to the residents of slums. Sanitation could be improved by constant collection of garbage and proper disposal

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introductions

The study was centered on three fundamental concepts that is to say rural urban migration and looking for jobs as one of the major reasons for migration, establishment of slums in urban centers as one of the effect of rural urban migration and lack of high level of education and training as a major factor for rampant unemployment in Huruma.

From the previous chapter it was noted that the majority of job seekers in town were untrained and they were compelled to rent the lowest affordable rooms due to their state of impoverishment. This led to establishment of more slum areas.

5.2 Recommendations and suggestions

It is imperative to control rural-urban migration and this can be possible if the government formulates a policy of the decentralization of industries. This can be done by establishing industries in rural areas so as to create employment opportunities for the rural population. This can limit the number of people moving to towns to look for jobs.

As noted from the previous chapter, other factors that make people to migrate from rural to urban areas include search for better infrastructural facilities such as good hospitals for medical care, better roads, education, electricity, security, and others. The government therefore should extend such service to rural areas so as to discourage people who migrate to town for the same services.

Most young people after attaining a given level of education especially high school and above, tend to look for white collar jobs. In this respect government should change the system of education. The school curriculum should emphases on self employment and technological innovations other than white collar jobs on which present educational curriculum is based on.

The effect of rural urban migration as observed by the researcher led to lack of adequate access to water, toilets and others. Crowded slums also breed diseases that threaten the public health of the entire estate. The government should construct better houses to replace slums.

The government should also build sewer systems and provide home security by granting ownership of land. This can be done by providing title deed and this can lead to development in slums. In most cases slums remain undeveloped because the government does not grant title deeds to potential developers. This makes them fear of eviction hence slums remain undeveloped.

Concerning the state of unemployment in urban areas (Huruma), researcher established that most job seeker end up living in slums. In this case, municipal authorities could employ slum dwellers to build sewers, collect trash, composite organic waste. Organic waste can be composted and used to nourish urban agriculture which can provide both food and jobs.

The government should also provide small scale credit in a form of soft loans to the people who need it to start small scale businesses. This can provide self employment. Urban agriculture should also be encouraged in the growing of crops like tomatoes, vegetables, maize, banana and even flowers. This can also boost the sector of self employment.

The government should improve roads and reduce transport costs to allow poor people access to jobs. This can be done by use of small buses and bicycles which are affordable.

Promoting and improving Jua kali or "hot sun", workers which include street hawkers who sell vegetables, motor parts and all manners of goods and services. This can be a crucial source of income for many poor people.

The government should discourage corruption by enacting strict laws against those involved. This is because some office bearer, politicians and public officers embezzle funds meant for development. They ask for bribes before they render services. This act makes the poor remain poorer.

The government should also get ready of bureaucratic and political corruption which is done in a form of forced evictions, misallocation of public funds.

Land and rampant grabbing which discourages development.

5.3 Conclusions

The study was guided by three main objectives and they were not met satisfactorily.

The first objective which were to investigate. The causes of rural urban migration was satisfactorily met because it was established that most people more to urban areas to look for jobs. It was further established that some people move to urban areas to look for jobs. It was further established that some people also migrate to urban areas in search of electricity, good medical services, good roads, security and others. The researcher noted that rural-urban migration can be controlled if the government embarks on decentralization of industries to include rural areas. That the government should further extend services such as providing good medical care, good roads, electricity, piped water and good schools and colleges to rural areas in order to control rural-urban migration.

The second objective which was to research on effects of rural-urban migration was also satisfactorily covered. The researcher noted that one of the effects was growth or establishment of slums to provide accommodation for the poor job seekers. The researcher also observed that slums were characterized with poor sewerage system, poor sanitation and congestion. The researcher noted that slums could be improved by the government by improving the sewerage system, building good houses and improving sanitation.

The third objective which was to investigate the major cause of unemployment in town (Huruma) was satisfactorily met. The researcher noted that the major cause of rampant unemployment was due to low levels of education and untrained and untrained job seekers. This was coupled with the mentality to get white collar jobs. The researcher noted that it is imperative for one to become a professional by undergoing training in a given field. He further noted that the government should change the educational curriculum so as to emphasize on self employment rather than being trained entirely for the purpose of getting a white collar job. It was also established that the government should provide free education right from primary level to colleges so as to enable various academicians to become professionals in their areas of ability.

The various views expressed above may not be enough because the researcher is solely open to criticism as the research was conducted to contribute some literature to the scholarly world.

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