AN ASSESSMENT OF POVERTY REDUCTION
INTERVENTIONS IN KIANDUTU SLUM, THIKA WEST
DISTRICT, KIAMBU COUNTY, KENYA

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N50/12301/2009

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Degree of Master of
Environmental Studies (Community Development) in the School of
Environmental Studies of Kenyatta University

AUGUST 2013
DECLARATION
This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University or for any other award.

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To all those households of Kiandutu slum who are actively involved in poverty reduction.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am highly indebted to the Department of Environmental Studies and Community Development for allowing me to pursue a Degree of Master of Environmental Studies (Community Development), the Graduate school for the very informative seminars and meetings pertaining to research and Kenyatta University for granting me a full scholarship for an MSC. Degree.

I wish to sincerely appreciate the material and moral support of the entire staff of the Department of Environmental Studies and Community Development, Kenyatta University particularly, my very able supervisors: Dr. Jane Mutinda, Department of Environmental Studies and Community Development and Dr. Peter K. Kamau, Department of Environmental Planning and Management for their constructive criticism that provided a benchmark on which this study was built. I also sincerely thank members of the Muungano Support Trust Kenya (MUST) for providing the necessary literature that informed this study at its conceptualization stage. My gratitude also goes to Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Community Based Organizations (CBOs), Faith Based Organizations (FBOs), opinion leaders and all other stakeholders who made remarkable contributions during this survey.

It is also noted with appreciation the co-operation of all the local residents visited during the research period. Special thanks go to the Kiandutu slum residents for their role in making this study a success. I would like also to sincerely relay my special gratitude to my lead research assistant Mr. Charles who made sure that I traversed the whole of Kiandutu slum with ease and Mr. Biwott who ensured that I got some documented materials on urban poverty. Above all, I thank the almighty father for the gift of life and protection during the entire life of this project.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AES-</td>
<td>Annual Economic Surveys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APRs-</td>
<td>Annual Progress Reports</td>
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<tr>
<td>APER-</td>
<td>Annual Public Expenditure Reviews</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBO-</td>
<td>Community Based Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>CHW-</td>
<td>Community Health Worker</td>
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<tr>
<td>CRS-</td>
<td>Creative Research System</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSW-</td>
<td>Commercial Sex Worker</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFID-</td>
<td>Department for International Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFRD-</td>
<td>District Focus for Rural Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERS-</td>
<td>Economy Recovery Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERSWEC-</td>
<td>Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employment Creation</td>
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<tr>
<td>EU-</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>FBO-</td>
<td>Faith Based Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>GOK-</td>
<td>Government of Kenya</td>
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<tr>
<td>HDF-</td>
<td>Housing Development Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIPCs-</td>
<td>Highly Indebted Poor Countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO-</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMF-</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>KENSUP-</td>
<td>Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>KIHBS-</td>
<td>Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey</td>
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<td>KNBS-</td>
<td>Kenya National Bureau of Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDF-</td>
<td>Micro-Enterprise Development Fund</td>
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<td>MDGs-</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTR-</td>
<td>Mid Term Report</td>
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<tr>
<td>MUST-</td>
<td>Muungano Support Trust</td>
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<tr>
<td>NEMA-</td>
<td>National Environment Management Authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO-</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organization</td>
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<td>NPEP-</td>
<td>National Poverty Eradication Plan</td>
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<td>PLWAS-</td>
<td>People Living with HIV/AIDS</td>
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<td>PERs-</td>
<td>Public Expenditure Reviews</td>
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<td>PRSP-</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategic Paper</td>
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<td>ROK-</td>
<td>Republic of Kenya</td>
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<td>ROSCAs-</td>
<td>Rotating Savings and Credit Associations</td>
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<td>SAPS-</td>
<td>Structural Adjustment Programmes</td>
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<td>SRDP-</td>
<td>Special Rural Development Programme</td>
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<td>SSEs-</td>
<td>Small Scale Enterprises</td>
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<td>TB-</td>
<td>Tuberculosis</td>
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<td>UNDP-</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNHABITAT-</td>
<td>United Nations Human Settlement</td>
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<tr>
<td>USAID-</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>WMS-</td>
<td>Welfare Monitoring Survey</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>WSSD-</td>
<td>World Summit for Social Development</td>
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<td>WWICS</td>
<td>Woodrow Wilson International Centre for Scholars</td>
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ABSTRACT

Poverty has often been seen as a purely rural problem but for many developing countries, the pervasive nature of urban poverty constitutes an enormous challenge for policy makers and in development efforts. Poverty reduction tools and approaches that have been developed for rural poverty reduction cannot be replicated in urban areas because urban poverty is different in nature from rural poverty hence, understanding the nature of urban poverty as well as having accurate data that presents its dynamics, trends and conditions is vital. Kiandutu slum is one of the largest slums located in Kiambu County. It consists of poor people majority of whom are unemployed resulting from the closure of many industries in Thika town and the collapsing of coffee plantations rendering the residents to live in abject poverty. This research focused on the effectiveness of organizations working in Kiandutu Slum to reduce poverty, it assessed the poverty coping strategies employed by residents in Kiandutu, challenges facing poverty reduction interventions in Kiandutu Slum and recommended some comprehensive poverty reduction strategies.

The study employed a survey design targeting 350 households which were systematically selected at a confidence level of 95% and confidence Interval of 5.18. Focus group discussions were held with the Community Health Workers (CHWs), Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Data collected was then analysed through SPSS (version 12) and presented inform of graphs, tables, texts, pie charts and photographs.

The results indicated that poverty coping strategies could be grouped in terms of: economic activities, expenditure and purchasing pattern, rural-urban ties, social network and community participation. The challenges facing poverty reduction included: inadequate housing and environmental services, lack of clear and secure tenure, informality, inadequate information, high levels of insecurity and high unemployment rates. Recommended poverty reduction strategies included: formulating clear and consistent city/town development strategies, revision of tenure security and property rights, empowering vulnerable households and disadvantaged groups, expanding microfinance, credit systems and income generating activities in Kiandutu slum, improving social infrastructure, shelter and physical infrastructure, capacity building, HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation, decentralization, community organization and mobilization.
CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background
Almost half of the population of the world now lives in urban areas and this proportion is increasing with a projection of almost 5 billion in 2030 (Baker, 2008). Urban centres provide considerable social, economic and political opportunities for poor people. They are places where poor people can have a range of employment options, can participate in local political movements, and can benefit from access to a wide range of key services, education, health, electricity, solid waste collection and welfare programmes. They are also, for many, places of squalor, pollution and crime. With the rapid growth of cities, especially as seen in developing countries over the last 30 years, the urbanization process needs to be managed better to ensure that it becomes a mechanism through which poverty in the developing countries can be reduced on a sustainable basis (DFID, 2001).

For many developing countries particularly those in Sub-Saharan Africa, the pervasive nature of urban poverty constitutes an enormous challenge to their development effort. The burgeoning streams of rural-urban migrations arising partly from failure to significantly improve on agricultural productivity and living conditions in rural areas and partly from the relative attractions of urban centres have tended to fuel the growth and expansion of poverty regimes within urban areas. Two decades of research on poverty, however, indicate that Africa is still far from fully understanding the many strands of issues that condemn individuals and communities especially in urban and metropolitan areas of developed and developing countries to being mired in the web of poverty or being unable to pull themselves out of poverty. The situation in Sub-Saharan Africa deserves special attention not only because the region presently has the fastest rate of urbanization in the world, but also because, unlike elsewhere in the world, the incidence of poverty continues to deepen in most countries of the region (WWIC & USAID, 2007).
Poverty refers to the lack of basic necessities of life and opportunities for human development. It is multi-dimensional and manifests itself in various forms, making its definition using one criterion impossible. It is pervasive and widespread among all socio-economic groups threatening the very foundation of society (Ayako, 1997). Poverty in Kenya is caused by a number of factors, which include: low agricultural productivity, insecurity, unemployment and low wages, poor governance, misallocation of land, inequality of income and assets, inequality in access to economic opportunities, lack of education, unfavourable climatic conditions, HIV/AIDS, gender insensitive property rights regimes and weak democratic institutions (Nafula et al., 2005).

There has been a continuous growing acknowledgement, by governments and development agencies alike, that poverty is a phenomenon affecting urban communities as much as rural ones, and that poverty in the country’s urban areas requires far more attention in terms of policies and strategies than it is currently being given (DFID, 2001).

Internationally, there have been a series of important global meetings and regional conferences deliberating on poverty, including The World Social Summit 1995, Recife conference 1996 and the Habitat conference, 1996. The latter two focused on urban poverty, which is growing as a result of the rapid urbanization and poor economic performance that the developing countries are experiencing (Hardoy, 1990). In Kenya, poverty alleviation has featured as a priority policy objective in virtually all development plans, sessional papers, presidential commissions, task forces and other government economic policy documents issued in post-independence Kenya (Nafula et al., 2005).

1.2 Problem Statement
In spite of efforts in recent years by the central government, local government, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations and international organizations, relative and absolute incidence of chronic poverty continues to rise
whilst poverty reduction remains a formidable challenge to development efforts in most countries (DFID, 2001).

In Kenya, the number of poor Kenyans increased substantially over the ten-year period 1999-2009. In 1992, the number of poor people in Kenya was estimated at 11.3 million (44.8% of the total population). It rose to 13.4 million (52.3%) in 1997 and further to 17 million in 2000 (56% of the population) before declining slightly to 46% in 2005/2006. This however still translated to nearly 17 million Kenyans living in poverty and taking into account the post election violence of 2008 and the drought that hit the country thereafter, poverty levels have remained stubbornly high to date (GOK, 2009). Poverty leads to deprivation, isolation, alienation, insecurity and despondency. Low income poverty manifests itself in the form of malnutrition, high mortality rate, illiteracy, lack of access to basic education, drinking water, main health facilities and shelter.

To date, Thika municipality where Kiandutu slum is located lacks fact-based and detailed information on Kiandutu households, its built environment, infrastructure, economic activities, environmental conditions and threats, social and community organization, and flows of people and economic activities across parts of Thika town. There is also dearth of knowledge on the programmes being supported in the slum by various donors which in most cases results in overlaps of poverty reduction programmes.

The study was thus driven by the need to understand the roles of both Kiandutu community and external agencies in poverty reduction and point out the challenges that have so far undermined their success towards poverty reduction in the slum. It particularly aimed at establishing how best partnerships and networking among key stakeholders can lead to more innovative solutions to the problems experienced by Kiandutu residents.
1.3 Justification

Why should there be a concern about poverty reduction in Kenya? By 2020, 40 percent of Kenyans will live in cities and, in 2033 Kenya will reach another tipping point because half of its population will then be living in urban areas (World Bank, 2011). Currently, between a third and half of Kenya’s urban population live in poverty; Decreased employment opportunities, the decline in real wages, rising food and fuel prices and acute housing shortages, are all manifestations of the falling socio-economic conditions of the urban poor (Oxfam GB, 2009). The 2006 Kenya Integrated Household and Budget Survey (KIHBS) found out that 46% of the total Kenyan population is absolutely poor (below the poverty line) (KNBS, 2007).

Thika District where Kiandutu slum is located presents all forms of poverty including food and absolute poverty. Indeed, poverty incidence is on the increase due to factors such as unemployment, collapse of agricultural sector, collapse of industries, poor infrastructure and the rise in HIV/AIDS. The prevalence of poverty in the district currently stands at 48.4% and is manifested in various forms such as inaccessibility to education and inadequate education facilities (GOK, 2005).

Urban poverty reduction requires the collaboration of many different groups in the city: The municipality, the urban poor communities, the private sector and non-governmental organizations (Municipality of Phnom Penh, 1999). Of interest to this study therefore, is the critical understanding of the efforts being undertaken by various organizations in the fight against poverty as it is well known that poverty has many dimensions and causes hence, making it clear that different kinds of action are needed at different levels (international, regional, national and sub-national) if urban poverty is to be significantly reduced.

1.4 Research Objectives

The broad objective was to assess the efforts of Kiandutu slum dwellers and other external agencies in poverty reduction.

The research was guided by the following specific objectives:
1. To assess the effectiveness of organizations working in Kiandutu Slum to reduce poverty
2. To assess the poverty coping strategies of Kiandutu residents
3. To assess the challenges facing poverty reduction interventions in Kiandutu Slum.
4. To recommend measures that need to be undertaken to improve poverty reduction strategies in Kiandutu Slum

1.5 Research Questions
The study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. How effective are the organizations working in Kiandutu in reducing poverty
2. What poverty coping strategies are currently being employed by Kiandutu slum dwellers?
3. What are the challenges facing poverty reduction interventions in Kiandutu slum?
4. What measures need to be undertaken to improve poverty reduction strategies in Kiandutu Slum?

1.6 Conceptual Framework
Figure 1.1 below shows the interaction between components of poverty reduction on one hand and institutional strength or capacities required for successful implementation and sustainability on the other.

Poverty reduction efforts are influenced by policies, structures and capacities of institutions involved. This requires the formation of partnerships against poverty through mobilization and deliberate allocation of financial and human resources towards pro-poor activities that are likely to stimulate economic growth. Appropriate policies which would encourage stakeholder participation in poverty alleviation and stimulate economic development would be a pre-requisite for successful poverty reduction programmes.
Arguably, poverty reduction efforts, which are hinged on partnership and collaboration and supported by policies targeting the very poor, are devoid of conflict or duplication of in implementation.

The capacities of the institutions and their financial resource base determine the choice of poverty alleviation programmes. Such choices would strongly be influenced by both physical and human infrastructure required to successfully implement the program. Institutions with wide range of capacities and adequate resources tend to undertake varied poverty reduction programmes while institutions with limited infrastructure engage in less income generating activities.

Again, the policies relating to poverty reduction and contextual factors e.g stakeholders determine the types of programmes undertaken. The community for instance, is so important in the conceptualization, planning, budgeting and implementation of programs, which are beneficial to them and their ability to carry out the tasks on their own.

The stakeholder context also includes external factors such as attitudes, policies, legal and institutional frameworks which influence the successful implementation of poverty reduction programmes. The benefits of poverty alleviation programmes can be assessed more by communities and stakeholders who helped initiate and manage them while policies create an enabling environment for stakeholder participation in choosing and implementing programmes.

In all, the integration of institutional capacity with policies and stakeholders would influence the extent to which poverty reduction programmes would be sustainable (Omiti, et al., 2002).
Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework for Poverty Reduction

**Institutional capacities**
- Quantity and quality of resources for outreach activities
- Level of financial resources
- Physical and human resources
- Transparency and accountability
- Community involvement in planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation
- Geographical and sectoral coverage

**Policies**
- Legal frameworks e.g. land ownership, tax rebates
- Institutional structures for poverty reduction by sector e.g. agriculture, health, education etc.
- Equitable distribution of social and economic resources
- Budgetary allocation, alternative sources of funding and management
- Transparency and accountability
- Inbuilt monitoring and evaluation
- Decentralisation of decision making from central government to the periphery

**Stakeholder Context**
- Role of community, government and development partners e.g. bilateral and multilateral donors, local and international NGOs, CBOs, religious organizations, well wishers etc.
- Fundraising and assisting communities conceive projects
- Stakeholder forum for poverty reduction
- Stakeholder managed poverty alleviation fund coloured by project

**Poverty Reduction Strategies**
- Capacity building for local institutions and communities in conceptualisation, identification, planning and budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation for sustainability
- Structures encouraging collaboration among stakeholders in poverty alleviation
- Relief and welfare projects
- Stakeholder secretariat for poverty reduction projects
- Tax exemptions for goods targeting the poor

**Poverty Reduction Programs**
- Land tenure
- Legal rights to property
- Water and sanitation
- Appropriate technologies in agriculture
- Access to low interest rate credit
- Access to market for increased production
- Improved infrastructure like road network

**Outcome**
- Sustainability of projects
- Improved living conditions
- Increased productivity
- Buoyant national economy with increasing growth rate
- Reducing incidence of poverty
- Reduced vulnerability
- Increased employment rates
1.7 Significance and Anticipated Output
This research makes valuable contribution in regard to the body of knowledge on the household characteristics of poverty and ongoing poverty reduction interventions in Kiandutu slum. The information will be vital for Thika Municipality officials and civil society organisations that intend to roll out some poverty reduction strategies in future.

1.8 Definition of Significant Terms:

**Household Strategies**: are those implicit principles that guide household members when seeking household goods for coping with urban life. This suggests that people can choose and choices make a difference, despite the economic or social constraints they face. By pooling resources, by working in both formal and informal economies, by the self-construction of shelter, by self-provisioning, and by the skilful use of social networks, families avoid entrapment in a self-perpetuating culture of poverty (Bryan, 1994).

**The Concept of Poverty**
Poverty can be viewed in absolute, relative terms and subjective terms. Absolute poverty refers to subsistence below minimum, socially acceptable living conditions, usually established based on nutritional requirements and other essential goods while relative poverty compares the lowest segments of a population with upper segments, usually measured in income quintiles or deciles. Subjective poverty is the feeling that one does not have enough to get along (Paul, 1994).

Poverty interventions can be categorized as follows:

**Agricultural Interventions**: These include urban agriculture which is an important survival strategy for the poor through provision of household income, cheap source of food. Further, it can also improve nutrition and health (IDRC, 1993). Green houses for growing tomatoes, carrots, kales, green pepper, brinjals and beetroots would aid in poverty reduction.

**Water**: Community involvement in planning (including conducting demand surveys), implementation and maintenance of small water supply systems or the tertiary end of large distribution systems is vital. Such participation ensures that supply will be better
targeted to the needs and demands of the community and maintenance of part of the network will be safeguarded (World Bank, 1998).

**Sanitation and Solid Waste Management:** For instance, informal recycling processes, small scale composting for urban agriculture and conversion of waste to energy are interventions that come in handy as far as solid waste management is concerned. Communities should be encouraged to participate in such activities (Poerbo, 1995).

**Economic Empowerment:** For example: supporting small enterprises and micro enterprises (including street vendors), increasing access to job opportunities, supporting home based income generating activities and social insurance (Wegelin, 1995).

**Poverty Reduction:** It is a deliberate process of targeted interventionist policies, programmes and projects aimed at reversing the trends of all forms deprivations (Kirui, 2003).

**Slum:** A slum, as defined by the United Nations Human Settlement Programme (UN-HABITAT) is a rundown area of a city characterized by sub-standard housing and squalor and lacking in tenure security (UNHABITAT, 2003). Although their characteristics vary between geographic regions, they are usually inhabited by the very poor or socially disadvantaged. Slum buildings vary from simple shacks to permanent and well maintained structures. Most slums lack clean water, electricity, sanitation and other basic services.

1.9 The Scope of Study

The study was conducted in Kiandutu slum within Kianjau sub location found in Makongeni location, Thika West division, Thika West district in Kiambu County. The Study mainly assessed the effectiveness of organizations working in Kiandutu to reduce poverty, the poverty coping mechanisms employed by Kiandutu residents and challenges faced by both kiandutu residents and external agencies in poverty reduction then recommended comprehensive measures to reduce poverty.
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
Statistics indicate that the proportion of the urban population that are poorest of all (the ‘food poor’ and ‘hardcore poor’) has been on the rise (Oxfam GB, 2009). Poverty analyses based on income alone are inadequate and the true level of urban poverty is much higher than such analyses would suggest. Furthermore, while governments may invest in the richer areas of large cities, many smaller urban centres and low income districts receive fewer investments in both socio-economic aspects triggering migration. It is accepted that initiatives in rural areas to slow migration are no longer relevant: First, because the growth of most urban populations has an internal dynamic (in some cities, growth results more from natural increase than from migration) and second, because the essential role that the urban poor play in supporting urban and hence national economies has now been realized (Hall, et al., 1996).

Urban poverty in Kenya is now so severe that the Kenyan government, NGOs and donors, alike can simply not afford to ignore it. While statistics differ, over a third of Kenya’s urban population is living in poverty by any measure. Recent World Bank/Cities Alliance figures indicated levels closer to a half, and also suggest that by 2020, urban poverty will represent almost half (48.9%) of the total poverty in the country (Oxfam GB, 2009).

Urban poverty is inextricably linked with the process of rapid urbanisation in Kenya, which means that it is likely to continue to increase as the country urbanises unless sufficient measures are put in place (Oxfam GB, 2009). The World Bank report: Kenya: Accelerating and Sustaining Inclusive Growth, 2008, warns that it cannot be assumed recent growth has translated into poverty reduction: despite the growth, 17 million Kenyans (almost half the entire population) live below the poverty line and often sleep hungry. Unemployment is spiralling, particularly among the youth, around 2.5 million of whom are jobless (Daily Nation, 2009). Moreover, the proportion classified as the ‘urban food poor’ (they are even poorer than the ‘absolute poor’ and
can barely meet their nutritional requirements, let alone other basic needs) is on the increase. Economic growth has also concealed high and rising inequalities in urban areas: income disparities in Kenyan cities increased between 1997 and 2006, whereas those in rural areas have on average gone down. Rising inequalities can severely hamper both poverty reduction efforts and economic, as well as leading to increased conflict and violent crime (ibid.).

2.2 Nature of Poverty

Poverty is conceived as: “A human condition characterized by the sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security and power necessary for the enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights” (Oxfam GB, 2009).

Poverty is multidimensional and its persistence is linked to interlocking multidimensionality: It is dynamic, complex, institutionally embedded, and a gender and location specific phenomenon. The pattern and shape of poverty vary by social group, season, location and country (World Bank, 2000).

Six dimensions feature prominently in poor people’s definitions of poverty: First, poverty consists of many interlocked dimensions. Although poverty is rarely about the lack of only one thing, the bottom line is always hunger (lack of food). Second, poverty has an important psychological dimension such as powerlessness, voicelessness, dependency, shame and humiliation. The maintenance of cultural identity and social norms of solidarity helps poor people to continue to believe in their own humanity, despite inhuman conditions. Third, poor people lack access to basic infrastructure (roads, transportation and clean water). Fourth, while there is a widespread thirst for literacy, schooling receives little mention or mixed reviews. Poor people realize that education offers an escape from poverty (but only if the economic environment in the society at large and the quality of education improve). Fifth, poor health and illness are dreaded almost everywhere as a source of destitution. This is related to the cost of health care as well as to income lost due to illness. Finally, the poor rarely speak of income, but focus instead on managing assets
(physical, human, social and environmental) as a way to cope with their vulnerability (Ibid.).

2.3 Rural and Urban Poverty
The rural-urban distinction is not always clear and simple however, there is considerable migration between the two areas, and the flow of remittances can have an equilibrating effect (reducing expenditures in urban households and increasing incomes in associated rural ones, or vice-versa). In addition, income-based poverty lines that are not differentiated on a rural-urban basis may not account for the higher cost of living in cities and the lack of access to land for self-production. In other words, urban dwellers may have more income but also higher expenses and less (or no) access to land to grow food. 1 US dollar per day goes much further in satisfying basic needs in the rural areas as it does in the urban areas (Vandenberg, 2006).

2.3.1 Urban Poverty
Poverty as a multidimensional phenomenon is perhaps best exemplified in urban areas as powerlessness (Oxfam GB, 2009). It tends to exhibit eight major aspects. These are:

- Inadequate income which gives rise to inadequate consumption of necessities including food and safe and sufficient water, problems of indebtedness with debt repayments significantly reducing income available for necessities;
- Inadequate, unstable or risky asset base both material and non-material including educational attainment and housing for individuals, households or communities;
- Inadequate shelter which is typically of poor quality, overcrowded and insecure;
- Inadequate provision of “public” infrastructure comprising piped water, sanitation, drainage, roads, footpaths, and so on which increases health burden and often work burden;
- Inadequate provision of basic services such as day-care centres, schools, vocational training centres, health-care clinics, emergency services units, public transport, communications and law enforcement;
• Limited or no safety net to ensure that basic consumption can be maintained when income falls as well as to ensure access to shelter and health care when these can no longer be paid for;

• Inadequate protection of poorer groups’ rights through the operation of the law including laws and regulations regarding civil and political rights, occupational health and safety, pollution control, environmental health, protection from violence and other crimes, protection from discrimination and exploitation; and

• Poorer groups’ voicelessness and powerlessness within political systems and bureaucratic structures, leading to little or no possibility of receiving entitlements; organizing; making demands; and getting a fair response. No means of ensuring accountability from aid agencies, NGOs, public agencies and private utilities (WWIC & USAID, 2007).

2.3.2 Rural Poverty

Rural poverty is marked by its common connection to agriculture and land, whereas urban poverty is more heterogeneous in how incomes are generated, the rural poor depend very much on agriculture than the non poor (Quibria & Srinivasan, 1992).

Key dimensions of rural poverty which are worth noting include:

• Structural factors concerning access to land and farming implements, to credit and other resources

• Structural factors involving social relations with others who are richer and more powerful

• Access to resources and employment which define the conditions of the family’s livelihood strategies

• Existential dimensions of poverty; its frustrations, insecurity and oppression and how these are expressed and explained

• Social relations and interaction of tension and solidarity within a poor family or household (Bernstein et al., 1992)
2.3.3 Rural and Urban Poverty Compared

The discussion above shows that poverty can be explained in terms of rural and urban poverty. Table 2.1 below shows a comparison of the two:

**Table 2.1: Rural and Urban Poverty Compared**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rural Poverty</th>
<th>Urban Poverty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Livelihoods are drawn from crop cultivation, livestock, forestry or fishing (i.e. key for livelihood is access to natural capital)</td>
<td>Livelihoods are drawn from labour markets within non agricultural production or making/selling goods or services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to land for housing and building materials is not generally a problem</td>
<td>Access to land for housing is very difficult; housing and land markets are highly commercialized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More distant from government as regulator and provider of services</td>
<td>More vulnerable to ‘bad’ governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to infrastructure and services is limited (largely because of distance, low density and limited capacity to pay)</td>
<td>Access to infrastructure and services is difficult for low-income groups because of high prices, illegal nature of their homes (for many) and poor governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fewer opportunities for earning cash; more for self provisioning. Greater reliance on favourable weather Conditions</td>
<td>Greater reliance on cash for access to food, water, sanitation, employment, garbage disposal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to natural capital as the key asset and basis for livelihood</td>
<td>Greater reliance on house as an economic resource (space for production, access to income-earning opportunities; asset and income-earner for owners – including de facto owners)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban characteristics in rural locations (e.g. Prosperous tourist areas, mining areas, areas with high value crops and many local multiplier links, rural areas</td>
<td>Rural characteristics in urban location (urban Agriculture, ‘village’ enclaves, access to land for housing through non-monetary traditional forms...)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
with diverse non-agricultural production and strong links to cities...) (Satterthwaite, 2000).

2.4 Historical Perspectives of Urban Poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa

In many countries, during the colonial period, urban centres were the exclusive residence of white colonialists. The Africans, who provided menial labour for running these cities, were often housed in townships or left to survive as best they could in peri-urban shanty towns. With the end of the colonial regime and especially from the 1960 upwards, there was no more restraining factor and streams of migration into urban centres assumed deluge proportions (WWIC & USAID, 2007).

In the 1960s, the Africanization of the public service and the expansion of parastatal agencies led to a high rate of new employment creation in urban centres, particularly in capital cities and large regional centres. By the 1970s, these increases were further accelerated by the growth in employment opportunities within import substituting industrialization and large-scale service sectors such as banking and tourism. However, with the sharp rise in oil prices after 1973, except for the few oil-producing countries, increasing foreign exchange was needed to maintain and sustain manufacturing bases. For some time, many countries hung on by incurring foreign loans. As the amount of indebtedness involved grew to be more than could be serviced by export earnings, many Sub-Saharan African countries in the 1980s were forced to engage in some form of structural adjustment to their economies. Everywhere, it was a period of harsh economic reality in which an increasing proportion of the population was compelled to operate within the informal sector economy and many were pushed below the poverty line thus, as situations in rural areas deteriorated, many youths both male and female migrated out of the rural areas into the slums and shanty settlements of urban centres (WWIC & USAID, 2007).
The debilitating human and economic poverty of African nations has recently been explained in terms of geography and the environment. (Landes, 1998) quoting Streeten noted that perhaps “the most striking fact is that most underdeveloped countries lie in the tropical and semi-tropical zones (between the Tropic of Cancer and Tropic of Capricorn)”. Poverty reduction in Africa, as elsewhere in the world, has a technological dimension which has to do with the inability of nations to invent and innovate. This state of Africa’s relative disadvantage in technical capability has its historical roots in the colonial era as the colonial masters had taught Africans very little (barely enough to do the subaltern tasks of government) which to a great extent, was political and social discourse rather than science and technical know-how (Ali, et al., 2002).

2.5 Poverty in Thika District
According to the Thika District Strategic Plan for 2005-2010, Thika Municipality is the second most densely populated division in the whole of Thika. In contrast, despite Thika district being a rich agricultural unit, pockets of extreme poverty are found mainly in the urban slums in Thika municipality, Ruiru town and Juja. 48.4% of the population in the whole of Thika district is under absolute poverty and poverty incidence is on the increase due to factors such as unemployment, collapse of agricultural sector, collapse of industries, poor infrastructure and the rise in HIV/AIDS.

The Poverty situation in Thika district is manifested in various forms such as inaccessibility to education and inadequate education facilities. Consequently, there are 70,000 children who need special attention, and at least 137,538 unemployed persons. These factors contribute to a very high number of child-headed homes and children living off and on the streets of Thika town and high incidence of crime, especially in the informal settlements in Thika Municipality.

2.6 International Poverty Reduction Strategies

2.6.1 World Summit for Social Development
World events in the mid-1990s formed the backdrop for the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) which was held in Copenhagen in March 1995, attended by
representatives of 185 countries and over 100 heads of state. The discussion revolved around globalization, dramatic changes in the world economy, poverty, unemployment and social disintegration. These phenomena highlighted the need to give renewed priority to the social aspects of development, with emphasis on the least developed and most isolated countries. WSSD proposed 10 commitments as follows:

- Creating an economic, political, social, cultural and legal environment that would enable people to achieve social development.
- Eradicating poverty in the world through decisive actions and international cooperation.
- Promoting full employment as a basic priority of economic and social policy.
- Promoting social integration and the promotion and protection of all human rights.
- Achieving equality between women and men.
- Promoting and attaining the goals of universal and equitable access to quality education and access for all to primary health care.
- Accelerating the economic, social and human development of Africa and the least developed countries.
- Ensuring that structural adjustment programmes include social development goals.
- Significantly increasing the resources allocated to social development.
- Improving and strengthening the framework for international cooperation in a spirit of partnership.

In order to achieve the above commitments, the Summit participants proposed a Programme of Action based on the three main themes of poverty eradication, expansion of productive employment and reduction of unemployment, and social integration (United Nations, 2005).

2.6.2 Recife Declaration

The Recife International Meeting on urban poverty, organized in preparation for the Habitat II Conference, brought together 128 participants from governments, United Nations agencies, municipalities, private foundations, non-governmental and community-based organizations, and international experts, representing 35 countries
of all regions of the world, in Recife, Brazil, from 17-21 March 1996 (UNCHS, 1996).

The participants carried out an intensive programme of discussion in sectoral groups (focusing on employment and the urban informal sector, access to land and basic services, and social integration), working on poverty reduction issues at different levels (community, municipal, and national), as well as in plenary sessions, addressing general cross-cutting problems and operational proposals. Based on the concrete experience of participants and backed by the conclusions of previous international exchanges on the issues under scrutiny, the Recife meeting discussed strategies for urban poverty reduction to provide recommendations to the City Summit (Habitat II), to community organizations and to institutions at the local, national and global levels (ibid.).

2.6.3 Millennium Development Goals

The eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that respond to the world’s main development challenges are to be achieved by 2015. The MDGs are drawn from the actions and targets contained in what was adopted by 189 nations and signed by 147 heads of states during the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000. The first millennium development goal talks of eradicating extreme poverty and hunger and has two targets: Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger whose first target is to reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day, its three indicators are: World Banks proportion of population below $1(PPP) per day poverty gap ratio, $1 per day and share of poorest quintile in the national income or consumption. The second target aims to reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by using UNICEF’s prevalence of underweight children under five years of age and FAO’s proportion of the population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption as indicators (GOK & NEMA, 2008).

2.7 National Poverty Reduction Strategies (Kenya)

The Kenyan independent government inherited a country that was impoverished. The colonial economy had a dual structure such that on one hand, there was a rich white settler class that occupied much of the high potential agricultural land and controlled key sectors of the colonial economy and on the other, there was a low productivity
commodity agriculture sector providing a livelihood for the African majority at barely
subsistence level subsequently, one of the main pre-occupations of the independent
government was to increase indigenous participation in the monetary economy and to
promote ownership and control of productive assets. The government envisaged that
the economy would grow at a high rate that would allow the benefits to trickle down
to the lower classes. Evidently, poverty alleviation strategy was enshrined as a priority
area in the policy documents produced after 1963 (Kulundu et al., 2000). The
government envisaged to control poverty through two broad strategies, that is, rural
development and the creation of employment.

The first attempt to tackle poverty was outlined in the Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1965
on African socialism and planning, often referred to as Kenya’s economic blueprint,
in which the government promised to reorganise and mobilise resources in a
concerted assault on poverty, disease and lack of education in order to achieve social
justice, human dignity and economic welfare for all (GOK, 1965). In the translation of
policy into practice, the government embarked upon massive land transfers under the
auspices of the Million Acre Scheme (MAS) and other settlement schemes. The
government facilitated the transfer of land by providing loans to Kenyans to purchase
whole farms as individuals or groups (companies or co-operatives) from the departing
white settlers (Adhola, 1979).

The above strategic measure was intended to provide employment and generate some
income for the settled families. The novel ideas of African socialism were
implemented only to a limited extent mainly because the emergence of class interests
masked an inequitable distribution of resources among the different ethnic groups.
Subsequently, poverty has continued to increase over the past decades, though un-
proportionally in the different regions.

Another way of promoting rural development was the Special Rural Development
Programme (SRDP) which operated between 1970 and 1976 (Livingstone, 1981). The
SRDP did not go beyond the pilot stage as a result of management problems.
An additional onslaught on poverty was embodied in the fourth National Development Plan of 1979-83. In the Plan the government expressed dissatisfaction with the economic growth in the country, particularly the inequitable distribution of wealth between various classes and regions. The government’s attention to poverty was drawn by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) study on Employment, Income and Inequality in the country in 1972. The ILO mission observed that although Kenya had experienced an impressive rate of growth in the previous decade, the problems of unemployment and poverty continued to affect the majority of the population (ILO, 1972). The mission identified the landless, the working poor and female-headed households as those who bore the brunt of poverty. The mission recommended the redistribution of resources and income earning opportunities throughout the economy.

Accordingly, using the 1979-83 development plans, the government embraced principles of equity through generation of employment and redistribution. This was the first direct attempt to address the twin problems of unemployment and inequality in formal planning. The agriculture sector was to be revamped through the provision of credit, extension, marketing and transport services to farmers. It was reckoned that the sector would absorb most of those seeking employment and provide income for those living on the margins of the economy. Further, the plan advocated decentralisation and creation of cottage industries in the rural areas. With these strategies the government targeted an economic growth rate of 7.4 percent rising from the previous percentages of 6.3 and 6.7 in the first and second National Development Plans, respectively (GOK, 1979).

Further government efforts to address poverty were embodied in the decentralisation policy introduced in 1983 under the auspices of the District Focus for Rural Development (DFRD) strategy. The principles of spatial and institutional de-concentration of resources were implemented with novel objectives but the politics of patrimonialism prevented their realization as was manifested in an unprecedented increase in the flow of resources to the areas which were allegedly ‘neglected’ by the government. Subsequently, the marginalisation of the Central Province which was
purported to have benefitted from the previous regime was an obvious consequence of clientelist politics (Holmquist and Ford, 1992).

In 1986 Kenya adopted the *Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986 on Economic Management for Renewed Growth* which was cognisant of the importance of the informal sector. The paper stipulated that stimulation of the informal sector was to result from macro-economic policies such as the strategy to raise farm productivity and income tariffs and encourage the substitution of labour for machinery (GOK, 1986). The paper encouraged people to form *jua kali* associations and to approach banking institutions for credit facilities. The sector was re-discovered and embraced by the government and other development partners. The Sessional Paper on Small Enterprise of 1992 was pivotal in confirming the importance that *jua Kali* be attained in Kenya’s development agenda. The paper highlighted the missing link in Kenya’s micro enterprises and made recommendations to various ministries on how to empower the artisans (King, 1996).

In spite of these efforts by the government to stem poverty, the situation was grim. Amidst the macro-economic crisis caused by mismanagement and a changing international economy, poverty levels escalated especially in mid 1990s. The Welfare Monitoring Survey (WMS) of 1997 showed that poverty affected at least 3.7 million in 1972 but had highly increased to 11.5 million in 1994 and 12.5 million in 1997 (ROK, 2002). By 2001 poverty afflicted at least 56 percent of the 30 million Kenyans (ibid.).

In response to escalating poverty levels the government established the Poverty Eradication Commission in 1999. Its original task was to oversee the implementation of the National Poverty Eradication Plan (NPEP) which had been drawn up in line with demands of the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) of 1995. The summit mandated the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to ‘organise the United Nations system's efforts toward capacity building at the local, national and regional levels and to support coordinated implementation of social development programmes through its network of country offices’ as stated by principle 1 of Rio Declaration on Environment and Development. Accordingly, the NPEP proposed a
fifteen-year time horizon to fight poverty while also striving to make some achievements in the realisation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

In September 1999, UNDP launched a major new initiative to support Government's NPEP and its PRSP discussed through its programme on "good governance for poverty eradication". This four-year programme had five components covering capacity building for participatory planning and poverty eradication; targeted policy implementation and legislative reforms; strengthening local governance to alleviate rural and urban poverty; civic education, justice and human rights; and communication for good governance. Crosscutting and related interventions included gender mainstreaming and empowerment of women, HIV/AIDS and disaster management. UNDP viewed this programme as a continuation of its support for government's initiatives aimed at poverty eradication that during the last programming cycle included a Pilot Programme on participatory Development for Poverty Eradication (the sub-programme for poverty alleviation in Kenya) (GOK, et al., 2000).

The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) was prepared in 2001. At the behest of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the primacy of the PRSP framework lay in the attainment of the twin objectives of economic growth and poverty reduction. Economic policies and strategies earmarked for implementation under the PRSP fell within a three-year macro-economic framework aimed at promoting robust economic growth and poverty reduction. The PRSPs were seen as a voice for the poor or as a veil for Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs).

The Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERSWEC) was presented in June 2003 to the IMF and the World Bank as a document that was to fulfil the function of a PRSP (GTZ, 2004). It presented a multifaceted strategy to meet economic growth, equity and poverty reduction, and governance objectives. To spur economic growth, the ERS committed to strengthening the macroeconomic framework, assuming a responsible fiscal stance, and providing a conducive environment for private sector investment in the productive sectors and, specifically, in infrastructure development and maintenance. To reduce poverty, ERS focused on
universal primary education, improving access to basic health, development of traditionally overlooked arid and semi-arid areas, and upgrading the living conditions for the urban poor. To enhance governance, ERS proposed a far reaching reform of the judiciary, strengthening of rule of law and security, and implementing reforms in public administration systems that are critical to improving government transparency and accountability (IMF, 2005).

As part of the programme, the government committed its resources and efforts in the achievement of the millennium development goals and an additional set of outcome indicators, as well as input, output and process indicators, related to economic growth, poverty, education, health, and water, among others (ibid). The various reports and surveys published since publication of the Economic Recovery Strategy (ERS) for Employment and Wealth Creation, 2003 - 2007 in 2003 including the Annual Economic Surveys (AES); the Annual Progress Reports (APRs), the Annual Public Expenditure Reviews (APERs), the Mid-Term Report (MTR) of the ERS, the Annual APRM Report and the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) all attest to significant progress being made the ERS period. The economy recovered from a low growth of 0.5 per cent in 2003 to 7 per cent in 2007. As a result of the strong growth performance, real per-capita income increased at an annual average rate of 3 per cent over the recent period while poverty declined from 56.8 per cent in 2000 to 46 per cent in 2006 (IMF, 2010).

Kenya’s Medium Term Plan (MTR), took over from the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation, 2003-2007 and constituted the first phase in the implementation of Kenya Vision 2030, whose aim is to transform Kenya into a modern, globally competitive, middle income country, offering a high quality of life for all citizens by the year 2030. The prominence given to equity measures in this document is therefore expected to contribute to the overall national economic growth. In support of the goal of achieving high economic growth rate of 10 per cent by 2012, the plan contains detailed policy measures and interventions that will be implemented in all sectors of the economy. The policies have also been prepared to bring about a higher and sustainable growth with equity. In this regard, the government is committed to attaining the target of reducing the number of Kenyans currently living
below the poverty line, from 46 per cent to 28 per cent. Accordingly, this plan also outlines specific policy interventions that will be implemented in various sectors to ensure the realisation of this important goal (ibid.).

Kenya’s 2010 constitution provides for the devolution of governance to 47 counties. It has established a Commission on Revenue Allocation (CRA) (Article 215) whose principal function is to recommend the basis of sharing of national revenues “between the national and county governments (and) among the county governments” (Article 216). Article 203 (2) provides that the money set aside for the counties – deposited in the County Revenue Fund (CRF) – be at least 15 percent of all government revenue, with one of CRA’s roles being to determine what the actual proportion should be. Another important role for CRA is to divide the CRF resources equitably, that is according to relative need, among the 47 counties. Equity requires affirmative action; that resources be shared in a way that enables less developed counties to reduce the welfare gap between them and the more developed ones, but without denying resources to the latter with which to progress further (USAID, 2011).

2.8 Gaps Identified by the Researcher
Currently, poverty reduction national programmes lack a good management structure located within the government rather than outside it. Poverty is a multidimensional problem which should be addressed by a multi-sectoral approach cutting across government departments and ministries ordination. Handing the responsibility of poverty reduction to a single ministry which generally lacks authority to other ministries hinders successful poverty reduction.

Documentation on poverty reduction activities, their success and failures, poverty reports and maps influence national and sectoral policy decisions and allocations of resources in favour of the poor and how the information has been used by the non-governmental sector (donor agencies and the civil society). Unfortunately, the information is not sufficient or readily available thus denying policy makers the foundation on which to back their funding decisions towards poverty reduction. In addition, there are inadequate consultations between producers and users of poverty statistics and qualitative poverty assessments. The poverty information and its mode
of presentation may therefore need to be harmonized with the specific needs of users within government and among development partners.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Area
Kiandutu settlement falls in Kianjau Sub location found in Makongeni Location, Thika West Division and Thika West District. The settlement also falls in the larger Kamenu Ward that forms part of the Thika Municipality in the South Eastern Side. The settlement is divided into ten villages (see figure 3.2). These include: Mtatu A, Mtatu B, Mosque, Stage Wariah, Centre Base A, Centre Base B, Biashara, Mukinduri, Kianjau and Molo. Other smaller slums within Thika Municipality include: Matharau, Kiang’ombe, Gachagi and Umoja settlement.

Figure 3.1: Regional Context of Kiandutu Slum in Thika Municipality

Muungano Support Trust, 2012
3.2 Research Design

A research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted: It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Kothari, 2004). The study was a descriptive research (research concerned with describing the characteristics of a particular individual or of a group) that sought to examine poverty reduction interventions in the study area. It identified the actors involved and their specific roles with regard to poverty reduction in Kiandutu slum; focused on poverty coping strategies of Kiandutu households; assessed the challenges facing the poverty reduction process and recommended comprehensive poverty reduction strategies.

The type of design adopted for this particular study was survey. A survey is an attempt to collect data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to one or more variables. It is therefore a self-report study which requires the collection of quantifiable information from the
Sample. It could be descriptive, exploratory or involving advanced statistical analysis (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999).

Survey research seeks to obtain information that describes existing phenomena by asking individuals about their perceptions, attitudes, behaviour or values. It is probably the best method available to social scientists who are interested in collecting original data for the purposes of describing a population which is too large to observe directly. Surveys are also excellent vehicles for the measurement characteristics of large populations. Surveys are however limited by factors such as: they are dependent on the cooperation of respondents, unknown information cannot be tapped in a survey, requesting for information which is considered secret and personal encourages incorrect answers and surveys cannot be aimed at predicting the future (ibid.).

In view of both arguments for a survey, it was considered the most appropriate for this study for various reasons. One is because Kiandutu slum population was too large to observe directly therefore the need for a sample representative. It was also in an attempt to come up with field data on poverty reduction interventions in the slum. Such issues of poverty and poverty reduction interventions could only be appropriately derived from research.

3.3 Target Population
The sample consisted of Kiandutu household heads, Ministry of Housing officials, community health workers, Kiandutu self-help groups, community based organizations, non-governmental organizations, Kiandutu chief, village elders, Juja constituency development officials and Thika municipality officials.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure
A sample size refers to the number of items to be selected from the universe to constitute a sample while a sampling procedure is the technique to be used in selecting the items for the sample (Kothari, 2004).

The sample size was determined using sample size calculator software known as Creative Research Systems (CRS). CRS was founded in 1982 to provide software for market researchers, political pollsters, human resource professionals, social scientists,
and others who use questionnaires. The CRS uses the following formula in the calculation of a sample size

\[ \text{ss} = \frac{Z^2 \times (p) \times (1-p)}{c^2} \]

Where:

\( \text{ss} = \) sample size,

\( Z = Z \) value (e.g. 1.96 for 95% confidence level)

\( p = \) percentage picking a choice, expressed as decimal (0.5 used for sample size needed)

\( c = \) confidence interval, expressed as decimal (e.g., 0.4 = ±4)

Population size for Kiandutu households was 3,591 (KNBS, 2010). A sample size of 350 households was selected for interview schedules from Kiandutu slum at a confidence level of 95% and confidence interval of 5.18. The other respondents: 3 Ministry of Housing officials, 5 non-governmental organizations, 5 village elders, 1 Juja constituency development official, 2 Thika Municipality officials and Kiandutu chief filled in and returned the questionnaires. Finally, to supplement the data from interviews and questionnaires, focus group discussions for 10 community health workers, 10 Kiandutu self help groups, 5 community based organizations and Kiandutu youth were held. This was very important as issues such as challenges facing poverty reduction in Kiandutu slum were discussed at length.

3.4.1 Systematic Sampling

Systematic sampling for the households was used because Kiandutu slum houses are systematically built and recently, physically numbered by Muungano Support Trust. The first household to be numbered was picked then every 10th household was considered as an element under study.
3.4.2 Targeted Sampling
With the help of Kiandutu residents, pre-identified and registered self help groups, community based organizations, community health workers and non-governmental organizations were selected for focus group discussions.

3.5 Data Collection Methods
The methods used to gather field data included: questionnaires, interviews schedules, focus group discussions, reviewing of documented literature, photography and direct observation.

3.5.1 Household Interview Schedule
The household interview schedule (targeting the father, mother or a young adult aged 21+) was deemed suitable owing to the high illiteracy level among the respondents (Kiandutu slum dwellers). The questions comprised both closed-ended and open-ended targeting the heads of households.

3.5.2 Questionnaires
Questionnaires consisting of a set of both open-ended and closed-ended questions were used to obtain information from the Thika Municipal council officials, Ministry of Housing officials, village leaders, group leaders, community based organizations and non-governmental organizations operating in the slum in areas of poverty reduction.

3.5.3 Direct Observation and Photography
Socio-economic activities, the physical environment, housing, physical infrastructure, water and sanitation and drainage in the slum were observed directly in-order to obtain information relating to the subject of study. Still photographs were also taken to capture the general state of the in Kiandutu slum.

3.5.4 Focus Group Discussions
Participatory data collection was used under the banner of Focus Group Discussion (FGD). (Stinson, 2000) observes that FGD is done over a relatively shorter period of time (a few days to a few weeks) and while collecting data in this manner, emphasis is put on learning directly from local inhabitants. This methodology was used to collect
views from the stakeholders concerning the challenges facing the poverty reduction activities in Kiandutu slum and their perception on an effective ways to improve on the existing poverty reduction activities. The discussions were chaired and moderated by the researcher assisted by the research assistant. The views generated by the discussants informed the study.

3.5.5 Review of Documented Information

A review of both published and unpublished information on the study area and the subject of study formed part of the data gathering methods. These included: UN-Habitat and World Bank publications, national and local development plans, government documents (like the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and Vision 2030 and a review of journals and magazines.

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

The questionnaires and household interview schedules consisting of a set of open and closed ended questions were examined to ensure they were completed and consistently filled. The response questions were numerically coded and responses stored in a database template using a computer software; Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 12).

3.6.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentages and cross tabulations were used to summarize the data. The results were presented using bar graphs, tables, pie charts and photographs.

3.6.2 SWOT Analysis:

The Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats model (SWOT) was used to gauge the effectiveness of the existing poverty reduction interventions in the study area from the focus group discussions. This was useful as a basis for the study.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the findings of the study and attempts to answer the research questions posed by the study at the outset.

4.2 Characteristics of Respondents
This section presents the ages and sex distribution of members of the resident community. It also focuses on education levels, occupation, and sources of income for Kiandutu households as well as the membership in community groups and group activities.

4.2.1 Household Ages and Gender
An analysis of respondent's age indicated that most of the respondents (35%) are aged between 30-39 years followed closely by 25% who are in the 20-29 age bracket as shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Age Groups in the Study

![Age Groups in the Study Area](image)

Source: Field Survey, 2012
The respondents were not evenly spread in terms of gender, with men comprising of 35% male and 65% females. This was due to the fact that men worked away from home while women operated their businesses from home for example retail shops.

**Figure 4.2: Gender of Respondents**

![Gender of Respondents](source: Field Survey, 2012)

Majority of those living in the slum were therefore young people 25.4% for the 20-29 age group and 35.4% for the 30-39 age group. These young people need employment and training opportunities to upgrade their lives and livelihoods. This is also the group that requires programmes that are aimed at laying a platform for self employment.

**4.2.2 Education, Occupation and Income Sources**

Majority (59%) of the residents in the study area had attained primary education. Of those interviewed, 59 percent possessed primary education, while only 1.4 percent were college/ university graduates as shown in figure 4.3 below.
Figure 4.3: Education Level

![Bar chart showing education levels.

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Figure 4.3 above provides information on the highest educational level attained amongst the residents of Kiandutu slum indicating that more than half of the slum population had completed primary school. At secondary level, the percentage of slum-dwellers attending school dropped. This can therefore be interpreted to mean that on the one hand with many people in the slums having received basic education (88%), literacy levels were likely to be relatively high so there was potential to capitalise on their human capital assets. On the other hand however, the drop in students at the secondary level to 30.3% meant that urgent intervention was required to ensure high secondary enrolment.

Table 4.1: Education of the Respondent by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent’s Education</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Formal Education</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012
A comparison between level of education and gender revealed that more females than males had no primary and secondary education. At no formal education and tertiary education, there is near gender parity in education.

The employment sector indicated that only 4.9 percent of the respondents were formally employed. 45.4% were self employed, 5.1% were unemployed and 44% did temporary work (See figure 4.4 below).

**Figure 4.4: Occupation of Kiandutu Households**

![Occupation of Kiandutu Households](image)

**Source: Field Survey, 2012**

The informal sector continues to be the main source of employment generation in the country growing apace while the formal sector remains relatively static. Informal employment rose from 5.5 million in 2003 up to 6.4 million in 2005, while in 2002, the 5.1 million people working in the informal sector accounted for nearly three-quarters of the total employed in Kenya at that time (KNBS, 2006). Informal sector enterprises have the following characteristics: They have ease of entry, Rely on indigenous resources, family ownership of enterprises, Small-scale of operation, labour-intensive and adapted technology, skills acquisition outside the formal school sector and unregulated and competitive markets (Meier & Rauch, 2000)
The Kenyan informal sector usually operates on small-scale, locally and at a subsistence level. They have fewer employees (especially home-based enterprises), they operate for a shorter period, and have poor access to water and electricity and few sell outside the establishments where the entrepreneurs live (World Bank, 2006).

The most common micro-enterprises found in Kiandutu slum fell into the following broad categories (see figure 4.5):

- Retailing and food services including: trading, hawking, kiosks food preparation and sales;
- Small manufacturing/production, construction, and repair of goods
- General services such as hairdressers, laundry, transport, medicine, photo studios;
- Entertainment services, including bars, local brewing and pool tables.

**Figure 4.5: Commercial Structure Use**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Commercial Structure Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retail Shops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grocery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailoring Shops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Kiosks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barber Shops</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

The study further sought to investigate the monthly household incomes of the respondents. The findings show that a majority of the respondents (42.5%) earned K.shs.5,001-10,000 per month). Only 11 people (4%) earned above KSHs 15,000, see table 4.2
Table 4.2: Monthly Income Sources for Kiandutu Households (KSHs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount in KSHs</th>
<th>Below 2,500</th>
<th>2,501-5,000</th>
<th>5,001-10,000</th>
<th>10,001-15,000</th>
<th>Above 15,000</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>37.0%</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

As indicated in Table 4.3, the distribution of household incomes showed that at lower income levels, it was near gender disparity (i.e. below Ksh. 10,000 per month). As the income ladder increases, the proportion of males becomes greater than that of females, signifying that generally, males are better off economically than females in the area.

Table 4.3: Respondents’ Household Income by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly Household Income (in KSHs)</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 2,500</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,501-5,000</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,001-10,000</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>116</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,001-15,000</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 15,000</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

4.2.3 Social Groups in Kiandutu Slum

Social groups are a common occurrence among the poor. The study found out that of the 350 respondents interviewed, 37% were members of the existing social groups in the different clusters of Kiandutu slum. The respondents identified many types of social groups that included: rotating savings and credit associations, youth groups,
business groups, welfare groups (mainly funeral), and fellowship groups (mainly religious) which acted as a poverty coping strategy.

4.3 Organizations Working Towards Poverty Reduction in Kiandutu Slum

Poverty reduction is multi-dimensional process that involves a diverse range of stakeholders and actors. These include among others the slum dwellers themselves (tenants and slum lords), civil society organizations (non-governmental organizations, community based organizations, faith based organizations), professionals and business sectors, central government, local authorities and state corporations, politicians and opinion leaders, local and international development cooperation agencies, print and electronic media. These stakeholders are all critical to poverty reduction. With well understood common objectives, the success of poverty reduction can be achieved (GOK, 2005).

4.3.1 External Organizations Working in Kiandutu Slum

The following were the external organizations working in Kiandutu slum as identified by the residents.

4.3.1.1 Governmental Organizations

Government’s role in poverty reduction includes: policy, legal framework, coordination, resource supply, global communication, monitoring and evaluation while the local authorities’ core mandate is to implement projects that are within their areas of jurisdiction. The Kenyan government has taken lead in two main slum upgrading projects i.e. Kenya Informal settlements Improvement Program (KISIP) and the Kenya slum upgrading project (KENSUP). KENSUP is a project actualized through a memorandum of understanding between the government of Kenya and UN-HABITAT to upgrade slums in Kenya.

The Ministry of housing and the Ministry of Public Health and Sanitation were the main government actors identified in Kiandutu slum.
### Table 4.4: Government Organizations in Kiandutu Slum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Organization</th>
<th>Poverty Reduction Interventions in Kiandutu Slum</th>
<th>Challenges Facing Poverty Reduction Activities in Kiandutu Slum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Housing</td>
<td>Upgrading infrastructure in Kiandutu slum for instance, they were in the process of finalizing the construction of a 7km sewer line and 5km water line.</td>
<td>Lack of coordination with the municipal council of Thika.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Public Health and Sanitation</td>
<td>Training community health workers, waiving hospital bills and providing free medicine for the patients recommended by the social workers.</td>
<td>Lack of collaboration with other nongovernmental health organizations working in Kiandutu leading to duplication of activities hence waste of resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipal Council of Thika</td>
<td>Provision of water and sanitation and lighting</td>
<td>Lack of coordination with line ministries such as the ministry of housing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

It was less clear about what exact channels existed to enable Thika Municipality, the key actor at this level, to liaise and collaborate with government ministries and national agencies with regard to the planning and implementation of projects and interventions under their respective national programmes that focused on Thika. Taking one example, the Ministry of Housing is responsible for overseeing the implementation of Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme (KENSUP) in the urban
centres of the country; yet the role of the municipal Council vis-à-vis that component of KENSUP focusing on Thika was still unclear.

4.3.1.2 International Non-Governmental Organizations

A non-governmental organization (NGO) is any non-profit, voluntary citizens' group which is organized on a local, national or international level. International NGOs often have offices far away from their target areas and employ in most cases persons with socio-economic backgrounds different from their target groups. Their main function is to allocate resources to the requests made by the intermediate or local level NGOs. Often they support the intermediate NGOs in improving their capabilities needed to perform their tasks more effectively and efficiently (Dusseldorp, 1993). Two international organizations were identified as working in Kiandutu slum with an aim of poverty reduction:

Table 4.5: International NGOs in Kiandutu Slum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Organization</th>
<th>Poverty Reduction Interventions in Kiandutu Slum</th>
<th>Challenges Facing Poverty Reduction Activities in Kiandutu Slum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
<td>Provision of food and nutrition supplements to needy families.</td>
<td>Provision of aid in terms of food tackles the symptoms of poverty but not the root causes and promotes a dependency syndrome for beneficiaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action For Children In Conflict (AFCIC)</td>
<td>Provision of comprehensive educational, economic, emotional and psycho-social services to street and other</td>
<td>Limited funds to reach out to more people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.1.3 Non Governmental Organizations

NGOs are professionally-staffed organizations aiming at contributing to the reduction of human suffering and to the development of poor countries (Streeten, 1997). NGOs have an important role to play in supporting women, men and households. Such roles include: counselling and support service, awareness raising and advocacy, legal aid and microfinance. These services help the people to achieve their ability, skill and know how (Desai, 2005).

Table 4.6: Non-Governmental Organizations in Kiandutu Slum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Organization</th>
<th>Years of operation in Kiandutu</th>
<th>Poverty Reduction Interventions in Kiandutu Slum</th>
<th>Challenges Facing Poverty Reduction Activities in Kiandutu Slum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ahadi Kenya</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Rolling out the anti-jigger campaign and treating jigger infested victims</td>
<td>Inadequate basic services such as water and sanitation hamper cleanliness, a potential for minimizing jigger infestation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pendekezo Letu</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>Educating, guiding and counselling and providing family planning services to girls and mothers rescued from the streets.</td>
<td>In-sufficient funds to cater for the increasing number of street girls and mothers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macheo</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>Providing free primary education</td>
<td>Trickle down impacts had not yet been realized (Its</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012
Most NGOs working in Kiandutu slum had generally contributed to the overall improvement of the slum’s living conditions. However, a number of problems reported to have prevented existing programmes from achieving more successful outcomes included: Replication of activities, insufficient financial and human resources, poor coordination of community based projects, unclear administrative procedures and unrealistic standards. In some cases, responses had been reactive and hostile rather than comprehensive, strategic and proactive for instance, when Muungano Support Trust, a local NGO initiated community mapping and enumeration process in December 2011, some village elders mobilized the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NGO</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Love Thy Neighbour</td>
<td>11 Years</td>
<td>Youth Empowerment, Environmental clean-ups and tree planting.</td>
<td>Lack of commitment among the members and no long-term solutions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shining Star</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>Sourcing casual jobs for Kiandutu residents especially the youth.</td>
<td>Limited employment vacancies coupled with inadequate skills among the Kiandutu residents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya Network of Women Living with AIDS</td>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>HIV/AIDS prevention and impact mitigation.</td>
<td>Lack of sustainability which led to its closure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012
community and spread some malicious rumours about the nature of work that Muungano Support Trust had set to do. They even protested by writing a letter to the municipal council of Thika vowing not to accept their indulgence at any cost yet, the enumerations and community mapping exercises launched by the NGO are vital for future planning especially as far as poverty reduction is concerned more so because the municipal council of Thika did not have any database on the situation analysis of Kiandutu. The issues were later resolved and Muungano Support Trust was able to roll out their activities inclusive of Kiandutu community members.

4.3.2 Internal Organizations Working in Kiandutu Slum

Internal organizations or community based organizations are embedded in local social networks which become an important source of information and provide resources that enable the organization to function more effectively. For instance, social networks provide the organization with local knowledge especially on the nature of resource available. This information is so critical for implementing programs and delivering services (Green, 2008).

The following were the legally registered internal organizations working towards poverty reduction and environmental conservation in Kiandutu slum as verified by Kiandutu residents.

4.3.2.1 Community Based Organizations

Table 4.7: Internal Organizations in Kiandutu Slum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Organization</th>
<th>Years of operation in Kiandutu</th>
<th>Poverty Reduction Activities</th>
<th>Challenges Facing their Effectiveness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Molo Development Group</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>Improving living standards of Kiandutu residents through Rotating Savings and Credit Associations (ROSCAS) and engaging in sport activities.</td>
<td>Members had inadequate entrepreneurial skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Oasis Life Skill Youth Group</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>Empowering Kiandutu youths through urban agriculture</td>
<td>Poor knowledge and training on green farming coupled with inadequate equipment, machinery and tools for operating green houses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amani Water Project</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>Purchasing land parcels for members, operating a water stall and ROSCAS</td>
<td>Alcohol and drug use increased the incidences of loan defaulters. Piece meal contributions for plots lengthened the period of time leading to a higher payment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Urban Farmers</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>Urban agriculture, tree planting and environmental conservation</td>
<td>Poor garbage disposal methods which sabotaged their activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Youth AIDS Awareness Group</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>Creating HIV/AIDS awareness campaigns in the slum and Empowering Kiandutu HIV/AIDS victims</td>
<td>Inadequate information and participation especially for PLWHAs who did not come out for fear of stigmatization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upendo Women</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>Informing women on family planning methods, loans and savings</td>
<td>Lack of involvement by men in Family Planning, Unemployment led to inadequate funds which hindered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Environment</td>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>Environmental conservation</td>
<td>Inadequate community participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>through garbage collection and tree planting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiriki Self Help Group</td>
<td>12 years</td>
<td>Housing improvement</td>
<td>Lack of personal initiative by a majority of Kiandutu Residents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Youth</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>Empowering and mobilizing the youth residing in Kiandutu.</td>
<td>Inconsistency, un-clear mandate and improper coordination of activities and projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Residents Welfare Association</td>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>It was supposed to be an entry point for KENSUP.</td>
<td>It relied on funds from external organizations hence Lacked sustainable projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakey Pot and Thika Chani Pamoja Boda boda operators</td>
<td>9 months and 11 months respectively</td>
<td>ROSCAS</td>
<td>The boda boda operators lacked entrepreneurial skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maziwa Love Self Help Group</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>Urban agriculture</td>
<td>The members were always reluctant to attend free agricultural seminars insisting that they had to be paid for attending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Tusaidiane Youth</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>Youth empowerment.</td>
<td>Lack of coordination, commitment and Inadequate information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiandutu Women Group</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>Provision of adult education to women and empowering them in decision making concerning ROSCAS</td>
<td>Lack of commitment and interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Field Survey, 2012**

The study found that the poor residents of Kiandutu were proactive and aware that context-specific poverty reduction and environmental conservation activities could improve their social conditions. Drawing on the practice of Self-Help Groups (SHGs), residents of Kiandutu had transformed their livelihoods, albeit in a small way. With the earnings accrued by self-help groups, women bought basic households goods such as utensils, furniture, poultry, pieces of land, farm inputs and with time, improved their shelter. Through the self-help groups, women were able to meet households’ needs.

It was clear that more women were involved in self-help group activities than men. Indeed, according to one representative of a self-help group, women’s groups in Kiandutu were considered a way of life for most women without which they could not survive. If a woman had withdrawn from a SHG due to inability to pay her dues in the group she felt very powerless and others considered her very poor. Women in Kiandutu politely declined to join a group if they anticipated that it would put them in financial difficulties or cause them embarrassment. In as much as women’s groups empowered women, it was also a source of ridicule for those who defaulted.

Some of the challenges found to be hindering the success of community based organizations in poverty reduction and environmental conservation in Kiandutu included: Inadequate capacity and skills, high illiteracy level among the residents, poor solid and liquid waste disposal methods, inadequate financial resources and poor commitment from the residents of Kiandutu residents.
4.3.2.2 Community Health Workers in Kiandutu Slum

Community Health Workers’ (CHWs) main responsibilities in Kiandutu slum were: to monitor the health and wellbeing of People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA), help build the capacity of household members to care for sick family members, provide psychosocial support, and make referrals for other services as needed. In severe cases where the PLWHA were extremely ill and bedridden, CHWs would take them food. CHWs also helped encourage client adherence to antiretroviral (ARV) medications.

CHWs had been taught basic counselling skills, home-nursing care skills, how to monitor ARV adherence, promote adequate nutrition, assessing the general health status of beneficiaries, and follow-up with bedridden patients. They had also been taught basic skills pertaining to Voluntary Counselling and Treatment (VCT) and prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV as well as reproductive health (including family planning and sexually transmitted infections). The training also covered Tuberculosis (TB) as it had increasingly become one of the most prevalent opportunistic infections among PLWHA. CHWs were trained in basic identification of possible TB infections and made aware of available services and treatment regimens so they could make referrals to TB clinics and follow-up with patients on TB medication. Ensuring care and support for affected household members was also an integral part of their training and home visits. CHWs trained caregivers on the most effective methods of providing care and treatment, monitored hygiene and nutrition of all household members, and extended psychosocial support to affected family members. CHWs had also received training in community mobilization techniques (Thurman, 2008).

A focus group discussion with Kiandutu community health workers revealed their persistent poverty reduction roles and the challenges faced as follows:
Table 4.8: Poverty Reduction Roles of Community Health workers in Kiandutu Slum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poverty Reduction Activities in Kiandutu</th>
<th>Challenges Facing Poverty Reduction Activities in Kiandutu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| • Coordinating the activities of health in Kiandutu slum and acting as a link between Kiandutu residents and the Ministry of Health.  
• Educating Kiandutu community on health issues  
• Providing home based care to people living with HIV/AIDS  
• Providing nutrition programme to malnourished children  
• First Aid services  
• Holding monthly action days whose activities include either of the following: assessing environmental health condition of Kiandutu slum, cleaning (accumulating and burning garbage), spraying mosquito repellants, de-worming children below 5 years, water treatment, draining stagnant water and holding audience with health experts then coming up with monthly reports | • Religious beliefs that prevented people from taking medicine or even going to the hospital.  
• Poverty related incidences like jiggers infestation that worsened the health situation.  
• Shortage of working personnel as it was on a voluntary basis.  
• Alcohol and drug abuse among the residents  
• Community health workers were sidelined by other professionals in the same field and were not fully accepted by Kiandutu community members.  
• Inadequate and improper hygiene |

Source: Field Survey, 2012
4.3.3 Health Organizations in Kiandutu Slum

The following are some vital health organizations in Kiandutu slum:

**Table 4.9: Health Organizations in Kiandutu**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health Organizations</th>
<th>Roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SASA Centre</td>
<td>Creating awareness on Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and behavior change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care for AIDS (CFA)</td>
<td>It caters for people living with HIV/AIDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease (KAPTLD)</td>
<td>It is an organization that monitors tuberculosis infected people to ensure that they are taking their medicine and do not pose health threats to other people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed the Children Operation (FCO)</td>
<td>Attending to severely malnourished children who are referred to them by the community health workers and local health facility. Supplements such as corn, soya and flour are also distributed to the needy families</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya Aids Control Council (KACC)</td>
<td>They train the community health workers on how to care for people living with HIV/AIDS and on nutritional supplements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: (Field Survey, 2012)*

4.3.4 Case Studies on the effectiveness of Organizations Based in Kiandutu Slum Working Towards Poverty Reduction

The following was generated from case studies that were done on three organizations working towards reducing poverty in Kiandutu slum. One of the organization has been able to sustain itself over the years and has had a lot of positive impact in the slum (Macheo), the other organization collapsed in 2009 for lack of funding (Kenya Network of Women with AIDS) and the last one started its activities in December 2011 and has proposed a community development structure that it plans to put in place (Muungano wa Wanavijiji).
4.3.4.1 Macheo Foundation

Profile

Macheo Foundation was set-up in 2005 with an aim of overall poverty reduction in Kiandutu Slum. The organization was ranked the best organization in terms of its effectiveness in the slum. Its achievements in the slum include, but not limited to the following:

Education programme

Macheo Foundation provides a meal at school every day for primary school children who attend Kianjau and Garrissa primary schools which are the two main public schools within Kiandutu Slum. The free meal acts as an incentive for many children to attend school every day. As a result of the educational programme, school performances have noticeably increased. The children are more often present in the lessons and, with a full stomach, they are able to concentrate and follow the lessons better. In addition, Macheo Foundation provides poor families with school uniforms for free hence ensuring that the pupils from needy families residing in the slum are not sent home for lack of school uniform which is a requirement in Kenyan schools.

Economic Empowerment:

Seed capital donation: Seed capital is provided to parents of needy children who want to start a business but are not able to save money to do so (for example because they were not able to work due to health problems, or earn too little). The small amount provided by the programme is used to take the first steps in starting the business.

Micro-credit: Micro credit is granted to needy parents who are interested in starting or improving their businesses. The parents are organised in groups, so they can motivate each other. To be able to apply for a loan, the group must have saved a certain amount to prove that they have financial discipline. The saving is then multiplied three times by a loan which should be paid within 6 months with the profits of their business.

Macheo Foundation has guaranteed its future continuity through the creation of income generating activities whose profits pay up the ongoing costs. For example, Greenhouses: Seven large greenhouses are located behind Macheo centre, where
various different vegetables are grown and sold to the local market. 16 employees who are from Kiandutu are responsible for the greenhouses. They also rear cows for milk production and use the profits to support the education programme.

4.3.4.2 Kenya Network of Women Living with AIDS (KENWA)

Profile
KENWA was started as a Community Based Organisation in 1993 by five HIV infected women who together with their children had been rejected by their families because of their HIV status. It was later registered as a Non-Governmental Organization in 1998. The organization focuses on destitute women and children living in seven slum areas in Kenya: Mathare, Korogocho, Kiambiu and Soweto around Nairobi; Kiandutu in Thika; Mjini in Murang’a and Kiawara in Nyeri.

The main aim of establishing KENWA was mainly to empower People Living with HIV/AIDS through:

- Prevention of mother-child transmission by providing infant formula milk.
- Professional counselling to single individuals and groups living with HIV/AIDS.
- Home-based care scheme to take care of bed-ridden patients
- Treatment of ill patients and provision of at least one meal in a day.
- Educating members on their rights.
- Economic empowerment through income generating activities.
- Training advocacy teams to lobby policy makers.

KENWA which, from 2003 to 2009 provided food assistance to HIV positive people in Kiandutu slum had to shut down its feeding programme due to lack of funding. This back-tracked their poverty reduction achievements as many people have been succumbing to the disease as a result of not taking the ARVs on schedule because the medicine has to be accompanied by a proper diet which they lack. As a result, many children have been left as orphans and the cycle of poverty continues in Kiandutu Slum.
4.3.4.3 Muungano Wa Wanavijiji Profile

Muungano wa Wanavijiji is a nationwide federation of the urban poor that seeks to improve the quality of life of its members through an extensive process of policy advocacy and dialogue with the government (both central and local), civil society and international organisation and communities. By and large, the federation proactively engages its members in saving schemes, advocacy on land regularization, shelter and policy formulation for purposes of building strong relationships between institutional programmes and communities of the target settlements.

Muungano promotes information as a powerful tool and asset for the urban poor. With knowledge and information concerning their settlement and living environment, the slum dwellers develop a strong tool for negotiation with the local authorities. The methods used by Muungano wa Wanavijiji to gather information on slums are all based on slum dweller community participation. They are the ones to conduct enumeration and mapping of their settlements, to count the services available in and around the slum, to define the status of land tenure, tenancy ratios and government structures. Communities receive support from Muungano support Trust, other slum dweller communities in the Kenyan Federation, and fellow SDI affiliates.

Muungano wa Wanavijiji encourages and supports urban poor communities to get organized around Savings and Loans schemes. Members can save for building a house, securing tenure, implementing a development project in to improve their living environment, or for their own individual purposes.

The entire savings process is designed to maximize contact that people have with each other. When people interact with each other on a daily basis – whether it be over savings or loans or an impending demolition – their sense of being a community intensifies. Economic and social networks are formed around their shared identity as members of the urban poor class.

According to Muungano approach, the loan proposal, proposal vetting, loan sanctioning and daily savings collections are the community savings groups’ entire responsibility. It also allows the community to look upon the money as their own and
grow in confidence as they learn how to manage their own funds and operate their own savings and loans system. These are usually organized in a decentralized manner to maximize people’s participation.

**Figure 4.6: Muungano Community Development Structure**

![Diagram of Muungano Community Development Structure]

Source: Muungano Support Trust, 2012

**4.4 Poverty Coping Strategies Employed By Kiandutu Slum Dwellers**

At the local level, communities and households had developed various coping mechanisms and escape routes to evade poverty. Coping strategies can be defined as a set of actions that aim to manage the costs of an event (shock) or process that threatens the welfare of some or all of the household members (Hossain, 2008).

Using coping strategies, communities sought to sustain the economic viability and sustainability of their livelihoods. The poverty coping strategies employed by Kiandutu slum residents were grouped as follows:

**4.4.1 Economic Activities**

Employment was a vital poverty coping mechanism in Kiandutu slum with 4.9 percent of the respondents working in the formal employment sector, 45.4% self employed, 44% doing casual work and only 5.1% as unemployed. At the local level, communities and households developed various coping mechanisms and escape routes to evade poverty for instance, in the service sector, the bicycles, motorbikes
and tuk-tuk were sources of income for the Kiandutu men. Bicycle cyclists charged Kshs 20 from Kiandutu slum to Thika town, Motorbike operators charged Kshs 50 for the same distance while tuk-tuk operators charged Kshs 100 (see table 4.8). This saved time taken to commute to various points as compared to walking while earning a source of livelihood for Kiandutu men as this business was solely male dominated.

Table 4.10: Mode of Transport in Kiandutu and Their Charges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of transport</th>
<th>Charges from Kiandutu to Thika town and vice versa (Kshs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bicycles (boda boda)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motorbikes</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuk-tuk</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Ensuring that more household members were participating in the workforce was another survival strategy for Kiandutu residents. This is why female participation was considerably high. Sometimes the female members used domestic spaces for both multi-functions through operating income-generating activities with the assistance from other family members. Diversification of their sources of income, for instance, engaging in petty trading, selling grocery, poultry rearing and keeping of goats in small sheds within their compounds was mainly observed in the Stage Wariah village. Plate 4.1 shows a male owner herding his goats.
Illegal brewing and selling of liquor was also identified as a strategy that had been adopted by the residents of Kiandutu especially women as a poverty coping strategy.

Prostitution was also rampant in the slum as a source of income. In-fact, Kiandutu CSW’s belonged to a welfare group where each member contributed money which would be deposited in a bank account. According to one commercial sex worker (CSW) who participated in a focus group discussion, the inequitable distribution of economic resources was to a large extent responsible for their activities. To the CSW, prostitution was not despicable act but a survival strategy, which in her own opinion, was as a result of the lack of economic opportunities or power hence condemning the CSWs to the trade as a way of earning a livelihood. The CSW insisted that they should therefore not be seen merely as villains, but rather as victims of poverty.
4.4.2 Expenditure and Purchasing Pattern

During a focus group discussion, the participants indicated that they mostly spent their earnings in fulfilling their basic needs especially for food and shelter and spent very small portion of their earnings on clothing, medicine, education and other incidentals. Food poverty was the most immediate problem that confounded poor women. As households adjusted their budgets, high cost items were deleted from the family diets and nutritional intake was compromised in many ways. For instance, 65% of the respondents said that they used second class proteins to replace first class protein sources such as meat and fish which were more expensive to them or bought bad quality fish from local fish-markets at low costs. In addition, 40% of the women interviewed said they spent much time in the market in pursuit of cheap food stuffs paying little or no attention to the nutritional value of the items. These women rarely went to wholesale markets to buy such small amount of goods though the price of goods in those markets was comparatively lower. In cases of dire financial stress, households were forced to do with less than three meals a day. Indeed a midday meal was a luxury that most households could not afford. Their evening meal comprised maize meal (ugali) and kales as the most common meal (90%) as it was considered cheap.

52% of the households rarely bought new clothes from the market places. Most of them got used clothes from relatives, landlords and employers. They sometimes bought cheap clothes for their family members from second-hand markets. Besides these cheap clothes, they also bought used cookeries, furniture and other household goods from second hand markets at low price.

4.4.3 Rural-Urban Ties

The urban poor migrated from different rural districts due to ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors. Affordable rent (20.9%), Employment (37.7%), marriage (15.4%) and evictions from other informal settlements (5.1%) were major reasons for their migration to Kiandutu slum. Despite living in the slum for a long period of time they did not generally lose their bonds with their villages.
Although the link of Kiandutu households and that of their rural extended families was perceived to be weaker than in the past, 27% of the households relied on food sent from the rural areas to survive while 53% of the households had rural dependants.

4.4.4 Social Networks

Social relationships and ties are a form of capital which are considered as assets that contribute to the development of other forms of community capital such as: human capital, financial capital, environmental capital, physical capital and political capital (Sherraden, 1991).

Kiandutu slum dwellers had networks based mainly on their district of origin for example, New Molo Development consisted of people who were displaced from Molo during the 1992 tribal clashes. About 37% of Kiandutu residents had close relationships with their neighbours. Employment and land lordship also played important role for social networks for a considerable portion of Kiandutu residents. They mostly maintained their relationships with relatives, friends and village fellows who were living in the same community. Only about 16% had connections with the people living outside their immediate neighbourhoods. The poor households who had lived in Kiandutu for a long period of time had wider social network.

The relatives, friends and neighbours helped Kiandutu slum dwellers to mitigate their economic and social crisis with 53% of the poor providing/receiving financial help from their kin, fictive kin and neighbours and another 27% of them providing/receiving non-financial support from these relatives and friends.

4.4.5 Community Participation

Grouping, factionalism and community feud solving were characteristics of the Kiandutu residents. The poor formed committees or used elders to resolve existing conflicts in the neighbourhood. 37% of Kiandutu households were members of different community based political organizations, cooperatives and voluntary organizations. Most (64.6%) were registered city voters.
Community Based Organisations such as women's groups engaged in income-generating activities, which contributed to their economic empowerment for instance, the water kiosks found in Kiandutu Slum were communally owned.

### 4.5 Challenges Facing Poverty Reduction Interventions in Kiandutu Slum

#### 4.5.1 Inadequate Housing and Environmental Services

For the Kiandutu slum dwellers, the need for the main municipal services such as safe drinking water, sanitation, drainage and electricity was evident.

**Drainage:** Kiandutu slum had limited drainage facilities whose carrying capacity was inadequate especially during the heavy rainy season leading to formation of ponds. The storm water drainage channels were not well maintained with many bearing debris. The scenario was even worsened by the terrain which is quite ragged and difficult (Field Survey, 2012).

**Access to water:** In Kiandutu slum, only 6 people (1.7%) of households studied had piped water connected in the house with the majority (45%) purchasing water from water kiosks. 45% of households complained of water shortages and pipes often running dry by indicating that water flowed once in a while and not all the time in-fact. Majority of Kiandutu dwellers (63%) cited unreliability as the main challenge faced as far as water is concerned. In Kiandutu, the price of water ranged from Kshs. 3-5 per 20 litres jerican.
The study found out that water supply in the slum was inadequate and disorganised yet, water and sanitation are considered two of the most fundamental ‘critical urban services’ upon which the management of health and wellbeing in cities depend (Beall, 2009).

**Waste Management:** Improperly managed solid waste poses a risk to human health and the environment causing a variety of problems, including: contaminating water, attracting insects and rodents, and increasing flooding due to blocked drainage canals or gullies. In addition, it may result in safety hazards from fires or explosions. Improper waste management also increases greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, which contribute to climate change (United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2002). Kiandutu slum residents did not have any organized solid and liquid waste disposal methods. In-fact, 96.9% of the households interviewed in Kiandutu said that they dumped their solid waste on any open spaces available and preferably short distances from their houses while 88% of the households disposed their waste water by pouring outside their houses, on the roads. See plate 4.2, figure 4.8 and 4.9 below.
Plate 4.2: Poor Waste Management in Kiandutu Slum

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Figure 4.8: Methods of Solid Waste Disposal in Kiandutu Slum

Source: Field Survey, 2012
Organised methods included: burning, burying, composting while disorganised methods included dumping garbage anywhere within the slum especially outside homes and in empty spaces.

According to Kiandutu residents, organised methods of solid waste disposal meant burning while disorganised methods meant dumping of solid wastes in open spaces or outside their compound. This shows that Kiandutu slum has a very high potential for an Integrated Solid Waste Management (ISWM) that involves: waste prevention, recycling and composting, and combustion and disposal in properly designed, constructed, and managed landfills.

**Figure 4.9: Methods of Liquid Waste Disposal in Kiandutu Slum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pouring on the streets</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pouring in drains</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pouring in pit latrines</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pouring within the house compound</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Field Survey, 2012

**Physical Infrastructure:** There was no single paved road within the settlement and most roads were inaccessible, a factor that led to difficulties in putting off the blaze during a six hour fire outbreak that occurred in July 2011 at a section of Centre Base cluster in Kiandutu slum affecting over 200 households (150 homes and about 50 shacks that served as small shops). Three people were injured as community members struggled to put out the flames. The Thika municipal fire engines were of little use, as the slum has no access roads. (See plate 4.3).
Housing characteristics: Kiandutu slum houses had the following characteristics: (52.8%) were mud walled while 30.3% had their walls constructed from timber. Majority (98.3%) of the roofs of Kiandutu houses had iron sheets while the dominant building material for floor was earthen (95.1%). (See figure 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12 below).
Figure 4.10: Floor Type

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Figure 4.11: Roof Type

Source: Field Survey, 2012
Inadequate housing interferes with poverty reduction activities as it directly affects the health of individuals for instance, dominant use of earthen floors combined with inadequate sanitation can lead to jigger infestation. Adequate housing is therefore an important element in the survival strategy of the poor as it provides them with socio-economic stability and can also be a major form of asset creation and savings. It provides a basis for access to the urban economy and for the poor in particular it and also a key source of employment (Urban Management Programme, 1994). Plate 4.4 below shows the housing typologies in Kiandutu.
Plate 4.4: Housing Typologies in the Study Area

Source: Field Survey, 2012

4.5.2 Lack of Clear Land Tenure

Land tenure can be defined as the terms and conditions on which land is held, used and transacted (Adams, 1999). Kiandutu is a settlement lying on Thika municipal council land (trust land). However, during Focus group discussions with the CBOs representatives, the study deciphered that there was a land dispute involving three groups namely: The Kiandutu slum dwellers, Kiandutu farmers’ co-operative society and Thika municipal council allotees whose allocations were later nullified. This evidently depicted that there was lack of clear tenure in the slum.

Lack of clear secure tenure is a serious impediment towards poverty reduction in the slum as both external and internal parties dealing with poverty reduction hinted that they would not pursue activities that required long term planning owing to the fact that the slum lacked a straight forward tenure hence, uncertainties like possible future evictions of the slum dwellers would not be completely ruled out. In addition, the land situation has had a negative impact in the slum as far as investment is concerned because no one wants to put up a long-term multi-billion investment in an indistinct land tenure system no wonder a careful observation revealed that industries such as Bidco Oil Refinery and Kenya Vehicle manufacturing limited are found on the borders of Kiandutu slum.
4.5.3 Informality of Kiandutu Households

Majority (45%) of Kiandutu households are self-employed. Kiandutu slum had informal-sector enterprises such as micro- and small enterprises and home-based ventures that made major contributions to employment creation for Kiandutu residents. However, limitations such as: inadequate capital to start businesses, reduced access to formal and informal credit, low education and know-how and scarce information about how the formal sector could support them and the formal registration activities was an obstacle towards poverty reduction through the informal sector.

Casual employment for the households stood at 44%. Unfortunately, this group was categorised in the “lowest level work” mostly as, motorcycle taxi- and bicycle taxi drivers, construction workers, electricity and water sellers, motorcycle repairers, rubbish collectors, brick workers and house servants.

The study among Kiandutu slum informal workers revealed that there were many shortcomings restricting the informal workers from working with the formal systems for example: lack of information about registration methods, regulations and costs, low benefits compared to the amount of money that was needed for registration, wide opinion that small companies could not be registered and lack of information about where, when and how to register. Therefore, they were restricted as far as social and economic development of Kiandutu was concerned.

4.5.4 Inadequate Information

Thika Municipality lacked fact-based and detailed information on Kiandutu households, economic activities, social and community organization, and flows of people and economic activities across Kiandutu slum. Lack of such information is an impediment towards the development of effective urban policy for poverty reduction. Lack of such vital data meant that there was no firm basis on which to plan the service needs of Thika town inclusive of the slums or to estimate the financial resources that could be mobilized to be able to provide these services.
The dearth of information on household enumeration, mapping of facilities and services in Kiandutu made it difficult to appreciate the unequal distribution of amenities and services within and outside Kiandutu and therefore weakened the likelihood of proper planning towards effective poverty reduction in Kiandutu slum.

In addition, Kiandutu slum residents were found ignorant of some critical issues that could solve their problems. For example, the linkage between malaria and poor waste management was new to them yet for children (both younger and older than 5 years), malaria (47.8%) was the most prevalent health condition followed by cholera (31.3%) which could be explained by the unhealthy living conditions with the area having open drains and ditches especially during the rainy season.

4.5.5 High Rate of Insecurity

75.4% of Kiandutu households considered the village insecure, 53.1% indicated that there had been increased insecurity in the past year, 36.9% considered the slum to be very unsafe while 38.6% confirmed that one of their household members had been a victim of crime between the year 2010 and 2011. The figure below shows their opinions on security (see figure 4.13 below).

**Figure 4.13: Opinions on Security in Kiandutu Slum**

Source: Field Survey, 2012
Insecurity is a key challenge to investments. For instance, during a focus group discussion, one resident narrated about how she lost her job. Pauline had been employed in one hotel in Kiandutu. The hotel was well known for delicacies such as roasted beef (nyama choma) and soup, in-fact tycoons would drive their big cars during the weekends and public holidays to come and sample the delicacies. The business was doing very well but little did Pauline know that things would change for the worst. Suspected Kiandutu criminals started mugging these clients in broad daylight and others went ahead to steal car parts. More so, some vigilante groups would come and order meat from the hotel and leave without paying. To cut the long story short, the hotel owner had to close down his business and that is how Pauline lost her job.

4.5.6 High Unemployment Rate

According to the World Bank study of 2006, although over two-thirds (68%) of adult slum dwellers are economically active, the unemployment rate is high and stands at 26%. Disaggregating by gender, women were found to be almost five times more likely to be unemployed than men: the unemployment rate was 49% among women compared with 10% among males. Furthermore, 49% of young people aged 15-24 in poor households reported that they were unemployed. Unemployment amongst the youth, currently standing at around 2.5 million, is held to be one of the key factors behind the increasing levels of insecurity and violence in the informal settlements, the post-election violence of early 2008 being one manifestation of the latter (ibid.).

During a focus group discussion with Kiandutu youths, they alleged that their high unemployment rate in the formal sector was as a result of inadequate skills and professional training which exacerbated poverty in the slum as a result of dependency.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter draws conclusions and gives recommendations on the way forward.

5.2 Summary of the Findings
The first objective of the study sought to assess the effectiveness of organizations working in Kiandutu Slum to reduce poverty. The study revealed that there are many existing organizations (internal and external) in Kiandutu slum that work hard towards poverty reduction and environmental conservation in Kiandutu slum however, the efforts of these internal and external organizations are greatly hampered by financial resources limitations, poor coordination of community based projects, inadequate innovation by the slum dwellers, lack of participatory involvement of Kiandutu residents in project development, lack of capacity, skills and sustainability of organizations to ensure continuity.

The second objective was to assess the poverty coping strategies of Kiandutu Slum dwellers. The study established that Kiandutu residents had devised methods of coping with poverty. The various methods were as follows: avoiding high cost food; buying second hand clothes, utensils, furniture and other household goods; relying on food sent from the rural areas to survive; forming fictive networks and close neighbour relationships; grouping, factionalism and communal feud management.

The third objective of the study was to assess the challenges facing poverty reduction interventions in the study area. A number of challenges were identified. These included: inadequate housing and environmental services, lack of clear land tenure, informality, inadequate information, high unemployment rate and high insecurity.

5.3 Conclusion
From the analysis of the findings, several conclusions can be drawn from the efforts of Kiandutu slum dwellers and other external agencies in poverty reduction and
environmental conservation; the poverty coping strategies of Kiandutu Slum dwellers and the challenges facing poverty reduction interventions in the study area for instance, it is clear that poverty is a process and a consequence of the interplay of a multiplicity of factors and multiple intervention measures are a prerequisite in the fight against poverty.

It is clear from the findings that the Kenyan government has not been able to come up with the appropriate leverage to impact significantly on the lives of most of the urban poor Kenyans more so, slum dwellers such as Kiandutu residents as far as poverty reduction or eradication is concerned. Working with multilateral organizations to accelerate implementation and adoption of poverty reduction approaches, setting up gender task team to ensure that the specific issues faced by poor women are addressed in the poverty reduction strategies and a task team to accelerate the adoption of participatory and decentralized processes for the provision of infrastructural and social services is quite vital for the slums especially.

The recommendation sub-section is therefore an indication of the way forward in the event that a meaningful and successful process is expected.

5.4. Recommendations

5.5 Comprehensive Strategies That Should Be Employed in Kiandutu Slums towards Future Poverty Reduction

5.5.1 Formulating Clear and Consistent City/Town Development Strategies

The existence of Kiandutu Slum should be viewed within the broader context of the general failure of Thika urban development policies to meet the challenges of urbanization and poverty. Poverty reduction initiatives taken without measures to address the wider development problems of Thika town are unlikely to solve the problems. Clear and consistent city/town development strategies are therefore vital for poverty reduction in Kiandutu slum.

Actions

The following issues are necessary:
• Supply of sufficient and affordable serviced land from Thika Municipality for the gradual development of economically appropriate low income housing for the poor so as to curb the emergence of new slums.

• Participatory preparation of appropriate Thika town development strategies and land use plans that provide for and support livelihoods of Kiandutu slum dwellers by enabling the slum’s activities to flourish in an organized manner.

• Linking low income housing development to income generation and ensuring easy access to jobs through pro-poor transport and low income settlement location policies.

• Facilitating partnerships among investors and service providers, engaging private sector-civil society finance and instituting measures to support Small Scale Enterprises (SSEs).

• Improving governance and management and strengthening organizational capacity of Kiandutu social groups.

• Ensuring wide provision of basic infrastructure and asset management to Kiandutu residents.

5.5.2 Tenure Security and Property Rights

Land is the main source of livelihood for the poor both urban and rural areas (Mukherjee, 2002). Tenure in informal settlements has two dimensions: Security of tenure, including protection from forcible eviction or relocation which influence considerably the inclination of low-income households to maintain and improve their property and ownership right, including the possibility of letting out all or part of the lot or dwelling, the right to operate home-based enterprises, the ability to benefit from valorisation and the potential of using the property as collateral to obtain formal credit (Majale, 2000).

Kiandutu settlement lies on the land belonging to Thika Municipality. Lack of secure tenure is a common challenge for the dwellers with repercussions such as: Inability to mobilize housing capital, social exclusion, poor access to basic facilities, difficulty in community participation and difficulty in accessing income earning opportunities (GOK, 2005).
Thika Municipality therefore needs to establish systems to provide tenure security (for example, freehold titles or access to rights of ownership) that take into account the culture and particular circumstances of the different communities residing there. The aim should be to incorporate common practices into a formal system. Should the majority of land acquisition practices and tenure systems not fit into the existing legal system, the regulatory and policy frameworks should be adjusted to incorporate those practices.

Systems need not be restricted to freehold titles, but could be flexible. For example, protected-user rights can be gradually upgraded to full ownership rights or communal title deeds. In general, public authorities need to establish and publish guidelines for property registration and development, and property rights should be designed to allow the free transaction of property. Owners should also be allowed to use their property as collateral.

**Actions**

The following actions should take place as far as tenure security and property rights are concerned:

- **Regularization of Kiandutu land** on which the slum lies for purposes of integrating the settlements into the formal, physical and economic framework of urban centres, and above all to guarantee security of tenure and guard against forced eviction.

- **Legislation of tenure and residential security policies regarding Kiandutu slums** to enable residents feel secure about their stay and own stakes in settlement development without fear of arbitrary displacement.

- **Strengthening existing community based organizations in Kiandutu slum** so as to acquire and hold land for the benefit of the community and to provide secure affordable access to land and housing for community members.

**5.5.3 Empowering Vulnerable Households and Disadvantaged Groups**

They include: Poor women, orphaned children, widows, the sick, physically or mentally challenged, the elderly, the stigmatized and single parent poor households in
Kiandutu. They face such challenges as: lack of social security and are not recognized within the slum, sickness and unemployment.

**Actions**

For effective poverty reduction in Kiandutu slum:

- Specifically targeted income generating activities and other social measures (for example, education) should be provided for these groups.
- Poverty reduction actors in Kiandutu slum should be encouraged to collaborate with partners in supporting widows, orphans, the elderly and the physically challenged Kiandutu community members to improve their lives.

5.5.4 Expanding Micro Finance and Credit Systems

Lack of finance is one of the main impediments to dealing effectively with problems faced by Kiandutu slum dwellers in poverty reduction. This has been exacerbated by lack of access to credit for them as well as appropriate housing finance systems coupled with misuse and poor targeting of subsidies for the poor. In order to effectively participate in improvement of their livelihoods, Kiandutu slum dwellers need adequate access to affordable finance both for housing improvement and for creation of employment and income-earning opportunities. They also need conditions and systems that facilitate mobilization of resources through savings.

**Actions**

The following actions should be taken in-order to enhance adequate financial capital

- Facilitating the establishment of micro-finance institutions which can offer small and short term loans and designed to suit repayment abilities of low income families residing in Kiandutu.
- Formation of co-operatives, savings and credit schemes.
- Formulating regulations which recognize a wide range of collateral including co-signers, para-legal titles, legal titles, durable goods and pension fund contributions.

5.5.5 Broadening Income Generating Activities

The situation of poverty, unemployment and lack of income in Kiandutu is appalling and is derailing poverty reduction activities in the slum. Sustainable income generating activities are crucial measures for poverty reduction.
Urban agriculture for instance, enables the poor to not only meet their subsistence needs and provide extra income, but also improve their nutrition and health (Wegelin, 1995). Thika Municipality can support the development of urban agriculture in Kiandutu by developing and disseminating information on land tenure, land capacity, markets and water, and providing for urban agriculture in urban planning. The provision of technical extension services to urban farmers in terms of agricultural practices, soil conservation, proper water use, cropping patterns, small livestock breeding and access to credit may also be an important support action to be promoted and coordinated by Thika Municipality.

**Actions**

Actions to be taken towards creation of income generating activities include:

- Partnerships should be forged with private sector, development agencies and civil society to provide facilities such as markets (open markets and stalls), Micro, small and medium enterprises (Jua-kali sheds and kiosks), skill enhancement centres, power supply for income generating activities, shopping centres and micro finance.

- Conducive regulatory framework within central and local government agencies to enable small-scale industries and businesses to operate in Kiandutu slum.

- Group formation and networking should be used as the main entry point for project activities, security for borrowing and flow of information.

- Micro finance institutions should be enjoined in the development of small and medium enterprises (Jua-kali) in Kiandutu slum through provision of credit lines, business support services and appropriate technologies to enhance human resource development and employment opportunities.

### 5.5.6 Upgrading Social Infrastructure

Kiandutu slum exhibits deficiencies in social infrastructure and facilities necessary to support both social and economic well being of the inhabitants. To raise individual productivity and enhance the quality of life in Kiandutu, provision or upgrading of basic amenities such as water, sanitation, health services, vocational training centres
and recreational facilities (social halls, community centres) should be taken into consideration.

**Actions**
The following actions should take place so as to enhance social infrastructure in Kiandutu slum:

- Forging private/public sector partnerships in the provision of facilities through appropriate incentives.
- Engagement of other development partners including local and international NGOs, CBOs, and development agencies according to their sectoral mandates.
- Facilitating community participation in the provision and management of facilities.
- Promotion of community based solid waste management systems geared towards income-generation through recycling and reuse.

5.5.7 Improving Physical Infrastructure

Kiandutu slum lacks adequate infrastructure such as roads accessibility and does not have adequate sewer systems, drainage, water and sanitation facilities, electricity and street lighting. This poor state of infrastructure has retarded investment in employment and income earning activities which would have a positive impact as far as poverty reduction is concerned.

**Actions**
The following actions would go a long way in enhancing the physical infrastructure in Kiandutu slum:

- Using community based resource mobilization and construction system in the development process to promote ownership and responsibility for future management and maintenance.
- Encouraging all stakeholders to forge partnerships in order to pool resources for the achievement of infrastructure provision. Such partners should include: relevant ministries and departments, Thika Municipality, international
development agencies, NGOs, CBOs, cooperative societies and professional associations.

- Thika Municipality should integrate the provision of services to Kiandutu slum in their development programmes in addition to enhancing capacity of existing facilities within and at the periphery of the slum to ensure that the settlements have adequate infrastructure (sewer systems, water supply and sanitation, accessibility, electricity, drainage system, security and street lighting).

### 5.5.8 Capacity Building

Any successful execution of poverty reduction activities requires availability of adequate human and material resources, adequate preparation, implementation and replication. Limited capacity is therefore an obstacle towards poverty reduction. Capacity can be built by training local personnel and community leaders; increasing the exchange of information among international, national and local organizations and communities (for example, through professional associations of local governments and NGO networks); through direct experience; and by better management of information. The establishment of knowledge networks to enhance learning and institutional memory that can be shared by public and private sector and community agents should be a part of capacity building strategies.

#### Actions

The following actions are mandatory for all stakeholders in capacity building:

- Sensitization of stakeholders (on poverty reduction interventions, proposed action plans, institutional framework, communication strategy, financing mechanisms, performance measures, monitoring and evaluation).
- Education and communication activities (including information gathering, development and exchange).
- Peer exchanges and exposure to other best practices and development activities.
- Enhancement of local capacities for peace through training in innovative approaches for dispute resolution and peace-making (dialogue, involvement of cluster elders and administration).
5.5.9 HIV/AIDS Prevention and Impact Mitigation

In Kiandutu slum, the impact of HIV/AIDS has had catastrophic effects especially on orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) and their care givers. It exacerbated the poverty situation giving rise to opportunistic infections.

**Actions**

The following actions should be taken in order to prevent and mitigate HIV/AIDS:

- Developing capacity at community level for orphan care and support.
- Enhancing capacity for coordination of local partner networks.
- Strengthening the capacity of local authorities to develop and effectively manage HIV/AIDS strategies at community level.
- Supporting local authorities to identify and manage the impact of HIV/AIDS.

5.5.10 Community Organization and Mobilization

A holistic approach to poverty reduction requires the involvement of the beneficiary communities from the onset through a formalized process because it will ensure ownership and success of poverty reduction. It is also essential and critical in ensuring sustainability of the programme and its projects.

Kiandutu residents should play an active, effective and direct role in analyzing their situation through participatory socio-economic and physical mapping exercises, needs assessment and prioritization, design of service delivery mechanisms, carrying out desired improvements and monitoring and evaluation.

**Actions**

To ensure an effective community participation process, the following actions should be taken:

- Adequate community education, sensitization and engagement to mobilize communities around poverty reduction issues and activities.
- Enabling communities to take control and develop a stake in maintaining projects by allowing them to become decision makers and investors rather than subjects and (or) objects.
- Facilitating the formation of cooperative and community resource mobilisation groups.
5.5.11 Shelter Improvement

Kiandutu slum is characterised by a large number of substandard housing structures, built with non-permanent materials unsuitable for housing. Most of these structures bear earthen floors, mud and wattle walls and scrap metal roofing. Poverty reduction in this slum is not complete without improving shelter fabric to decent habitable standards.

Actions

The following actions are recommended for shelter improvement in Kiandutu slum:

- Promoting the use of locally produced or available but appropriate and affordable building materials.
- Enhancing micro-finance mechanisms tailored to suit Kiandutu’s community progressive building processes.
- Employing self-help processes based on community activities with members offering assistance of particular skills, materials and funds to another under arrangements of insurance nature (the help must be reciprocated when need arises).
- Engaging the private sector (including urban management experts) in shelter improvement activities through consultancy in the areas of housing development and improvement, construction and finance intermediation.

5.5.12 Decentralization

Poverty reduction programmes and projects should not be supply driven, effort should be made to build on the experiences and interests of individuals and communities and match them with the views of the poor into developmental efforts in order to address the actual needs of the poor and thus make development planning and management sensitive to their needs. This calls for active participation in development especially with respect to project choice. This requires that the household’s or communities unsatisfied needs be identified in conjunction with them. This approach has the potent of mobilizing the general public to give adequate support to priority development programmes and project that affect their welfare while at the same time, evading the “leaky bucket” syndrome where money is poured in at the top, but administrative costs and in-efficiency drain away most of the potential benefit before it reaches its final destination.
5.6 Areas for Further Study

Further researchers should consider investigating the following pertinent areas:

- **Land tenure reform and poverty reduction:** It should be a planned change in the terms and conditions pertaining to land. For instance, for the Kiandutu slum dwellers, conversion from informal tenancy into formal property rights should be considered with the aim of enhancing and securing people's land rights.

- **Urban agriculture and poverty reduction:** Ways of developing and disseminating information on land tenure, land capacity, markets and water, redefinition of land use and creation of market places, the provision of technical extension services to urban poor in terms of agricultural practices, soil conservation, proper water use, cropping patterns, small livestock breeding and access to credit should be taken into consideration.
REFERENCES


Daily Nation, September 8th 2008


APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Short and Long Term Recommendations for Poverty Reduction in Kiandutu Slum

Short Term Recommendations

Community Organization and Mobilization

Urban poor communities that want to bring about improvements in their living conditions need to be organized. Community organizations are necessary for three reasons. The authorities prefer to deal with an organization of residents rather than with individual families when settlement issues are concerned. Community organizations have more negotiating power. The pooling of human and financial resources makes a project more efficient (Municipality of Phnom Penh, 2008). Participation in a community organization should be voluntary and while nobody can be forced to participate, nobody should be excluded from a community organization. Non-governmental organizations in particular should assist Kiandutu community in forming community organizations.

Capacity Building

Capacity building refers to investment in people, institutions and practices that will, together, enable countries in the region to achieve their development objectives (World Bank, 2000). This should enable Kiandutu slum residents to organise and plan together, empower themselves, reduce poverty and achieve socio-economic, cultural and environmental goals together.

Capacity building should include the following components:

- A cross-sectoral multidisciplinary approach to planning and implementation;
- Emphasis on organizational and technological change and innovation;
- Emphasis on the need to build social capital (i.e. voluntary forms of social regulation) through experimentation and learning;
- Emphasis on developing the skills and performance of both individuals and institutions.
Youth Training and Employment
Reflecting the concern about high levels of unemployment amongst the youth in Kiandutu, there should be a project on youth training and employment. The project should provide programme beneficiaries with hands-on business skills, inculcate entrepreneurship and impart technical skills where necessary to better prepare them for inclusion in the labour market.

Conflict Mitigation
Feelings of insecurity and fears about outbreaks of conflict and violence are growing amongst the population of Thika as a whole, but particularly amongst those living in Kiandutu slum. Finding a way to utilise the unemployed and vulnerable poor Kiandutu youth as a resource for building peaceful coexistence within their communities could be a central strategy here. In this respect, there should be scope for supporting community-initiated peace activities that have the youth as both the target group and the implementers. In addition, the following activities should be encouraged: installation of street lighting, enhancement of safer neighbourhood campaigns and community policing.

Access to Information
Knowledge and information form part of people’s asset base. Kiandutu Community can be empowered through the acquisition of knowledge and information. There are a variety of community media interventions in the informal settlements, which could be scaled-up to broaden information dissemination, as well as for community enterprising. Examples include community media stations. Relevant information on urban and other issues including urban development and slum upgrading, HIV/AIDS, climate change, peace and conflict mitigation, disaster prevention and risk reduction should be made available.

Micro-Finance
Many micro-enterprises in the informal sector cannot expand, because of lack of working capital or investment capital. However, because of the relatively small amount of the loans needed or the lack of documents and registration, the owner/entrepreneur cannot obtain a loan from a commercial bank. A fund for loans to
micro-enterprises would help the Kiandutu poor to operate and expand their business without having to rely on moneylenders or suppliers. The fund could be a joint activity of the Municipality, the private sector and NGOs.

**Support for the Poorest of the Poor**
Kiandutu’s poorest of the poor, the invisible and the marginalized groups may not benefit from many of the programmes for the “mainstream” urban poor, because of their higher vulnerability and lower visibility or because they are excluded by the rest of the community. A better understanding of the physical, social and economic conditions of the very poor may be necessary before effective support can be provided.

**Long Term Recommendations**

**Urban Development Planning and Land management**
Thika municipality has adopted a conventional master plan that has no consideration of space provision to the urban poor. Consequently, Kiandutu and other slums have grown and continue to do so. The persistent unplanned growth has brought forth challenges such as lack of basic amenities and increase in poverty.

Future development planning and land management strategies should build capacity and reflect the user needs of the urban residents in Thika. Such urban plans need to be realistic and flexible in view of the limited resources available to the municipality and the strength of the market forces in the city.

**Housing and Micro-Enterprise Development Funds**
The municipality of Thika and non-governmental organizations should establish Housing Development Fund (HDF) and Micro-Enterprise Development Fund (MDF) for the Kiandutu slum dwellers in collaboration with private bank(s). While the municipality should assume a supervisory role, the funds should be operated by a steering committee consisting of representatives from the Kiandutu slum, non-governmental organizations, community development councils and private banks. These funds should provide credit to Kiandutu poor savings-and-loans associations as well as individual Kiandutu families and (informal) micro-enterprises.
Access to Municipal Services

Water: Thika municipality should involve Kiandutu residents in planning (including conducting demand surveys), implementation and maintenance of small water supply systems, or the tertiary end of large distribution systems. Through such participation, supply will be better targeted to the needs and demands of the community, and maintenance of the network will be safeguarded. Effective participation requires training at community level as well as of the local water agency’s staff.

Sanitation and Solid Waste Management: Community involvement in sanitation and solid waste management offers a solution to the provision of these services and access by the neighbourhood. Municipalities should focus on direct public provision of sewage treatment, the trunk sewer system and main collector lines and on disposal sites and main routes in the solid waste collection system. At the consumer end, community based solutions, using simple technology, should be stimulated rather than prohibited and considered as second-rate.

Thika municipality can, for example, encourage small-scale composting to be used for urban agriculture. This will not require further municipal investment in plant and equipment but the municipality could adopt appropriate design standards for sanitation and solid waste management which bear a clear relation to the likely amount of waste water and solid waste that will be generated. Likewise, it could enter into contracts with scavenger groups directly or facilitate such contracts with the formal private sector.

Promoting Urban Agriculture

Urban agriculture is not only an income-generating activity; it has a positive impact on the urban environment by creating green spaces and reusing waste water and compost from solid waste. Urban agriculture can also make productive use of flood retention ponds, thereby preventing any filling of the ponds. However, the municipality needs to create a positive environment for the development of urban agriculture.
A Framework for Poverty Reduction Partnerships

Urban poverty reduction cannot be achieved by a single actor, whether it is the central government, the municipality of Thika, non-governmental organizations, the private sector or the urban poor communities themselves. Urban poverty reduction can only be achieved through a partnership of urban actors and through the recognition of each of the actor’s roles and responsibilities.

An Effectively and Efficiently Operating Municipality

Organisational strengthening in the following areas: human resources, financial management, leadership and effective policies and programmes should be conducted for Thika municipality. In other words, the municipality needs capacity building prior to: reviewing those policies and procedures that directly affect the urban poor in a negative manner and making them more “poor-friendly”; formulating new policies and programmes on land, infrastructure, low-income housing, slums and squatter settlements; establishing management information systems to monitor trends in urban poverty and assessing the impact of its urban poverty reduction strategy mainly because an effective strategy for urban poverty reduction requires a municipality with the capacity, good knowledge and understanding of urban poverty.
### Appendix 2: A checklist of issues observed in Kiandutu Slum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Recommendations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>- Poor road condition</td>
<td>- The internal roads should be improved for both motorable and non motorable users</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The roads are inaccessible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water and Sanitation</td>
<td>- Poor distribution</td>
<td>- Improvement and provision of portable water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Poor methods of waste disposal</td>
<td>- The sewer system should be extended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Inadequate sanitary facilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drainage</td>
<td>- Poor drainage</td>
<td>- Improvement and provision of drainage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Lack of storm water drains</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Stagnant pools of water</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>- Limited coverage</td>
<td>- Provision of security of tenure and improvement of the quality of structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Semi-permanent structures with no clear security of tenure</td>
<td>- Opening up access roads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Inaccessibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>- Poorly constructed houses</td>
<td>- Improvement of the housing conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Dilapidated structures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>- Poor solid waste disposal</td>
<td>- Environmental clean-ups and sensitization programmes proposing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Lack of aesthetic appeal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>acceptable sanitation</td>
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<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Inadequate schools</td>
<td>-Planning for adequate schools and facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Only 2: Kianjau and Garrisa primary)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Lack of information and communication</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>technology (no computers)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>-No street Lighting</td>
<td>-Street lighting and working towards making the slum a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-high incidences of crime</td>
<td>safe place to live in</td>
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Appendix 3: Household Interview Schedule

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Dear Sir/ Madam,

My name is Lucy Kiarie, a Masters Degree student at Kenyatta University carrying out a research on the subject: poverty reduction interventions: A case study of Kiandutu slum in Thika, Kenya. As an important stakeholder, you have been selected to participate in the study by answering a few questions. All information, which you offer, will be kept strictly confidential and used for academic purposes only.

Background information

1. Name of village

2. Name of cluster

3. Name of respondent (Male or Female)

4. Type of structure occupant (Owned or Rented)

5. Name of the structure owner

6. Relationship of the occupant with the structure owner (Structure owner, tenant, sub-tenant, relative of the owner, other)

7. Where does the structure owner live?

8. How long have you lived here(In years and months)

9. If you are a tenant, how much do you pay as rent per month?

10. Structure use

11. Building materials used (wall, roof and floor)

12. What made you come and reside here?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HH Member</th>
<th>Relationship To HH</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Birth Place</th>
<th>Period Lived in the area</th>
<th>Education level attained</th>
<th>Professional training</th>
<th>Main Economic activity</th>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total income per month (KSHs)</th>
<th>Tick where appropriate</th>
<th>Household Expenditure Per Month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 1,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000-1500</td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1501-2000</td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2500</td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Fuel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2501-3000</td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Rent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3001-3500</td>
<td></td>
<td>6. Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3501-4000</td>
<td></td>
<td>7. Water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4001-4500</td>
<td></td>
<td>8. Entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4501-5000</td>
<td></td>
<td>9. Others (Specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 5,000</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Poverty Coping Mechanisms

1. Which mechanisms have you put in place to ensure that you cope with the current situation in terms of:

   a) Expenditure
   b) Food and nutrition
   c) Diversification of income
d) Joining self help groups

e) Other

1. **Environmental Conservation**

1. How do you dispose your solid and liquid wastes?

2. Are you involved in any Environmental clean-up campaigns? Kindly elaborate on the activities you participate in.

3. Are there any external organizations that assist you in environmental conservation?

4. What is your source of energy and lighting?

5. What is the water source for the household?
   
   Distance from the house in metres
   
   Cost per 20 litres jerican

6. What type of toilet do you use?
   
   Individual toilet
   
   Public toilet
   
   Distance in metres
   
   Cost per month

   Cost per use

3. **Poverty Reduction Organisations**

a) Do you know of any organizations both local and external working in kiandutu towards poverty reduction?

b) What activities/interventions do these organisations involve themselves in?

c) Are community members involved in poverty reduction as well? How?

d) What do you think are the challenges faced by Kiandutu community members and external agencies in their quest for poverty reduction?

e) How do you think these challenges can be addressed?

f) What do you think should be done in order to make future poverty reduction interventions and initiatives effective?
g) What is your occupation? (Formal employment, casual work, self employed, unemployed, student)
h) Income per month in Kshs
i) Place of work
j) Are you a member of a community based organization in Kiandutu?
k) If you are a member of a CBO, what activities do you dwell on?

THANK YOU
### Appendix 4: Average Expenditure per Household

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Amount in KSHs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Fees</td>
<td>6,376 per term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>246 per month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td>1,110 per month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>1,386 per month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health care</td>
<td>1,808 per visit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2012
Appendix 5: Questionnaire
KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
Dear Sir/ Madam,

My name is Lucy Kiarie, a Masters Degree student at Kenyatta University carrying out a research on the subject: poverty Reduction interventions: A case study of Kiandutu slum in Thika, Kenya. As an important stakeholder, you have been selected to participate in the study by answering a few questions. All information, which you offer, will be kept strictly confidential and used for academic purposes only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Officer (Optional)</th>
<th>Designation</th>
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</table>

1. For how long have you been operating in this area?

2. What are the roles, mandate and activities undertaken by your organization with regard to poverty reduction?
   a) Roles
   b) Mandate
   c) Activities

3. What is the nature and level of the current poverty reduction intervention in use in the area of study?

4. How effective is this strategy?

5. Who are the actors involved in the poverty reduction process in the study area?

6. What are their specific roles in the process?

7. What are the challenges facing the poverty reduction interventions in the study area?
8. How do you think these challenges can be addressed?

9. What do you recommend for future poverty reduction programmes?

THANK YOU
### Appendix 6: Work Plan

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proposal development and editing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reconnaissance and instrument development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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