

Bodabodas and Self Employment: An Inspiration for Job Creation in Tanzania: The Case of Msamvu Main Station, Morogoro

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Abstract

This paper explores the relationship between motorcycle operators/hire drivers (popularized as Bodabodas) and self-employment. Particularly, it emphasizes the youth to change the mind set to abstain from job seeking to job creation and self-employment. It addresses multifaceted entrepreneurial issues in the realm of unemployment challenges and brings on board a discussion on self-employment particularly on youths ironing out the various strategies the Government of Tanzania (GoT) attempted without success in an endeavor to create self-employment to the youths. In the face of the challenges of unemployment, it seems there is no clearcut solution on the Tanzanians employment seeking youths other than to change their mindset that will enable them to refrain from seeking employment to job creation and self-employment. The paper is based on 2017 survey data collected at Msamvu Main Stand in Morogoro Municipality of Morogoro region in Tanzania. Simple random and convenience sampling were used to select a sample of 50 respondents at Msamvu – Morogoro. The findings indicate that Bodaboda business has created self-employment to many youths despite the challenges they face. The challenges include that, the Bodabodas were charged by not abiding to regulations while some were involved in criminals. The paper concludes that despite the challenges, entrepreneurship remains to be a solution to the challenges of unemployment facing the youth in Tanzania. The Bodaboda entrepreneurial venture has accommodated many youths who otherwise could have been left loitering jobless in streets.

Keywords: *Bodaboda, Bodabodas self-employment, and entrepreneurship.*

INTRODUCTION

The motorcycle hire popularized as Bodaboda business is a big and fast-growing entrepreneurial activity in Tanzania engaging the youth both formally (registered) and informally (unregistered). In Morogoro municipality, the story is not different with a growing Bodaboda business housing about three hundred thirty-six (336) registered Bodabodas and possibly a lot more who are unregistered. Thus, it is the intention of this paper to address multifaceted entrepreneurial issues in the realm of employment and unemployment challenges and bring on board a discussion on self-employment particularly of the youth.

Unemployment and underemployment have become major development challenges as exaggerated by shrinking public sectors and limited opportunities for gaining formal wage employment in the private sector. In that spirit, several international institutions including the ILO have specifically identified the promotion of entrepreneurship among young people as a means of generating youth employment. However, little is known about how youth employment and entrepreneurship can best be supported (Langevang and Gough, 2012).

Margolis (2014) notes that over half of jobs in the developing world are in self-employment. Although some self-employment is chosen by entrepreneurs with well-defined projects and ambitions, roughly two thirds result from individuals having no better alternatives. This implies that despite self-employment being a major source of creation jobs in such countries, it has become a necessity rather than a choice for workers. And in many instances, it tends to be low productivity employment, and as countries move up the development path, the availability of wage employment grows and the mix of jobs changes.

Self-employment has also been proposed as a solution to youth unemployment problems, and that world individual governments have developed programs to assist youth in the formation of new enterprises through financial assistance or specialized training. Accordingly in the United States, for instance, the reasons advanced by many policymakers in the 1990s for encouraging continued growth in self-employment include viewing it as a vehicle for exit from poverty; a viable alternative to unemployment for displaced workers; and a solution to unemployment problems in general; as well as interest in small business as a source of economic (or employment) growth. In addition, international

organizations such as the ILO, which has historically supported small enterprise development with the goal of creating new and better employment opportunities in the developing world, are proposing small enterprise development as a component of youth unemployment policy initiatives (Williams, 2004).

The necessity to offer self-employment opportunities especially in the developing world, is propounded by different factors including social protection systems; labour market frictions; the business environment; and labour market institutions. However, according to Williams (2004), strategies to promote self-employment may be counterproductive as evidence suggests that there are potential losses or costs associated with it with high failure rates in developing countries. That is, the self-employed lose potentially valuable labor market experience and opportunities for training or advancement within the firm (while out of the wage and salary sector). Of course, for the successful ones, the increase in income gained or non-pecuniary rewards may outweigh these costs, otherwise for the unsuccessful ones, the costs may outweigh any gains.

Various strategies have been ironed out by the Government of Tanzania (GoT) without success in an endeavor to create self-employment to the youths. In the face of the challenges of unemployment, it seems there is no simple or clear-cut solution especially to the Tanzanian employment seeking (if not hungry) youth other than to change their mindset that will enable them to refrain from seeking (particularly official white collar) employment to job creation (self-employment).

The world over, Africa in general and Tanzania in particular face the challenges of unemployment (ILO, 2010 and Kwekaet al, 2013). As Sommers (2010), for example, noted that the lives of many urban youth are dominated either by work or the need to find work. Accurate youth unemployment rates in Africa are remarkably difficult to establish and the reported range is phenomenal. Furthermore, however, the employment–unemployment dichotomy also fails to include a far more significant marker of economic activity for youth and most other urban dwellers, namely underemployment, the kind of work that is commonplace in big African cities but that is difficult to quantify because it may be short-lived and irregular.

At least theoretically, entrepreneurship carries a solution to the challenges of unemployment facing the population, especially the youth through

employment generation particularly self-employment. Of course, as Nagler and Naude (2017) found, households (particularly the youth) operate enterprises due to both push and pull factors with the necessity to cope and manage risks pushing them into entrepreneurship. That is, lack of social protection and insurance schemes, they need to manage shocks, deal with surplus household labour, and respond to seasonality. Otherwise, operating an enterprise becomes a possible strategy to cope with these kinds of uncertainties whereby the necessity motivation is reflected in the enterprise nature and size as small and informal household businesses that are often operated for only a portion of the year and in easy-to-enter sectors or activities. And, Stangler (2013) agreed with the general consensus of research findings that entrepreneurship is concentrated among individuals in midcareer, that is, between 35 and 44 years of age contrary to the conventional belief that entrepreneurship is mostly the province of the very young, who are presumably unfettered, willing to take risks, have low discount rates, and are undeterred from challenging established ways of doing things.

A study by ILO (2014) has pointed out three primary causes of unemployment that include structural unemployment that causes change in market conditions often turns many skills obsolete; frictional unemployment (transaction cost of trying to find a new job) and cyclical unemployment (economic contractions). There are arguments that a large share of current high youth unemployment is “structural” in a sense that most of unemployed youth have skills which are not compatible with the jobs available. It is further argued that many of the unemployed youth either possess inadequate skills or possess skills that have greatly deteriorated and so not applicable to the available industries (http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/press-and-media-centre/press-releases/wcms_120465/lang-en/index.htm) For example, in the 2011/2012 budget in Uganda, the Minister for Finance recognized that because of the high levels of unemployment the Ugandan economy could only absorb twenty percent (20%) of the youth.

The nature of youth unemployment challenges facing Tanzania does not differ significantly from the nature of adults, this is because the two (adults and youths) unemployment challenges differ in terms of severity. The youth unemployment is more severe than the latter (ILO,2014) whereby estimates show for example among the unemployed people in the country 60 percent are the youth. Only a small number of youth

(about 3.4 percent) are employed in civil services, ministries, and private sector.

Every year, for example, graduates completing their studies enter the labor market. And, it is estimated that more than six hundred thousand youth enter the labor market every year (Liviga, 1996). In the case of Tanzania, three studies by Barerjee et al (2011); Bruhn *et al* (2010); and Filmer *et al* (2014) have identified main factors contributing significantly to the youth unemployment challenges that include education system, lack of skills and business training, lack of credit facilities, emphasis put on informal sector alone, neglect of agricultural sector and rural areas in general, and lack of advisory services.

The system of education is a challenge that has culminated in types of education that students receive to contribute directly to youth unemployment since the curricular tends to put a lot of emphasis on and prepare youth to pass examinations (theoretically) with an objective of obtaining formal (white collar) wage employment. Furthermore, education does not impart business and related skills whereby as youths complete their primary, secondary, and college/university education, they don't have any skills that they can use to establish their own ventures for self-employment. Admittedly, current education offers theoretical studies that cannot help students as they complete their studies to establish their own self-employment.

The lack of credit facilities is another challenge faced by the youth. Certainly, many youths could have started self-employment opportunities or embarked on income generating activities, but they lack start-up capital. Additionally, there are limited financial credit facilities that are available for youths whereby financial institutions have stringent conditions that are almost impossible to meet by most youths.

The emphasis put on formal sector alone is yet another youth challenge. While GOT emphasizes creating a conducive working environment for private sector, the implementation has been contrary. The private sector is in a difficult situation as there has been no support at all, to an extent that some of the private investors have pulled out. Neglect of the agriculture sector and rural areas in general that currently makes it not attractive to young people. Studies including (ILO, 2010 & 2014) show that productivity acreage outputs and income in the sector is low. Such a

situation cannot therefore help the youth to employ themselves through agricultural activities. However, GOT has embarked on proactive policy measures to mitigate the challenges of youth unemployment (URT, 1996 and Msambichaka, 1989) include firstly, is the introduction of Education for Self-Reliance Program in 1967 in an endeavor to change the education system and prepare students for the rural life they would live after completing their studies. The education for self-reliance program was also meant to offset part of boarding costs incurred by the government in providing education. The program, however, failed to reform the education system particularly because the attitude of students towards self-reliance never changed. Although the intention was good, the education for self-reliance failed to change the attitude of teachers and students towards work.

Secondly, is the enactment of the Human Resources Deployment Act (HRD, 1983) which is one of the major attempts to tackle the unemployment challenges in a realistic way. Through the act, the government legislated that all able-bodied individuals must engage themselves in productive employment and it denounced loitering in urban centres. The government went to an extent of earmarking places (Gezaulole in the Cost region) where people would settle after leaving urban areas. The idea behind the HRD Act of 1983 was to create self-employment for the unemployed labour force in Tanzania. There were, however, some operational problems which prevented effective implementation of the HRD Act. There were no sufficient preparations in the camps in which the HRD Act, therefore, failed or at best had minimum impact in reducing the youth unemployment challenges in Tanzania.

Thirdly, is the formation of vocational training whereby a number of vocational training centers have been established or authorized at national, regional, and district levels aimed at training post-formal education youths in practical skills that permit them to self-employment (McKenzie, 2012). The centers, however, have tended to be affected by similar problems facing other training centers including underfunding, shortage of equipment, and ill trained and unmotivated staff.

Fourthly, is the creation of Youth (Economic Groups and National Service) Camps that meant to create self-employment to youths, and a number of such camps were established by the youths' wing of the ruling

political party that included the Madale camp in Coast region, Mahenge in Iringa region, and Merela in Morogoro region. However, all the camps failed as a strategy for reducing youth unemployment as they were affected by low participation by youths, inadequate preparation, low capital investment, and lack of skills development.

Lastly, is the establishment of youth attitude change programs. A comprehensive youth employment should include programs that are aimed at promoting an attitude change among young people. The youth should be enlightened on several things which include the available opportunities, vocational institutions in terms of creating employment, and the potential of Tanzania or East Africa for that matter. Many youths think that college/university education is critical without which there is no future has a neglect attitude towards technical and vocational institutions that helped so many world economies developed over years ([http://www.uneca.org/era/2005/d/chapter 5/.pdf](http://www.uneca.org/era/2005/d/chapter%205/pdf))

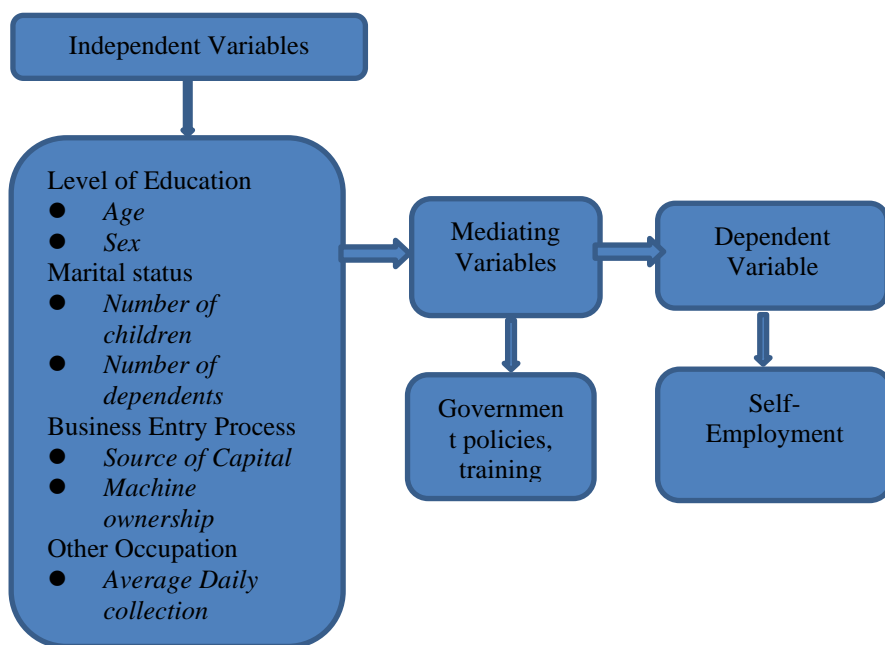


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted at Morogoro Municipality (Msamvu, Main Stand). The Msamvu Main Stand is very busy as various buses come in from and leave to different (district and regional) destinations including

neighboring countries, but more so there are many Bodabodas serving passengers as an alternative transport to cabs. In a way, passengers are at liberty either to go for cab transport or choose the most affordable Bodaboda. The study adopted a cross-sectional research design. A combination of simple random and convenience sampling technique was used to select 50 Bodabodas for an interview using structured interview guide. Descriptive statistics were computed to find the distribution of the respondents. Frequencies and percentages were computed, and where possible content analysis was done. Statistical data analysis was facilitated using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section addresses the results and discussion on the basis interviews that were handled with the respondents.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondent

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondent

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Education Level				
Primary	13	26.0	26.0	26.0
Secondary	36	72.0	72.0	98.0
College	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
Age				
18 to 35 years	44	88.0	88.0	88.0
36 to 45 years	6	12.0	12.0	100.0
Sex				
Male	50	100.0	100.0	100.0
Marriage Status				
Single	18	36.0	36.0	36.0
Married	26	52.0	52.0	88.0
Divorced	6	12.0	12.0	100.0
Number of Children				
None	16	32.0	32.0	32.0
Less than 5	26	52.0	52.0	84.0
5 to 10	8	16.0	16.0	100.0
Number of Dependants				
None	11	22.0	22.0	22.0
Less than 5	20	40.0	40.0	62.0
5 to 10	10	20.0	20.0	82.0
Over 10	9	18.0	18.0	100.0

Source: Researchers Survey Data, 2017

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics (level of education, age, sex, status of marriage, number of children, and number of dependents) of the respondents. For the level of education of the respondents, 13 (26%) had primary education; 36 (72%) had secondary education; and only one (2%) had a college education. For age of the respondents, 44 (88%) were 18 to 35 years old while the remaining six (12%) were from 36 to 46 years old. In terms of sex, all the fifty respondents (100%) were male. In terms of the status of marriage, 16 (36%) of the respondents affirmed that they were single; 26 (52%) of the respondents affirmed that they were married; while six (12%) of the respondents affirmed that they were divorced. For the number of children of the respondents, 16 (32%) had none, 26 (52%) had less than 5, while eight (16%) had five to ten children. And, for the number of dependents of the respondents, 11 (22%) had none, 20 (40%) had less than five, 10 (20%) affirmed had from five to ten, while nine (18%) had over 10 dependents.

Demographically, the characteristics have indicated that all respondents were male youth with majority having ordinary secondary school (or lower) education, aging 35 or below, with over half of them married and having appreciable number of children and dependents (one to ten). This implies that despite low levels of education that is not linked to any specific skills of the respondents, there is an indication of high dependency ratio. Such features are related to the ILO (2014) structural explanation of unemployment and in line with the conventional belief that entrepreneurship is mostly the province of the very young (Stangler, 2013).

Entry Process, Capital Sources, Machine Ownership, and Other Occupation

Table 2: Entry Process, Capital Source, Machine Ownership, and Other Occupation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Business Entry Process				
Employed by Owner (Kipande)	20	40.0	40.0	40.0
Hired motorcycle (day worker)	3	6.0	6.0	46.0
Bought own motorcycle	14	28.0	28.0	74.0
Family bought motorcycle	11	22.0	22.0	96.0
Borrowed a friend's motorcycle	2	4.0	4.0	100.0
Sources of Capital				
Family money	10	20.0	20.0	20.0
Hired from owner (Kipande)	20	40.0	40.0	60.0
Small business money	9	18.0	18.0	78.0
Wage from employment	6	12.0	12.0	90.0
A transferred contract motorcycle	2	4.0	4.0	94.0
Hired from a friend	3	6.0	6.0	100.0
Machine Ownership				
Own	21	42.0	42.0	42.0
Rental	29	58.0	58.0	100.0
Other Occupation/Activity				
None	46	92.0	92.0	92.0
Farmer	3	6.0	6.0	98.0
Barber shop	1	2.0	2.0	100.0

Source: Researchers Survey Data, 2017

Table 2 presents entry process, sources of capital for business operations, ownership of machines (motorcycles), and other activity/occupation. With respect to entry process, the respondents affirmed that 20 (40%) were employed by owner commonly known as Kipande in which case the owner had to be paid Tshs. 30,000 per day; 3 (6%) hired motorcycle (day worker); 14 (28%) bought own motorcycle; 11 (22%); family bought motorcycle; and 2 (4%) borrowed a friend's motorcycle. And, with respect to the sources of capital for business operations, the responses were 10 (20%) from family money, 20 (40%) hired from the owner (Kipande), nine (18%) from small business, six (12%) from employment wage, three (6%) from motorcycle contract transfer, and two (4%) hired from a friend. Regarding motorcycle ownership, the respondents affirmed that 21 (42%) were self-owned while 29 (58%) were rented. And in

terms of other activities, 46 (92%) of the respondents affirmed that they had no occupation other than Bodaboda, three (6%) of the respondents were farmers, while only one (2%) had barber shop.

It can be noted in this case that with mixed modes of entry into business (Kipande and hiring leading the role), the majority of Bodabodas stayed for at most five years with over half of the motorcycles rented. This Bodabodas influx reflects efforts toward youth employment generation through self-employment cementing the view that despite self-employment being a major source of creation jobs in developing countries it has become a necessity rather than a choice for workers who have limited access to capital to start their businesses (Margolis, 2014). With capital, it means there were diverse sources for doing business with hiring from owners (Kipande) appearing as the most prominent one. And, the Bodabodas had to observe the normal ordinary legal dimensions of doing the business. Otherwise, it can also be learnt that majority of the respondents depended on Bodaboda as the main activity/occupation for earning them daily bread, probably confirming what Margolis (2014) noted that roughly two thirds self-employment activities chosen in developing countries result from individuals having no better alternatives, and furthermore, individuals in need who do not have access to subsistence agriculture will start their own microenterprises to earn at least the minimum necessary to survive.

Rent Paid, Average Daily Collection from Business, and Type of Use of Money

Table 3 specifies the rent amount paid, the average daily collections, and categories of expenditures for the Bodaboda business. Regarding rent amount paid (Table 16), 21 (42%) respondents revealed that the payment was not applicable meaning they were owners. Otherwise, 28 (56%) respondents paid from Tshs. 5,000 to 10,000 while only one (2%) respondent paid over Tshs. 10,000. From Table 17 the responses on the average daily collections were two (4%) for less than Tshs. 20,000; 42 (84%) from Tshs. 20,000 to 39,000; and six (12%) from Tshs. 40,000 and above. Otherwise, from Table 18 on the categories of expenditures, the responses were 32 (64%) for submission as Kipande to the owner as agreed payment used as business working capital and for personal expenses while 18 (36%) for retaining as personal and family expenditure as well as business working capital.

Table 3: Business Rent Paid, Average Daily Collection & Type of Use

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Business Rent Paid				
Not applicable	17	34.0	34.0	34.0
Shilling 5000 to 10000	32	64.0	64.0	98.0
Over Shilling	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
Average Daily Collection				
Less than Shilling 20000	2	4.0	4.0	4.0
Shilling 20000 to 39000	42	84.0	84.0	88.0
Shilling 40000 to 59000	6	12.0	12.0	100.0
Type of Money Use				
Submission (Kipande) to Owner, business working capital, and personal expenses	32	64.0	64.0	64.0
Personal & family expenditure and business working capital	18	36.0	36.0	100.0

Source: Researchers Survey Data, 2017

The message from the previous paragraph is that half of the business collections made by majority of the Bodabodas were exhausted for settling rental bills for the machines (motorcycles) submitted to owners as Kipande that was used as business working capital and for personal expenses. A similar use applied to the retained proportion of the collections indicating that the business environment provided the operators with a survival possibility.

Owning Bank Account, Amount and Number of Times Money is Deposited, and Other Money Keeping Options

Table 4 explores whether the respondents had bank account, whether the money deposited was from their businesses, specifies the number of times the money was deposited, and the available options in keeping money. Regarding whether the respondents had bank account, the respondents indicated that 13 (26%) had bank account while 37 (74%) had no bank account. Regarding whether the money deposited was from their businesses, 13 (26%) respondents said yes while 37 (74%) of them said no. Regarding the number of times the money is deposited, 37 (74%) respondents revealed that they didn't do that, 12 (24%) respondents revealed that they deposited less than 5 times per month, and only one (2%) respondent affirmed to deposit 5 to 10 times. Regarding the available options in keeping money, 35 (70%) respondents said they kept

money through mobile network (M-pesa, Tigo-pesa, Airtel-money, and Halo-pesa) while 15 (30%) said they kept money elsewhere.

Table 4: Owning Bank Account, Money & Number of Times Deposited, and Other Money Keeping Options

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Have Bank Account?				
Yes	13	26.0	26.0	26.0
No	37	74.0	74.0	100.0
Business Money Deposited				
Yes	13	26.0	26.0	26.0
No	37	74.0	74.0	100.0
40000 to 59000	6	12.0	12.0	100.0
Number of Times Money is Deposited				
Not applicable	37	74.0	74.0	74.0
Less than 5 times per month	12	24.0	24.0	98.0
5 to 10 times per month	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
Other Money Keeping Options				
Not applicable	15	30.0	30.0	30.0
Mobile network (M-pesa, Tigo-pesa, Airtel money, Halo-pesa)	35	70.0	70.0	100.0

Source: Researchers Survey Data, 2017

The foregone paragraph indicates that majority of Bodabodas had no bank accounts, and even the minority few who had accounts did not deposit money related to their businesses. This is directly linked to less frequency of depositing the money as opposed to the developed financial habit of keeping money using the available mobile networks including M-pesa, Tigo-pesa, Airtel-money, and Halo-pesa. This gives the impression regarding limited availability and use of financial (particularly bank) services coupled with poor saving culture linked to entrepreneurs. This calls for the banking system to extend its linkage arm to tap the seemingly unmet green population of entrepreneurs that has resorted to be friendly to the mobile network services.

Cost Package per Day and Business Benefits to Individual/Family/Community

Table 5 addresses the cost package faced per days well as benefits gained at personal/individual, family, and community levels. With respect to the cost package faced per day, the responses were 49 (98%) for a range of

Tshs. 10,000 to 20,000 and only one (2%) for a range of Tshs. 21,000 to 30, 000. The respondents mentioned personal/individual benefits gained from the business to include paying taxes, buying food and clothes, paying for accommodation as well as paying for health services and school fees while those gained at family level to include family care and supporting relatives. Otherwise, the respondents revealed the benefits gained at community level to be in relation to provision of transport services, social services, and monetary contribution in relation to burial ceremonies and marriages.

Table 5: Cost Package per Day and Benefits to Individual/Family/Community

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Cost Package per Day				
TShs. 10000/= to 20000/=	49	98.0	98.0	98.0
TShs. 21000/= to 30000/=	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
Individual Benefits				
Paying taxes, buying clothes and food, paying for accommodation, paying for health services and school fees	50	100.0	100.0	100.0
Family Benefits				
Family care and help relatives	50	100.0	100.0	100.0
Community Benefits	12	24.0	24.0	98.0
Provide transport services, make monetary contributions to community say in burial and marriage services	50	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Researchers Survey Data, 2017

The previous paragraph indicates that for majority of the Bodabodas, the daily cost package was half of the daily collections mentioned earlier. Several benefits were mentioned that included at personal/individual level as paying taxes, buying food and clothes, paying for accommodation, health services, and school fees; at family level as family care and supporting relatives; and at community level as provision of transport services, social services, and monetary contribution in relation to burial ceremonies and marriages. This is in line with Williams (2004) view that for the successful ones the potential business gains might outweigh the costs, otherwise fall short of them.

Legal dimensions observed, Safety of Passengers & Luggage, and Reasons for Many Hospitalized Motorcycle Patients, Record Keeping & Use, and Business Challenges

Table 6: Legal dimensions observed, Safety of Passengers & Luggage and Reasons for Many Hospitalized Patients, Record Keeping & Use, and Business Challenges

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Legal Dimensions Observed				
Driving license, insurance cover, road license, uniforms, shoes, and helmet	50	100.0	100.0	100.0
Safety of Passengers & Luggage adhering to road safety rules, observing road signs, non-speedy driving, driving when sober, seriousness and carefulness when driving	50	100.0	100.0	100.0
Reasons for Many Hospitalized Motorcycle Patients				
Non-adherence to road safety rules, speedy driving, careless and reckless driving, driving while drunk	50	100.0	100.0	100.0
Record Keeping				
Yes	5	10.0	10.0	10.0
No	45	90.0	90.0	100.0
Records Use				
Not applicable	45	90.0	90.0	90.0
Track monthly income and expenditure	5	10.0	10.0	100.0
Business Challenges (Inside/Personal)				
Getting sick, passengers requesting service on credit, returning home late, and no daily collections to meet family expenses	50	100.0	100.0	100.0
Business Challenges (Outside/Stakeholders)				
Police custody, Police corruption, paying traffic penalties	50	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Researchers Survey Data, 2017

Table 6 focuses on legal dimensions observed for smooth business operations, the extent the Bodabodas ensure the safety of their passengers and luggage, as well as why they think there are many motorcycle patients hospitalized, record keeping and the use as well as challenges faced from inside and outside the business. On the legal dimensions to be observed as revealed by all the respondents included having driving license, insurance, uniforms, shoes as well as helmet. On one hand regarding the extent the Bodabodas ensure the safety of their passengers and luggage, the respondents mentioned issues including adhering to road safety rules, observing road signs, non-speedy driving, driving when sober, seriousness and carefulness when driving. On the other hand, regarding why they think there are many hospitalized motorcycle patients, the respondents mentioned reasons that include non-adherence to road safety rules, speedy driving, careless and reckless driving, and driving while drunk. Otherwise, the challenges faced from inside include sickness, passengers requesting services on credit, returning home late, and no daily collections to meet family expenses while those from outside the business include police custody, police corruption, paying traffic penalties. Accordingly, five (10%) respondents said they keep records on their business transactions while 45 (90%) respondents said they do not. The use of the records is for tracking business monthly income and expenditure.

Although records have good use of tracking business transactions, the majority do not keep (if at all care about) them. In this case there is a call for availing these entrepreneurs with information (possibly through education) on aspects (including the pros and cons) of record keeping and other entrepreneurial skills. Otherwise, most of the challenges from outside relate to violation of road safety measures those from inside are more or less personal, family, and community related.

This means that the Bodabodas had to observe the normal ordinary legal dimensions of doing the business. Of course, the reasons given as the possible explanation for having many hospitalized motorcycle patients present clear practical contradiction. That is, if the mentioned road safety measures are taught to the Bodabodas, then they are loosely (if at all) understood and probably adhered to by the majority. This calls for the responsible stakeholders (including the police, the court, and license authorities) to revisit the existing road safety rules so that more strict

measures can be instituted (including severe penalties/punishments) to the violators that would act as lessons to others committing similar offences.

CONCLUSION

The Bodaboda business has a remarkable impact to the operators as there are gains at personal, family, and community levels. Given the current challenges of unemployment, the remedy is gone for self-employment. It is true that there were some Bodaboda operators that were involved in theft and other queer behavior like going contrary to the regulations. It is suggested policy makers be involved in mitigating the same. Other youth should try to change their mindset, abstaining from job seeking to self-employment. If the Bodabodas have managed, even other youths can possibly do. For this to take place it is advised that major improvements be done to school curriculum so that entrepreneurship flavor is included in all schools necessary for preparing the youth for job creation rather than white collar employment, Additional attitude change program be addressed to the youth so that they don't have to be stigma in other potential areas for entrepreneurial investment like agricultural activities which if effectively and efficiently managed it could bear significant results.

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