

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FOOD SECURITY COPING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY FEMALE AND MALE HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN KAWANGWARE SLUMS, NAIROBI

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A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE OF ANTHROPOLOGY, GENDER AND AFRICAN STUDIES IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

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DECLARATION

This Gender and Development Research Project is my own original work and has not been presented for a degree or otherwise to any other University or Institution

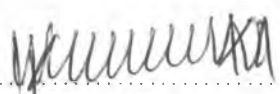
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This Research Project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor.

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UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.

DEDICATION

To the women and men out there working hard to bring about Gender equality in all areas of human development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Table of Contents

Declaration.....	i
Dedication.....	ii
Acknowledgement.....	iii
Table of contents.....	iv
List of Tables.....	vii
List of graphs and Pie-charts.....	viii
Abbreviations and Acronyms.....	ix
Abstract.....	x
Chapter One: Background to the study.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Problem Statement.....	3
1.3 Research Objectives.....	4
1.4 Assumptions.....	4
1.5 Justification of the Study.....	4
1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study.....	5
Chapter Two: Literature Review.....	6
2.1 Household food security coping strategies.....	6
2.2 Impact of household composition and division of labour on household food security coping strategies.....	9
2.3 Factors that influence household food security coping strategies.....	11
2.4 Theoretical Framework.....	16
2.4.1 The Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis Framework.....	16

Chapter Three: Methodology.....	20
3.1 Introduction.....	20
3.2 Study Site and Population.....	20
3.3 Research Design.....	22
3.4 Study Population.....	22
3.5 Sampling design and Sample size.....	22
3.6 Data Collection Methods.....	23
3.7 Data Processing and Analysis.....	24
3.8 Ethical Considerations.....	24
Chapter Four: Study Findings and Discussion.....	26
4.1 Introduction.....	26
4.2 Demographic Information.....	26
4.3 Household food security coping strategies.....	30
4.4 Impact of household composition and division of labour on food security coping strategies.....	37
4.5 Factors that influence household food security coping strategies	39
4.6 Other factors.....	45
4.7 Narratives.....	47
Chapter Five: Conclusions and Recommendations.....	54
5.1 Conclusions.....	54
5.2 Recommendations.....	57
References.....	59
Appendices:	62
Appendix 1.....Consent Form	

Appendix 2.....Questionnaire

Appendix 3..... Proposed Work Plan

Appendix 4..... Letter of request for data collection from the University

Appendix 5..... Letter of authorization from the local Provincial Administration

Appendix 6..... Some of the photos taken during field work.

List of Tables

Table	Page
Table 4.1: Respondents' age cluster	27
Table 4.2: Respondents' gender	28
Table 4.3: Marital status	28
Table 4.4: Source of Household income	32
Table 4.5: Property ownership	33
Table 4.6: Number of meals per day	34
Table 4.7: Membership to Social networks	36
Table 4.8: Presence of dependants	38
Table 4.9: Household composition	39
Table 4.10: Education level	41
Table 4.11: Principal Income Earner	42
Table 4.12: Average monthly income	43
Table 4.13: Monthly expenditure	44
Table 4.14: Other factors	46

List of Graphs and Pie – charts

Pie - Charts	Page
Pie-chart 4.1: Place of interview	27
Pie-chart 4.2: Religious affiliation	29
Graphs	
Graph 4.1: Property ownership	33
Graph 4.2: Number of meals	35
Graph 4.3: Membership to Social Networks	37
Graph 4.4: Average monthly income	43
Graph 4.5: Monthly expenditure	45
Graph 4.6: Other important factors	47

Abbreviations and Acronyms

AIDS – Acquired Immuno- deficiency Syndrome

AKRSP – Aga Khan Rural Support Programme

CVA – Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis

DAO – District Agricultural Office

FAO – Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

GBV – Gender- Based Violence

HFS – Household Food Security

HIV – Human Immunodeficiency Virus

IAGAS - Institute of Anthropology, Gender and African Studies

IFAD -International Fund for Agricultural Development

IFPRI – International Food Policy Research Institute

KIPPRA – Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research and Analysis

KNBS/CBS – Kenya National Bureau of Statistics/Central Bureau of Statistics

NGO – Non-Governmental Organization

SAPs – Structural Adjustment Programmes

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

ABSTRACT

The question of food security has become quite critical in society because the success of all development initiatives depends on how well people are fed. It is obvious that the good health of individuals, families, communities and societies depends on the quality and quantity of food at their disposal. However, strategies for accessing food and those for coping during shortage vary from one area to another and from individual/family to the other.

This study sought to investigate and compare food security coping strategies employed by female and male headed households in Kawangware slums, Nairobi. The study was concerned with the nature and significance of the coping mechanisms of the households in ensuring food security.

The theoretical framework guiding the study is the Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis framework (CVA), which describes the existing strengths (capacities) that determine people's ability to cope with critical situations, and weaknesses (vulnerabilities) that make the people more susceptible to crises. The study illustrates important linkages between capacities and household food security coping strategies, and vulnerabilities and food insecurity.

A total of 60 respondents, 30 female and 30 male household heads were randomly selected and interviewed using structured questionnaires.

The analysis revealed a wide range of factors, which affect food security coping strategies in female and male headed households in slum areas. The study also showed that women are increasingly taking over household/family headship, while men are abandoning their responsibilities for yet to be established reasons.

The study recommends the creation of more income generating opportunities as a means of livelihood for the many youth and women in order to enhance household food security and also stem the increasing alcoholism and associated vices.

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

When food security issues came to the fore in the seventies, the question was whether a nation or a region could command enough food to meet the aggregate requirements of its people. Special attention was paid to fluctuations in aggregate food supply, and food security interventions were primarily concerned with providing effective buffer mechanisms against such fluctuations. In this context, food security measures came to be identified with macro-level instruments such as national and international storage of food and balance-of-payments support for countries facing temporary food shortages (IFAD, 2007).

It was soon realized, however, that this gave a very limited view of the food security problem. A large segment of a population could be living in hunger even if the country had sufficient food in the aggregate during normal times. Likewise, a sizeable section of the population could plunge into hunger during a crisis, even with an adequate national cushion to maintain aggregate food availability. Adequacy at the aggregate level does not necessarily ensure adequacy at the household or individual level.

Based on the above analysis, discussions on food security have been re-directed away from macro-level towards the household, and still further towards the individual. And while the focus on the disaggregated has now become common, there are still varied definitions of food security. However, according to the United Nations (UN), *a household is food secure when it has access to adequate food, needed for a healthy life for all its members, and when it is not at undue risk of losing such access. Adequacy here is in terms of quality, quantity and cultural acceptability* (IFAD, 2007).

On the other hand, Hulse (2007) defines food security as a state where all individuals, families, and communities enjoy consistent access to foods that, in quantity, quality and biochemical composition, provide hygienic, nutritional adequacy. He also notes that food security requires secure ownership of or access to food resources and

income earning activities, including reserves and assets to offset risks, to ease shocks and meet all contingencies. This means all people having access to stocks and flows of food and cash sufficient to satisfy their basic nutritional needs. Everyone in the world need not be a subsistence farmer, but those who do not produce food in quantities sufficient to satisfy their families' needs, must possess the means to acquire foods nutritionally adequate, readily accessible and affordable.

The concept of food security cannot be discussed in isolation. It is a constituent part of the broader concept of nutrition security. A household can be said to be nutritionally secure if it is able to ensure a healthy life for all its members at all times in terms of health care, a hygienic environment, safe water sources, and education.

Thus, a much more comprehensive developmental approach is required to ensure that all members of any given household achieve both food and nutrition security. In this regard, several factors come into play including women's education and economic status, improvements in per capita food availability, and the environment (Haddad et al., 1997).

While both men and women have always contributed significantly to the social and economic life of their families and communities, the role of women in development activities still remains largely unrecognized. In terms of food security, women continue to be the primary custodians, over food acquisition, food processing, food marketing and ultimately over household food security (Oniang'o et al., 1999).

Oniang'o et al. (1999) further contends that generally, women allocate household income differently than men and favour the provision of basic goods and services required to meet the needs of their family, hence the need to allow them take control of household income. Thus, the present study aimed at establishing and comparing the food security coping strategies male and female households in Kawangware slums in Nairobi employ in ensuring that their members are food secure.

1.2 Problem Statement

The question of food security has become quite critical in society because the success of all development initiatives depends on how well people are fed. It is obvious that the good health of individuals, families, communities and societies depends on the quality and quantity of food at their disposal.

Although poverty remains the biggest challenge among many societies, and especially in Africa, the role of women in household food security has not been significantly appreciated when compared to that of men, thereby stifling their potential in development (FAO, 2003). And while some efforts have been made in the past decade or so to improve the situation of women in most aspects, a lot more remains to be done. In Africa, for instance, women as compared to men continue to bear the brunt of an ever worsening food security situation, particularly at community and household levels. Efforts to emancipate women by increasing both their access to a variety of resources and their participation in decision - making through awareness campaigns have hit a snag as new problems emerge. The new problems include: liberalized economies which have created many cracks through which mostly women fall; fast emerging technologies to which women have limited access, and therefore continue to be left behind; climate change that has adversely affected the agricultural sector, where most women operate, thus increasing their vulnerability; and the HIV/AIDS problem whose social impact has hit women hardest (Oniang'o *et al.*, 1999).

Such problems and many other factors including increasing single parenthood, and high levels of poverty have greatly compromised the food security situation in many households, with women and children mostly affected, especially in rural and slum areas.

This study sought answers to the following questions:

- 1) What are the food security coping strategies used by female and male headed households in slum areas?
- 2) How does household composition and division of labour affect food security coping strategies in female and male headed households in slum areas?
- 3) What are the factors that influence food security coping strategies in female and male headed households in slum areas?

1.3 Research Objectives

The overall objective of this study was to investigate and compare the food security coping strategies employed by female and male headed households in Kawangware slums in Nairobi.

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- 1) Identify the coping strategies female and male headed households in slum areas employ in securing food for their families.
- 2) Determine how household composition and division of labour affect food security coping strategies in female and male headed households in slum areas.
- 3) Establish and compare the factors that influence food security coping strategies in female and male headed households in slum areas.

1.4 Assumptions

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. Female headed households are likely to cope better with food security situations than male headed households.
2. Household composition is an important determinant in a household's efforts to cope with food security.

1.5 Justification of the study

This study was conceived as basic social science research and was therefore, mainly concerned with advancing the state of knowledge within the field of gender and development. However, the research findings may also be used by policy makers, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and other stakeholders in the field of food security in designing policies and pre-programmes aimed at addressing the food security situation in slum areas.

In view of this, the study was justified by the fact that household food insecurity is a major impediment to the sustainable development of any nation. It predisposes the household members to various health problems and also stagnates development (Kerr, 2005).

1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study was carried out in the slums of Kawangware location in Nairobi. But since the study was limited to only one location of the larger Nairobi, that is Kawangware location; this may have had a significant effect on the external validity and generalization of the data collected.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Food Security coping strategies in female and male headed households

Food security is concerned primarily with access to nutritionally adequate food at the household level, and is a prerequisite for adequate dietary intake. In the 1970s, the theoretical debate regarding food security focused on food availability or supply. However, the recognition that some groups of people face food insecurity and famine conditions even where food is available has created an understanding that a household's ability to obtain food is determined by its "exchange entitlements". A household's food entitlements are derived from its own production, income generated in exchange for labour, the gathering of wild fruits, community support (claims), assets, transfers (remittances, inheritance), migration, among others. If these entitlements are eroded or collapse, food security is at risk. This highlights the need to understand how households obtain access to food (FAO, n.d.).

An understanding of how households or individuals obtain food to feed themselves on a daily basis is vital for the effective design and implementation of activities and programmes aimed at strengthening people's ability to acquire adequate food supplies. Access to food means that families or individuals are able to acquire food through their own production, purchase, bartering, food for work, gifts, food aid, or loans, enough food for a healthy living.

Food security also implies stability and sustainability of access to food. Stability means that enough food is available on a continuous basis, including when households face a stress such as crop failure, fluctuation in food prices or seasonal changes in cash income or food production. Sustainability means that enough food is available for the long term (FAO, n.d.).

Poorer households are particularly vulnerable to food insecurity, which depends on their resource base and ability to engage in various coping strategies. The relative ability of poor households to cope with shocks and stress is a measure of their resilience. Unfortunately, such households are less likely to have savings to fall back on, assets to sell and or social claims network or kin to help them to recover. Such

situations reduce options for coping strategies and increase vulnerability to food insecurity. Even if coping strategies were to be effective, the costs of coping to those affected are sometimes enormous and can lead to a deterioration of people's health status and functional impairment (FAO, n.d.; Kimalu, 2001). The following are some of the coping strategies used by poor households to counter food insecurity problems:

1. Precautionary or Insurance mechanisms. These mechanisms include diversification of livelihoods, consolidation (or building) up of stocks and savings, and social investments in reciprocal or redistributive systems among households. The diversification of livelihoods may take various forms, such as mixed farming (for rural areas), migrating for seasonal employment opportunities, and street vending of small merchandise among others. Diversification, a strategy of engaging in multiple activities, is an important way of promoting flexibility and countering risk and uncertainty among households (Chen and Dunn, 1996).
2. Responsive mechanisms, which are adopted during severe food crises. Such mechanisms include reducing or modifying consumption, postponing other social obligations, liquidating savings and stocks; mortgaging or selling assets, and migration (Chen and Dunn, 1996). In particular, households facing food crises will tend to cut down on the number of meals a day, postpone expenditure on health; previously non-earning members (women, children and the old) are drawn into employment, sending children to eat at neighbours' homes, and children performing poorly in school, dropping out of school to look for food, begging, sale of blood among others. At some stage in the process, some households begin selling off their assets, starting off with consumer inventories, and then moving onto productive assets. When crises persist, the household unit may actually start breaking down through migration or abandonment. Some of these strategies can be personally degrading, immoral or illegal but the only available option (FAO, n.d.; Kabeer, 2006; Kimalu, 2001: 8).

In some cases of severe food shortages, mothers have been known to train their adolescent daughters to find rich men who are able to pay well for sexual favours. In many of these cases, the mothers are usually heads of poor households, whose means of livelihoods are usually pathetically meagre. They therefore tend to consider selling their own or daughters' bodies as the only available option to the family. Unfortunately, such options are inherent with risks such as HIV/AIDS and or gender based violence (GBV) in its various forms. For example, in Chawama, a peri-urban low income area of Lusaka, Zambia, mothers are reported to have indirectly told their daughters to sell sex by instructing them to go out and make sure that they come back with food. This, the mothers did while knowing very well that their daughters did not have money to buy food (Kambou, et al, 1998). Thus selling sex by some women in low income urban areas can be a powerful strategy of survival.

According to IFAD (2007), the ability of a household to cope with food insecurity is determined by the degree of diversification of its livelihood strategy, that is, the way in which household members allocate their time in pursuit of various means of earning a living. Diversification is an essential feature of livelihood strategy but also depends on household resource constraints and the constraints and opportunities presented by exogenous (or external) factors. The most commonly cited exogenous factors include prevailing economic, ecological, technological and social conditions. However, endogenous (or internal factors) also play an important role in determining a household's degree of diversification. Such internal factors include the composition of the household, especially the worker-dependent ratio; ascribed gender (and intergenerational) roles and relationships, especially as they relate to coping mechanisms; and the degree of intra-household cooperation between men, women and children. Intra-household cooperation is considered as critical to the ability of poor households to tide over seasonal troughs and more severe food crises (Chen and Dunn, 1996).

The other determinants of a household's ability to cope are the scope for consumption-smoothing, which refers to the ability of a household to maintain the normal level of food consumption in the face of income shocks. A fundamental element in this category is the household's asset base. The higher the value and liquidity of assets a household has, the greater the ability to cope with the food

insecurity shocks (IFAD, 2007). IFAD further points out that women play a key role in ensuring the proper utilization of food. When this role is compromised, for example through illness, the ability of households to cope with food related shocks is considerably reduced. Thus the ability of households to cope with such shocks depends on two sets of factors: the availability and the quality of women's health-care facilities and the existence of a support network that can provide help to women in the performance of their domestic chores.

2.2 Impact of household composition and division of labour on household food security coping strategies

A study carried out in northern Malawi (Kerr, 2005; 67-69) indicated some clear labour patterns based on socially mediated entitlements. In some cases there was evidence of a bargaining relationship within the household, while in other cases, there was a little dispute over division of labour. Women/wives carried out almost all of the year round tasks. The only year-round activities that involved men /households to some extent were some informal labour to other farms for food or cash; going to the market and ironing. In almost half of all the households interviewed men were involved in small businesses or waged labour to generate income.

Women contributed cash in almost half of all households. In some cases this unequal division of labour led to food insecurity; since the household reproductive activities took women away from food production or income generation and men did not always share their income within the family.

Thus, the evidence gathered through the study suggests an unequal bargaining relationship within the household, which adversely affects coping mechanisms in terms of household food security. Women appear to have more work both within and beyond the household in comparison to men, who appear to have more leisure time, especially during the dry season.

In other studies carried out by the Aga Khan Rural Support Programme (AKRSP) in India (Bilgi, 2006:94), many women expressed concern about their heavy workload. A day of 17 to 19 hours was not uncommon for most women. On analysis of their

time, women felt that there was scope for reducing their daily workload by introducing time-saving devices.

However, many of the men who were interviewed from some of the households within the study area did not see the point of buying time-saving devices for women. The argument was that women's workload was not excessive as claimed and that hard work had many benefits. They also argued that if women had more time, they would loiter all day, gossiping and back-biting. Yet understanding household diversity and how household characteristics determine a household's well-being is crucial for development intervention (Vlaar and Ahlers, 2006: 195)

The composition of the household also affects its members' well-being. The size of the household, the number and the gender distribution of adults, as well as the age and gender of the children, all contribute significantly to determining the options households have with respect to allocating their available labour to the full range of tasks that need to be accomplished, and to how tasks are divided among household members. Because childcare is viewed strictly as women's responsibility, the presence of young children shapes women's time use and labour market options significantly. Women who have young children tend to withdraw from labour market or to reduce the amount of time they work outside the home. Similarly, the number of older children in the household, particularly girls, reduces the time women spend on various reproductive work activities. Girl children are therefore women's main helpers in tasks such as water and fuel collection and care duties. The existence of other adult female household members also reduces the time each one must allocate to various household tasks and increases the likelihood of their involvement in wage employment or other productive tasks.

Poor households depend heavily on their member's time and labour for the provision of goods and services that are essential for their well-being and survival. When faced with severe time constraints, and lacking the economic resources to access market substitute, these households may have to resort to making tradeoffs between activities which may directly affect their members' well-being in terms of household food security. These may be short-term inter-sectoral tradeoffs as well as intergenerational tradeoffs with far reaching consequences. The negative impact of these tradeoffs can

be observed in various dimensions of human poverty such as food insecurity, child nutrition, health, and education. For instance, time spent on care responsibilities may compromise certain tasks in subsistence production and consequently threaten household food security (Kes and Swaminathan, 2005:16)

Because of household and or community gender dynamics based on cultural, social and economic conditions as well as legal arrangements, access and control over productive resources is often to the disadvantage of women. Such bias is seen through institutionalized gender inequalities related to education, capital and off-farm employment opportunities. Decision-making patterns are also highly gendered on account of differences in men's and women's ability to exert power and control within the household and community (Hovorka et al, 2006:130). Thus such gendered decision-making patterns have far reaching implications for development interventions which aim to work towards improving households and community food security and alleviation of poverty in general (Vlaar and Ahler, 2006:195).

2.3 Factors that influence household food security coping strategies in female and male headed households

Many studies show that although there is a wide diversity in household production patterns, women in all regions play a predominant role in household food security through various means, for example agricultural food production, small and or petty businesses such as sale of hand-made wares, second-hand clothing and street food vending (FAO, 2003; Kerr, 2005; Oniang'o, et al., 1999).

The pooling of incomes of household members is often a precondition for survival as neither female nor male share of income that a household member contributes to particular items of essential expenditure are often a function of societal traditions. However, the direct responsibility for household food provision largely falls on women, and that the improvement of household food security and nutritional levels is associated with women's access to income and their role in household decisions on expenditure (FAO, 2003).

This position is further strengthened by Kabeer (2006), who argues that maximizing household income is not always sufficient to maximize the food security of all its members. There is evidence that women appear to take a much greater role in assuring the food requirements of their dependants in situations of economic deterioration. So that where women produce and or control the resources by which their own nutritional needs and those of their families are met are likely to be associated with enhanced food security of all members.

Kerr (2005) looks at the issue of men and women and food security from a gender and intra-household relations, arguing that it is a critical component of food security analysis. She points out that household members may have different levels of access and control over resources that affect food security, a difference that is often delineated by gender. Household members may therefore use the resources at their disposal to improve household food security, or to worsen it. This is contrary to the assumption by many writers that if income is increased, the overall food security of households will increase, since any income produced will be shared within the household. This assumption ignores household dynamics based on gender, age and differences of power in gender relation. It simply treats the household as an undifferentiated unit.

Women more than men have been affected by the impact of adjustments in social services programmes and the labour market and the informalization of work. Women's relatively low entitlements, such as their restricted access to land ownership, credit and other productive resources, and their limited capabilities resulting from illiteracy and low educational levels are well documented determinants of feminization of poverty. Social and cultural expectations and norms confine women to unpaid household work-linked to their reproductive roles-and restrict their participation in paid production (Kimalu et al, 2001:16).

Lack of awareness of the specific and different roles and contributions of men and women to food security results in what has been termed as gender blindness. Unaware of these differences, policy makers and planners proceed as if they did not exist, as if the situations and needs of men and women are the same. Thus policy making and planning are built on a partial view of reality (FAO, 2003).

FAO further points out that the lack of collection and dissemination of gender – disaggregated data is one of the under-lying causes of this neglect of women’s contributions to productive work and food security in development policies and research. Another root cause of this neglect is the lack of women’s participation in policy making and decision- making bodies at national and international levels.

While both men and women, particularly in developing countries lack sufficient access to productive resources, women generally have much less access than men. The causes of this are rooted, to a great extent in: gender-blind development policies and research; discriminatory legislation, traditions and attitudes; and lack of access to decision- making. These compromise women’s ability to effectively and sufficiently contribute to food security, whether at household, community or national level (FAO, 2001).

Education is another very important factor in Human Development. It strengthens people’s abilities to meet their basic needs and those of their families by increasing their productivity and potential to achieve higher standards of welfare which includes food and nutrition security. Education has also been noted as one of the most valuable means of achieving gender equality and empowerment of women. Furthermore, education inculcates the knowledge and skills needed to improve the income earning potential and in turn the quality of life. This means that educating boys and girls, men and women can improve a number of other human development indicators, including health, nutrition, household income, among others (Republic of Kenya, June, 2008: 45-46).

According to an analysis carried out by the Kenyan National Bureau of Statistics, KNBS, (Republic of Kenya, April, 2008:5), households whose heads had secondary or higher education showed lower undernourishment levels than those with primary or special/incomplete higher education. Moreover, food deprivation/insecurity by gender showed that male headed households had 52% prevalence of undernourishment compared to 48% for female-headed households in general.

Gender inequality is another factor that has implications on household food security, not only in Kenya but across the developing world. According to the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS/KNBS, 2002), inequality places restrictions on women's choices, opportunities and participation in development, thus lowering their socio-economic status, that of their households and the nation at large. This has implications for the well-being of families/households.

Although the proportion of female headed households has continued to increase in Kenya, from 35% in 1989 to 37% in 1999, the economic status of women, especially in urban areas still remains low (CBS, 2002). Males still dominate economic activity. One possible reason for the low participation of women in economic activity is their low participation at decision-making level. Men have traditionally occupied power and decision making positions in society. Yet involvement in various aspects of decision making at different levels would be one way of improving women's status and reducing gender inequality in access to various opportunities, service and resources for improved food security (CBS, 2002).

According to Due and Gladwin (1991), the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) initiated by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank have also had a negative impact on both poor rural and urban households by being too macroeconomic in scope. They ignored the reality of life at the grass root and household levels, where male-female power relationships affect who gets access to the means of production and who controls the surplus or profit that results from added incentives to produce. Because of inequality in gender relations and women's relative lack of power, majority of women are not in a position to react with an economically appropriate supply response because they lack access to the factors of production as compared to men. In addition, the consumption-oriented policies within the SAP programs-reduced expenditure for health and education, in particular- have adversely affected female-headed and low resource households in both urban and rural sectors. Many of these households are forced to bear heavier burdens of food, education, and health costs and are locked into a vicious cycle of poverty.

The inability of many men to fulfil expected roles in their households and communities due to diverse socio-economic changes have largely resulted in loss or

decline in livelihoods. These changes have had significant impacts on the relationships between people and among households and communities. Men are facing difficulties in adapting to these changes of livelihoods, trapped in a stereotypical definition of male identity and unable to redefine their roles in the local economy or within the household. The resultant frustration of being unable to cater to their households' needs is channelled into antisocial behaviour, such as substance abuse and crime, intra-household violence, and mental health problems. Moreover, women are increasingly becoming responsible for their households' income, acquiring a new awareness, autonomy, and a feeling of self-worth. This seems to be an indication of a significant reduction of men's power, leading to their disenfranchisement (Amuyunzu-Nyamongo and Francis, 2006:226, 228, 242).

The International Food Policy Research Institute, IFPRI, (2005) also argues that empowering women is the key to ensuring food and nutrition security, especially in the developing world. In one of their evaluation researches in Mexico, IFPRI found that with increased income, women were more likely to make better decisions regarding their children's social welfare. The research further showed that placing assets in the hands of women increases household spending, especially on children's nutrition and social needs. It also has the potential to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS on food security and reduce the spread of the virus by reducing the high-risk behaviours such as transactional sex, the main income earner for some desperate women and orphaned children.

The research further pointed out that investing in the human capital women offer is key to sustainable and gender-sensitive food policy. This can be done through education and by removing barriers to the productive use of women's time and energy. Women must also be included alongside men in the design of agricultural and nutrition programs. One effective way of securing women's participation is through networks or group-based programs. These groups help women access critical support services and strengthen their social capital so they can engage in other activities. However, because women are not a homogenous group, particular attention must be given to ensuring that all women can participate effectively in such programs.

Thus a gendered perspective on household food security is essential in understanding and explaining dynamics that shape the production and marketing of foodstuffs in and around urban centres. Omitting the question on the role women play in feeding cities/urban centres risks leaving unaddressed key local and structural issues and processes that shape gender inequalities and hinder food supply at multiple scales. Yet dealing with such a question necessarily counters the invisibility of specifically women's work in conceptualizations of food supply and security that assumes food production and trade to be part of women's automatic and everyday duties, related to the domestic sphere and therefore not important in economic or political spheres (Hovorka and Lee-Smith 2006: 126).

2.4 Theoretical framework

A theoretical framework sets out the different categories of elements to be considered for analysis and draws attention to key issues to be explored.

This study applied the *Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis Framework (CVA)*.

2.4.1 Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis Framework (CVA).

Designed at Harvard University through a research project, the International Relief and Development Project, CVA was designed to help in interventions that meet immediate needs, and at the same time build on the strengths of people and their efforts to achieve long-term social and economic development (March, et al, 1999:78). Most of the information in CVA is adopted from Anderson and Woodrow (1989) according to whom "*Development is a process by which vulnerabilities are reduced and capacities are increased.*"

CVA is based on the central idea that people's existing strengths (or capacities) and weaknesses (or vulnerabilities) determine the impact that a crisis has on them, as well as the way they respond to the crisis. A crisis becomes a disaster when it outstrips a society's capacity to cope.

Capacities describe the existing strengths of individuals and social groups. They are related to people's material and physical resources, their social resources and their

beliefs and attitudes. Capacities are built over time and determine people's ability to cope with crisis and recover from it.

Vulnerabilities on the other hand are long-term factors which weaken people's ability to cope with crisis or disaster. Vulnerabilities make people more susceptible to crisis, thereby contributing to the severity of the situation (Anderson and Woodrow, 1989).

However, according to FAO (2008), it is important to understand the concept of vulnerability because it plays an important role in predicting the onset of food insecurity and can facilitate an appropriate response. It also helps us to identify existing risks and risk management strategies in order to intervene and reduce it (vulnerability). Thus monitoring the changing levels of vulnerability is relevant to determining the effectiveness and efficiency of intervention measures adopted and making the necessary adjustments to policies and programmes.

Information on vulnerability is provided to decision makers in the form of narrative and indicators. A vulnerability indicator helps us to understand the probability that a household or individual – at a future point in time – is food insecure. It is a way of characterizing the dimensions of vulnerability and a pointer to how levels and causes of vulnerability are changing. A good indicator should alert decision makers to a problem before it gets too difficult to handle (FAO, 2008:4).

The capacities and vulnerabilities framework (CVA) distinguishes between three categories of capacities and vulnerabilities, using an analysis matrix. These are: physical, social and motivational capacities and vulnerabilities.

Physical or material capacities and vulnerabilities include features of the climate, land and environment where people live, their health skills, their work, housing, technologies, water and food supply, their access to capital and other assets. All these will be different for women and men. And while women and men suffer material deprivation during times of uncertainty and crisis, they always have some resources left – mainly skills and possibly some goods/assets. These are capacities which can be built upon for future development.

Social or organizational capacities and vulnerabilities refer to the social fabric of a household or community, and include the formal structures and the informal systems through which people make decisions, establish leadership, or organize various social and economic activities. Social systems include family/household and community systems, and decision-making patterns within the family/household and between families/households.

Gender analysis in this category is crucial, because women's and men's roles in these various forms of organization differ widely. Divisions on the basis of gender, class, and ethnicity can weaken the social fabric of a group, and increase its vulnerability.

Motivational and attitudinal capacities and vulnerabilities include cultural and psychological factors which may be based on religion, on the community's history of uncertainty and or crisis, on their expectation of aid. Vulnerabilities can be increased by inappropriate assistance/aid, which does not build on people's own abilities, develop their confidence or offer them opportunities for change (March, et al 1999: 79-80).

The CVA framework is relevant to this study in that it is applicable in development work, particularly for communities in vulnerable situations, such as food insecurity. Capacities, vulnerabilities and needs are differentiated by gender. Men and women experience vulnerability differently, according to their gender roles. They have different needs and interests within the household. Women, by virtue of their lower economic, social and political status, even though they may be heads of their households, are likely to be more vulnerable to situations of uncertainty or crisis. At the same time, they also tend to be more open to change than men, thus using their capacities better than men. Therefore, CVA can form a basis for positive change within female-headed households.

Conceptual Definition of Term

The key concepts used in this study were:

Female-headed household: A household where a female is the head and has the power and capacity to make decisions that affect other members of the household.

Male-headed household: A household where a male is the head and has the power to make decisions that affect other members of the household.

House hold: The unit of analysis in the present study. It is a unit where women and men as single, widowed, separated or divorced persons reside with their children and or dependants.

Food Security: Access by all people at all times to adequate food for an active, healthy life. Food Security includes at the very minimum: (1) the ready availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods, and (2) an assured ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways.

Food Insecurity: A situation of limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods or limited or uncertain ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways.

House hold food security: Refers to the fact that each member of the household in the study is secure in terms of nutritionally adequate food and the house hold in general has access to food.

Livelihood: This refers to the set of capabilities (assets, stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is said to be sustainable if it is able to cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets for the next generation.

Capacities: These are the existing strengths of individuals or groups in the unit of analysis in the present study.

Vulnerabilities: These are the long-term factors which weaken people's ability to cope with uncertainty, crisis or disaster, making them more susceptible.

Empowerment: This is a process by which the powerless gain greater control over their life circumstances, including control over resources (physical, human, intellectual, and financial) and ideology (beliefs, values, and attitudes). It implies not only greater extrinsic control but also a growing intrinsic capability – greater self-confidence and an inner transformation of conscience that enables an individual to overcome external barriers to accessing resources or changing traditional ideology.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the methodology used in the study. It comprises 4 sections covering the study area and population; sampling and data collection; Data analysis; and Ethical considerations.

The study was carried out using a descriptive survey method because it sought to get information directly from the selected participants on the various issues that were to be investigated.

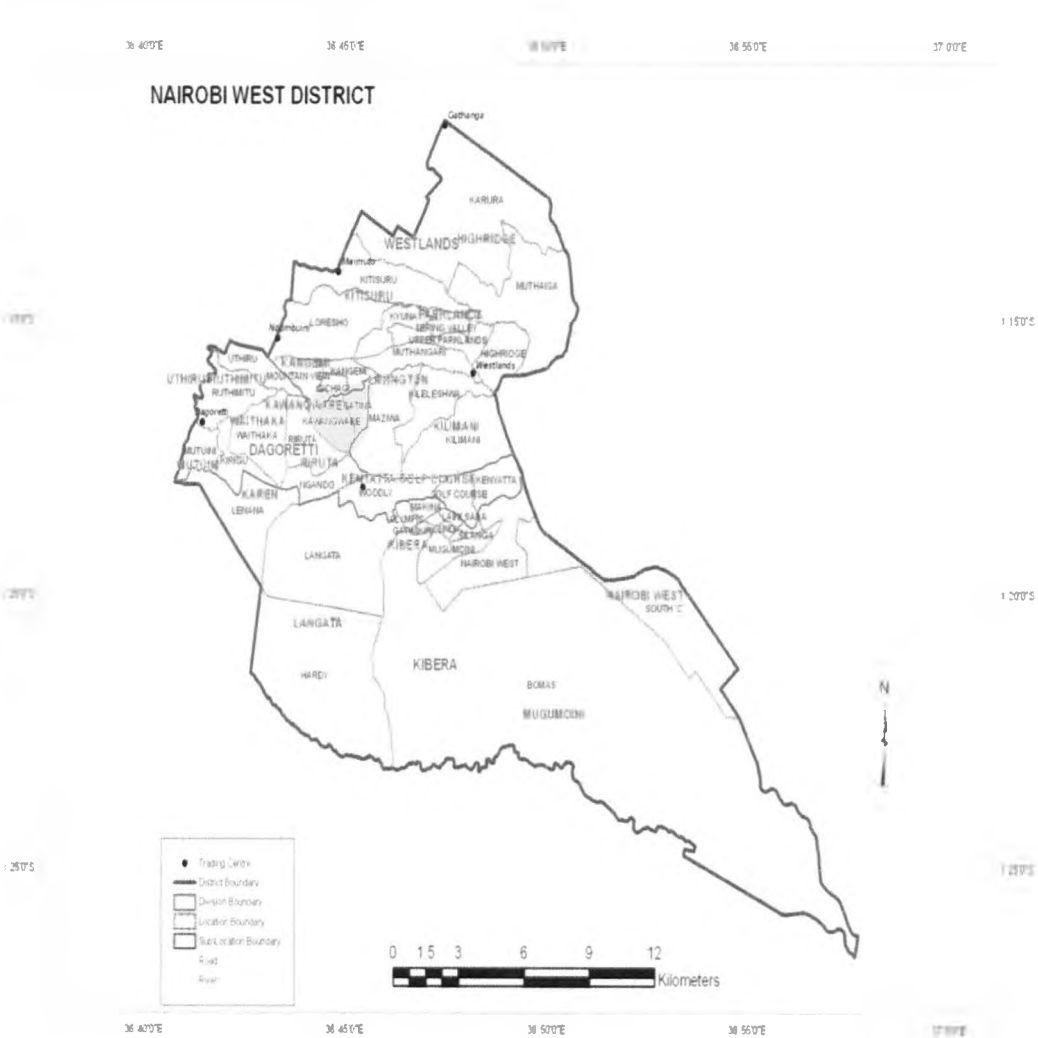
3.2 Study Site and Population

The site of the study was Kawangware Location of Dagoretti Division in Nairobi West District, Nairobi Province. Kawangware location occupies an area of 4km² and had a population of 86,824 inhabitants. Of these, 47,555 were males while 39,269 were females. There were a total of 29,918 households (Republic of Kenya, 2001). The location had two sub-locations – Kawangware and Gatina. The location of the research site was as shown on the Nairobi West District Map (Map 3.1, P. 21).

The main occupation of the inhabitants was small-scale horticulture farming on pieces of land averaging 0.125 acres; informal businesses including street vending of groceries, second hand clothing, small hardware shops and other wares (DAO, Nairobi West District, 2008).

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Map3.1: Nairobi West District with Dagoretti Division, where the Research Site, Kawangware Slums are located.



3.3 Research Design

The study was cross-sectional and descriptive in nature. Data was collected only at one level namely household. This was because it was found to be an important decision-making unit and could therefore greatly influence the role of women as well as men in household food security. Households also vary in their characteristic composition based on the gender notion. Observations were made to determine whether or not men and women or both play a central role in household food security and whether there are any factors influencing their efforts in ensuring household food security.

3.4 Study Population

The study population covered all female and male headed households in the study location.

3.5 Sampling Design and Sample size

In this study probability sampling was used as the most appropriate sampling design. This is because the design gives every member/subject of the population equal chances of being included in the study. It also enables the researcher to generalize to the larger population and make inferences (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).

The study used stratified random sampling to select the study sample. This method was preferred because of its more statistical precision and high degree of representativeness of the overall population.

The process of sample selection was based on two already existing administrative sub locations. The two sub- locations were each to give 30 randomly selected (15 female and 15 male) headed households thus giving 60 households in total as the sample size.

The 60 households were further sub - grouped/stratified based on the cause of household headship, that is, on whether the female and male household headship was as a result of widowhood, divorce, separation, non-marriage or otherwise.

This categorization was expected to give an insight into how the different female and male household heads dealt with issues of food security.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

The study applied the following methods of data collection.

3.6.1 Survey Technique

This was instrumental in yielding quantitative data. A structured questionnaire was developed and administered by the researcher to 60 female and male heads of households within the study area. This instrument was useful in eliciting demographic information such as age, levels of education, household type and composition,

productive activities engaged in, among others. Other questions included means of livelihood, membership to social network groups among others.

3.6.2 Direct Observation

Besides the questionnaire, direct observation regarding gestures and facial expressions were also made. This was because direct observation makes it possible to capture the context in which the respondents' attitudes, activities and feelings occur. In addition, observation is also less demanding of active cooperation on the part of the subjects and makes it possible to record activities and behaviour as they occur (Burns, 2000). These two methods, interviews through questionnaires and direct observation, are complimentary to one another and are useful for getting information on issues that would otherwise not come out ordinarily.

3.6.3 Narratives

Also known as the voice of the people, narratives were to be solicited from 8 elderly people (4 men and 4 women) from the study location. The narrators/respondents were asked to give their live histories on food security coping strategies. This greatly enriched the study as it gave insight into household food security coping strategies.

3.6.4 Secondary data sources

Secondary data through library and internet search were major sources of information for this study. Relevant literature concerning the role of women and men, in household food security was reviewed, particularly at the initial stages to provide background information to the study. Pertinent issues were examined and it is from such sources that research problems and assumptions were generated. Written materials that were used included articles, journals and books.

The use of several methods of data collection was justified by the fact that they are complimentary to one another and is therefore useful in generating in-depth information that may otherwise be difficult to get.

3.7 Data Processing and Analysis

The data collected was subjected to qualitative and quantitative analysis. Such data was organized, checked for consistency and completeness, cleaned, analyzed,

summarized and presented. Qualitative analysis was used to explain the unfolding patterns of the data collected while quantitative data from questionnaires was subjected to quantitative analysis through statistical manipulation.

Measures of central tendency were used to show the characteristics of the data while frequencies showed the distribution. The data was categorized, arranged, summarized and presented using tabulation and graphs/charts. The statistical package for social sciences computer programmes (SPSS) was used to analyse the study results. Coding of each category of variables was carried out for analysis and processing of data.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical principles, rules and conventions distinguish socially acceptable behaviour from that which is considered socially un-acceptable (Burns, 2000). Therefore, in this study, respondents were informed about the nature and purpose of the research and they participated out of their consent without any coercion. The researcher assured them that their responses to personal questions were confidential and anonymous such that anybody reading the research report would not be able to identify them.

Individuals were left to decide what aspects of their lives: attitudes, habits, fears among others, were to be discussed during the study. They were also given the right to discontinue or withdraw their participation, if they had reason to. The researcher also explained to the respondents how they were selected and why it was important for them to co-operate.

CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study and the discussion thereof as per the set objectives. Quantitative data presented in form of frequency and percentage tables and charts was obtained by using the computer software “Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)”. Qualitative responses were analyzed through content analysis. The chapter covers introduction, demographic issues, male and female headed household food security coping strategies, the impact of household composition and division of labour on food security in male and female headed households, and the factors that influence household food security coping strategies in female and male headed households.

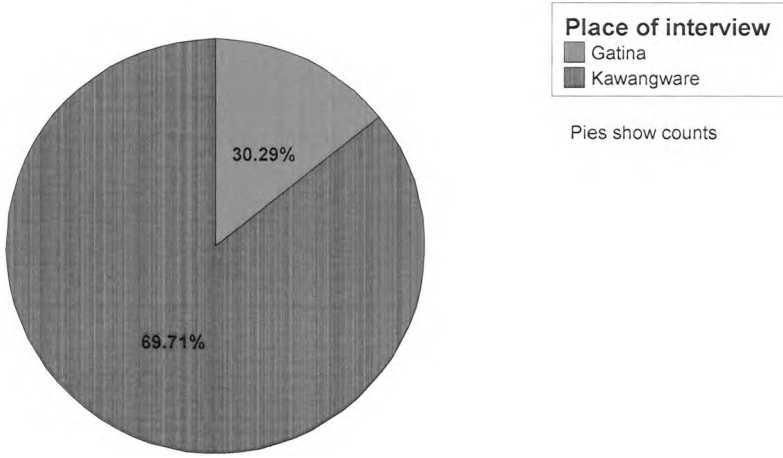
4.2 Demographic Information

The objective of the present study was to investigate and compare food security coping strategies employed by female and male headed households in Kawangware slums, Nairobi. The study was concerned with the nature and significance of the coping mechanisms of the households in ensuring food security. To address this question, female and male headed households were compared. The sampling unit was the household, defined as a group of people who reside together under one or more roofs within a single compound, who are answerable to the same head and share a common source of food. During the survey 60 questionnaires were distributed to randomly selected female and male household heads, who were later interviewed. 56 questionnaires, constituting 93% of the total distributed were returned and the respondents interviewed. The 93% was considered good enough for analysis. Information on household background, income and food consumption was collected, cleaned, organized and analyzed. The results presented here consist of the averages.

The study covered two sub locations, Kawangware and Gatina. Gatina made up 30.29% of the respondents and Kawangware 69.71%. The difference in the respondent numbers can be attributed to the fact that Kawangware sub-location is heavily populated hence it was prudent enough to have a larger sample to represent

the whole targeted population as compared to Gatina. Pie chart 4.1 below illustrates this.

Pie Chart 4.1: place of interview



4.2.2 Age of respondents

The study involved respondents of ages 20 years and above. The ages were distributed in clusters with a class index of 5. Table 4.1 below shows the distribution of the ages of the respondents involved in the study. Those between the ages of 20-25 years accounted for 3.6%, 26-30 years - 23.2%, 31-35 and 36-40 years accounted for 16.1% each while those of 40 years and above made up 41.1%. This was almost half of all the respondents.

Table 4.1: Respondents' age cluster

Ages in years	Frequency	Percent
20-25	2	3.6
26-30	13	23.2
31-35	9	16.1
36-40	9	16.1
Above 40 years	23	41.1
Total	56	100.0

4.2.3 Respondents' Gender

The survey covered both male and female household heads. A total of 30 male and 26 female household heads were interviewed. The males constituted 53.6% while female respondents constituted 46.4%. Table 4.2 below gives a summary of gender distribution of respondents.

Table 4.2: Respondents' Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	30	53.6
Female	26	46.4
Total	56	100.0

4.2.4 Marital status

It was also important to get the marital status of the respondents. This was important for drawing a comparison of food security coping strategies between married and unmarried household heads, that is, whether or not the marital status had any bearing on household food security coping mechanisms. Gender disaggregation in table 4.3 shows that of those who were interviewed, 70% of the male household heads were married. All the female household heads interviewed were either single, separated, widowed.

Table 4.3: Marital status per gender

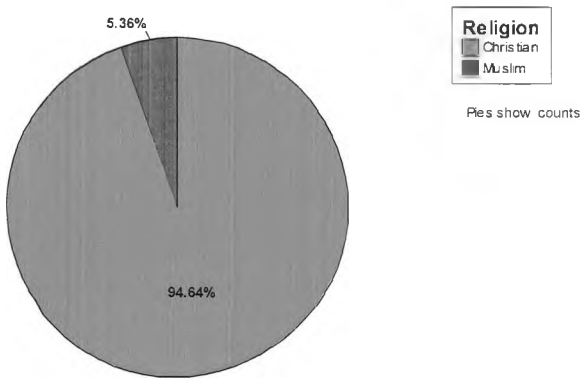
Gender	Marital status					Total
	Single	Separated	Widowed	Divorced	Married	
Male	2	4	1	2	21	30
Female	11	6	7	2	0	26
Total	13	10	8	4	21	56

4.2.5 Religious affiliation

One of the defining features of food choice by communities is culture. In fact culture has a very heavy bearing on how people choose their food. Therefore, religion has an

important role to play in terms of food choice. In the present study the variable was significant in order to determine what role it plays in household food security strategies, that is, whether religious affiliation has any bearing on household food security. Pie chart 4.2 summarizes the findings on the religious affiliation of the household heads in the present study. Majority of the respondents (94.64%) were Christians. Only 5.36% were Muslims.

Pie Chart 4.2: Religious affiliation



4.3 Household food security coping strategies

Coping abilities and strategies in food security are the primary determinants of differences in the levels of needs across vulnerable groups (between populations, and among and within households). Coping mechanisms are the various activities (often desperate measures) that individuals, households and communities develop to meet their basic food and other requirements. They vary by region, community, social class, and gender. Patterns of coping behaviours and household assets utilized to cope with food crisis will reflect who between men and women, control household decision-making processes. Coping mechanisms tend to be expensive in terms of financial, social and nutritional status, and can have particularly deleterious effects on the most marginalized in society.

The coping strategies index includes four categories of strategies: consumption, expenditure, income, and migration. Consumption strategies include buying food on credit, relying on less-preferred food substitutes, reducing the number of meals eaten

per day, regularly skipping food for an entire day, eating meals comprised solely of alternate food, eating unusual foods, restricting consumption of adults so children can eat normally, and feeding working members at the expense of nonworking members.

Expenditure strategies include avoiding health care or education costs in order to buy food. Income strategies include selling household and livelihood assets such as plots, house furnishes and other tangible assets. Migration strategies include sending children to relatives' or friends' homes or migrating to find work (Kimalu, 2001; Chen and Dunn, 1996).

Given existing gender inequalities and vulnerabilities, the coping mechanisms available to women in either male or female-headed households in response to food insecurity may be more limited than those available to their male counterparts. Within the household, women are often the ones who buffer the impacts of food crisis. The coping strategies used by households vary from moderate, for example short-term reduction in quantity and quality of food to extreme strategies such as distress migration or distress sale of assets. The present study established the following as some of the coping strategies that are employed by the respondents.

4.3.1 Source of household income

The respondents interviewed indicated that they were involved in different forms of activities to support themselves. As table 4.4 indicates, 58.9% of the respondents support themselves through wages from informal means while those who got support from family members and through NGOs constituted 3.6% each. However, those with wages from formal means made up 28.6%. But even these individuals who are employed formally also complained of not earning enough to support themselves, thereby affecting their food security. This forces them to engage in some other side businesses to make ends meet.

The results shown in the table below indicate that a greater percentage of female headed households supported themselves through informal means, which included, washing clothes for the affluent people from their neighborhoods, street vending of second hand wares, vegetables and cooked foods and to a small extent cereals. Others included *making and selling of illicit local brews, selling of certain parts of slaughtered animals and chicken such as legs and heads, out which soup is made for*

sale, mostly to drunkards. Although commercial sex was not obvious to observe, a few women intimated that it is part of their survival tactics, as they had no otherwise. They indicated that sometimes they carry out their trade with willing clients within the study area, but sometimes they are forced to move to places such as Koinange Street in the city centre when things are not very good.

The women who, sometimes go cleaning for the affluent reported that because there are many more women from other slum areas such as Kangemi, sometimes they don't secure these jobs. Asked what they do in such circumstances, some reported that they send their children to beg in the streets, while some of them trade their bodies for survival. Asked how much they make out of the cleaning for the affluent, they said at most they make between Kshs. 250 and 300 per day. They were however not willing to disclose how much they make from the body selling trade.

The study revealed that no female household head had any formal means of supporting themselves. This could be attributed to the general low levels of education, and the limited skills among female household heads.

4.4: Sources of household income

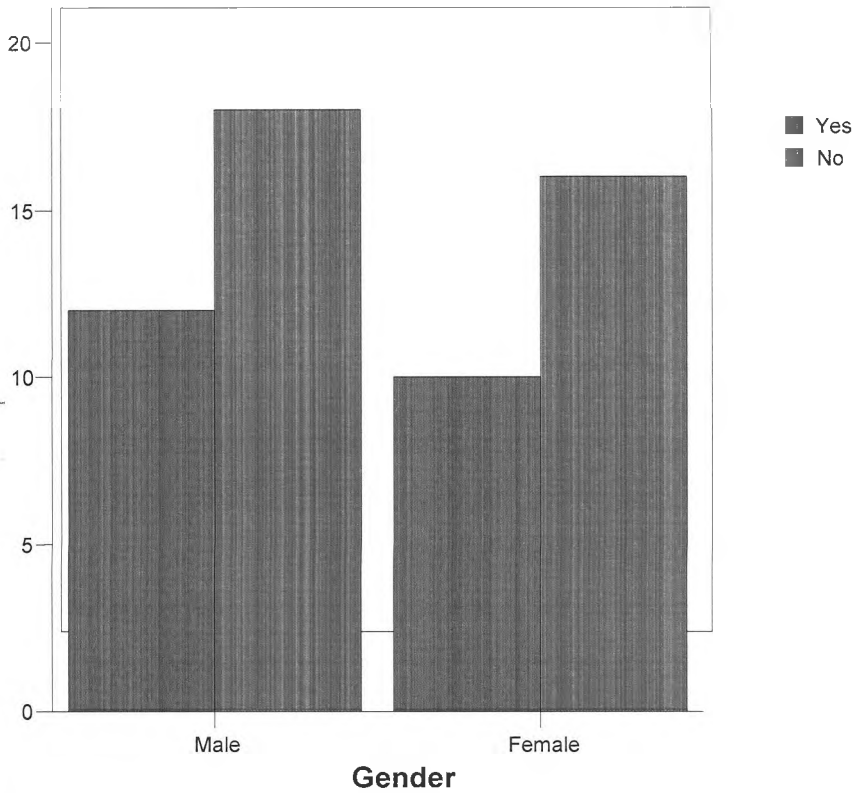
	Source of household income						Total	
	Informal Wages (street vending of various food items, other wares, local brews and working in affluent people's homes)		Family members	NGOs	Others	Formal Wages		
	(f)	(%)						(f)
Male	11	33.3%	0	1	2	16	100%	30
Female	22	66.7%	2	1	1	0		26
Total		33	2	2	3	16		56

4.3.2 Property ownership

Property ownership by household heads was considered as another important variable that impacts on food security strategies employed by households. This is because many households tend to resort to disposing off their assets as a coping strategy when need arises. Where the property is agricultural land, others may use it for production of food. From the findings, 60.7% of the respondents said they had no property while 39.3% owned either through inheritance or purchase. When a comparative cross tabulation was done, 54.5% of the property owners were male respondents. Female\property owners constituted 45.5%. This is summarized in table 4.5 and graph 4.1.

Table 4.5: Property ownership for example land & houses per gender

Gender	Property ownership				Total
	Yes		No		
	(f)	%	(f)	(%)	
Male	12	54.5%	18	53.3%	30
Female	10	45.5%	16	46.7%	26
Total	22	100.0%	34	100	56



4.3.3 Number of meals per day

The number of meals a household takes per day may be a good indicator of the level of food security of a household. The study sought to establish this and as table 4.6 and graph 4.2 show, 51.8% of the respondents take two meals in a day. When probed further, it was found that most households skipped lunch and sometimes breakfast. According to them this was meant to save on the meager resources they earn. Only those households with small children and those with a steady source of income thought it was important to have three meals in a day. It was further established that the majority of those who skip lunch are female household heads at 44.8%. Male household heads constituted 43%.

Table 4.6: Number of meals per day

Gender	Number of meals per day			Total
	1	2	3	
Male	4	13	13	30
Female	2	16	8	26
Total	6	29	21	56

Besides the number of meals taken in a day, the study also sought to know the main types of food eaten by the respondents. Discussions in general about the type of food they have in their daily diets revealed that the households go for cheap foods. These include low grade maize meal, wheat products, beans and other cereals. Pulses were deemed to be expensive and were therefore avoided by many households. Green vegetables are consumed two to three times a week, particularly when they are cheaper, which is during the rainy season.

4.3.4 Social Networks

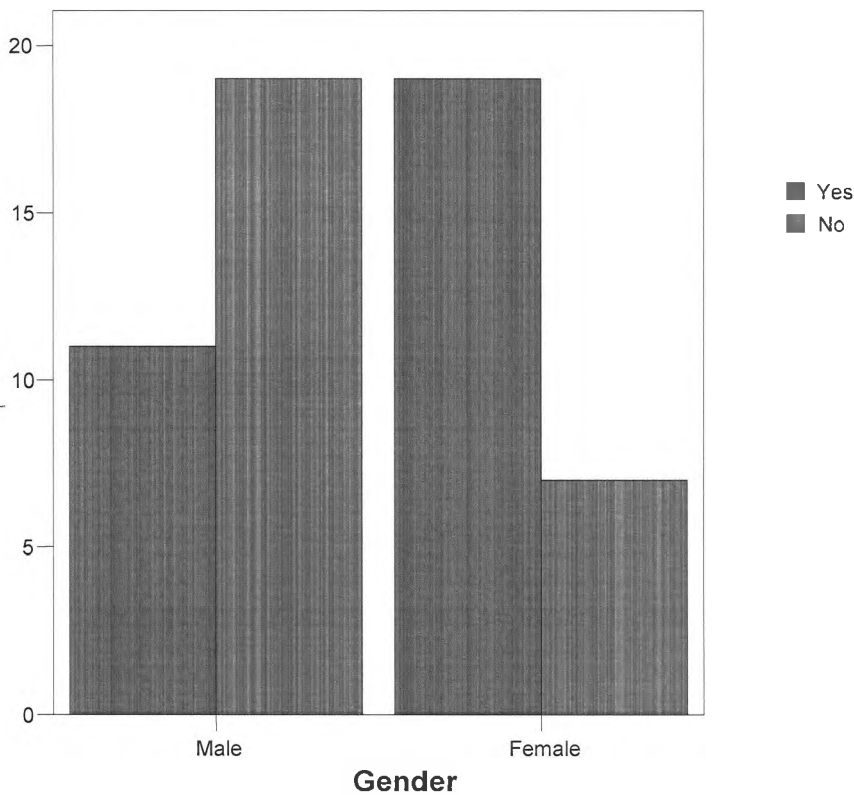
Social Networks have been known to provide some safety nets for certain groups of people. The study therefore, sought to find out whether the respondents belonged to any of such social networks. As table 4.7 and graph 4.3 show, more than half of the respondents (53.6%) have access or belong to social networks. These included merry-go-round and self-help groups.

However, it was revealed that mostly female household heads belong to social networks (63.7%) while few men (36.7%) belonged to these networks. This implies that most women have a way of pooling together to support one another, especially in times of need. It also goes to explain that women are more strategic than men when it comes to securing food for their families and therefore proves the assumption of the researcher that female headed households are likely to cope better with food security situations than male headed households.

Table 4.7: Membership to Social networks per gender

Gender	Membership to Social networks		Total
	Yes (f) (%)	No	
Male	11 36.7%	19	30
Female	19 63.3%	7	26
Total	30 100	26	56

Bar graph 4.3: Membership to Social Networks



4.4 Impact of household composition and division of labor on household food security coping strategies

4.4.1 Presence of dependants in the household.

Evidence from a number of studies has shown that the composition of the household does have a significant bearing on household food security as well as the division of labour within the household (Kerr,2005; Bilgi, 2006; Kes and Swaminathan, 2005).

The present study also set out to establish from the respondents whether they had any dependants below 18 years. As shown in table 4.8, 75% of the respondents reported having dependants who were not only below 18 years, but also the aged, disabled and the sick. Only 25% said they had no dependants. This variable was important because the presence and number of dependants in a household impacts on the income as well as the food security strategies of that household. The expenditure in such households tends to be higher on food procurement as well as other utilities such as water, electricity and medical care.

The study also established that the physical status and age of the dependants plays a major role in the overall wellbeing of the household in terms of food security. For instance those households with young children as well as the aged and physically challenged were more affected than the other households. This was because the household heads and, especially women had to spend more time on taking care of the dependants than on looking for food. This observation ties in well with the argument of Kes and Swaminathan (2005).

Table 4.8: Presence of dependants in the household.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	42	75.0
No	14	25.0
Total	56	100.0

The study further established that even in the male headed households, women still bear the burden of ensuring availability of food for household members. Many respondents indicated that most men spend their time and money on alcohol and other leisure instead of supporting their families. This has left women to take over leadership of households/families. This view is corroborated by a study carried out in northern Malawi, which established that women undertook more work within and beyond the household in comparison to men, who had more leisure time (Kerr, 2005). This unequal division of labour in many cases led to household food insecurity. A similar situation was observed in the present study.

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Table 4.9: Household composition

No. of household members by age			
Gender	Below 18 years	Above 18 years	Total
Male	16	14	30
Female	22	4	26
	28	18	56

4.5 Factors that influence household food security coping strategies in female and male headed households.

While both men and women experience a wide diversity in the patterns of household production, women play a predominant role in household food security through various means such as agricultural food production, formal employment, small and or petty businesses. However, such means of raising income for household food security is normally influenced by a number of factors.

The present study sought to establish some of the factors that influence household food security in female and male headed households.

4.5.1 Level of Education

The level of education was considered by the study to be an important factor in household food security. This is because the level of education may be an indicator of the level and significance of skill acquisition on the part of the household head. It may also point to the ability of the household head to maneuver and take care of the household in terms of food security, especially when faced with shortages. It is also important to take into account the level of education because food choices are a function of biological knowledge and not merely cultural and economic preferences.

Nutrition education may be a function of social mobilization and sensitization programmes. However, it may also arise out of exposure to higher levels of education. For instance, an analysis carried out by the Kenyan National Bureau of Statistics, KNBS, (Republic of Kenya, 2008) found that households whose heads had secondary or higher education showed lower undernourishment levels than those with primary or special/incomplete higher education. Moreover, food deprivation/insecurity by gender

showed that male headed households had 52% prevalence of undernourishment compared to 48% for female-headed households in general. It was therefore necessary to find out the level of education.

Table 4.10 gives a summary of the findings on the level of education. As the findings indicate, many of the respondents had high school level of education. This gave insight into the kind of occupation they engage in. It also gave insight into how the respondents cope with food acquisition skills. The level of education may also be a factor to consider when looking at the occupation of the respondents and their level of earnings.

The education level distribution across gender showed that among those with no formal education, actually 100% were women. Majority of them completed primary school (50%). Among those who completed secondary school, only 5% were women as compared to men who made up 95% of the respondents. However, the only respondent who attained University level education was a woman. The general trend here depicts that majority of women just attained basic education only, which cannot offer them an opportunity of engaging in productive formal jobs that can enable them improve their food security situation. The findings also point to the fact that women's education is not so valued by society.

Table 4.10: Education level per Gender

Gender	Education level							Total
	No formal education		Primary		High school		University	
	<i>f</i>	(%)			<i>f</i>	(%)		
Male	0	0	10	47.5%	20	95%	0	30
Female	4	100	13	52.5%	8	5%	1	26
Total	4	100	23	100	28	100	1	56

4.5.2 Decision – making within the household.

The process of decision making in the family depends on whether that person is the principal income earner in the household or not. The principle income earner has

always had the final word on issues of food, and especially acquisition, type of food and frequency of intake. The study sought to find out whether the respondents in the present study were the principal income earners. From the findings, 82.1% of the respondents were found to be the principal income earners in the households they head and therefore decision - makers. Only 17.9% were not principal income earners and depended on others for their upkeep. The situation was 50/50 as an equal number of respondents; both male and female were found to be the principal income earners as illustrated in table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Gender disaggregation of principle income earner

	The principal income earner in the household		Total
	Yes	No	
Male	23	7	30
Female	23	3	26
Total	46	10	56

4.5.3 Monthly income

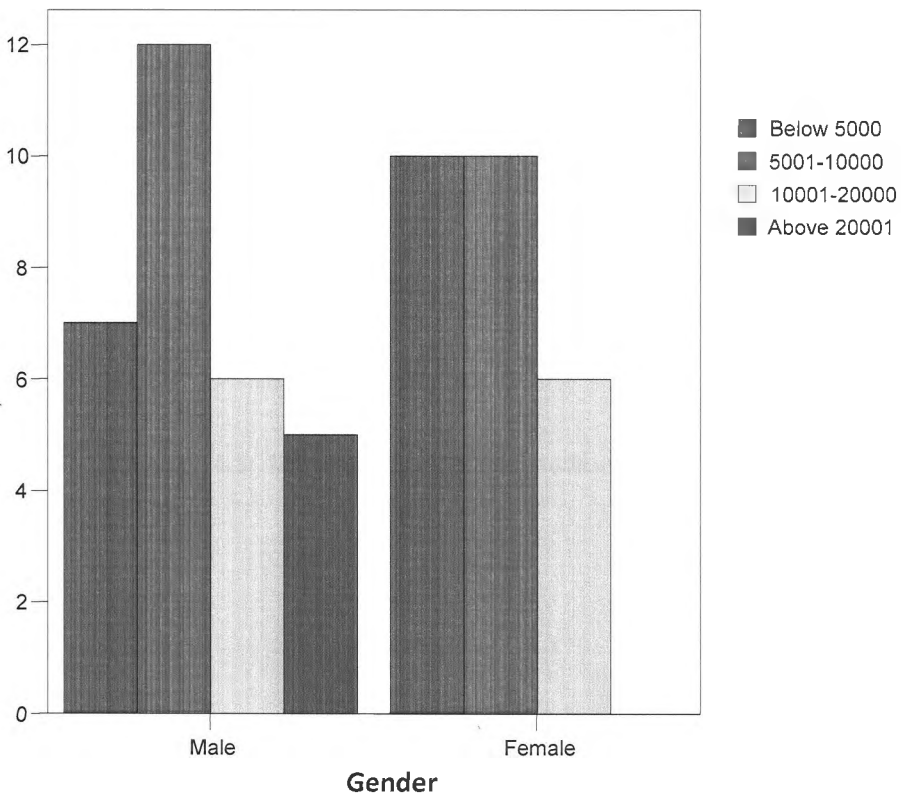
In order to understand the role of income volatility in determining food insecurity and the coping strategies employed by households, it was important to find out the total income per month earned by the respondents. Those earning an income of less than 5,000 shillings accounted for 30.4% whereas those whose income ranged between 5,001 and 10,000 shillings constituted 39.3%. Those who earned between 10,001 and 20,000 accounted for 21.4% while those earning 20,001 shillings and above accounted for only 8.9% as shown in table 4.12 and graph 4.4.

Looking at the average monthly income distribution based on gender/sex, it was found that 58.8% of those who earned 5,000 shillings and below were mostly women and as the income cluster increased the number of women decreased. For instance, those earning 20,001 shillings and above, were 100% men. There was no woman in this bracket. This again indicates that female headed households are mostly confined to low wages brackets due to existing gender inequalities in society.. This hampers their ability to meet not only their food requirements, but also other basic needs.

Table 4.12: Average monthly income per gender

Gender	Average monthly income (Kshs.)					Total
	5000 and below		5001-10000	10001-20000	Above 20001	
	(f)	(%)				
Male	7	41.2%	12	6	5	30
Female	10	58.8%	10	6	0	26
Total	17	100%	22	12	5	56

Bar graph 4. 4: Average monthly income



4.5.4 Monthly Expenditure

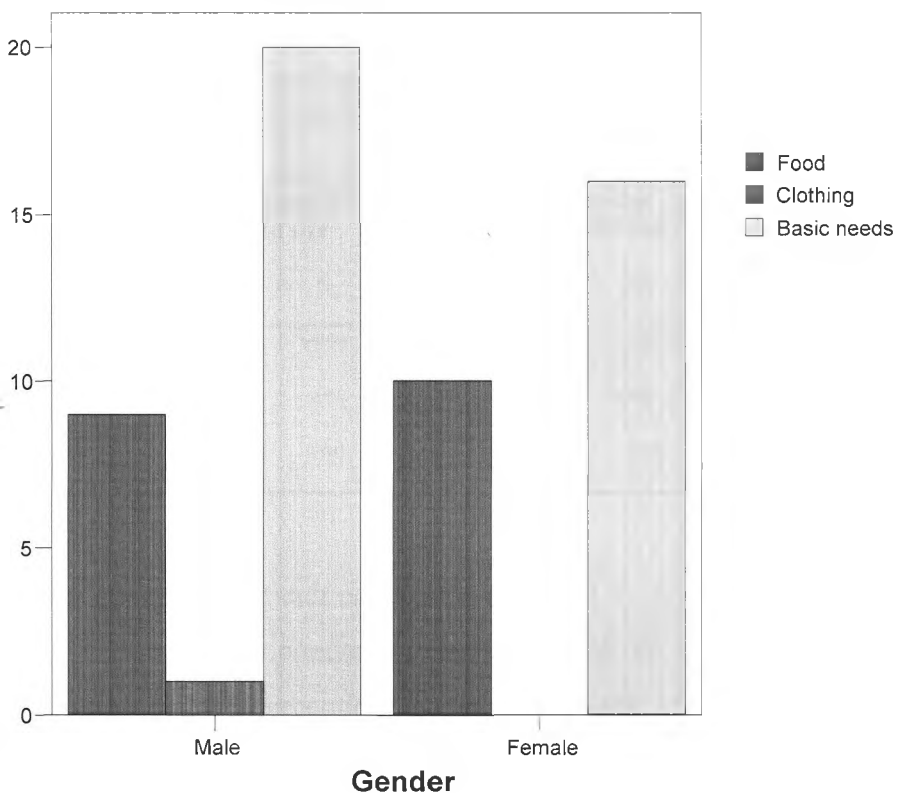
It was also important to find out what areas the respondents spend most of their monthly income on. As indicated in table 4.13 and graph 4.5, 64.3. % spends their monthly income on other basic needs which they identified as rent, water, school fees and medication while food took 33.9%. Clothing accounted for only 1.8%.

A comparison of expenditure between male and female headed households revealed that the latter spent slightly higher on food than the former. For male headed households, expenditure on food constituted only 30% while 66.7% went to other basic needs. When prodded further what these other needs were, they conceded that leisure takes a bigger percentage of their income. This corroborated the narratives received, which decried men in the study area being “married to alcohol”, while women took charge of the households/families. The study also revealed that poorer households much of their income on food compared to other necessities.

Table 4.13: Monthly household expenditure

Gender	Monthly Expenditure			Total
	Food	Clothing	Other basic needs (house rent, water, school fees and medication)	
Male	9	1	20	30
Female	10	0	16	26
Total	19	1	36	56

Bar graph 4.5: Monthly household expenditure



4.6 Other factors

It was also necessary to find out from the respondents what other factors they considered important in ensuring food security in their households. Among the other factors, the following came out clearly: income generating opportunities, size of the household, availability and size of land, Government and NGO Aid, and availability of household labor.

From the findings, 35% of the respondents said that there is need to increase income generating opportunities to empower them so that they can meet their food and other needs. However, some respondents indicated that all of the given options should be provided so as to empower them in terms of food requirements.

It was noted however, that almost all the respondents opined that limiting the size of the household would be important towards achieving food security. They argued that the bigger the size of the household the larger the amount of food consumed. But since the study site was an urban area, all the respondents suggested that creation of income generating opportunities is key to ensuring food security. This argument fitted in well with the International Labour Organization's (ILO) findings that employment is one of the key strategies for reducing poverty and enhancing household food security. Table 4.14 and graph 4.6 capture the responses.

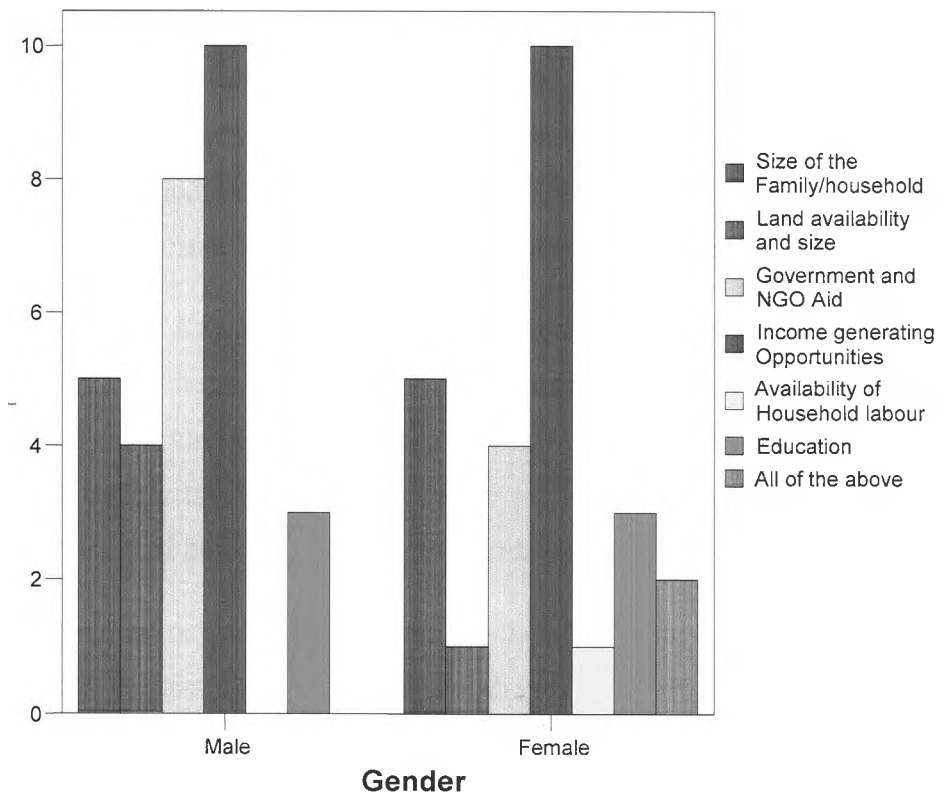
4.14: Factors influencing household food security per gender

	Other important factors that influence household food security										Total
	Size of the family/household		Land availability and size		Government and NGO Aid	Income generating opportunities		Availability of household labour	Education	All of the above	
	(f)	%	(f)	%		(f)	(%)				
Male	5	50%	4	99%	8	10	50%	0	3	0	30
Female	5	50%	1	1%	4	10	50%	1	3	2	26
Total	10	100	5	100	12	20	100	1	6	2	56

Due to the generally difficult conditions observed in the study area, it was of interest to find out from the respondents what they think of life in the area. This was so because attitudes and perceptions sometimes shape life processes and events in a

given society. From the results indicated in the table below, 42.9% of the respondents said that life is generally fair because of small business opportunities, though they complained of high commodity prices. 25% of them indicated that life is generally bad owing to the difficulty in meeting basic needs such as food, water and house rent. 12.5% said that life was very hard/bad as they could not afford the basic necessities and were basically relying on the good will of well wishes. 19.6% said life was good. Most of these were people with formal regular incomes either from employment, owned property or well established businesses.

Bar graph 4.6: Other factors



4.7 Narratives

These narratives were solicited from 4 elderly people (2 men and 2 women) from the study location to represent the voice of the people. It was originally intended to have 8 narratives, 4 from each gender but only 4 agreed to give their live histories. These were considered adequate for the analysis as they represented 50% of the narrators. The narrators/respondents were asked to give their live histories on food security

coping strategies. This greatly enriched the study as it gave insight into household food security coping strategies. The narratives are reproduced in the following cases.

Note: Families in these cases were equated to households based on the local understanding.

Case 1: Kawangware sub location

My name is Annette. I work at the Senior Chief's office, Kawangware location as a support staff. I have worked at the office for the last 22 years. Kawangware location has two sub locations: Gatina and Kawangware.

I have lived in Kawangware for the last 30 years. I came here as a young girl to look for a job after class seven but got hooked to small businesses until I got this job. I was once married but we divorced when the man took to alcohol. We got three children, 2 girls, one boy. They are all grown up people now.

Having lived in Kawangware for all those years and also worked here for 22 years, I have seen a lot happening. When I came here, there were few people, and a lot of space and food. One could find a plot to plant maize, beans and vegetables. Of course we used to hire the land. But today the population has increased and the land put under residential houses hence no place to farm.

Because of the population, the place has become untidy, with sewage all over. Also because of the low income population, the area is now a slum proper as opposed to those earlier years.

Kawangware has become increasingly deficit in food as people depend on buying food from the market, with some areas depending on the government and NGOs to give them food.

Where do people get money for buying the food since they do not have land for cultivation?

Kawangware is generally a business community and many people are engaged in small, mainly informal businesses which give them money to buy their basic necessities.

However, for many families/house holds, the money is not enough. So most of us engage in more than one business. For example, women sell groceries such as boiled maize and potatoes, bananas and many other foodstuffs. They also engage in the sale of second hand clothes and other wares as well as house cleaning in the affluent areas like Lavington, Kileleshwa and so on. This supplements their efforts in feeding their families.

At the time I was getting married in 1979, many families were very stable, with men supporting their families financially. But today, many men have taken to drinking a lot of cheap local brews, especially Chang'aa and Busaa such that they no longer care for their families.

Infact, it is women who are now feeding the families. Many families are breaking up because men are getting lost in alcohol, leaving women to take over the homes. This is also affecting a lot of children, especially the youths, who are dropping out of school because there is nobody to support them. As a result, many young people have become idle and also engaged in drinking thereby becoming a security threat. Prostitution as a means of living has also risen alarmingly.

There are no jobs for these young people. Infact many of the cases reported to the chief are those of men not supporting their families financially and spending their money on alcohol and women. Women have been left alone to take care of the families.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s food was plenty and cheap and people were few. But today there are many people, sometimes there is food in the market but sometimes there is little. However, it is expensive and therefore people can't get enough due to lack of money. Those families with many people or children suffer more. This has led to some children running away from home to become street children.

What do you think should be done by the Government to help improve this situation? My appeal to the government is that there is need to create more jobs and other income generating opportunities for the youth and women. Alcohol clubs should be closed down so that men can focus on their families. The government should also give loans, especially to women because I think that they can do better and have their

families at heart. But the loans should be cheap, readily available and without security. Those getting the loans should also be trained in business. This way, families will be able to feed themselves and also take their children to school.

Case 2: Kawangware sub location

I am Mburu wa Kuria. I was born here in Kawangware about 68 years ago. I have grown up here and therefore I know a lot about this place. When we were growing up, there was a lot of food. People were few. Those who had land like my parents used to grow their own food, only buying other necessities. Today things have changed. People are many, most food is brought from outside and is expensive. Only those with income generating activities can afford. Those with small informal businesses, who are the majority, struggle a lot to feed their families/households.

Today there seem to be more women than men in this place. What has surprised me is that over the last few years, men are increasingly becoming idle and taking to heavy drinking of alcohol. In the past, many of them were engaged in productive business and supporting their families. But today most of them are engaged in casual labour at the market and a few of them at construction sites. However, whatever they get ends up in drinking clubs. A few men work with NGOs, government and private sectors. These few seem a bit disciplined.

What do you think makes these men to behave the way they do?

I would not really know the reason but I think that they are just irresponsible and fear facing challenges. So they want to hide this in drinking.

So how do the families sustain themselves in terms of food and other basic needs?

Most of the complaints I have heard around here are from women who accuse their husbands of “being married to alcohol” instead of their (wives). As a result, most women have become the breadwinners of their families/households. Most of these women engage in small informal road side businesses like selling vegetables, second hand items and other grocery items. When things become tougher, most of them move from house to house in the affluent areas washing cloths and other things to make ends meet.

Many families, especially those of low means are disintegrating in this area because men have failed to provide for their families and taken to alcohol instead. For many families, life is a struggle because they don't have enough to feed themselves. Many children have dropped out school, leading to insecurity and child prostitution.

However, women are trying. Some have formed social groups like merry-go-rounds from which they get some additional money to meet their family needs. The government should help the young people by creating employment opportunities and also close these alcohol clubs so that men can go back to their families and help them.

Case 3: Gatina sub location

I am known by the name Mama Ciru (otherwise Mama Wanjiru). I came to Kawangware as a young girl of 19 years in 1978. I was very naïve. After two years I got married. We had two children with the man but he left me in 1983 after the attempted military takeover. I got two more children with another man but we were not married.

I started doing small businesses like selling vegetables and later on second hand clothes. Life was not very difficult since food was not very expensive and people were few. Sometimes I could hire a small shamba (plot) in the neighborhood and grow my own vegetables and some maize and beans. These, I could sell partly and feed my four children with the rest. But now things are very difficult. We have to rely solely on the market for food. And when there is no money we do all kinds of menial jobs in people's homes to survive. Such jobs include washing clothes, clearing compounds of dirt and sometimes cleaning the houses.

Houses were few but cheap and the security was good. One could walk late in the night without much problem. But today things are different. There are a lot of people in Kawangware and very little space. There is congestion and dirt everywhere. Insecurity has increased. Food is very expensive. Everybody is doing the same business and therefore getting customers is hard due to competition.

Insecurity is there because many youths are idle. Many people are poor today than before. Today when there is little food, some people are helped by the government through the chief's office. This was rare in those early years.

Men used to help their families a lot. They used to go to work, bring food or money home before going out to socialize.. Today many men have run away from their families; some of them work and don't go back to their families until the money is finished. This has forced women to be in charge of family affairs. That is why you see many women selling small things on the road side such as Chips, Mandazi (Bans – type of local bread), Bananas, Vegetables, Mitumba (Second hand cloth ware) and many other wares. This is to make sure their families, and especially the children have something to eat. Others go to rich peoples' houses in Lavington and Kileleshwa to do house work to earn some little money to feed their families.

Asked what should be done to improve the food situation in Kawangware, Mama Ciru was of the opinion that the government should create more jobs for the youth, support women through loans and ban illicit brew.

Case 4: Gatina sub location

My name is Muigai. I came to Kawangware in 1980 after completing college. My original home is Murang'a. In 1982 I joined the Ministry of Public Works as a mechanic.

In 1986, I decided to buy a 3 acre plot in Kawangware (Gatina sub location) and settle. However, what attracted me to Kawangware were the many business opportunities that existed. I started with a small retail shop in 1985 but decided to try my hand in farming after buying a plot in 1986. I started with horticultural crops, mainly vegetables which, to date have a big demand in the area and the larger Nairobi. Later I ventured into pig farming. I am still doing the two to date.

In 1996, I was retrenched from employment and, using my golden hand shake (terminal dues) I put up some rental houses on part of my plot. The two enterprises – farming and rental houses are what sustain us to date. We have never had a problem with food or other necessities. The only thing that is proving to be a problem at the moment is the school fees for my two college going children. However, I am confident things will be ok.

As regards life in Kawangware, one can say that if you are positively engaged, you can live well. There are a lot of business opportunities around here. Most people are engaged in small informal businesses. We have had a few cases of thuggery mainly from idle youth. Most of the youths are school dropouts and many of them do not want to work hard to earn a living. Instead they want to harass hard working Kenyans and spend most of their time drinking illicit brew, which is cheap and readily available.

When I came to this place, a good number of people, especially men were engaged in gainful businesses but today most of them have abandoned these businesses and engaged in idling around and drinking a lot. They spend most of their time in alcohol clubs which are quite a number around here. I don't know why many of them have given up on positive engagement and taken to drinking.

Because of this behavior, many families have been negatively affected and are not stable. Infact if you look around, you will find that women (wives) are the people feeding their families because their men have abandoned the families. The women are engaged in small businesses like selling vegetables, cereals and other small wares. Others move around in rich people's estates washing cloths and doing other menial jobs to feed their families.

The biggest problem in Kawangware, especially for the very poor is food which is very expensive, high rents and school fees. Some areas have to depend on relief food from the government and NGOs. In my view, men have failed in their responsibilities, leaving women to take over family leadership. I am encouraged to see that many women are hardworking and selfless just to ensure that their children get something to eat and also go to school, though it is not easy for them.

Many of them have joined merry-go-round and other self-help groups which are helping them to meet some of the basic necessities. In my opinion, there is need for the government to uplift women, by properly organizing them into groups, sensitizing them and giving them some cheap loans to start small but viable businesses. This will help up lift their economic status. Women, as I have seen in this area, are hard working and they need to be supported.

The government should also create income generating opportunities for our many youths who are idle. At the same time, all the clubs that sell local brews should be closed down. They have ruined our youths and of course men and women leading to broken family. I cannot understand why many men have taken to drinking when in fact they can do a lot of good business to support their families and grow the economy even if it is in a small way.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

The present study sought to establish and compare the food security coping strategies employed by female and male headed households in Kawangware slums, Nairobi.

From the study it was established that the major occupation of the respondents is small-scale trade, which involves small retail shops and kiosks, hawking of second hand wares, street food vending and groceries. This means that majority of the respondents depend on food purchases from the market for survival.

Several factors/variables that affect the respondents' food security situation were looked at. Some were found to have a significant role. Others did not.

From the study, it is clear that women are the main players for ensuring household food security. Men have increasingly taken to alcoholism leaving the bulk of food production and the overall household food security issues to women.

The number of meals per day and the quality of food taken in a household is a good indicator of the level of food security of that household. Most households take fewer meals in a day in order to save on their meager resources, thus enabling them to stretch the resources over longer periods of time. Both male and female headed households favor this as a survival or coping strategy. Most households prefer taking breakfast and supper, while skipping lunch. It is also worthy noting that due to their economic status, most households prefer cheaper types of food, not necessarily for their nutritional value or quality, but for the perceived quantity. This raises the question of the nutritional status of the respondents and members of their households.

A majority of households spend over 63% of their overall income on food. And although there is always sufficient food in the market, households rarely afford due to high food prices.

Apart from their normal household duties, women engage in menial jobs in neighbouring up market estates such as Lavington, Kileleshwa and Loresho to earn an

extra income to feed their families. The menial jobs include washing cloths and cleaning houses for the affluent in these estates.

Household composition, that is, the number of household members, including dependants has a profound impact on the level of household food security. The larger the number of members, the more the food consumed and the higher the household expenditure and the chances of conflict to due gender based power differentials. These differences may carry the risk of food insecurity with them.

Overall women are more strategic than men when it comes to issues of household food security. They have a way of pooling their meager resources in order to support one another. This is mostly achieved through social networks such as the popular merry-go-rounds through which they benefit in turns after making some contributions. Other avenues include self-help groups. However, majority of the network members use whatever they get from these networks on household subsistence activities due to limited entrepreneurship skills. Most of these networks are based on trust. In the event that there is a fall out, some members will lose-out.

Men rarely come together in groups to support one another. From the narratives, interviews and observation, many men have abandoned their households, with the women taking over as household heads. This raises the question “Why are men increasingly abandoning their families for alcoholic beverages?”

The level of education of the household head impacts positively or negatively on household food security. It determines the type of skills and knowledge one has and the kind of occupation they are likely to engage in.

From the study it is noted that men more than women are favored in terms of education. This may be explained by the attitude of society towards the education of the girl – child. It is still not valued. It also explains why majority of the female household heads in the study area are engaged in informal businesses and also earn the lowest monthly income (less than Kshs. 5,000). This has a significant bearing on their household food situation.

Ownership of property is positively associated with the level of household food security. Overall, households with a significant number of assets/property tend to fair well in terms of household food security.

The role of religious affiliation is insignificant in household food security as all the respondents, whether Muslim or Christian rely on the same coping strategies.

Most of the income generated in the study area is spent mostly on food and other household necessities. These include house rent, domestic water (which is quite scarce), school fees and medication. A negligible amount is spent on personal care, while nothing is saved for a rainy day. This is a pointer to high levels of vulnerability to poverty and therefore food insecurity.

5.2 Recommendations

- 1) From the study findings, most respondents were of the opinion that the key to household food security in the study area is the creation of more income generating opportunities. Based on this, there is need for the government and other organizations such as NGOs operating in the area to facilitate creation of such opportunities. However, before this is done, there is need to train the respondents, especially women and youth in livelihood skills that will enable them to carry out small businesses to sustain themselves and their families. Such skills may include:
 - a) Growing of green vegetables in sacks and polythene bags known as **multistorey gardens**. They are so called because different types of vegetables can be grown in one bag at the same time. The bags require minimal space and input and hence a number of them can be accommodated, for example in the small compounds of the respondents. And because this technology does not rely on rain, the people can use kitchen water for sustaining the vegetables and hence have a year round supply, both for sale and household subsistence. This technology is already being used in other slums like Kibera and has well been adopted. Such vegetables as kales, spinach, onions and local/traditional ones like Spider weed (Sagetti), Terere (Amaranths) and many others are popular with such technology.
 - b) Keeping of small livestock and poultry such as rabbits and local chicken. These can be kept in cages, which also require minimal space and feeding, when compared with the larger livestock.

Youth and Women groups should be organized and encouraged to undertake such and many other enterprises. They can be a good source of income and food for the households in the affected and other areas with similar situations, thus alleviating poverty and malnutrition. This and other opportunities can also engage the youth especially; in gainful employment to alleviate improve household food security.

- 2) Given that women are taking an increasing role in family/household welfare, there is great need to empower them. For instance, the social networks they are operating should be legally strengthened so that they can be able to borrow development loans for their members and also cushion one another in the event that there is a fall out. Such loans should be made cheap and easily accessible. And the women should be sensitized about the existence and benefits of such opportunities. This is because during the study, most of them complained that the existing micro- and other financial entities such as the Women Enterprise Fund and the Kenya Women Finance Trust are expensive and discriminatory when it comes to lending. By empowering women, the government and other partners in development will be helping build up the socio - economic capital of these women and society at large for enhanced food security in the household.
- 3) The government should ban all local/traditional brews which are fast ruining men and the youth. This might help men to refocus attention on their families/households. Alternatively, the Government could legalize these brews and raise taxation to discourage excessive drinking.
- 4) Further research into why many men in the study area are increasingly abandoning their families/households and taking to alcohol may be necessary.
- 5) In view of the fact that many households prefer the amount of food (quantity) to quality, there is need to investigate the nutritional status of the residents of the study area as there could be many cases of malnutrition.
- 6) Cooperation between men and women is absolutely necessary for sustainable household food security. This is in line with the Capacities and Vulnerabilities

Analysis (CVA) framework, which emphasizes that the existing strengths (capacities) of individuals and social groups can determine people's ability to cope with crisis and recover from it. On the other hand vulnerabilities, which may be as a result of lack of cooperation between people (men and women), can contribute to the severity of the situation.

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Appendix 1

Consent Form

Project Title: *A comparative study of food security coping strategies employed by female and male headed households in Kawangware slums, Nairobi.*

Principal Researcher: *GRIPHASE VANDE MASINDE,*

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INSTITUTE OF ANTHROPOLOGY, GENDER AND

AFRICAN STUDIES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

Introduction

This study aims at establishing and comparing food security coping strategies employed by female and male-headed households in Kawangware slums in Nairobi. Due to the limited time and financial resources, Kawangware slums have been selected out of the many other possible sites. The study findings will go a long way in adding to existing pool of knowledge in the field of Gender and Development.

You are being requested to participate in the study because you are within the bracket of the study group. You were picked randomly from among other women and men from this area for purposes of responding to the Questionnaire/Interview herein. There will be 59 other women and men from this area who will also participate in the study.

Procedure

This study will be conducted by way of Questionnaire/Interviews. I or my Assistant will ask you the questions as listed on the questionnaire. You are requested to kindly respond to the same. I may at times ask further questions to clarify some point to gain understanding or more information on some other points that may arise during the interview. The study is scheduled to take about one month overall, but I will require only one session with you to go through the questionnaire/interview. At any given time in the course of the study, you may decide, if your conscience so desires, to withdraw and nothing more will be required of you in terms of information. Your permission will however, be sought if the material already collected from you can be used in the study in case you withdraw.

Risks

Your participation in this study does not involve any physical or emotional risks to you. Should you however, be uncomfortable in answering any of my questions at any point, please feel free to say so.

Benefits

The findings of this study will in the long run be used to influence policy for the development of slums areas in the country by making recommendations on how to enhance food security coping strategies in the said areas.

Confidentiality

I would like to assure you that your confidentiality in this study will be at all times protected. You will not be identified anywhere as having participated in this study. The data collected will be coded for identification purposes. The findings that will be disseminated will not have your name or identity but the allocated code. And where names have to be used, I will employ pseudo-names and not your real name.

Kindly, note that your participation in this study will cost you nothing more than your precious time. Conversely, no payment will be made to you for participating in the study. It is purely voluntary.

Consent

I have read this consent form and the research study well explained to me. All issues I had have been clarified to me and I sign the consent without any coercion or otherwise. I will get a copy of the signed form.

Respondent's name (printed) & signature

Date

Name and signature of interviewer

Date

Appendix 2

Questionnaire

This study aims at establishing the strategies adopted by female and male headed households in Kawangware slums/Location in ensuring food-security for their families/household members.

The information collected through this questionnaire will be used for academic purposes, although it may also be used to influence policy for the betterment of society. However, names of the respondents will not be disclosed for purposes of confidentiality.

The questionnaire has mostly open-ended questions to enable the respondents give their opinions as widely and openly as possible.

Part I: Background information

1. Area/place of interview (village/sub location/location).....
2. Age and Sex of respondent (please tick the appropriate box):
 - a) Under 20 years []
 - b) 20-25 years []
 - c) 26-30 years []
 - d) 31-40 years []
 - e) 36-40 years []
 - f) Above 40 years []
 - g) Male []
 - h) Female []
3. Marital status (please tick one as appropriate):
 - a) Single []
 - b) Separated []
 - c) Widowed []
 - d) Divorced []
 - e) Other (please specify)

4. Religion (please tick the appropriate one):

- a) Christian []
- b) Muslim []
- c) African traditional []
- d) Hindu []
- e) Other (please specify).....

5. Level of education (highest level completed):

- a) No formal education at all []
- b) Primary school education but not completed []
- c) Primary school education (completed) []
- d) High school but not completed []
- e) High school (completed) []
- f) University education []
- g) Other professional skills/training (please specify).....

6. Where were you brought up?

- a) Urban area/town []
- b) Rural area []

7. Who brought you up?

- a) Both parents []
- b) Single parent (please specify).....
- c) Grand parents []
- d) Relatives (please specify).....
- e) Others (please specify).....

Part II: Household structure and income:

1. Whom are you living with?

- a) Immediate family []
- b) Extended family/relatives (please specify).....
- c) Friends []
- d) Alone []
- e) Others (please specify).....

2. How do you support yourself/household (source of livelihood)?

- a) From wages (formal/informal) [] (specify whether formal or informal).....
- b) From family members/relatives []
- c) Community members/neighbours []
- d) Through NGOs []
- e) Through government institutions []
- f) Other (please specify).....

3. Are you the principal income earner in your household?

- a) Yes []
- b) No []

If no, who else contributes to the household income?.....

4. What is your average monthly income?

- a) Below Ksh 5,000 []
- b) 5,000-10,000 []
- c) 10,000-20,000 []
- d) Above 20,000 []

Do you own any property/asset for example land, house(s)?

Yes []

No []

If yes, how did you acquire them.....?

5. Do you have children and or dependants less than 18 years of age?.....

No of children	Male	Age(s)	Female	Ages (s)
1-3				
4-6				
7-9				
10-12				

6. What is your monthly expenditure on:

- a) Food: Ksh.
- b) Non-food items: Kshs.
- c) Transport: Ksh.
- d) Others (please specify): Kshs.....
- e) House rent: Kshs.

7. What do you spend most of your monthly income on? (List by priority).

- a)
- b)
- c)
- d)

8. How many meals does your household take in a day?

- a) 1 []
- b) 2 []
- c) 3 []
- d) More than 3 []

Breakfast: Always [] Sometimes [] Never []

Lunch: Always [] Sometimes [] Never []

Dinner: Always [] Sometimes [] Never []

Reasons (if any) for such a trend.....

.....

9. How would you generally describe life in this area?

- a) Very bad []
- b) Bad []
- c) Fair []
- d) Good []

Please explain your answers.....

.....

10. What factors do you think are important in ensuring food security in this area?

- a) Size of the family/ household []
- b) Land availability and size []
- c) Government and NGO aid []

- d) Income generating opportunities | |
- e) Availability of household labour | |
- f) Education | |
- g) Composition of the family/household| |

Please explain your answers(s).....

11. What challenges do you face in ensuring that your family/household has enough food?

.....

How do you cope with such challenges?

.....

12. Do you belong to any social networks such as Merry-go-rounds or Self-Help groups?.....

If yes, how do they benefit you and your household?.....

13. What would you say is the biggest problem/challenge facing the Residents of this area?..... Please explain.....

.....

14. What measures do you think the government should take to improve the overall food and other socio-economic situations in this area?

- a)
- b)
- c)
- d)

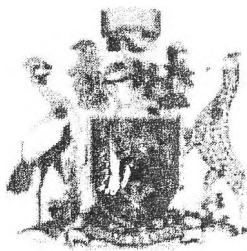
Thank you very much for sparing your precious time to respond to the questions in this questionnaire.

Appendix 3

Work Plan

S/No	Activity	Time	Responsible Party	Expected output	Remarks/Assumptions
1.	Proposal development	Nov. '08- May '09	Student	Draft proposal	
2.	Check Draft and correct/give comments	June, '09	Supervisor	Corrected Draft proposal	Student hands in draft proposal
3.	Preparation of final proposal	July, '09	Student	Final proposal	Supervisor returns corrected draft proposal in good time
4.	Defence of Proposal	July, '09	Student and Panel of Experts from IAGAS	Authority to proceed to the Field for Data collection	Proposal successfully defended
5.	Data collection	August, '09	Student	Raw Data	All logistics put in place
6.	Data Analysis	Sept. '09	Student	Analysed and organised data	
7.	Preparation of Research Report	Sept., '09	Student	Draft Research Report	
8.	Correction /comments	Sept/Oct., '09	Supervisor	Corrected draft	Students hands in draft report in good time

	on draft report			report
9.	Preparation and submission of Final Research Project Report	Oct., '09	Student	Final Research Project Report



UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
INSTITUTE OF ANTHROPOLOGY, GENDER & AFRICAN
STUDIES

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Nairobi, Kenya
Telephone 3742080/78/36
Email: director-aags@uonbi.ac.ke

22/7/2009

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

DATA COLLECTION: MR. MASINDE, VANDE GRIPHASE – N69/P/70738/2007

This is to confirm that the above named is a Master of Arts in Gender and Development Studies student in the Institute of Anthropology, Gender and African Studies, University of Nairobi.

He has successfully completed his First Year of Study and he is now proceeding to the field to collect data for his research project.

The purpose of this letter is, therefore, to request you to allow him access to the data that he may find relevant to his study. His research topic is **“A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF FOOD SECURITY STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY FEMALE AND MALE HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN KAWANGWARE SLUMS IN NAIROBI”**.

Any assistance accorded him will be highly appreciated.

Yours Faithfully



[Signature]
WANYONYI MASINDE
FOR: DIRECTOR
INSTITUTE OF ANTHROPOLOGY, GENDER AND AFRICAN STUDIES

WM/ewk



OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT
Provincial Administration & Internal Security

grams:

phone: 020-3561172

n replying please quote

NBI-WST/ED/10/9 (96)

NO.

DISTRICT COMMISSIONER
NAIROBI WEST DISTRICT
P.O. Box 30124-00100
NAIROBI.

29th July, 2009

.....20

All District Officers,
Dagoretti District

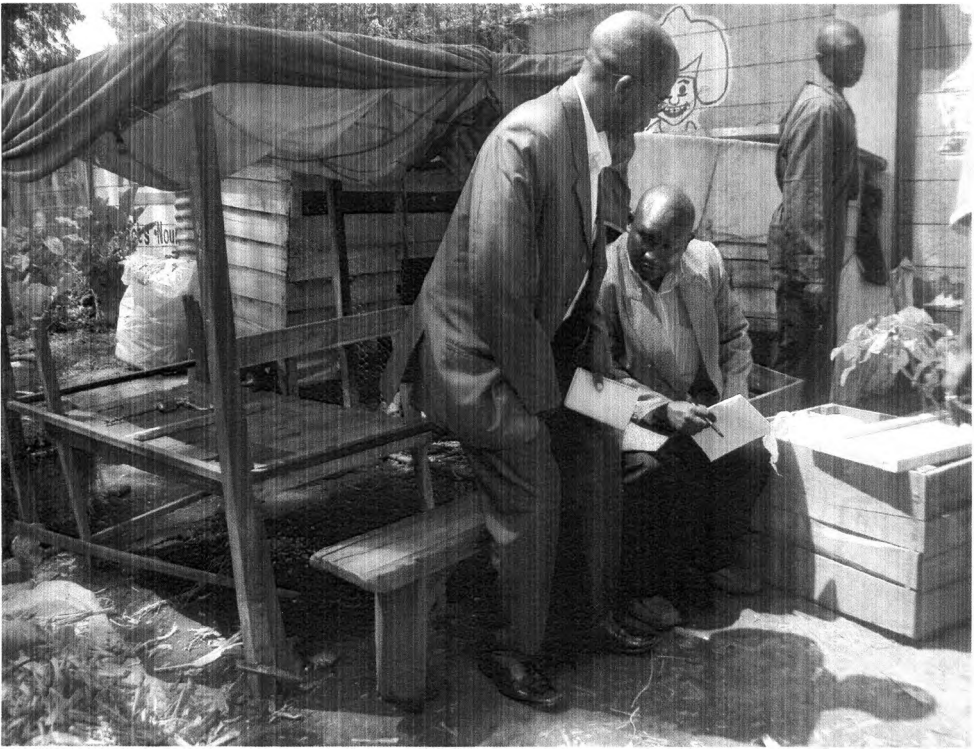
RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

The bearer of this letter, **Masinde, Vande Griphase- N69/P/70738/2007** has been authorized to carry out research on “**A comparative study of food security strategies employed by female and male headed households**” and he intends to carry it out in Kawangware in your division.

Kindly assist him.

Attached is a copy of his letter of authorization.

R.C. OLUOCH
FOR: DISTRICT COMMISSIONER
NAIROBI WEST DISTRICT



Author visiting one of the Youth groups in the study area practicing multistory gardening/sack gardens to grow vegetables for sale. This is one of the alternative means of livelihoods for food security.



Author discussing/interviewing some of the Youth group members in the study area about the sack gardens, as one of the Research Assistants captures the discussion on paper during field work.