THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF ARTISANAL GOLD MINING IN IKOLOMANI DIVISION, KAKAMEGA COUNTY, KENYA

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ABSTRACT

Land is the most coveted and jealously guarded resource for Socio-economic development among Kenyan rural households. Most artisanal gold miners are from socially and economically marginalized communities, and turn to mining in order to escape extreme poverty, unemployment and landlessness. Sometime the gold is present but very tiny or should we say in low and unexpected quantities especially when you look at the depth of the mines. The Knowledge Gap that the study sought to fill was that while agriculture undeniably remains the backbone of most African economies, the people of Ikolomani still dwelt in abject poverty despite their pre-occupation in artisanal mining. The main Objective of the study was to examine the socio-economic impact of artisanal gold mining in Ikolomani division, Kakamega County, Kenya. This study was guided by the following specific objectives; Evaluating the socio-economic benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, Examining how the presence of mines has affected cultural relations in Ikolomani division, Establishing factors that would comply with modern mining and environmental regulations in Ikolomani division. The researcher employed descriptive design. The study's theoretical framework adopted the theory of cumulative and cyclical interdependencies. In the selected locations the Study Population was 870 respondents as provided by Western Provincial Geology and Mines (WPGM, 2011) of which 10 % were adopted in the study, therefore the target population narrowed to 87 respondents. The study adopted stratified random sampling technique to draw a sample from the Target population. Stratification allowed the investigation of the characteristics of interest for particular subgroups. Data collection was from two main sources; primary and secondary. Secondary sources included relevant documents and reports. In using Primary sources data was collected from selected respondents using Focused Group Discussions and Questionnaires. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software was used for analysis. The study's major conclusion was that the gold fields did not improve the social and economic life of the people of Ikolomani. The study's major recommendation was that there was need to improve on the Economic amenities in Ikolomani division by government and investor through forging economic partnerships. This would rejuvenate economic activities and improve on the livelihoods of the inhabitants. The Study's further recommendation was that there is need to establish the viability of new advanced mining technologies with regard to enhanced productivity at the Gold mines in Ikolomani Division.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter gave a general overview and served as a precursor of the task which included background information; statement of the problem, purpose of study, the objectives of the study, research questions, and justification of study, limitations of study and the scope of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

Land is the most coveted and jealously guarded resource for Socio-economic development among Kenyan rural households. Throughout the colonial period, land remained a major contested issue, pitting the Colonial Office (CO) against the colonial state, Kenya's European settlers, and the African men land holders and women who enjoyed modest rights to land by virtue of their relations to such men. In 1931, gold was discovered near Kakamega in Western Kenya. Initially, extraction was from alluvial deposits, but from 1932 alluvial was surpassed by pit or reef mining (Berman, 1990).

This development was rapidly followed by demands from European prospectors and mining companies for alienation of land from what was a "native reserve". The subsequent alienation of land in Kakamega for mining Gold prompted significant opposition from the Luhya people and intensified fear of security of tenure that found expression in diverse forms of protest against gold mining, land alienation and colonial agrarian policies that reflect to this day and age in the 21st century (Constantine, 1984).

Artisanal and Small-scale Gold Mining (ASGM) involves mineral extraction using manual labor and rudimentary tools. It requires low investment and little infrastructure. It

may be a full time occupation, seasonal, or may provide a supplementary income. It can be a coping mechanism when other livelihoods fail or a preferential livelihood which surpasses other opportunities. Activities may fluctuate with commodity prices with high prices making mining more rewarding. Artisanal and small-scale mining refers to mining activities that use rudimentary methods to extract and process minerals and metals on a small scale. Artisanal miners also frequently use toxic materials in their attempts to recover metals and gems. Socio-economic development is measured with indicators, such as GDP, life expectancy, literacy and levels of employment. Causes of Socio-economic impacts are, for example, new technologies, changes in laws, changes in the physical environment and ecological changes. Artisanal Gold miners in Ikolomani division work in difficult and often very hazardous conditions and, in the absence of knowledge or any regulations or standards, toxic materials can be released into the environment, posing large health risks to the miners, their families and surrounding communities (Marshall,1990).

In Brazil, artisanal and small-scale gold mining (ASGM) produces in the range of 6 tonnes of gold (Au) per annum, and employs approximately 200,000 people. Most of this mining activity is in the Amazon region, where miners have been extracting gold for more than 40 years. In the Tapajos River Basin, assessments indicate that around 99% of miners operate without the environmental and mining permits required by law. This is a result of a combination of unrealistic or lack of proper policies and regulations, lack of political will, lack of infra-structure to enforce the existing regulations and lack of incentives to miners to comply with legal requirements.

Indonesia is one of the countries with the largest number of artisanal gold miners in the world. An artisanal miner, also known as a small-scale miner, is an individual or group of individuals who operate informally with little mechanical assistance to produce gold or other commodities. In the West Nusa Tenggara province in Indonesia it is estimated that 22,000 people participate in artisanal small-scale gold mining and produce upwards of 400kg of gold per annum and contributes about $22 million US to the economic activity of Indonesia.

ASM activities in Africa engage about 8 million workers, who in turn support about 45 million dependents. Moreover, the number of ASM miners is growing as a result of rising commodity prices and limited economic opportunities in other sectors. In Zimbabwe, for example, artisanal gold miners in the Marange area increased from a handful in 2004 to an estimated 35 000 in 2007. In Ghana ASM contributed 9% of total gold production in 2000, but by 2010 this had risen to 23%, with over a million Ghanaians directly dependent on ASM for their livelihoods. It is important to recognise that the concept of ASM encompasses a wide range of mining practices. In certain areas artisanal mining has been a traditional activity for generations, and may be a seasonal enterprise to supplement agriculture-based livelihoods. In some cases significant commodity price fluctuations, mining closures or other economic shocks may lead to large numbers of ASM miners moving rapidly into an area, often with associated stresses to the environment and local communities. ASM mining may occur with various degrees of sophistication, mechanisation and legality. Some of the negative aspects of ASM mining include poor health and safety practices, child labour, pollution (for example, mercury contamination of water systems by ASM gold miners) and mining in conservation areas.

The year 1952 is important for it marks the end of the gold mining industry in Kakamega. Rosterman Gold Mines Ltd. closed down, thus ending a dramatic period in the colonial economy of Western Kenya. Owing to the undercapitalization of the companies, the enormous costs of production and the paucity of large gold deposits in Kakamega, miners decamped, and Kakamega never became another Johannesburg, or even Geita in Tanganyika. This chronological cutoff allows for an analysis of the entire gold mining era and serves as a launching pad for examining the current mining activities in Ikolomani division, lack of agrarian policies and subsequent poverty cycle. Thus an examination of land loss, employment, market and entrepreneurial opportunities, working conditions, wages, welfare and health services, illustrates that the communities occupying the mining areas reaped far more limited gains than scholars have alluded too.

Government response towards the modern phase of Artisanal and Small-scale Gold Mining (ASGM) has been dominantly characterized by marginalization, criminalization, and the attempted application of laws dominantly borrowed from the modern industrialized mining sector laws that evolved out of the earlier gold rushes but that do not now easily support the development of the modern ASGM sector. The recognition that the modern ASGM sector will be a permanent feature of the modern mining industry for the foreseeable future and its important role in economic development is now firm, it is recognized as a tremendous domestic development opportunity. However, today government response is still largely falling behind on actively developing the ASGM sector in a clear and robust manner. The lack of collaboration is not a technical one but often driven by complex legalities that leave the parties in a state of paralysis with respect to the rate of change possible to address key barriers. Legal reform will play a big role in

providing the access to capital and technological upgrades that can create a small scale gold sector that can comply with modern mining and environmental codes and due diligence initiatives.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Most artisanal gold miners are from socio-economically marginalized communities, and turn to mining in order to escape extreme poverty, unemployment and landlessness. The oppressive colonial policies in Kenya led to mistrust for state initiatives regarding what crops to grow, land conservation programs, and the processing and disposal of produce among the Luhya community. Illuminating the bitter memories of colonial land policies in Western Kenya and their impact on peasant response to state agricultural initiatives sheds important light on Kenya's development dilemma. This is significant because while agriculture undeniably remains the backbone of most African economies, the people of Ikolomani still dwell in abject poverty despite their pre-occupation in Artisanal Gold mining. This trend is hereditary in that even during the colonial era rural industries were never developed, and even in the Kakamega mining area, few Africans benefitted directly as prospectors and miners.

The issue of population and sustainable rural Socio-economic development continues to haunt independent Western Kenya. While there are no legal obstacles to cash crop production, many rural households in areas impacted most by gold mining continue to shun cash crops. It is shown that this negative response to a cash crop economy has its roots in unfavorable colonial land alienation policies associated with the Kakamega gold rush. As in the case of the failure of tobacco to gain a foothold, the failure of gold mining to make a significant, long term Socio-economic impact on the Kakamega region was the

result of both market and state action. Artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM) is a thorny issue for both governments and large scale mining (LSM) companies. Often operating in remote, unregulated and environmentally sensitive areas, difficult to tax and posing a security challenge on the verges of LSM mine sites. While monumental work has been done on the mining industry in Southern Africa, very few studies have focused on the mining industry in Eastern Africa in general and Kenya in particular. It is against this background that the study sought to examine the Socio-economic impact of artisanal gold mining in Ikolomani Division, Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The General objective of this study was to examine the socio-economic impact of artisanal gold mining in Ikolomani division, Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.3.1 This study was guided by the following specific objectives;

1. Evaluating the socio-economic benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division
2. Examining how the presence of mines has affected cultural relations in Ikolomani division
3. Establishing factors that complies with modern mining and environmental guidelines in Ikolomani division

1.4 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:-

1. What are the socio-economic benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani Division?
2. How has the presence of mines affected cultural relations in Ikolomani Division?

3. What are the factors that could comply with modern mining and environmental guidelines in Ikolomani Division?

1.5 Significance of the study

Since the exit of the British company, the interest in exploring gold deposits has been left for area residents and other small-scale miners. But despite the long history of gold mining in Western Kenya, residents have little, if not nothing, to show for it. The study therefore sought to establish ways of improving the socio-economic status of the residents of Ikolomani division. There is a greater hope that the study would be a source of a great experience and a contribution to the academic career of the researcher as it is in partial fulfillment for the requirement of a Masters in Social development and Management. The results of the study may be useful to future researchers who might be interested in a related field, who could adopt the study for their future citations and referencing. There is no doubt the result may contribute to the existing policy formulation of relevant stakeholders within the mining sector within Ikolomani division, Kakamega County.

1.6 Scope and limitation of the study

Anticipated difficulties (both theoretical and practical) and beyond control of the researcher that hinder the active participation of carrying out the investigation and reduce the scope, the sample and the extent of the replication of the findings, that is referred to as Limitations. The study was limited to those who work within the gold fields and been on the trade for at least one year. Resources and time are important; due to their limitation the researcher was limited to study only three variables that sought examine the

socio-economic impact of artisanal gold mining in Ikolomani division. It was important to put to view every miner since all of them were affected by the same research variables. Thus stratification guaranteed representation of those who interacted in the study or were not based on Heterogeneous stratum.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this section, related literature on the Socio-economic impact of artisanal gold mining in Ikolomani division was reviewed under the following subheadings that address the research objectives. The focus was on Socio-economic benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, Mining and cultural relations in Ikolomani division, Factors that comply with modern mining and environmental guidelines in Ikolomani division, Theoretical framework, Conceptual framework, Existing knowledge gap and Summary of literature.

2.2 Socio-economic benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division

The discovery of the Kakamega goldfield may be attributed indirectly to A. D. Combe of the Uganda Geological Survey, who when concluding his report in 1930 on a geological reconnaissance of parts of North Nyanza Province, recommended that prospecting be carried out in Maragoli and Nyang'ori in NK district Huddleson (1952). The actual discovery of alluvial gold was made by L. A. Johnson of Eldoret in October 1931, on his way home from an unsuccessful search for gold in the Musoma area of Tanganyika. (Manchester guardian, 1833). The European settler population in Kenya colony considered the dawn of the gold mining era in Kakamega heaven sent. It is shown that the Kakamega goldfield attracted both individual prospectors with little capital and large companies representing a wide range of interests, with substantial capital investments.

This significant Gold find occurred against a backdrop of Socio-economic distress that was brought about by the global depression of 1929-1934. The year 1931 was an unhappy one for NK district Socio-economically just as it was for Kenya colony as a whole. The world depression had severely depressed the market for primary agricultural products which constituted the backbone of the district's peasant producers just as for the fragile European settler economy in Kenya. Quite obviously, by 1951, gold had definitely yielded its pride of place in Kenya's colonial economy to non-precious minerals, particularly soda ash and salt. Prospecting for new gold occurrences was minimal throughout the year, while the continuous and unrelenting rise in production costs virtually obliterated any benefits obtained from the prevailing increased price of gold. This state of affairs was extremely alarming to the gold mining community in Kenya to the extent that the Member for Commerce and Industry personally led a Kenya gold mining delegation to the CO in September to appeal for direct assistance from the imperial government. The delegation obtained a complete remission of all gold royalty for ten years, and sanction for a grant to aid gold mining development in Kenya.

In addition, permission was also granted for colonial territories to sell up to 40 percent of their gold production on the free market. GB, CRS, Kenya (1951). In spite of the CO's liberal considerations for the mining fraternity in Kenya, the gold mining industry suffered a severe blow when Rosterman Gold Mines stopped milling in 1952. Consequently, the output of gold for the year was considerably reduced, amounting to approximately 14,800 oz of bullion valued at about £134,500.Amadadu and Shikali (1998). It is worth noting that the closure of Rosterman Gold Mines occurred in spite of the inauguration of the Gold-Mines Development Loans Ordinance, 1952, which

provided for the granting of interest-free loans in approved cases for underground development of gold mines in Kenya colony. According to this school of thought, the reduction of prospectors in Kakamega from 1935 onwards was perhaps an indication that Kakamega would not develop into another Rand. The discovery of gold in Kakamega led to the passage of the Native Land Trust (Amendment) Ordinance of 1932 at remarkable speed, and with the consent of the CO and the Kenya Land Commission (KLC) which was then investigating the land question in Kenya. The NLT(A)O, 1932, was specifically meant to satisfy the demand for land from European gold miners and mining companies. By this ordinance, the principles of cash compensation in lieu of land and the alienation of land without consulting the Luhya and the North Kavirondo (NK) LNC were adopted. This was disturbing as Africans were legally banned from making any land purchase outside the designated reserve boundaries.

The dawn of gold mining led to tremendous growth of Kakamega township. Gazetted as a post in 1909, Kakamega became the government station for North Kavirondo district in 1920. In 1927, it officially became the district headquarters. Political Record Book Vol. III., KNA: DC/NN/3/4/2. When gold was discovered in 1931, Kakamega was a relatively quiet district station with "a few Indian dukas [shops] and a native market." It was the seat of the NK district office [Boma] and contained, a government Native hospital, a leper camp, a prison, a Government African School [GAS], the district court of appeal, and a seed farm of the agricultural department. Wagner, The Bantu, Vol. I., 10; The Daily Express, 21 March 1933. When the boundaries were surveyed in September 1930, and approved by the Local Land Board in August 1931, thirty-three Luhya households in

beneficial occupation of land that fell within the township boundaries were displaced (KNA: PC/NZA/1/25).

Thereafter, the physical terrain of Kakamega experienced a rapid and unprecedented transformation (Akibaya and Otiende, 1998). Kakamega turned into a boom town: in 1932 alone, the DC issued thirty temporary residential plots including plots for hotels and boarding houses, and forty-eight business plots. Tenure was a temporary lease of one year. (NKDAR 1932, KNA: DC/NN/1/13) By December 1932, Kakamega had forty-six European commercial enterprises with all commercial plots in the old bazaar taken up by Europeans and Asians (KNA: DC/NN/1/13) The town was home to two doctors and a chartered accountant, a general store, two garages, a hotel, and a butchery (The Times, 22 December 1932, Lugard Papers, RHO, MSS. Afr. 77/4). The following year, twenty-three leases were granted in the new commercial area of the town and twenty in the old bazaar (KNA: DC/NN/1/14).

While Asians held virtual monopoly over the business realm before 1932, many of the new businesses belonged to Europeans. Between 1933 and 1934, numerous shops catering to European miners' needs, and hotels including the Eldorado, the Golden Hope Inn, the Corkscrew Inn and the Boma, restaurants, and garages appeared. Yet, the tremendous expansion and significance of Kakamega was short-lived. Business fortunes assumed a downward trend as early as 1936, when several businesses closed (NKDAR 1936, KNA: DC/NN/1/18). In 1937 and 1938, a large number of European businesses shut down, including Messrs U. G. Tank & Metal Works, Penfold's Garage, the Corkscrew Inn, the Boma & Cumberland hotels, Stone Co., Rutherford & Co., George

Taylor, and Economy Motors Ltd.257 By 1939, Kakamega, then the second largest township in Nyanza Province after Kisumu, was a shadow of its former self.

2.3 Mining and Cultural Relations in Ikolomani Division

Although it was known as early as 1904 that gold existed in the neighborhood of Lake Victoria, by 1925, only four companies were undertaking mining activities, all in the Lolgerian area to the south of Nyanza Province. In the period between 1926 and 1930, gold production in Kenya was still confined to a few small reef mines in the far south-west, close to the Tanganyika border. Vincent Harlow(1965) The 1931 discovery, however, triggered a "rush" by European prospectors into the NK reserve. When the rush started towards the end of 1931, it was natural that the first area to be prospected was that surrounding the original discovery. Consequently, the early prospectors concentrated on panning alluvial gold in the major rivers and streams around Kakamega. Rivers Yala (Lukose), Isikhu and Edzaba (Edzawa) and their tributaries, and streams such as Lutonyi, Shitoli, Shikokho, Eguiri, and Feradzi, were rapidly pegged, and the panning and sluicing of alluvial gold began in earnest. Jairo Akibaya, (1998). The areas most affected were Isukha, Idakho, Butsotso, Maragoli, Tiriki, and Marama locations of NK district. With time, however, mining activities quickly spread out to most parts of BuLuhya. Since alluvial gold could be initially won easily using a saucepan and a sieve, capital requirements to commence mining were low. This served to attract more prospectors to Kakamega. Fearn, (1958) In most cases, the material was washed without crushing. Usually, it was shoveled to fall.

Conflicts between the community and European prospectors emanated from the latter demonstrated lack of respect for African land rights. Initially, European prospectors

descended on holdings, pitched tents, and commenced prospecting and pegging in order to secure their interests without consulting local land holders. These actions elicited consternation and opposition from the Luhya who naturally regarded the entry of many Europeans into their reserve with grave concern. Since Africans in Kenya colony had no title deeds to validate land ownership, the incongruence between customary land tenure and colonial mining laws that reserved all mineral wealth to the Crown thereby limiting African land rights to a depth of three feet served to complicate the matter. Because of potential and real conflicts over land, as early as December 1931, the acting (Ag.) Chief Native Commissioner (CNC), the Ag. Commissioner for Local Government, Lands and Settlement and the Ag. Commissioner of Mines met European prospectors and the Luhya respectively with the object of allaying any fears the latter entertained.

Notwithstanding, the Luhya continued to regard the whole procedure with the greatest distrust. The latter led to numerous obstructions, physical assaults and cases where Luhya land holders confiscated mining paraphernalia from European prospectors. In January 1932, for instance, a young lady beat a European prospector senseless for "knocking down her father" who was resisting the invasion of his land. By June 1932, collisions between the Luhya and European miners had become fairly common. Oral narratives were replete with heroic reminiscences of Ashiono Lumidi's assault and expulsion of a European prospector and his subsequent imprisonment for three months. The prosecution and imprisonment of Luhya for obstruction bred widespread ill feeling toward all Europeans. Instead of reversing the situation, the colonial state enacted stringent rules aimed at coercing the Luhya to acquiesce.

However, the advent of mining and its attendant complications put pressure on European staff in NK district with the result that a senior administrative officer, the Warden of Mines, was posted for duty in the mining area. Although his duties were nebulous at the beginning, they soon crystallized and came to encompass acting as deputy to the District Commissioner (DC) in dealings with Africans and serving as deputy to the Commissioner of Mines in all technical mining matters and disputes between miners. The presence of the Warden of Mines in the goldfield coupled with a series of the DC's *barazas* (public meetings), offered an opportunity for ventilating grievances before they reached heightened proportions, and the possibility for early resolution of legitimate complaints.

Moreover, the colonial state increasingly relied on the local Luhya functionaries for conflict resolution. Local chiefs, including Milimu Amaidza of West Isukha, Sore of East Isukha, Paul Amiani of Tiriki, Mulupi Shitanda of Kabras, and Paul Agoi of Maragoli, were expected to facilitate a smooth transition to gold mining in BuLuhya. Notwithstanding, most found their duties difficult to execute. For example, chief Milimu's location was very much anti-mining and numerous struggles between miners and the Isukha were experienced. Milimu himself nursed anti-mining sentiments but his role as a colonial functionary forced him to be discreet in his activities. Colonial chiefs were instruments of facilitating European exploitation of the Luhya economy. As "eyes and ears" of the colonial state, their jobs were at stake in the event of any recalcitrant behavior. Indeed, it was not uncommon for "hard headed" chiefs to be summoned and flogged before the DC. However, once prospectors obtained mining permits and licences legally empowering them to prospect for gold, it became difficult for individual land holders to obstruct. Sometimes, however, protest against miners was veiled because

colonial instruments of control were dominated by Europeans. For example, all police constables in the goldfield were Europeans, and overt obstruction or opposition to miners was often confronted with unimaginable police brutality. Apart from blunt police intervention, public meetings constituted the most important arena for dampening Luhya opposition. The Warden of Mines and the DC held numerous *barazas* in Milimu's location of West Isukha and adjoining locations in the vicinity of the goldfield including North Maragoli, East Tiriki, Idakho, Kisa and Marama at which the people were informed of the miners' intention to extract gold and not to take over their land.

In spite of this, most Luhya in the gold mining area nursed a grudge against the colonial state and European miners. The colonial state was challenged to undertake an oath, promising to observe the sanctity of its agreements with regard to the reserve. Luhya apprehensions were further fueled by the rather liberal interpretation which European claim holders put upon a clause in the Mining Ordinance granting them the right to reside on their claims. Substantial houses, comprising almost settlements, were erected, areas fenced in for gardens, and attempts to open up garages, workshops, and nursing homes were made. More land was taken up for setting up stamp batteries and machine-houses. In a variety of ways, the precarious security of tenure of ancestral land became increasingly apparent to the Luhya.

2.4 Factors that comply with modern mining and environmental guidelines

While Rosterman remained the largest producer, the company faced immense labor problems. Generally, personnel-related problems in the industry resulted from several factors. On the whole, the small European personnel lacked the necessary mining skills. Yet, they were expected to teach, direct and discipline locally recruited African and

Asian labor. Since mining companies offered low salaries, they were totally unable to attract good technicians. Indeed, the DC, NK, F. D. Hislop, acknowledged this fact in 1945. It can be safely said that the Kakamega gold mining industry was relatively sound at the start of WWII. Nevertheless, at the end of 1939, only two of the large mining companies were left in Kakamega namely, Rosterman Gold Mines and Kavirondo Gold Mines. These companies produced an average of 1,400 and 590 oz of gold per month, respectively. Of the smaller mines, Bukura Mining Company produced 433 oz per month and a dozen others produced between 50 and 150 oz per month. Alluvial mining was carried out in a small way, principally by Colonel Stitt and his wife. Although the industry showed a steady healthy improvement, the DC NK held the view that it "had yet to prove itself financially." Altogether, there were fifty-three operating mills in Kenya colony in 1939, most of which were in the Kakamega goldfield. In spite of this, the war brought difficulties to the gold mining industry, chiefly in the way of shortages of machinery and skilled manpower, with the result that production began to decline more or less constantly over the next twelve years. Then in 1952, the rate of decline accelerated, marking the end of the gold mining industry in Kakamega.

In 1952 the last gold mining company, Rosterman Gold Mines Ltd., closed down, thus ending a dramatic period in the colonial economy of Western Kenya. Owing to the undercapitalization of the companies, the enormous costs of production and the paucity of large gold deposits in Kakamega, miners decamped. The Kakamega goldfield attracted both individual prospectors with limited capital resources and large companies with more substantial capital investments, representing diverse Socio-economic interests both local and foreign. Although alluvial mining dominated the industry in its infancy, by 1934, reef

mining had become quite important. The development of deep mining by large companies necessitated the alienation of land from Luhya households for mining purposes. Nonetheless, significant problems such as increasing costs of production, lack of capital, exhaustion of ore deposits and the myriad problems that came in the wake of WWII, proved fatal to the nascent Kakamega gold mining industry. Although the gold mining era in NK district had come to an end by 1952, its most lasting legacies lay in the politics of land and Socio-economic development that emanated from the general European invasion of the reserve, the activities of prospectors, and the alienation of land for mining purposes.

In 1931, a European forester arrived in Kakamega to take charge of the forest. Trouble between the Europeans and the Isukha in particular also emanated from the changed status of Kakamega Forest. Initially, opposition hardened against any form of government control whatsoever, forcing the Ag. CNC to consult the NK Local Native Council (LNC) before government proposals regarding forest use were accepted. In accordance with the recommendations of the KLC, 1,500 acres were earmarked from the forest for Africans who could be dispossessed by mining leases. The land was subsequently gazetted as excluded from mining operations. For political reasons, however, objections were raised and efforts to induce the Isukha to cultivate "the wonderfully rich forest soil" proved unsuccessful. The Isukha contended that cultivating their own land under any form of supervision was beneath their dignity. Although sixty cultivators ultimately took advantage of the land and planted crops in return for clear cultivation, they put little heart into the work and the results were negligible. Although the Isukha were clamoring about shortage of arable land, they contended that they had

been robbed of the forest and refused to accept directions from the forester with regard to where to cultivate. In a sense, the Isukha were cultivating a tradition of protest against state control of their agricultural activities.

Kakamega Forest comprised 61,700 acres, 13,000 of which were grassland and scrub. Between 1933 and 1934, four mining companies namely Messrs Risks Ltd., Tanganyika Concessions Ltd., Kenya Consolidated Ltd. and Mitchell Cotts were granted a total of 2,100 acres of concessions to cut timber for fuel on which royalties of Kshs.18,398 and Kshs.32,725 were paid to the colonial state respectively. The Isukha were upset by this arrangement because some endeavored to sell their own timber to the mines for fuel and pit props. The reorganization of holdings in Kakamega Forest and the timber concessions to mining companies exacerbated land matters in BuLuhya. The Isukha in East Kakamega were particularly anxious about the ultimate destiny of the forest. Very quickly, a movement emerged in East Kakamega and North Maragoli advocating rejection of rents or compensation. This movement was led by Luka Mutsami, a former LNC member, Jonah Kahiya, an elder of the Appeal Tribunal, Johanna Lumwachi, a teacher at Irhanda Friends African Mission (FAM) school, and Nathan Mbwabi, a Jeanes school teacher at Church of God, Bunyore and land owner in West Isukha.

The first three residents of East Isukha dominated *barazas* in times of crisis to the extent that chiefs and elders remained silent in their presence, never venturing to criticize them. In North Maragoli, a location that was under strong FAM influence but with a small European mining population, some elders assumed a strong anti-mining attitude. This state of affairs heightened with the expected visit of Sir Philip Cunliffe-Lister, Secretary of State (S of S) for the Colonies, early in 1934. Although the visit of the S of S for the

Colonies to Kakamega in January 1934 was postponed owing to illness, the governor, the Colonial Secretary (CS), and the Ag. Commissioner of Mines made an informal visit to Kakamega where they met a deputation led by chiefs Milimu and Sore. The Isukha demanded an assurance from the governor of the ultimate security of their lands to which the governor promised sympathetic consideration. Owing to this calming reassurance, relations between European prospectors and Luhya land holders reportedly improved by the end of the year.

Prosecutions for obstruction to mining on the one hand and for defrauding Africans on the other, diminished significantly. Notwithstanding, not all the Luhya in the gold mining area were reconciled to the European invasion of their locations. Politically minded Luhya continued to agitate against mining. The announcement of impending leases for mining properties only served to aggravate fear of losing land among the Luhya. Arguably, mining leases constituted the most contentious issue among the Luhya in the 1930s. By August 1933, the issue was causing much anxiety, particularly in East Isukha where Messrs Risks Ltd. intended to apply for a lease. Members of the FAM in the location sent speakers throughout other locations in the mining area agitating against leases.

To counter this, the Warden of Mines and the DC held joint and separate public meetings at which the question of leases was explained to the local population with little success. The Luhya disapproved the principle of leasing land to mining companies and objected to proposed water permits and labor camps. In 1935, however, 113.5 acres required for the Kimingini lease were set apart in Isukha despite a spate of opposition from the local inhabitants. Resistance to gold mining sometimes manifested itself in peg-pulling, fence

removal and the destruction of beacons. Luhya land holders perceived the erection of wooden pegs, mining notices and fences by European miners as empirical evidence of European takeover of their land.

Thus, the elimination of these symbols of European "ownership" of such land is only intelligible within this context. In a petition addressed to the S of S for the Colonies in 1934, the North Kavirondo Central Association wrote, "We are afraid when we see the pegs set by the miners that our land will be taken." The Isukha, Idakho, and Logoli in North Maragoli location, removed pegs and notices as soon as they were erected in spite of the heavy penalty of Shs.6,000 or imprisonment for two years or both, for tampering with beacons. To curb these unsettling acts of sabotage and to circumvent the difficulty of apprehending perpetrators, big mining firms resorted to stone beacons. Messrs Risks, for instance, erected concrete beacons with smaller concrete landmarks at short intervals on their property in West Isukha. The persistence of these acts of resistance prompted the provincial administration to intensify *barazas* in the locations concerned to warn against such activities.

Considerable pressure was brought to bear on local headmen to check them. Notwithstanding, the Isukha inparticular objected to the erection of concrete beacons. *Barazas* were held in West and East Isukha, North Maragoli, Tiriki, Kisa, Marama and Butsotso to hammer home the need for cooperation from the local population. In spite of this, East Isukha location continued pursuing an uncompromising anti-mining and anti-government attitude with the chief seldom intervening. Two core protagonists in this struggle were Jeanes teachers Lazaro Afwayi and Nathan Mbwabi. Afwayi had previously made offensive remarks at a governors's *baraza* besides challenging the

Warden of Mines on what attitude the colonial state would adopt if the Luhya declared war against miners. The two were subsequently threatened with withdrawal of official government contribution to their salaries if they persisted with political activism. Nevertheless, the destruction of pegs and beacons persisted.

In May 1935, for example, a survey beacon established during the 1932 triangulation of the goldfield was destroyed. In spite of DC E. L. B. Anderson's instructions to the chief of the location that the beacon "be left alone," it was destroyed again in July. As a result, the district administration intensified*barazas* to educate Luhya households against interfering with beacons. Since the practice continued unabated, in 1936, the administration resorted to withholding compensation to Luhya land holders on whose lands pegs had been stolen or destroyed. Yet in 1939, the Kibiriri trigonometrical station marking the boundaries of Rosterman company's property had been destroyed. Indeed, as late as July 1941, the mining community still complained of "wanton destruction of claim pegs." The administration advised miners to undertake regular inspection of their pegs. In addition, a system of closer cooperation between claim holders, the police, and the "native" administration realized a somewhat marked improvement in the upkeep of pegs and beacons. Where offenders could not be traced, the DC continued to hold meetings with residents in the vicinity of the affected mines aimed at discouraging such actions. European-Luhya relations were, therefore, not always amicable. In July 1934, a European assaulted an African assessor accompanying two members of the LNC on a mission to examine a water permit. Although the assault was characterized "not serious," it proved "intensely irritating" to race relations in the goldfield. With time, the spontaneous

individual opposition eventually gave way to organized resistance to which we shall now turn.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

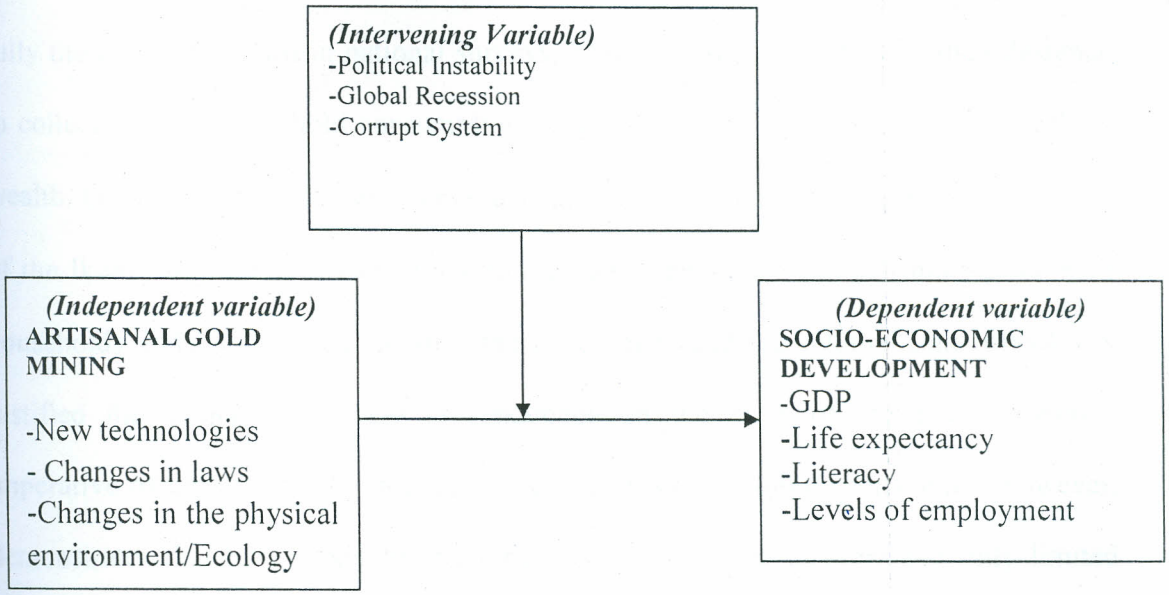
Most studies of poverty alleviation have adopted different theoretical underpinnings in order to find a workable solution to their subject matter. This work adopts the theory of cumulative and cyclical interdependencies as its framework because the theory looks at individuals and their community as caught in a spiral of opportunity and problems, hence individual and community resources are mutually dependent.

Cumulative and cyclical interdependencies theory originated from the works of Myrdal (1957) who coined it as "interlocking, circular, interdependence within a process of cumulative causation" Myrdal argued that personal and community well being are closely linked in a cascade of negative consequences, and that closure of a factory or other crises can lead to a cascade of personal and community problems including migration of people from a community. Thus the interdependence of factors creating poverty actually accelerates once a cycle of decline starts. For example, at the community level, a lack of employment opportunities leads to out migration, closing retail stores and declining local tax revenue which lead to deterioration of schools and lead to poorly trained workers, resulting in firms not being able to utilize technology fully, which in turn leads back to a greater lack of employment. This cycle also repeats itself at the individual level. The lack of employment leads to lack of consumption and spending due to inadequate incomes, and to in adequate savings, which means that individuals can not invest in training, and individuals also lacks the ability to invest in businesses, or to start their own businesses, which leads to lack of expansion, erosion of market and disinvestment, all of which feed

back to inadequate opportunities. Health problems and the inability to afford preventive medicine, a good diet, and a healthy living environments become reasons the poor fall further behind.

Poverty alleviation programmes should structure their efforts around three focal points for breaking the cycle of poverty. These programme structures, like the cyclical theory itself, combine strategies and tools from response to the other theories of poverty. The first strategy to breaking the cycle of poverty is to develop comprehensive programmes. Comprehensive programmes are ones that include a variety of services and that try to bridge the individual and community needs. The key to executing extensive programmes without becoming too uncontrolled is collaboration among different organizations to provide complementary services so that by their combination of efforts, the output is greater than could be done by each one alone. Collaboration involves networks among participants, though the coordination can vary from formal to informal. Finally, community organizing is a tool by which local people can participate to understand how their personal lives and the community well being are intertwined. Breaking the cycle of poverty must include individuals to participate as a community in the process, just like individuals create the spiral downward when they and their community interact in a cycle of failure. For the poor, empowerment is central to this issue.

2.6 Conceptual Framework



Source: Author 2013

The conceptual framework indicates that Artisanal Gold mining when approached using new technologies, regulations that support growth and changes in the physical environment may improve the life expectancy level, literacy level and employment opportunities thus being a seasonal enterprise to supplement agriculture-based livelihoods. Artisanal Gold mining may occur with various degrees of sophistication, mechanisation and legality. Some of the negative aspects of Artisanal Gold mining include poor health and safety practices, child labour, pollution for example, mercury contamination of water systems and mining in conservation areas. However there are intervening factors that may impede Socio development such as political instability, global recession and corruption.

2.7 Existing knowledge gap

A more comprehensive picture of social stratification however is not possible given the lack of data on income and especially assets. Most households do not report truthfully or fully the assets they own in national surveys. Moreover such surveys are often designed to collect data on household consumption rather than ownership of assets or household wealth. Given these limitations, a large part of our analysis will be restricted to the 10% of the Ikolomani mining population who are earn their wages through mining for their households. Indeed, both the metropolitan government and the colonial state articulately justified the alienation of land in Kakamega on the basis of the Socio-economic imperative of developing the mineral resources of Kenya colony. This study, however, demonstrates that the market opportunities were short-lived and brought only limited benefits to a small Luhya minority. For instance, the LNC vegetable market erected at Khayega in the 1930s closed down immediately due to lack of local demand. This contrasted with government revenue gains from mining in the same period.

The gold rush occurred against the background of a depressed economy in Kenya, and its potential to facilitate Socio-economic recovery was quickly noted by the colonial state. European settlers, miners, and the colonial state, therefore, emphasized the Socio-economic significance of the discovery above all else. Consequently, Luhya claims to land and its security in NK reserve were shelved as profit making gained ascendancy. While such realities have been well documented, especially with regard to farmland in Central Kenya, no study has ever been undertaken focusing on the Luhya response to the loss of land to mining concerns in the Kakamega gold rush. Just as in the 1930s,

problems related to agricultural development, and Socio-economic development generally, have continued to be greatly influenced by state policies.

2.8 Summary of Literature

Although it was known as early as 1904 that gold existed in the neighborhood of Lake Victoria, by 1925, only four companies were undertaking mining activities, all in the Lolgerian area to the south of Nyanza Province. In the period between 1926 and 1930, gold production in Kenya was still confined to a few small reef mines in the far south-west, close to the Tanganyika border. This significant Gold find occurred against a backdrop of Socio-economic distress that was brought about by the global depression of 1929-1934. The year 1931 was an unhappy one for NK district Socio-economically just as it was for Kenya colony as a whole. The dawn of gold mining led to tremendous growth of Kakamega township. Gazetted as a post in 1909, Kakamega became the government station for North Kavirondo district in 1920. In 1927, it officially became the district headquarters.

In 1952 the last gold mining company, Rosterman Gold Mines Ltd., closed down, thus ending a dramatic period in the colonial economy of Western Kenya. Owing to the undercapitalization of the companies, the enormous costs of production and the paucity of large gold deposits in Kakamega, miners decamped. The Kakamega goldfield attracted both individual prospectors with limited capital resources and large companies with more substantial capital investments, representing diverse Socio-economic interests both local and foreign. Although alluvial mining dominated the industry in its infancy, by 1934, reef mining had become quite important. Although the gold mining era in NK district had come to an end by 1952, its most lasting legacies lay in the politics of land and Socio-

economic development that emanated from the general European invasion of the reserve, the activities of prospectors, and the alienation of land for mining purposes.

Most studies of poverty alleviation have adopted different theoretical underpinnings in order to find a workable solution to their subject matter. This work adopts the theory of cumulative and cyclical interdependencies as its framework because the theory looks at individuals and their community as caught in a spiral of opportunity and problems, hence individual and community resources are mutually dependent. Myrdal argued that personal and community well being are closely linked in a cascade of negative consequences, and that closure of a factory or other crises can lead to a cascade of personal and community problems including migration of people from a community.

The researcher conceptualizes that Artisanal Gold mining when approached using new technologies, regulations that support growth and changes in the physical environment may improve the life expectancy level, literacy level and employment opportunities thus being a seasonal enterprise to supplement agriculture-based livelihoods. However there are intervening factors that may impede Socio development such as political instability, global recession and corruption.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlighted on the research design that was used, area of the study, population of the study, sample selection methods and size, data collection methods, validity and reliability, procedures of data collection and data analysis methods that were adopted.

3.2 Research Design

The researcher employed descriptive design. Descriptive design sought to uncover the nature of factors involved in a given situation, the degree in which it existed and the relationship between them (Bell, 1993). Descriptive survey was employed because it allowed the researcher to adopt a holistic approach of the study sampled, thus enabling and utilizing research tools like Questionnaires and Focused Group Discussion guides. The researcher equally obtained information from a sample rather than the entire population at one point in a given time.

3.3 Study area

Ikolomani division, Kakamega District is situated in Western Province (Kenya), majority of its inhabitants are employed within the agricultural sector (GoK, 2002), with most of them being small-scale farmers and miners. In fact, 80% of the population lives in rural areas, and 62% of all households generate their income from agriculture. At the same time the County suffers from extreme demographic pressure with an annual population growth rate of 2.12%.

3.4 Sample size and sample selection

The study population constituted the resident miners of Lirembe Village, Rostermine and Musoli locations in Ikolomani division. In the selected locations the Study Population was 870 respondents as provided by Western Provincial Geology and Mines (WPGM, 2011) of which 10 % were adopted in the study, therefore the target population narrowed to 87 respondents. In descriptive research 10% of the target population was considered sufficiently representative enough of the Study population this is according to (Gay, 1996).

Table 3. 1: Study population and the Target population for the study

Areas	Population	Target Population
Lirembe Village	300	30
Rostermine	400	40
Musoli	170	17
Total	**870**	**87**

Source: Author 2013

3.5 Sample selection

The study adopted stratified random sampling technique to draw a sample from the study population. Stratification allowed the investigation of the characteristics of interest for particular subgroups. The study employed thirty miners (30) from Lirembe Village, forty (40) miners from Rostermine and seventeen (17) miners from Musoli Village. Thus stratification guaranteed representation of those who interacted in the study or were not based on Heterogeneous stratum. (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003) argues that stratified sampling design is used on the basis of the researcher's judgment that the key respondents are relevant for the study.

3.6 Research Instruments

Data collection was from two main sources; primary and secondary. Secondary sources included relevant documents and reports. The researcher employed the technique to pick information that was available from these reports. In using Primary sources data was collected from selected respondents using Focused Group Discussions and Questionnaires. It involved both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The use of the two approaches at the same time in basic research is recommended by (Gay, 1996) as the best way to get sufficient results.

Both Open and closed ended questionnaires were administered, this was because Close ended questionnaires were easier to analyze since they were in an immediate usable form and again each item may be followed by alternative answers. Open ended questions permitted a great depth of response, where a respondent was allowed to give a personal response, usually reasons for the response given were directly or indirectly included. They were simpler to formulate mainly because the researcher did not labor to come up with appropriate response categories. The researcher equally preferred to use this method because of its ability to solicit information from respondents within a short time as supported by (Gupta, 1999). Moreover, respondents were given time to consult records so that sensitive questions could be truthfully answered as supported by (Floyd, 1993).

Focused group discussions were used to generate information from the respondents. The composition of the groups were limited to those with similar characteristics, such as socio economic status, so that the members could feel free in contributing to the issues at hand, the study employed the focused group discussion guide on all the (87) respondents adopted for the study. This allowed members to share their views, experiences and

opinions. Focus group interviews are groups of people whose opinions and experiences are solicited simultaneously. This was efficient in that it generated a lot of dialogue.

3.7 Data collection procedure

The researcher requested for permission from the National Council of Science and Technology through the School of Graduate Studies Maseno University then proceeded to the field. The researcher visited the Mining Sites to make appointments and develop rapport after getting a letter of introduction from Western Provincial Geology and Mines, Kakamega Office. The respondents were visited on the agreed dates and the correct instruments were used to collect data. The study took five months from March to July 2013. During this time the researcher met the respondents. Six weeks was for data collection, while the other two weeks were used for data organizing. The process for data analysis consumed five weeks. The report write up took six weeks and one week was for recommendation.

3.8 Data analysis techniques

The researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative data that was used to analyze data from targeted respondents. Upon completion of data collection, the Questionnaires and Focused Group Discussion guides were edited, coded and entered into a computer spreadsheet in a standard format to allow for descriptive statistics analysis. The data was in the form of texts and materials which described occurrences. The researcher detected various categories in the data, which were distinct from each other. The Statistical

Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software was used for analysis. Measures of central tendency (mean, mode, median) and frequencies and percentages were used to describe the population. At this uni-variate level the researcher generated frequency tables that depicted the respondent's views.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The Researcher ensured that participants were well informed of the intentions of the study so that they participated from a point of information. The purpose, procedure and benefits of the study were explained; inclusion was voluntary. Informed written consent was sought from the study participants. Consent was translated and simplified in Kiswahili and Luhya by the research assistants to facilitate understanding of information contained therein. The researcher also ensured that the data collected was analyzed professionally and that it was not fudged to conform to a predetermined opinion. Further, to protect the respondents' identities, data was reported as a block instead of highlighting individual cases. The researcher obtained all the necessary permits from the University and National Council of Science and Technology. Further, the researcher ensured that all information provided was treated with utmost privacy and confidentiality, and that no information was released to a third party without a written permission from the source.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter of the study systematically presents the results that were obtained from the research that was conducted. The results are quantitatively and qualitatively presented. The analysis and interpretation follows tabular presentation at some stages and the Focused Group discussion guide results from the respondents are also presented to supplement the quantitative presentation.

The presentation of the study was guided by the research questions that guide the study. The background information of the respondents however was also presented. Hence forth, the presentation is divided into two sections where section one presents the background information of the respondents, section two, represents the results of the study according the research objectives that guided collection. The presentation of the data follows in the following discussion.

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate

During the research study the researcher distributed 87 questionnaires to respondents which reflected 100%, of which 80(92%) were returned fully answered however 7 (8%) of the questionnaires were returned not fully answered thus not being able to be used for analysis in the research study.

Table 4. 1: Response Rate Analysis

	Frequency	Percentage
Questionnaires distributed	87	100
Questionnaires returned answered	80	92
Questionnaires returned un-answered	7	8

Source: Primary data

The researcher established that questionnaires returned unanswered because the respondents were not available to participate in the research.

4.3 Background Information

The presentation of this data as already pointed out is done in two sections. The current section presents the background information of the respondents. The researcher felt this information was important because the respondents, background with the area of study determines their ability to posses the required information and subsequently determined the necessity of the researcher to probe for any detail and establish sufficient rapport with the respondents.

On the respondents, gender distributions the researcher established the situation as presented in Table (4.1.1)

Table 4.1. 1: Gender distribution of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	60	69
Female	27	31
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

As can be observed from table (4.1.1), the gender distribution of the respondents was representative. That is 27(31%) of the respondents were female and the other 60(69%) of the respondents represented males. The results indicate that during the survey, both sexes were accessible however the researcher had more contact with males than females.

During the focused group discussion however, respondents expressed that mining was predominantly a man's occupation, the women carry out light roles within the mining site. The researcher endeavored to explore the level of education of the respondents. This variable was deemed worth establishing by the researcher because the education level of the individual determined his or her ability to possess adequate information and equally participate effectively in this study. The results on the level of education of the respondents are depicted in table 4.1.2 below

Table 4.1. 2: The distribution of respondents by their level of education

Level of Education	Total No. of respondents	Male	Female	Total Percentage	M%	F%
Masters	0	0	0	0	0	0
Degree	0	0	0	0	0	0
Diploma	0	0	0	0	0	0
Secondary	15	15	0	17	17	0
Primary	45	35	10	52	40	12
Illiterate	27	20	7	31	23	8
Total	87	70	17	100	80	20

Source: Primary Data

The findings on table (4.1.2) shows the respondents' education background and depicted that 15(17%) attained secondary level education whilst 45(52%) of the respondents attested to have attained primary education this left a distribution of 27(31%) of the respondents who stated that they were illiterate. This showed deplorable growth on the level of education between male and female respondents however male respondents still dominated in terms of the level of education attained.

During the focused group discussion it was established that not all respondents were well educated. Therefore, for the above respondents who did not comprehend the research questions, the best method of collecting data from them was through a focused group discussion where the research questions were simplified to give an easily understandable meaning, even though this percentage could understand the questions asked during the

entire research and respond, there was still the need to interpret some concepts further of which the enumerators were employed to that effect.

Table 4.1. 3: Distribution of the respondents experience in Artisanal Gold Mining

Years of experience	Respondents	Percentage	Mean
1-3 years	40	46	
4-7 years	30	35	100/4
7-10 years	10	11	
Over 10 years	7	8	
Total	**87**	**100**	**25**

Source: Primary Data

As expressed by Table (4.1.3), the respondents experience with Artisanal Mining Activities was unevenly distributed. That is, 40(46%) had spent a period between 1-3 years as compared to 30(35%) who had spent 4-7 years in Artisanal Gold Mining. Those who had spent 7-10 years were 10(11%) of the total participants. This distribution left 7(8%) to have worked within the Artisanal gold mining sector for a period of over 10 years. The results generally indicated that the respondents had varying experiences in mining. However the mean score of the respondents indicate that the majority 25 respondents were categorized as having worked within the Artisanal Gold Mining Sector for 4-7 years this was attributed to the high expectation that came with Artisanal gold mining.

During the focused group discussion most of the respondents indicated that it was not easy to spend more than 10 years in Artisanal Gold Mining. The reason expressed was that sometime the gold is present but very tiny or should we say in low and unexpected

quantities especially when you look at the depth of the mines. Therefore Artisanal gold mining required a lot of patience and one could not entirely depended on it for sustenance but as an alternative income generating activity. The researcher sought to establish the daily presence of the respondents at the Gold Fields. The results are illustrated on table 4.1.4 below

Table 4.1. 4: Distribution of the respondent's daily presence at the Gold Fields

Years of experience	Respondents	Percentage	Mean
Daily	45	52	
Weekly	20	23	100/4
Monthly	15	17	
No response	7	8	
Total	**87**	**100**	**25**

Source: Primary Data

As expressed by Table (4.1.4), the respondent's daily presence at the Gold Fields, depicted a distribution of 45(52%) that were present at the goldfields daily, 20(23%) of the respondents stated that they were always there on a weekly basis, this left a distribution of 15(17%) of the respondents who state that they went to the mines on a monthly basis, however 7 (8%) of the respondents did not respond.

During the focused group discussion most of the respondents indicated that life in the gold mines is worth their livelihood. They say the low quantity of gold they get is worthy sustaining their lives as an alternative income generating activity.

4.4 Research Questions

This study was basically guided by three research questions. The verification of the research questions was guided by the conditions that described the data. After presentation of the research questions results, the results from the focused group discussions are also presented for clarity.

4.5 The socio-economic benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division?

The first research question of this study was derived from the first research objective. The question sought to establish the socio-economic benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani Division. In order to get answers to ascertain this research question, the researcher inquired from the respondent their perceptions on a number of issues. These issues included whether there are any economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, what are the economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, whether the presence of the Gold fields affected the livelihoods in ikolomani division. On whether there are any economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, the results are presented on table (4.4.1).

Table 4.4. 1: Whether there are economic and social benefits of Artisanal gold mining

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	28	32
Agree	27	31
Neutral	10	11
Disagree	15	18
No response	7	8
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.1) when asked whether there are any economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, 28(32%) of the respondents strongly agreed that there were economic and social benefits of Artisanal gold mining in ikolomani division, 27(31%) of the respondents agreed to the same, 10(11%) of the respondents were neutral while another distribution of 15(18%) of the respondents disagreed. However 7 (8%) of the respondents did not respond they returned the questionnaires without answering to the questions.

During the focused group discussion majority of the respondents felt that life in the gold mines is worth their livelihood. Respondents stated that after the departure of the colonial mining companies, they took advantage of the abandoned holes and tunnels, scooping and sifting through the soil with a hope of getting some gold stones. This has been going on to date with some hardworking people earning between Kshs. 400 and Kshs. 800 a day from the gold proceeds. The locally ready market has made the operation possible. The results on table (4.4.1) enticed the researcher to enquire what are the economic and

social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division; the results are presented in table (4.4.2)

Table 4.4. 2: Economic and Social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division

Response	Frequency	Percentage
GDP	10	11
Life expectancy	27	31
Literacy	20	23
Levels of employment.	30	35
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.2) when asked what were the economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, majority of the respondents 30(35%) stated that Levels of employment contributed to the economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division. This left a distribution of 27 (31%) of the respondents who opined that the improved life expectancy was part of the economic and social benefits of Artisanal gold Mining. However 20(23%) of the respondents felt that Literacy level had improved as a result of Artisanal gold mining. This left a distribution of 10(11%) of the respondents who felt that Artisanal gold mining in ikolomani also contributed to the GDP.

During the focused group discussion the respondents stated that Artisanal gold mining was basically labor intensive thus providing employment to the rural poor. This according to them would have a sprinkle effect of enabling the respondents to educate their children thus increasing the level of literacy, employment and life expectancy through food security and affordability. The results on table (4.4.2) enticed the researcher

to enquire whether the presence of the Gold fields affected the livelihoods of the residents of ikolomani division; the results are presented in table (4.4.3)

Table 4.4. 3: Effects of Gold fields on the livelihoods in Ikolomani Division

Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	30	35
Agree	27	31
Disagree	23	26
No response	7	8
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.3) when asked how the presence of the Gold fields affected the livelihoods of the residents of Ikolomani, majority of the respondents 30(35%) strongly agreed that the presence of the Gold fields had affected the livelihoods in Ikolomani. While 27(31%) of the respondents agreed to the same. This left a distribution of 23(26%) of the respondents who disagreed and stated that the Gold fields had not affected the livelihoods of the residents of Ikolomani. However 7(8%) of the respondents did not respond they returned the questionnaires without answering to the questions.

During the focused group discussion the respondents highlighted that their livelihood had been affected stating that prior to the Gold mining venture they depended on their land for subsistence farming however they can no longer reap anything from farming. The soils that were scooped from beneath the earth and left to spread on the farms have rendered affected areas infertile. The current soils on their farms cannot sustain the growth of crops.

According to the Mining Act, when a mining company winds up its business, it should take the responsibility to rehabilitate the affected area. All open holes should be covered, suspected poisonous wastes dumped and buried and machinery used moved away. It is unfortunate that in some parts of Kakamega gold mines, deep open grounds and some abandoned heavy machinery can still be seen at the sites, and this poses a great danger to the local community. The local community has worsened the situation as they illegally search for gold in the dangerous gaping holes. They have dug more holes and enhanced the already existing holes that were abandoned.

4.6 How has the presence of mines affected cultural relations in Ikolomani division?

The second research question of this study was derived from the second research objective. The question sought to determine how the presence of mines affected cultural relations in Ikolomani division. In order to get answers to ascertain this research question, the researcher inquired from the respondent their perceptions on a number of issues. These issues included establishing whether there were any perceived environmental pollution on the proposed project, whether their was compliance with the environmental regulations and what are the problems and recommend measures to improve the environmental management system. On whether there was any perceived environmental pollution on the proposed project, the results are presented on table (4.4.4).

Table 4.4. 4: Artisanal miners benefiting from Gold Mining in Ikolomani Division

Response	Frequency	Percentage
0-50 People	5	6
51-100 People	10	11
101-150 People	15	17
151-200 People	20	23
201 and Above	37	43
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

Table (4.4.4) depicts the number of miners, who benefitted directly from Artisanal gold mining in ikolomani division, 5(6%) of the respondents felt that close to 50 people benefitted directly from the Artisanal Gold Mining. 10(11%) of the respondents opined that 100 people benefit from the Gold fields. 15 (17%) were of the opinion that 150 people benefitted from the gold fields, 20 (23%) respondents on the other hand felt that the 200 people benefitted from the Goldfields. This left a distribution of 37(43%) of the respondents who stated that 201 and above people benefitted directly from the goldfields.

During the focused group discussion the respondents stated that in the early 1990s, a group of people who once worked with Roasterman Mining Company, thus, had knowledge of sifting through sand, ganged up and started sneaking into the abandoned gold pits. Fortunately, they managed to scoop some gold, hence, carried on with the exercise to-date. However, the exercise is very dangerous and efforts by the Government to curb it have been futile. The results on table (4.4.4) enticed the researcher to establish the challenges facing Artisanal Gold mining; the results are presented in table (4.4.5)

Table 4.4. 5: Challenges facing Artisanal Gold mining

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Low Returns	21	24
Poor living and working conditions,	23	26
Declining Health	20	23
Environmental challenges	16	19
No response	7	8
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.5) it showed the challenges facing Artisanal Gold mining, 21(24%) of the respondents felt that the low returns from the Gold mining activities posed as a challenge in Artisanal gold mining, 23(26%) of the respondents felt that the poor living and working conditions was a challenge to the Artisanal miners. 20(23%) felt that the declining health of the miners acted posed as a real challenge in the Gold mining sector. However 16(19%) of the respondents felt that the environmental challenges posed a great challenge to Artisanal Gold mining. 7(8%) of the respondents did not respond.

During the focused group Discussions the respondents stated that the Government should let in experts to carry on with the exercise of evaluating and adopting best practices of mining gold, the local community should benefit from their proceeds directly or indirectly. Prompt and adequate compensation of those affected should be effected immediately. The Government should ensure that the local community gets a share of the proceeds, which can be passed on to them through building of schools and assisting parents to pay school fees, improving infrastructure and building hospitals. The results on table (4.4.5) enticed the researcher to establish how these challenges affect social cultural relations in ikolomani; the results are presented in table (4.4.6)

Table 4.4. 6: Challenges affecting socio-cultural relations in Ikolomani

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Poor financial management by miners	12	14
Lack of effective Facilitation and Training	17	20
Lack of proper health care facilities	16	18
High school drop outs	24	27
Low returns from Gold mining	18	21
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.6) on the challenges affecting social cultural relations in ikolomani, 12(14%) of the responds felt that Poor financial management by miners affected social cultural relations in ikolomani division, 17 (20%) of the respondents were of the opinion that Lack of effective Facilitation and Training affected social cultural relations, 16(18%) of the respondents felt that Lack of proper health care facilities affected social cultural relations while 24(27%) of the respondents felt that the number of school drop outs had tremendously increased thus posing a challenge to the socio cultural relations in ikolomani division. This left a distribution of 18(21%) of the respondents who felt that the low returns from Gold mining posed a real challenge to the social cultural relations in ikolomani division.

During the focused group discussion the respondents stated that gold mining operations were particularly dangerous, as they often use the mercury amalgamation process to extract gold from ores. Artisanal miners also frequently use toxic materials in their attempts to recover metals and gems. Such miners work in difficult and often very hazardous conditions and, in the absence of knowledge or any regulations or standards,

toxic materials can be released into the environment, posing large health risks to the miners, their families and surrounding communities. Children that are exposed to mercury are particularly at risk for developmental problems. Exposure to mercury can cause kidney problems, arthritis, memory loss, miscarriages, psychotic reactions, respiratory failure, neurological damage and even death.

4.7 Modern mining and environmental guidelines in Ikolomani division

The Third research question of this study was derived from the Third research objective. The question sought to explore factors that could comply with modern mining and environmental guidelines. In order to get answers to ascertain this research question, the researcher inquired from the respondent their perceptions on a number of issues. These issues included establishing whether there were any perceived environmental pollution on the proposed project, whether their was compliance with the environmental regulations and what are the problems and recommend measures to improve the environmental management system. On whether there was any perceived environmental pollution on the proposed project, the results are presented on table (4.4.7).

Table 4.4. 7: Perceived environmental pollution at the mining sites

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	30	35
No	27	31
No idea	23	26
No response	7	8
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.7) when asked whether there any perceived environmental pollution on the proposed project, majority of the respondents 30(35%) felt that environmental pollution was caused by the gold Mining Activity. This left a distribution of 23(26%) of the respondents who had no idea while 27(31%) of the respondents opined that the project had caused no environmental pollution. However 7(8%) of the respondents did not respond thus returning the questionnaires without answering to the questions.

During the focused group discussion the respondents stated that gold mining Activities did cause a lot of environmental pollution through different mediums, the stated that the air quality was compromised, Forested and other natural areas were compromised, Wetlands and Water Resources destabilized, while Neighborhoods and communities, homes and businesses affected one way or the other, even the health of the miners was at a jeopardy due to the constant contact with mercury and other chemicals like sodium cyanide. The results on table (4.4.7) enticed the researcher to enquire whether their was compliance with the environmental regulations and relevant standards; the results are presented in table (4.4.8)

Table 4.4. 8: Compliance with the Environmental Regulations and relevant standards

Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	18	21
Good	26	30
Neutral	13	15
poor	23	26
No response	7	8
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.8) on whether there was compliance with the environmental regulations and relevant standards, 26(30%) of the respondents stated that the Compliance with the environmental regulations was good enough, in contrast to 18(21%) of the respondents who felt that the compliance with the environmental regulations was excellent. However 23(26%) of the respondents were of the opinion that compliance was poor, 13(15%) of the respondents were neutral were as 7(8%) of the respondents did not respond.

During the focused group discussion the respondents, felt that the primary compliance with the environmental regulations was done though the relevant standards were compromised. According to the respondents they felt a lot was not put into consideration with regards to safeguarding the environment, they particularly attribute this to the political influence witnessed and the consequent hurried nature on which the Gold mining Activities was exercised. The Department of Mines and Geology has set up an

Environmental Geology Unity (EGU) to asses the potential negative impact of a mining activity in an area. The Unit is supposed to generate reports detailing whether the chemicals to be used during mining are harmful. We have heard cases of animals dying after grazing in some specific spots around the affected areas. In Kakamega, we are much focused on the effects of Sodium Cyanide, which was used during gold mining in the colonial days. However, reports indicate that all waste was dumped and buried before the company wound its work. The results on table (4.4.8) enticed the researcher to seek to establish the potential significant adverse environmental and social influences of the project; the results are presented in table (4.4.9)

Table 4.4. 9: Potential adverse environmental and social influences of the project

Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Major impact on social mobilization	30	35
Community participation and Social change	15	17
Roads, Electrification	17	20
Employment	25	28
Total	**87**	**100**

Source: Primary Data

According to table (4.4.9) on what are the potential significant adverse environmental and social influences of the mining Activities' 17(20%) of the respondents stated that roads and electrification were improved as a result of the Gold mining Activities, 30(35%) of the respondents felt that the major impact was on social mobilization, 25 (28%) of the respondents however felt that the gold mining had increased the need of unskilled labour, 15 (17%) of the respondent opined that the community participation and Social change had increased.

During the focused group discussion the respondents opined that in order for Government to curb the illegal and rather dangerous exercise of Deep pit gold mining, they had made a decision to regulate mining activities in the County. The Department of Mines and Geology was encouraging the local community to form associations. Through these associations, the locals could be guided to mine gold without endangering their lives.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The current chapter of this study presents the discussion of the results derived from the data presented in Chapter four, the discussion leads into varying conclusions and a number of recommendations are subsequently derived.

5.2 Summary

The following are the summaries on the findings based on the three objectives that guided the study. The results are also cross referenced with the findings of other scholars in related environments that have got a supportive element of the current study. The first Research Objective sought to evaluate the economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, there is need for the small-scale miners to be afforded with a healthy working environment so that they can be able to fight against socio –economic hardships. Gold mining in Western Kenya dates back to 1892 when deposits of the precious metal were discovered at Lolgorian, along the Nyanza-Rift Valley border. However, actual gold mining in Kakamega District was started by a British company, Rosterman Gold Mines, incorporated and licensed in January 1935 to prospect and mine gold ores.

Forty one years down the line since an international mining firm, Roasterman Mining Company, wound its operations in Kakamega district, locals still shed tears of agony and despair from deaths caused by abandoned tunnels and subsequent deterioration of fertility of their farms. The increasingly dangerous open wide holes and tunnels have continued to haunt parents whose children, driven by widespread poverty in the region, sneak into

them with high hopes of getting a catch of gold remains as vast square kilometers of once arable farms turned infertile due to dry soils from underneath the ground that was left to spread all over. In what can be termed as deliberate negligence by the then Government, which would have put in place possible measures to protect the locals from the ghostly deep holes, over 15 people have died either as a result of suffocation from the toxic chemical, Sodium Cyanide, used to mill gold or covered alive by falling soil.

Although Fearn maintains that the advantages of gold mining in BuLuhya outweighed the disadvantages, our findings do not support Fearn's assertions. It is shown that the Luhya lost land for meager cash payments that were not commensurate with the enormous economic, social and psychological effects that were brought on by land alienation. The loss of land created such deep resentment towards gold mining that the Luhya in the core mining areas shunned employment in the industry. As the Luhya grappled with the loss of land, the colonial mining laws stifled local entrepreneurship by demanding unattainable English standards as a prerequisite for obtaining licences. As a result, the Luhya resorted to illegal gold dealings which in turn earned them costly prison and cash penalties.

Moreover, African workers constantly struggled against the specter of death in the mines and endured low wages, poor living and working conditions, and declining health owing to increased incidence of malaria, pneumonia and cerebro-meningitis brought about by mining activities. And both humans and livestock faced significant environmental challenges. It is also clear that the gold mining industry provided short lived market opportunities for low priced commodities that very few Luhya men and women translated their meager gains into meaningful economic prosperity. It is also demonstrated that gold

mining and urban development brought about new social challenges which intensified cultural tensions within the Luhya community.

Luhya households lost their surface rights to mining companies for long durations in return for minimal cash compensation. In fact, mining leases accelerated a process of disinheritance that had began with the granting of EPLs and mining claims to prospectors. It is evident that the loss of land to gold mining interests had far-reaching effects on Luhya households. Not only were families forcibly uprooted from their ancestral lands and social relations, they were compelled to pull down their homes for minimal monetary compensation and left to re-establish themselves. In reality, they were rendered landless or reduced to being tenants-at-will of their neighbors and relations. Such forcible disinheritance had long lasting effects on the Luhya that no amount of easily expendable cash could have abated. This is particularly true of dispossessed households that never regained their lands when the leases expired. Moreover, former mining sites pose major environmental dangers to the local populations. Both humans and livestock constantly face the threat of unfilled shafts, unstable land surfaces, and derelict lands covered with mounds of bare rocks. Robbed of their basic means of production, the Luhya perhaps looked to entrepreneurial prosperity in the new industry.

The Second Research Objective supports the theory that was adapted to this study, the theory of cumulative and cyclical interdependencies. This is reflected by the fact that there is interdependence of factors creating poverty. For example, at the community level, a lack of employment opportunities leads to out migration, closing retail stores and declining local tax revenue which lead to deterioration of schools and lead to poorly trained workers, resulting in firms not being able to utilize technology fully, which in turn

leads back to a greater lack of employment. This cycle also repeats itself at the individual level. The lack of employment leads to lack of consumption and spending due to inadequate incomes, and to in adequate savings, which means that individuals can not invest in training, and individuals also lacks the ability to invest in businesses, or to start their own businesses, which leads to lack of expansion, erosion of market and disinvestment, all of which feed back to inadequate opportunities.

The data from this survey also leads to the conclusion that most households do survive below a dollar a day. As for Artisanal miners, it is assumed that they are embedded in reciprocal networks, either on family or on village level, which they cannot afford to leave behind without having secured their economical situation in different ways (Central Bureau of Statistics, Kenya 1999:56). On average, households receive 1,400 Ksh per month, which accounts for more than 50% of their monthly generated income of 2,200 Ksh. With regard to access to safe water and electricity, the initial position for nearly every single household questioned is the same. (Central Bureau of Statistics, Kenya 1999:56).

The Third objective sought to establish factors that comply with modern mining and environmental guidelines in Ikolomani division. The study established that an expansion in numbers (mining residents) can increase the pressure on resources and slow the rise in living standards in areas where deprivation is widespread. High levels of productive activity and widespread poverty can coexist, and can endanger the environment. Hence there is need to increase productive potential and by ensuring equitable opportunities for all. A region in which poverty and inequity are endemic will always be prone to ecological and other crises. Living standards that go beyond the basic minimum are

sustainable only if consumption standards everywhere have regard for long-term sustainability.

Growth has no set limits in terms of population or resource use beyond which lies ecological disaster. Different limits hold for the use of energy, materials, water, and land. Many of these will manifest themselves in the form of rising costs and diminishing returns, rather than in the form of any sudden loss of a resource base. There is need to train the small scale miners on advanced methods of mining thus accumulation of knowledge and the development of technology can enhance the carrying capacity of the resource base. But ultimate limits there are, and sustainability requires that long before these are reached, the government must ensure equitable access to the constrained resource and reorient technological efforts to relieve the presume.

5.3 Conclusions

The first objective sought to evaluate the economic and social benefits of gold mining in Ikolomani division, the researcher concluded that the gold fields did not improve the social and economic life of the people of Ikolomani.

The second objective assessed how the presences of mines have affected socio-cultural relations in Ikolomani division. The report concluded on the second objective stating that the gold mine had posed a significant environmental, economic and social challenge to the people of Ikolomani division.

The third objective sought to establish solutions to the economic development of Ikolomani division, the report concluded that there was need to train, educate and

empower the people of Ikolomani division in order for them to venture in other economic aspects so as to experience growth.

5.4 Recommendations

In line with the first objective it is recommended that there is need to improve on the Economic amenities in Ikolomani division by government and investor through forging economic partnerships. This will rejuvenate economic activities and improve on the livelihoods of the inhabitants.

The second objective recommends that proper mining procedures and practice be adopted in Ikolomani division, equally there is need to train the small scale miners on the best practices and markets for their produce.

The third objective recommends that there is need to introduce new advanced technology by the help of government or private sector leased to the small scale miners in order for them to realize growth.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Research

The researcher recommends further that there is need to establish the viability of new advanced mining technologies with regard to enhanced productivity at the Gold mines in Ikolomani Division.

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