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IN-SITU SLUM UPGRADING PROGRAMS ON IMPROVED LIVELIHOODS IN MANYATTA INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS, KISUMU CITY, KENYA

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Abstract: *Informal settlements are ordinarily known to be areas of insecurity, lack of clean water, proper roads and even proper housing patterns, a fact which calls for proper scrutiny in our cities today. Information about these conditions in informal settlements may support the development of appropriate interventions by the government, NGO world and even the international community. This study was about the In-situ slum upgrading programs on the livelihoods of slum dwellers of Manyatta in Kisumu city, Kenya. The objectives of the research were to examine the influence of the slum upgrading in Manyatta on household incomes, to establish the residents' accessibility to basic necessities as a result of upgrading programs and its outcomes. The study adopted a descriptive research design using the survey method in which questionnaires and an interview guide were put in place to collect data. Slum dwellers of Manyatta were targeted by this study. Key informants consisted of the chief and his two assistants, county government officers represented by a member of county assembly and NGO officials dealing with slum dwellers in Manyatta. Non-probability sampling procedures were used to select the chief, his assistants and the member of county assembly. Simple random sampling techniques were used to come up with the slum dwellers that became part of the study. The study adopted the Participatory Theory of Development by Chambers. This theory was complimented in the study by the Stakeholders Approach theory of Freeman. Data was analyzed by means of the SPSS and presented in frequencies, tables, means, and charts. The study came up with findings that roads, lighting systems in Manyatta, markets within Manyatta, and youth groups operating in the informal settlement area were being improved by both the county government of Kisumu and the national government through funds received from the World Bank. Since water and health were still major problems in Manyatta, the health of the residents had not improved much and besides there were no health centers within the area. Residents accessed health facilities from Jaramogi Oginga Odinga teaching and referral hospital and the Migosi health center. Tangible or visible changes had not been realized. The study recommended that more consultations and outcome measures be put in place to improve conditions in Manyatta.*

Key Words: *Informal settlements, in-situ, livelihoods, slum upgrading, stakeholders, resettlement*

1.1 Introduction

There are several approaches to slum upgrading that can be employed according to Andrade Valeria (2013). These are forced eviction, benign neglect, involuntary resettlement, self-help and in-situ upgrading policies which involve the slum dwellers in the process of upgrading. These all become part and parcel of the whole planning and undertaking of the slum upgrading. Simply put, slum upgrading is a process through which informal areas are gradually improved, formalized and incorporated into the city itself, through extending land, services and citizenship to slum dwellers. It involves providing slum dwellers with the economic, social, institutional and community services available to other citizens. These services include legal (land tenure), physical (infrastructure), social (crime or education, for example) or economic. Slum upgrading is not simply about water or drainage or housing. It is about putting into motion the economic, social, institutional, and community activities that are needed to turn around downwards trends in an area. These activities should be taken cooperatively among all parties involved – residents, community groups, businesses as well as local and national authorities if applicable.

Slum upgrading is widely recognized as the most proactive and effective way of improving the housing conditions and lives of millions of low income and BOP households living in slums in African cities and towns, and thereby contributing to the achievement of sustainable development goals, ensuring access for all urban households to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services, as well as upgrading slums by 2030. In a nutshell, slum upgrading includes the provision of basic services such as housing, street footpaths, drainage, clean water, sanitation, and sewage disposal. Often, access to education and health care are part of upgrading. Ultimately, upgrading efforts aim to create a dynamic in the community where there is a sense of ownership, entitlement and inward investment in the area. Buttenheim (2008) carried out a research in the urban slums of Bangladesh and came up with findings that eventually improved latrine use in slums. His findings also led to the reduction of cases of diarrhea and an improvement in the nutritional status of children.

According to the UN-HABITAT (2003), efforts to improve the living conditions of slum dwellers, especially within developing countries, have been feeble and incoherent over the last decade or so, having peaked during the 1980s. However, renewed concern about poverty has recently led governments to adopt a specific target on slums in the United Nations Millennium Declaration (UNMD), which aims to significantly improve the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by the year 2020. Slums are a manifestation of the two main challenges facing human settlements development at the beginning of the new millennium; rapid urbanization and the urbanization of poverty. Slums areas have the highest concentrations of poor people and the worst shelter and physical environmental conditions.

In most parts of Africa, the UN-Habitat estimates that over 70 percent of the urban population is faced with inadequate housing, water supply and/or sanitation. The unbalanced ratio of adequate sanitation standards to urban population density helps to explain why the MDG's target of reducing infant mortality is projected to be met in urban areas in only one-quarter (six of 24) of the countries studied- fewer than in rural areas. Correcting these intra-urban inequities would be "good value" for countries. The urban slum and peri-urban residents form the core of the urban workforce, and it is cost-effective to ensure their effective access to basic services (Sahn and Stifel, 2002, Kessides 2005).

According to Muraguri (2011) Kenya has witnessed an unprecedented increase in urban population over the past fifty years. This trend has come with great challenges to the urban economies in their struggles to realize good housing, good health and good education. This kind of trend has forced many people to dwell in slums. Muraguri continues that in Nairobi alone, slum dwellers were over 1.5 million by the year (2011). This was bound to grow steadily with time.

The Kenyan Government has in the past come up with numerous policies on slums whose aim was to improve the livelihoods of slum dwellers. Among the major slums in Kenya are Kibera, Mathare, Korogocho, Mukuru kwa Njenga, and Deep sea (Amnesty International Publications, 2009). The commonly known factors that fuel the mushrooming of slums include; migration, prospects of better health, education and employment in town and cities. It is believed that the 1990, about 213 million slum dwellers have been added to the global population. Over 90 percent of urban growth is occurring in developing nations and an estimated 70 million new residents are added to the urban areas of developing countries each year.

In Kenya, the menace of slum settlements is on the rise. This is due to constraints in rolling out conventional housing; the reality is that the majority of informal settlements have still not received significant development attention whether in the form of full upgrading, relocation to green-fields housing projects or the provision of significant interim interventions to mitigate living conditions.

In the 1990s, there were attempts to improve the situations in slums. However, major efforts started in 2001 with the formation of Kenya slum upgrading program (KENSUP). The program's memorandum of understanding was signed between the Kenyan Government and UN-HABITAT in 2003. In 2011 the Kenya informal settlement improvement project (KISIP) was also formed. The Government of Kenya report asserts that KENSUP was initiated in year 2000 to facilitate national wide slum upgrading of over 200 slums in Kenya (GOK: 2004).

The primary goals of KENSUP were to improve the livelihood of people working and living in the informal settlements in the urban areas of Kenya, to reduce poverty, fulfill the millennium development goals and to improve the lives of 100 million slum dwellers by the year 2020. The vision of the program was to facilitate improved and sustainable urban living environments in Kenya while its mission was to develop and implement policies, programs and strategies to facilitate reduction and prevention of slums in Kenya. The key values of KENSUP included: decentralization, sustainability, transparency and accountability, democratization and empowerment, resource mobilization, secure tenure, partnership and networking (GOK, 2004). KENSUP main objectives according to the Kenya government included: the development of a nation-wide slum upgrading and management framework, institute good urban governance, provide social and physical infrastructure, provide security of tenure and improved housing; enhance opportunities for income generation and job creation; attract private sector finance and encourage investment in slum upgrading; promote a culture for environmental conservation and management; enhance the capacity for research, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation; and to address and mitigate the prevalence of HIV/AIDS.

According to UN-HABITAT (2003), slum upgrading is a process through which informal areas are gradually improved, formalized and incorporated into the city itself through extending land,

services and citizenship to slum dwellers. Upgrading is followed by provision of economic, social, institutional and community services available to other citizens. Slum dwellers, after upgrading them, should have access to land tenure, infrastructure, education, eradication of crime and economic improvements. Aims of upgrading include the creation of streets, housing, foot paths, drainage, clean water, and sanitation/sewage disposal.

Syagga et al. (2001) noted that Kenya has had a poor record of slum upgrading starting with Kibera-High Rise project in the 1990s by the National Housing Corporation (NHC). This was followed by the Pumwani – Majengo slum redevelopment. These projects did not benefit the intended people. They were instead rented out to middle class citizenry. Huchzermeyer (2006) adds that the community disowned the Kibera- Soweto KENSUP Project claiming it was unaffordable. The in-situ upgrading succeeded in Kambi Moto in Huruma, Nairobi since it is small and the community was involved from the very beginning.

Kisumu reflects the typical complexity of service provision in African cities, particularly water provision. The Kisumu Water and Sewerage Company (KIWASCO) is a privatized utility company that was set up in 2003 to replace the water and sewerage department of the former Kisumu Municipal Council. It is supervised by Lake Victoria South Water Services Board, one of seven regional water boards in Kenya. Previously, the formal water and sewerage network was limited to only the area of the former colonial town. In order to roll out water provision to peri-urban areas, KIWASCO has over the years relied upon a network of subcontractors who in turn sell water to connected customers and to water kiosk operators, the latter selling on to unconnected customers (Schwarz and Sanga, 2010).

Although this approach has been successful in extending the provision of water supply, the net result is a very uneven pattern of access to water. The extent of privately piped connections and yard taps ranges from 97.6 per cent of households in high-income areas such as Milimani, to only 2.8 per cent in Migosi Estate- a middle income area (Wagah et al, 2010). Solid waste management is a particular area of concern, with the Kachok dumpsite in the centre of Kisumu unable to cope with all the waste generated (Munala and Moirongo, 2011; Sibanda et al., 2017). City officials estimate that only between 20 per cent and 35 per cent of solid waste is collected (either directly by the City or by private collectors who sell their services to companies and institutions) leaving about 65–80 per cent (of which most is organic waste) uncollected (Sibanda et al., 2017). There are a number of informal waste pickers in Kisumu, who play an important role in the recycling of waste.

According to records at the Manyatta Youth Resource Center (MYRC, 2009), Manyatta is the largest slum in Western Kenya and is home to over 60,000 people living in an area of five square miles with poorly developed urban infrastructure. It is located in what might be called colloquially as Kisumu’s slum belt, a group of informal settlements (hereinafter called slums) that have grown for decades skirting around the centre and suburbs of Kisumu since Kenya achieved independence. It is difficult to tell exactly when Manyatta emerged as a slum in Kisumu. Of more relevance however, is how and why Manyatta slim emerged in the first instance, who are the residents of Manyatta? Where do they come from? Why do they live here? What kinds of problems and challenges do they face and are there solutions to such challenges and problems? And more importantly, what is Manyatta’s socio-economic profile?

From cursory examination of available reports, it seems that the residents of Manyatta range from low income to the unemployed, with a few scattered middle income earners also living in the slum. The area seems to have a well connected transport system for commuting to employment or school, but, for the most part, the majority of Manyatta residents have an uncertain tenure. Few have access to piped water. Crime is more prevalent than in more established parts of Kisumu. There is no sewer or sanitation service, meaning trash and filthy waste are strewn everywhere around the slum.

Manyatta. Like most other slums around it are as a result of colonial racism that pushed Africans with low levels of education to living in neglected sections of emerging towns and cities, the rapid urban population growth that took place during and after colonial, and the inability of the newly elected African leaders to handle the new residents of the towns and the cities in independent Africa. The large population for example, meant that housing and municipal services were in high demand in towns and cities. The provision of such services took time while in some cases the resources to make them available were simply not present.

Manyatta is the largest slum area in Kisumu followed by Nyalenda. According to Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2013) Manyatta has a population of 75286 people while Nyalenda, which is the second largest slum in Kisumu city, has a population of 60750. This means that Manyatta is much larger, both in size and population, than the other slums in Kisumu city. According to UN-HABITAT (2003), Manyatta reported the highest development success rate in the whole Kisumu slum belt. The upgrading scheme in Manyatta “A” not only improved the access network, but also raised property values. This attracted a population with comparably higher incomes than the original inhabitants who sub-divided property and sold it. The result was a mix of different income groups in Manyatta which raised its potential for an easy transition out of slum status. Average income is currently higher than in the other slum areas - as indicated by the quality of the living environment, and the basic frameworks.

There have been several attempts, through the use of a multiple agencies approach, to improve conditions in Kisumu. This was initially done through the multi-stakeholder Kisumu Action Team (KAT). The KAT initially only represented a narrow range of interests, but subsequently included broader representation. A good example was the involvement of informal traders in Kisumu. KAT used ‘interdisciplinary, cross-sector and policy approaches to solve some of the urban planning and development issues in the city, drawing on inputs from various stakeholders’ (Onyango and Obera, 2015, 93). Although this was a conflict-ridden process it eventually resulted in the raising of substantial funds for an ambitious range of physical upgrading projects in Kisumu, such as the redevelopment of the marketplaces (Smit 2018). Manyatta consists of Manyatta A, Manyatta B and Manyatta Arab, which is far away from the informal settlement known as Manyatta. The Slam is found in Kondele location, with a Chief and two assistant chiefs in charge of Manyatta A and B respectively. However, the chief’s jurisdiction extends to Migosi sub-location. There are also four major markets within Manyatta namely; Kondele, Manyatta, Koyango and Kaego. Some major problems in Manyatta include lack of access to clean water, proper toilets and refuse collection.

Muraguri (2011) notes that Manyatta, Bandani, Nyalenda and Magadi were targeted for improvements in physical infrastructure namely classrooms, health centers, early childhood development units, rehabilitation of social halls and market stalls and refurbishing of existing

roads. By the year 2008 a market stall in Manyatta had already been done. Unfortunately, apart from this not much has been experienced in other slums found in Kisumu county.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Slum upgrading programs have been in existence in Kenya for more than a decade. These programs started in the 1990s with all slums in Kenya being targeted and incorporated in the plan. The in-situ slum upgrading program was initiated with the intention of incorporating residents of the areas in which it is being implemented. Most slum upgrading projects are either inspired or engaged by the commonwealth bank and other similar agencies. It is a process considered by its proponents as a necessary and important component for urban development in developing countries. Many people do not believe that slum upgrading is successful as community planners believe that there is no successful alternative of where these displaced slum dwellers should go. They point to difficulties in providing the necessary resources either in a way that is beneficial to the slum dwellers, or in a way that has long-term effectiveness.

It was however not clear how Manyatta slum residents were being involved in the development programs put in place. The Kenya Slum Upgrading Program (KENSUP) started in 2003, with the help of UN-Habitat and World Bank support, with the main goal of upgrading all slums in Kenya. However, despite all these programs and plans by the Government, poverty, lack of proper roads, lack of better hospitals, lack of good housing and lack of security of tenure are still evident in Manyatta and other slums in this country. The standards of livelihoods in terms of access to food, water, shelter, health and clothing had not apparently improved in Manyatta by time this research was being carried out in 2019.

Cases of illicit brew consumption and rampant crime, typical of slum life, are still reported to the assistant chiefs' offices in Manyatta. The big question is why all these social ills persist despite the government of Kenya setting aside large sums of money for slum upgrading. By the time of this study, there was no evidence of any research related to in-situ slum upgrading and how it has influenced the livelihoods of the residents of Manyatta slums in Kisumu city. Manyatta was identified for this research because, according to the Kenya Bureau of Statistics records, is the largest slum area in Kisumu city, both demographically and in terms of size. (2013). Secondly, it was the slum in Kisumu City without water connectivity up to the time of this research. It is also the only slum area in Kisumu City in which a number of families still live in, and bury their dead within their homesteads.

1.3 Research Objectives

The overall objective of the study was to investigate the effect of the in-situ slum upgrading program on the livelihoods of Manyatta residents in Kisumu City, Kenya.

The specific objectives were as follows:

- a. To assess the extent of infrastructure transformation and residents participation facilitated by the in situ slum upgrading program in Manyatta.
- b. To examine the influence of the in-situ slum upgrading program on household incomes among residents of Manyatta.
- c. To establish the residents' accessibility to basic necessities as a result of the upgrading programs and its outcomes.

1.4 Literature Review

Participatory Theory of Development

According to Chambers (1983), the theory states that for development in a rural setting to succeed, the beneficiaries must be directly involved. It means “putting the last first”. The last in this case are the poor within slums or a rural setting then the remaining are the rich and middle class who should come last due to likelihood of having vested interests. Participation may increase efficiency and cost effectiveness of the formal development programs (Mayo and Craig 1995). It can also improve the goals of development when the beneficiaries are directly involved in the whole process. According to the World Bank (1994) participation means having stakeholders who influence and share control over development initiatives, decisions and resources which affect them.

Jones et al., (2001) note that participation can be temporal and spatial. This means that time and space easily affects the projects in which this the method used. Furthermore, it usually involves the exclusion of certain sub groups of the population like women and children. As applied to this study, participatory Theory of Development fits into the in-situ slum upgrading programs. The researcher intends to study how the communities at Manyatta slums have been involved in the slum upgrading and what the fruits of this have been for them.

Stakeholders Approach Theory

One of the related theories that have been reviewed is the Stakeholders’ Approach Theory pioneered by Edward Freeman in (1930s). The theory states that those involved in the implementation of any business, activity and/ or upgrading in this case, should be accountable to the stakeholders and that it is the stakeholders who should decide the future of a firm or activity in question. This approach involves the inclusion of the central government, the local authorities, the societal organizations, the private developers and the community being upgraded in the plan and execution of the upgrading process. Mikkelsen, (1995) notes that all stakeholders are key beneficiaries and all project activities should create dialogue with them by getting the necessary information from them.

The strengths of this theory are that it assists in identifying the overall objectives of the corporations or activity in question. Secondly, the stakeholders can help in anticipating the things that might go wrong in the process of implementation. Furthermore, stakeholders are from a variety of backgrounds and levels of experience which is very important for the success of the enterprise. They can help in bringing a bigger picture that the implementers might not see at once.

Review of Empirical Studies

Effect of Slum Upgrading on the Levels of household income in Manyatta

Manyatta, a sprawling peri-urban estate on the outskirts of Kisumu, presents many ironies. Its residents earn relatively low incomes, yet they generally pay more (compared to higher income

residents of the city proper) for basic services such as water and transit. Residents often have no access to piped water, even though Kisumu sits on the shores of one of the largest bodies of fresh water.

The Manyatta youth resource center is a good example of how the youth in this slum have benefitted as a result of slum upgrading. The purchase of motorcycles provided through this centre provided a reliable source of income to the youth. Additionally, the youth have, in conjunction with relevant non-governmental organization, set up water vending businesses. As a result, they were now able to better provide the basic needs for their young families and their ageing parents. The women in this area have also gained a lot. The construction of a modern market within the slum helped the women folk carry out their businesses under more hygienic and secure conditions. The setting up of flood lights provided a golden opportunity for the women and other traders to sell their wares for longer hours into the evening. Welding businesses have also mushroomed as a result of increased electricity connectivity within the slum.

This objective encompasses employment opportunities created by participation in and improvement of the upgrading of the informal settlement area and improvement in personal or individual businesses. According to Taylor (1994) under initiatives for greater community participation, settlement-level actors are very involved in the process of upgrading. Although they tend not to be involved in the design of houses, plans for the settlement's layout, approaches to the upgrade process or even in the evaluation of an upgrade, instead, these actors tend to act as agents of implementation with specific responsibilities such as drawing up housing lists of eligible residents and monitoring any newcomers that arrive so they do not take advantage of the upgrade. They also facilitate the entry and movement of builders, engineers, water and sanitation officials and so forth during the feasibility and implementation phases of settlement upgrade. The role of settlement-level actors is vital to the logistical success of an upgrade project. However, there appears to be very little official and mandatory monitoring of how these actors operate. This suggests an under-acknowledgement of their power and influence over which individuals benefit from an upgrade and which do not. This helps in raising their incomes through the finances that they can access.

Tunley R, et al (2013) carried out a research on the effect of slum upgrading on slum dwellers' health, findings were that there is evidence that slum upgrading can reduce diarrhea and water related expenditure. It was not clear whether slum upgrading could reduce parasitic infections, general measures of communicable diseases, financial poverty, and unemployment outcomes. Facilities are usually used as intended and this is why health conditions are never improved.

Corbon and Sverdlik (2016), note that slums are a worldwide phenomenon and interventions have also been worldwide stretching from Latin America to Asia to Africa. In India the focus of upgrading targeted roads, water, lighting, social services and microloans. In Colombia the target was housing tenure and physical infrastructure. In Brazil the target was infrastructure, housing, and social and economic development.

Importantly, the articles gathered here advocate sustainable development approaches that build the urban political constituency, and catalyze its participation in decision making and in-situ development processes in the vast, densely populated informal settlements that characterize African cities. Physical and political sustainability within urban governance and planning

frameworks is critical in order to bring the urban poor into planning, finance and political decision making processes at the local and national government levels, as well as in international development agencies (Heinrich Boll Stiftung 2012)

By 2030, two-thirds of Africa's total population will likely be under the age of twenty-five. This projection adds urgency to the need to engage hitherto marginalized youth - a task that African authorities seem hardly equipped to tackle. Whether marginal youth, women in slums, or poor communities in general, the urban poor must be empowered by harnessing their agency, while at the same time ensuring that institutions fulfill their responsibilities. The alternative is to continue reducing Africa's growing urban population to recipients of development aid (Heinrich Boll Stiftung 2012)

On the whole, substantial improvements have been made in providing access to improved water sources in SSA from 1990 to 2015 unlike access to sanitation facilities over the same period. Households were 28.2 percent and 125.2 percent more likely to have access to improved water sources in 2000–2005 and 2010–2015 respectively, than in 1990–1995. Urban rich households were 329 percent more likely to have access to improved water sources compared with the urban poor (Arto Armah, 2018)

People who fear eviction will, in most cases, are less about the type of structures and other conditions they live in. Furthermore illegality and informality makes slum dwellers more susceptible to exploitation, corruption and extortion. It is documented that in Kenya, informal land occupation is in most cases illegal, exploitative and involve a lot of corrupt land allocations. This means that residents in slums need to have security of tenure that guarantees their stable occupation of the land on which they have put their structures and as such a source of their livelihoods (Mwangi 1997).

According to National Housing Policy, (2004), the government vowed to streamline the acquisition of land for housing the poor, adopt appropriate tenure systems, plan standards to suit given slum settlement and prevent unwanted destruction of existing housing stock and displacement of the residents. Upgrading shall be integrated to take into account socio-economic activities that improve livelihoods of target communities while employment and income-generating activities that address poverty alleviation shall be enhanced.

Anyiso, J. (2013) carried out a research on factors influencing sustainability of slum upgrading programs, Kibera – Soweto East upgrading program, Langata, Nairobi. She used the descriptive survey design to come up with findings that policies cannot succeed in slum upgrading. They, that is, policies, tend to favor both the middle and high class cadre of the society but neglect the poor. When housing is improved, the poor leaves them for the middle and high class members of the society and go back to the slums and as such employment rates remain the same in most cases.

According to Syagga et al. (2001) slum upgrading programs usually lead the tenants to sustain losses during the upgrading like proximity to job opportunities, sources of income, houses, and socio-economic networks. In the same process the slum dwellers also lose their informal ability to sustain livelihood and economic empowerment.

According to Ndukui (2012) slum improvement is achieved with the active involvement of slum communities during the planning, implementation, monitoring and management process, and through contribution of part of their own resources required for development, operation and maintenance. According to the poverty reduction strategy paper (2005) slum upgrading programs if implemented well, can lead to reduction of poverty among millions of slum dwellers.

Ochieng', E (2011) carried out a study in Kibera on factors influencing the implementation of Kenya slum upgrading programs. His findings were that slum culture and social spatial economic factors complicate slum upgrading programs and raise the cost of upgrading. Slum upgrading programs do not recognize the need to create markets and business centers and this make slum dwellers who had been relocated to upgraded outfits to go back to the slums to do business in makeshift structures to accommodate their trade. Fatma (2018) carried out a study on the effects of slum upgraded neighborhoods on the welfare of the residents of Kibera slums. Her findings were that majority of slum dwellers work in informal jobs or are unemployed altogether. Costs are reduced in the upgraded houses by the introduction of pricing schemes for water as compared to the slums. Residents in the upgraded houses had an increased access to education financing in the upgraded project than in the slums.

Chege (2013) carried out a research in Kibera slums on challenges of slum upgrading for urban informal settlements; a case of Soweto East village, Nairobi. He used a descriptive research design to come up with findings that the challenges of slum upgrading programs include competing interests of various groups, complexity of slum arrangements with regard to tenure arrangement and lack of coordination among various stakeholders leading to poor utilization of resources.

Residents' Accessibility to Basic Necessities and its outcomes

Turley, R. et al. (2013) carried out a research mainly involving document analysis in which they identified 10,488 unique records, with 323 screened as full text. Five studies were included for the main analysis: one Randomized Control Trials (RCT) with a low risk, two cases Controlled Before and After studies (CBAs) with a moderate risk and two cases of controlled before and after studies, (CBAs) with a high risk of bias. Three CBAs evaluated multi-component slum upgrading strategies. Road paving only was evaluated in one RCT and water supply in one CBA.

total of 3453 households or observations were included within the four studies reporting sample sizes. Most health outcomes in the main studies related to communicable diseases, for which the body of evidence was judged to be low quality. One CBA with a moderate risk of bias found that incidences of diarrhea were reduced in households which received water connections from a private water company (risk ratio (RR) 0.53; 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.27 to 1.04) and the severity of diarrheal episodes (RR 0.48; 95% CI 0.19 to 1.22). There was no effect for duration of diarrhea.

Edelman and Mitra (2006) carried out a research in India on the slum dwellers' access to basic amenities and the ways in which they gain access to such amenities. Their finding was that Associations between Indian states' share of slums, proportions of notified slums, and prevailing conditions in terms of basic amenities present political contact as a key factor. Based on the political economy framework, slum survey data (2004–2005) show that political contact helped residents to access facilities such as land tenure and basic amenities. The log it model identified determinants of political contact by examining social networks and individual endowments. While political accessibility was crucial as a survival strategy, slum dwellers' vulnerability hardly

diminished over time; on the contrary, the political use of slums perpetuates it. However, strong social networks can prevent low income households from declining to a low equilibrium. They found out that rational policies had greater relevance in improving the conditions of low income households within slums.

In another study by Owusu-Ansah, Mabel, and Togbe (2016) a total of 465 slum dwellers were sampled. Findings were that slum dwellers in Sodom and Gomorrah community had no hospitals or clinics. The residents said they mostly accessed health care from two drug stores in the slum and from herbalists. A few attended the Cathedral Clinic nearby in the past and only one respondent had ever attended the KBTH, which is a tertiary health facility in the city of Accra. The majority of respondents were male residents (64.4%). The median age of respondents was 24 years and ranged from 18 to 59 years. The vast majority of respondents (70.5%) were engaged in non-formal employment, 15.9% had formal employment and the rest (13.5%) were unemployed.

The literature presented in this section concentrates more on plans and strategies for slum upgrading than on what has been upgraded, what is going on the ground. The documents and researches quoted in this work have not addressed issues in Manyatta directly. Majority addressed the Kenyan slums problem and not Manyatta as this study targeted. The methods employed also vary in the sense that some researchers used document analysis, others used other designs a part from descriptive design.

1.5 Research Design and Methodology

Research Design

The survey design was employed to study the effect of In-situ slum upgrading programs on the livelihoods of the residents of Manyatta slums. This design was appropriate for collecting descriptive data based on the characteristics of the population under investigation.

Site description

According to a study by Ching Chung (2011), about Manyatta slam, the informal settlement Manyatta can be sub-divided into two areas, A and B. Manyatta A is older, more urban, more densely populated, with a bigger informal sector. It is said that Manyatta A has a more improved infrastructure and has higher property values. There have been some slum-upgrade- and development projects in Manyatta A. This attracted a population with slightly higher incomes The Wandiege area is in the slum within Manyatta B. Manyatta B is found in the eastern part of Kisumu town. The population of the Wandiege Area was estimated at 25,000 poeple. The difference between Manyatta A and B is in the quality of housing due to an urban upgrading scheme. Manyatta A has been upgraded. Slum upgrades in Manyatta B and Nyalenda B were not fully completed, according to UN-Habitat (2005). Many people in Manyatta A moved to Manyatta B due to higher rent that resulted in the forming of Manyatta B. The government has never owned land in the Manyatta area. This is a cause for many problems as there is land needed for public purposes.

The target population from which the results here were generalized and the sample for this study developed were the 75,959 slum dwellers of Manyatta in Kisumu City. Key informants included the government representatives in this area namely the chiefs and assistant chiefs, county government of Kisumu officers in charge of social services, together with members of NGOs working with the slum dwellers in Manyatta. Sampling was done from the number shown as given

under sample and sampling procedures

For sampling and sampling procedures, Gall et al. (1996) suggest that for a survey study, a minimum of one hundred subjects in each major sub-group and twenty to fifty subjects in each minor sub group are an adequate sample size to make generalizations about the group. The researcher divided the population in to different strata as shown below then sample. The different groups or strata for the sample were: adult slum dwellers, youth representatives, government representatives both national and from the county and NGO officials operating in Manyatta.

The formula used in social sciences, in cases where the population is above 10 000, which will be used in this study is;

$$n = \frac{Z^2pq}{d^2}$$

Where n = the desired sample size (if the target population is greater than 10000).

z = the standard normal deviate at the required confidence level.

p = the proportion in the target population estimated to have the characteristics being measured

q = 1-p

d = the level of statistical significance set

The population of Manyatta slums stood at 75 286 according to records held by KNBS (2013). Fisher et al. recommends that 50% should be used as an estimate of the proportion of the target population.

With z statistics standing at 1.96 and the desired accuracy at the .05 level, the sample size is;

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2(37879)(37879)}{(37879)^2} = 213$$

The researcher therefore used a sample of 213 respondents making sure that both males and females are represented fully as distributed below;

Table 1: Sample Frame

Respondents	Number
Slum Dwellers-Males	100
-Females	100
NGO officials	04
Member of County Assembly(MCA)	01
Youth Groups (Representatives)	05
Chief	01
Assistant Chiefs	02
Total	213

Since it is not easy to get people in a slum setting gathered together in one place, the researcher

relied on the assistant chiefs and market centres for the sample. She carried out a simple random sampling at the markets on meeting days (Baraza) to select the 100 males by administering numbers on papers for the ones attending the Baraza to pick. With prior arrangements and permission, papers containing numbers written from 1 to 50 were used on Chiefs meeting days (Baraza). Those who picked even numbers were given questionnaires. The female respondents were sampled through a random sampling technique in the sense that the researcher counted every fourth house along corner Legio road to corner Mbuta junction visiting their houses on weekends. The chief and the assistant chiefs were purposively selected. The government officials dealing with social services with a bias on slums upgrading were also purposively sampled. NGO offices were visited and one official who dealt with issues of slum dwellers requested to fill in the questionnaires.

Document Analysis was basically made use of library materials. Documents like books, journals, Newspapers and researches were reviewed to examine the content, gaps in the current state of knowledge and any theories and principles that might be relevant to this research.

1.6 Results and Discussions

Slum Upgrading and Improved Household Incomes

The first objective was to establish the influence of the slum upgrading in Manyatta on household incomes. Respondents were asked to state whether they had noticed any changes in as far as household incomes were concerned. Their responses are presented in table 8 following;

Key SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, SD- Strongly Disagree, D- Disagree.

Table 1: Changes in Household Incomes

Changes	SA	A	N	SD	D
Casual workers reduced	-	-	2	180	-
Employment rates improved	-	-	175	5	2
Personal businesses improved	180	2	-	-	-
Household Incomes Improved	150	10	22	-	-

Source: Researcher 2019

Table 1 shows that personal businesses and household incomes had improved as acknowledged by 180 and 150 respondents which are 99% and 82.4% respectively. Respondents showed that the upgrading that went on in Manyatta had influenced household incomes to some extent. The things that had assisted in changing the income status included floodlights, Water, roads and carwash machines. Floodlights were stated by respondents as having reduced the rate of insecurity. Respondent F, (an elderly lady in Manyatta), observed:

‘These floodlights have made our lives slightly easier. Those who used to rob us here have reduced due to the lights. Many people walk around up to very late and so thieves are afraid that they can be lynched. People walking at night can be easily identified due to the light and those

attempting to steal become scared. Since theft is reduced we can save the little we collect from sales. This has improved our income and savings’.

Provision of water points from where residents bought the commodity also improved household incomes in the sense that mainly the unemployed youth and women were the ones in charge of the water points. They collected money from residents and got their dues from there in the form of wages. These wages helped improve incomes for those who were not lucky to have secured jobs in town or anywhere else. Respondent G (A youth who sold water at a point near the mosque opposite the Kenya Medical Training College) observed:

‘This sale of water has helped me a lot. In a day I can collect up to above five thousand shillings. From this I cannot miss one to two thousand shillings for my food and personal savings. This has improved my income a lot and I am better today than before’.

According to Michel et al. (2018) Manyatta, a sprawling peri-urban estate on the outskirts of Kisumu, presents many ironies. Its residents earn relatively low incomes, yet they generally pay more (compared to higher-income residents of the city proper) for basic services such as water and public transport. Residents often have no access to piped water, even though Kisumu sits on the shores of one of the world’s largest bodies of fresh water.

Access roads also contributed towards the improvement of household incomes to some extent. Movements between markets became easier. Businessmen and women were able to transport their wares without any major hitches. *Boda boda* operators used the improved road networks to ferry their customers with ease due to the improved state of roads. Since good roads helped the *boda boda* operators maintain a good speed all through, they were able to do many rounds in a day and collect as much cash as they could based on the availability of customers. The member of county assembly (MCA) for Kondele ward observed that fifty two youth groups had been supplied with carwash machines to operate within Manyatta slums.

These were members of youth groups that applied for assistance. Those who never applied did not get the machines. The MCA noted that due to increased incomes, some of these youth had turned to a drink in town called ‘waragi’ which was not good for their health. He blamed the liquor licensing board for allowing such drinks to be sold around to youth. However, youth were happy with the carwash machines. Respondent H (another youth) observed:

‘These carwash machines that we have got are good. They have helped change our lives in the sense that instead of thinking about stealing we concentrate on washing cars until very late. From here, you have some money for food and other household needs. We are not complaining in any way since our lives have improved with improved incomes’

Female respondents who dealt in fish sales agreed that roads had improved in between markets and fish reach the markets on time when they are still fresh. Customers can buy fresh fish more than those that have changed their state. Before these roads were improved, fish would reach markets late and would be smelly and that would force down the prices. *Boda boda* riders help reach the markets on time and incomes have increased.

Residents' Accessibility to Basic Necessities

The second objective was on the residents' accessibility to basic necessities as a result of the upgrading programs in Manyatta. Respondents were asked whether they had access to good health care and only 11% answered in the positive based on the fact that Jaramogi Oginga Odinga Teaching and Referral Hospital is not far away from parts of Manyatta slums. The remaining, that is, 89% answered in the negative. This is presented in table 3 below.

Table 3: Access to Basic Necessities

Question	Frequency			
	Yes	Percentage	No	Percentage
Access to Good Health care?	20	11	162	89
Access to Clean Water?	80	44	102	56
Access to balanced diet?	50	27	132	73
Access to Security of tenure?	100	55	82	45

Source: Researcher, 2019

The above findings were based on the fact that there was no health centre within Manyatta slums by the time of this research. According to the chief of the area, there was a planned health centre at Kosawo which actually was built fourteen years ago in 2005. However, this health centre was poorly built. It was poorly planned and was now to be brought down. Residents of Manyatta accessed health facilities at Migosi public health centre which is in Migosi Estate. This is a smaller estate than Manyatta. The fact that there was no public health centre in Manyatta, made residents to complain.

Concerning access to clean water, residents of Manyatta observed that there were drilled boreholes by individuals which were used by many residents. Others depended on water vendors who collected water from Kisumu Water Supplies Company (KIWASCO) water points. These water vendors used hand carts to ferry water from water points to residents who bought a twenty litre container at twenty Kenya Shillings each. Very few people had access to tap water within their residences. Respondent **I (a youth group leader)** observed:

“Here in Manyatta, only the rich can access tap water in their houses or homes. The rest of us rely on water vendors or boreholes which are the majority. Clean water here is like provision of health, it is not available to common people like us. We have to struggle to access them”.

Security of tenure was another area asked about by the researcher. Data from the chief showed that many residents of Manyatta still lived in what would be called their ancestral homes. People lived in their homesteads which had been incorporated into the city of Kisumu. There were several buildings of mud smeared walls common in some parts of rural Kenya in Manyatta. Some of the residents built houses for rent within their homes. Those who bought land had to get some security and so had to get titles to their land. The chief himself still lived in his own homestead. This arrangement still made many residents to bury their dead within their homesteads instead of public cemetery at Mamboleo. Burial was a kind of security to the residents, given that where your dead are buried among the Luo is never sold to others. It remains a community land.

On the issue of a balanced diet, respondents observed that this majorly depended on one's ability and income not on slum upgrading. People who had better jobs accessed better food than others

where as poor people ate poorly. Only 50% acknowledged that residents had access to a balanced diet where as 132% noted that residents of Manyatta had not achieved a standard of food that would be described as balanced. Respondent J (a fish monger at Manyatta market) said as follows:

'Here in Manyatta, we eat vegetables, fish and Ugali more than any other type of food. The major food here that people can afford is 'Omena', some type of small but grown up fish which is cheaper than tilapia, 'Sukuma wiki'- which is kales and ugali. Tilapia is eaten by rich people since they have become very expensive around here. Many of us cannot afford to eat breakfast, lunch and supper. It is beyond many of us due to limited finances'

1.7 Recommendations

Based on the need for participation by residents, the possibilities for increasing the scale and effectiveness of the initiatives employed to support improved living conditions in slums depends on local governments and the contractors and consultants they commission. They should learn to work with residents of slums and their community organizations.

Slum upgrading should be a process rooted in consultation, discussion and agreement with slum residents with regard to design, implementation schedules and the division of responsibilities between government agencies, residents and their community organizations, and chosen consultants and agreed contractors.

Community organizations within the slums and the larger federations of which residents are often members should be used to provide the mapping and detailed household surveys that slum upgrading needs.

The availability and use of reliable, comparable outcome measures to determine the effect of slum upgrading on health, quality of life and socio-economic wellbeing would make a useful contribution to new research in this important area. Given the complexity in delivering slum upgrading, evaluations should look to incorporate process and qualitative information alongside quantitative effectiveness data to determine which particular interventions work or which do not work and for whom.

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