

1 **Inequalities and trends in under-five mortality between formal and informal settlements**
2 **in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso**

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17 **Introduction**

18 With a lower proportion of urban population than other regions of the world, sub-Saharan
19 Africa stands out with a recent, more dynamic, and sustained urbanization process. In 2020,
20 44% of the inhabitants of this region lived in cities and this proportion is expected to exceed
21 50% in 2040 according to United Nations projections, due to urban growth estimated at 4% per
22 year (UN, 2018). This urbanization is fuelled primarily by significant natural growth supported
23 by high fertility and lower mortality (Tabutin et al., 2017; Sanchez et al., 2022). It is also
24 accelerated by rural-urban migration of young adults in search of better living conditions. In
25 addition, African cities are rapidly expanding by spreading from the centre to the periphery
26 (Bocquier et al., 2023). These are usually villages located on the outskirts that are engulfed over
27 time by urban growth pushing the boundaries of the city.

28 This sustained growth of the urban population in SSA in a context of low economic
29 development is at the origin of the emergence of informal neighbourhoods, inhabited by poor
30 populations in search of lower-cost housing (Oai et al., 2007; Bocquier et al., 2010; Cobbinah
31 et al., 2015). These neighbourhoods, also called “slums”, “irregular neighbourhoods” and
32 “undeveloped areas”, are characterized above all by a lack of access to basic social services
33 such as drinking water, sanitation, and a very limited sanitary supply. Although the

34 configuration of these neighbourhoods and living conditions vary from city to city, it is
35 established that, compared to the inhabitants of formal neighbourhoods, the populations living
36 there have poor health indicators. Various research studies have highlighted this especially
37 regarding children whose health status remains highly dependent on the health environment and
38 the use of care. For example, in Ouagadougou, studies have highlighted a higher risk of
39 mortality for children under five years of age in informal neighbourhoods compared to formal
40 neighbourhoods. This health disadvantage is observed and persists in the neonatal, infant, and
41 juvenile period (Lankoandé et al., 2016; Compaoré et al., 2020). Moreover, the work carried
42 out in Kenya also confirms this excess mortality of children in informal settlements not only
43 compared to other urban residents but also compared to certain rural areas (Kimani-Murage et
44 al., 2014; Gruebner et al., 2015). Beyond mortality, the health disadvantage of informal
45 settlements is clearly visible when looking at other dimensions of child health than malnutrition,
46 diarrhoea, and respiratory infections (Fink et al., 2014; Pörtner et al., 2018).

47 With a view to improving living conditions in informal settlements, several initiatives have
48 emerged under the auspices of international organizations such as the World Bank and UN
49 Habitat. They range from the simple eviction of the populations of these neighbourhoods to
50 policies of servicing and restructuring in collaboration with local authorities and non-
51 governmental organizations (NGOs) (Baron et al., 2021). However, in recent years, most
52 projects agree on the strategy of restructuring informal settlements in line with goal 11 of the
53 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on access for all to decent housing and basic social
54 services. This essentially consists of land security via legal recognition by the competent
55 authority of the property held by residents to prevent eviction. This allows them to secure and
56 invest more in their habitat. At the same time, the provision of basic social services such as
57 drinking water, sanitation and the construction of adequate roads and sanitary infrastructure
58 makes it possible to better integrate these neighbourhoods into the city. Examples include slum
59 upgrading projects in Ghana, Kenya, Zimbabwe and Burkina Faso (Muchadenyika et al., 2015;
60 Danso-Wiredu et al., 2017; Baron et al., 2021).

61 As expected, results of these informal settlement strategies, we could expect a reduction in the
62 health disadvantage of informal settlements compared to formal settlements or a convergence
63 of the health status of populations living in both habitat environments. This convergence
64 hypothesis finds its theoretical foundations in the analysis of health inequalities proposed by
65 Vallin et al. (2010). According to this theory, the implementation of adequate public policies
66 can lead to a convergence of health states between elite and non-elite populations over time.

67 The objective of this article is to analyse trends and inequalities in infant and child mortality
68 between formal and informal neighbourhoods in Ouagadougou, the capital of Burkina Faso.
69 More specifically, it will be necessary to (I) trace the inequalities in mortality of all causes and
70 by group of causes according to the habitat environment (ii) analyse the effects of different
71 urban planning and health policies on the differential of infant and child mortality between
72 formal and informal neighbourhoods.

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74 ***Context***

75 Like the other capitals of Africa south of the Sahara, the population of Ouagadougou, the capital
76 of Burkina Faso, has grown considerably in recent decades. More specifically, it increased 5-
77 fold between 1960 and 2020 to reach 2,5 million inhabitants representing 45,1% of the
78 country's urban population (INSD, 2020). The size of the city increased from 6000 ha in 1960
79 to 30250 ha in 2014 (Séré, 2020).

80 The urban development of Ouagadougou dates from the colonization with a certain dichotomy
81 between the developed spaces occupied by Europeans and the informal neighbourhoods
82 welcoming the “indigenous” population. The housing policies of these informal settlements
83 have evolved over time, sometimes under the aegis of international organizations. In 1987 there
84 was a return to the right to private property and to the control of the customary chiefdom over
85 land, particularly in villages on the outskirts of towns (Lefebvre, 2020). This situation will fuel
86 over the years a series of land speculation where villages located on the periphery are erected
87 in unallotted areas pending formal allotment operations. These lofty lands, which acquire
88 market value, are subsequently sold and other informal settlements are created, thus pushing
89 the boundaries of the city. This mode of subdivision has led to various malpractices and
90 conflicts to the extent that the subdivisions were suspended in 2015 in the two main cities of
91 the country, namely Ouagadougou and Bobo-Dioulasso.

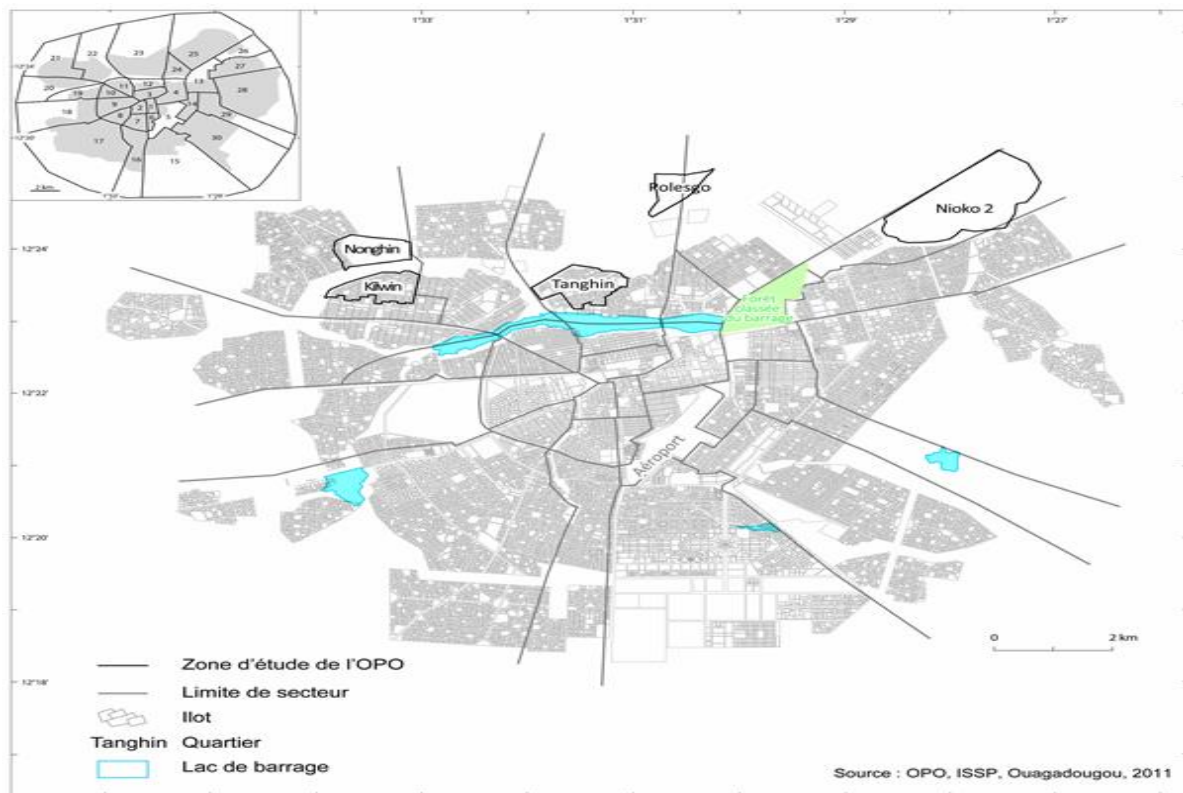
92 **Data and methods**

93 ***Data***

94 The data used come from the Ouagadougou Population Observatory (OPO), one of two urban
95 observatories in sub-Saharan Africa (Sankoh et Byass 2012 ; Ekström et al., 2016). Established
96 in 2008, the OPO follows 5 districts located on the northern outskirts of the city of
97 Ouagadougou, capital of Burkina Faso (Map 1). These 5 neighbourhoods are divided into 2
98 formal neighbourhoods (Kilwin, Tangin) and 3 informal neighbourhoods (Polesgo, Nioko II,
99 Nongin) (Rossier et al., 2012) with a population under surveillance estimated at 36 920 and 57
100 491 inhabitants respectively in 2018.

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114 Map 1: Areas under demographic surveillance

115 OPO data are collected on the entire population of the areas covered and updated through
116 regular passages with a periodicity of 10 months. They contain information on vital events
117 (births, migrations, deaths, etc.), demographic and socio-economic characteristics (level of
118 education, marital status, religion, ethnicity, migration, death, occupation status, household
119 assets, etc.). In the event of death, probable causes of death are collected through the verbal
120 autopsy method and analysed using Inter-VA software (Byass et al., 2012). The derived causes
121 of death are then classified according to the International Classification of Diseases (ICD)
122 version 10 (who,2012).

123 The data considered in this analysis cover the period 2010 – 2018 and cover 896 deaths among
124 children under 5 years of age. The contribution of this age group in terms of person-years over
125 the period considered is 57356.79. Among these deaths, probable causes of death were deducted
126 for 71% of cases. These figures are estimated at 67% and 73% respectively in formal and
127 informal neighbourhoods. Refusals, removals, the absence of the ideal respondent and the lack
128 of information on some AV cards to determine the cause of death, explain this loss of deaths in
129 terms of certification of the cause of death. For the purposes of this analysis, causes of death

130 were grouped into 7 groups, namely malaria, respiratory diseases, neonatal causes (congenital
131 malformation, prematurity, birth asphyxia, neonatal pneumonia, neonatal sepsis and other
132 unspecified COD), diarrhoea, malnutrition and other causes of death (non-obstetric sepsis, HIV,
133 meningitis and encephalitis, measles).

134 *Statistical analyses*

135 We conducted an analysis of all-cause mortality trends by cause by habitat environment based
136 on the calculation of annual mortality rates for children under 5 years of age. These rates were
137 obtained by dividing the number of deaths by the number of person-years at risk. Data from the
138 last years ((2019-2021)) of collection are not available for analysis purposes.

139 In a second step, we smoothed trends in child mortality in each type of zone to eliminate random
140 fluctuations and highlight inequalities in mortality over time. This smoothing was done using
141 Poisson modelling from a person-periods file (Schumacher, 2004). The variable to be explained
142 is the number of deaths and time the main explanatory variable. This has been decomposed
143 using a “cubic spline interpolation” (Smith, 2004).

144 As for the analysis of mortality by cause group, the rates were calculated by period according
145 to the type of neighbourhood to overcome staffing problems. The analysis period (2010-2018)
146 was divided into three sub-periods: 2010-2012, 2013-2015 and 2016-2018. The first period
147 corresponds to the beginning of demographic surveillance excluding the base year (2009) and
148 the last period coincides with the implementation of the policy of free care and the cessation of
149 subdivision operations. We have taken care to redistribute the unknown causes of death
150 proportionally among those known.

151 To test the hypothesis of mortality convergence between formal and informal neighbourhoods
152 over the period, we used a Poisson regression model using the period, neighbourhood type and
153 interaction between these two variables as the main explanatory variables. The objective was
154 to assess the evolution of the health disadvantage of informal settlements over time. The control
155 variables include the child’s sex, the characteristics of the mother (educational level, age group,
156 ethnic group, religion, marital status) and the characteristics of the household (access to
157 drinking water, type of Toilet and household size).

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159 **Results**

160 The Figure 1 retraces the trends in infant and child mortality according to the habitat
 161 environment in the OPO over the period 2010-2018. The first graph shows the non-smoothed
 162 mortality rates as deduced from the data, while the second graph shows the smoothed rates. In
 163 addition to the graph, Table 1 quantifies the absolute and relative differences in mortality levels
 164 between formal and informal neighbourhoods by period.

165 Table 1. Under five mortality rates (per 1000)) by period and type of settlement (2010-2018)

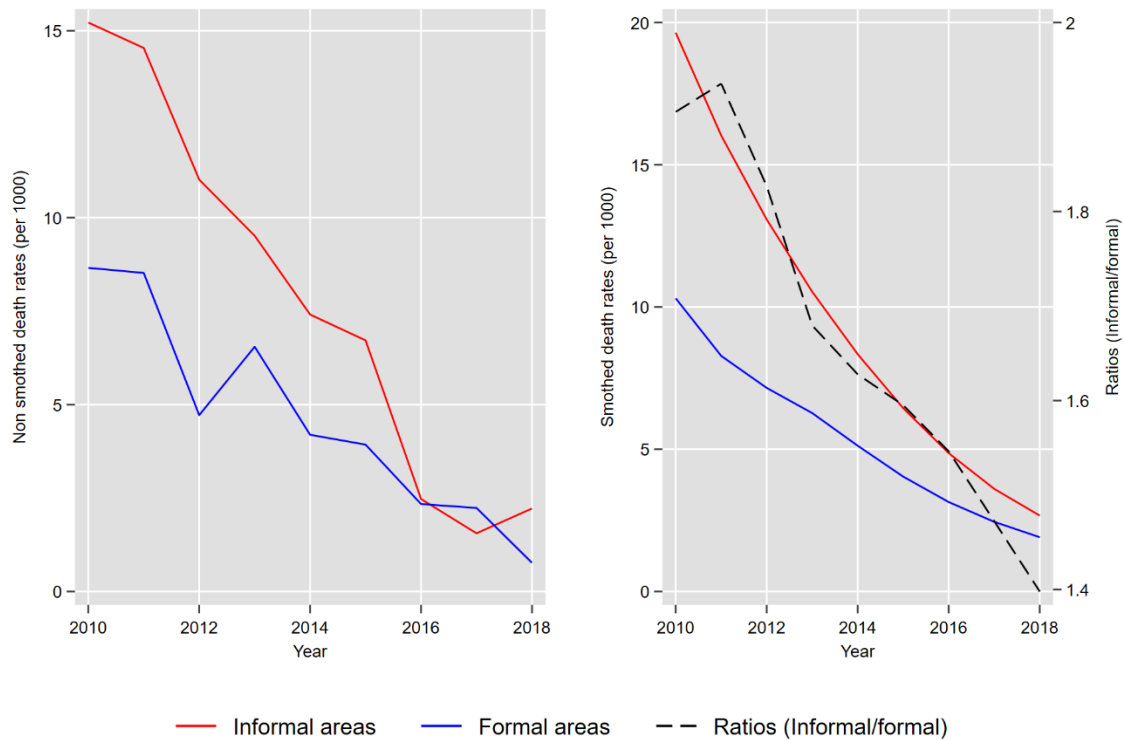
Period	Formal	Informal	Absolute difference	Relative difference
2010-2012	12.8 [10.6 – 15.5]	24.4 [21.9 – 27.3]	11.7	91.1%
2013-2015	11.3 [9.0 – 14.2]	19.1 [16.8 – 21.7]	7.8	68.6%
2016-2018	6.3 [4.5 – 8.8]	10.7 [9.0 – 12.8]	4.5	71.0%
Total	10.6 [9.3 – 12.1]	18.4 [17.1 – 19.9]	7.8	74.1%

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167 Over the entire period 2010-2018, changes in mortality levels show that children from
 168 undeveloped areas are at a higher risk of death than children living in undeveloped areas.
 169 However, Figure 1 suggests a reduction in the gaps in infant and child mortality between “loti”
 170 and “non-loti” neighbourhoods over the years, although non-loti areas remain disadvantaged in
 171 2018. This reduction in mortality inequalities between the two habitats stems from a faster
 172 decline in infant and child mortality in informal neighbourhoods compared to formal
 173 neighbourhoods. Indeed, the level of the mortality ratio between informal and formal
 174 settlements rose from 1,9 in 2010 to almost 1,4 in 2018. In the same dynamic, the absolute
 175 difference in mortality levels was estimated at 11.7 per 1000 at the beginning of the period and
 176 fell to 4.5 per 1000 at the end of the period. As for the relative difference, it decreased overall
 177 over the period 2013-2018 compared to the period 2010-2012, going from 91% to almost 70%.

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179 Figure 1 : Trends in infant and child mortality by type of zone 2010-2018

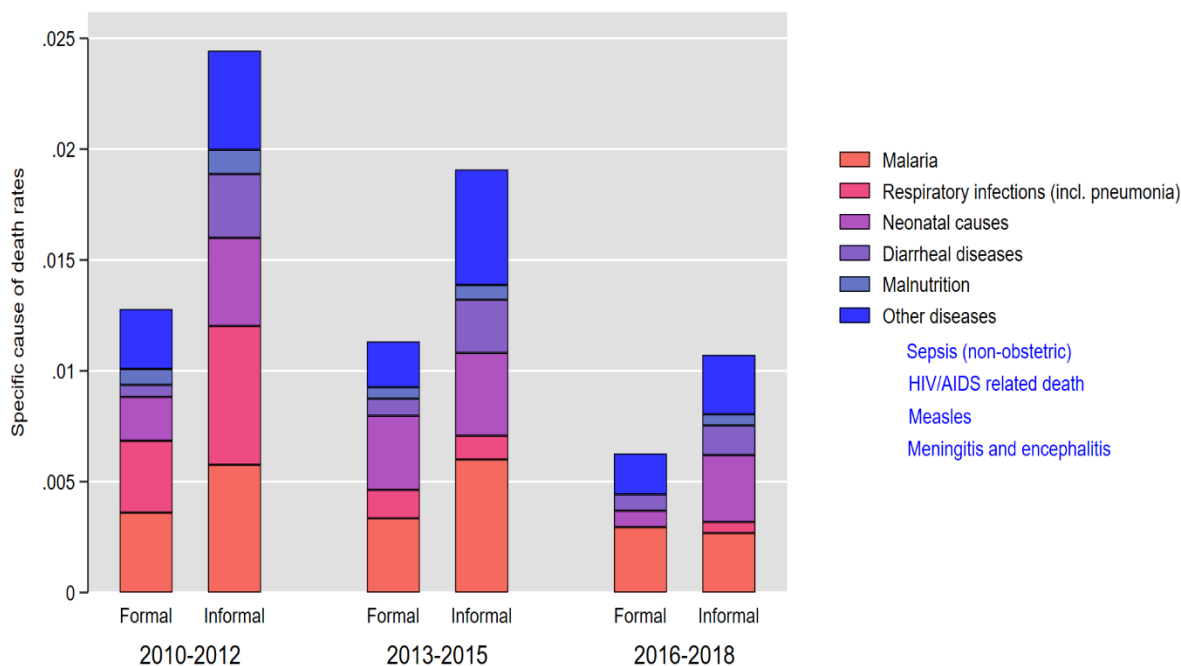


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182 In more detail, we also analysed mortality trends by cause or group of causes in both habitat
 183 settings (Figure 2). Malaria, respiratory infections, diarrhoea, and neonatal causes are the main
 184 causes of death regardless of the neighbourhood and observation period. The observed decline
 185 in all-cause mortality seems to be mainly related to the decline observed in these main causes
 186 of death. In formal neighbourhoods, there is a relatively smaller decline in mortality associated
 187 with malaria and diarrhoea, compared with larger declines in deaths related to respiratory
 188 infections and neonatal causes. On the other hand, informal settlements recorded a more
 189 pronounced decline in malaria mortality and respiratory infection mortality, especially at the
 190 end of the period. However, the level of mortality due to neonatal causes remained stable during
 191 the period, while mortality due to diarrhoea evolved rather sawtooth in these types of
 192 neighbourhoods.

Fig. 2: Trends in cause specific mortality by type of settlement, 2010 – 2018



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196 Table 2 presents the relative incidence of infant and child mortality by area type, period,
 197 interaction between area type and period, and other control variables obtained from the Poisson
 198 model. First, it appears that mortality decreased over the entire analysis period with a significant
 199 decrease over the period 2016-2018. However, the decline in mortality between the period
 200 2010-2012 and the period 2013-2015 is not significant. As expected, children living in formal
 201 neighbourhoods enjoy a health advantage compared to those in informal neighbourhoods. This
 202 mortality inequality remains after considering control variables such as the sex of the child,
 203 household size, water source, type of toilet used, level of education, age group, ethnicity,
 204 religion, and marital status of the mother. All things being equal, the risk of death is 73% higher
 205 in informal neighbourhoods compared to formal neighbourhoods over the analysis period.
 206 However, this net disadvantage of informal settlements has not been constant over time. It
 207 declined over time with a clear and statistically significant difference between the periods 2016-
 208 2018 and 2010-2012.

209 The analysis also revealed that factors such as the age of the mother and the source of water
 210 used are also associated with child mortality, although these results are only significant at the
 211 10% threshold. In terms of maternal age, compared to children of young mothers (under 35
 212 years of age), children with older mothers are at higher risk of mortality. Compared to the

213 fountain terminal and other water sources, the availability of a tap in the household is more
 214 beneficial for children in terms of health.

215 Table 2: Relative incidence of infant and child mortality in OPO, 2010-2018

Variables	IRR (Raw effects)	P-Val	95% CI	IRR (net effects)	P-Val	95% CI
Zone type						
parcelled out	1			1		
non-parcelled out	1.8	0.000	1:37 AM– 2:38 AM	1.73	0.001	1:26 AM – 2:38 AM
Periods						
2010 – 2012	1			1		
2013 - 2015	0.7	0.124	0.498-1.088	0.75	0.155	0.50– 1:12 AM
2016 - 2018	0.3	0.000	0.148 – 0.489	0.28	0.000	0.15– 0.51
Area type x periods						
non-parcelled out 2010 – 2012	1			1		
non-parcelled out 2013 - 2015	0.8	0.256	0.500– 1.203	0.78	0.276	0.50 – 1:21 AM
non-parcelled out 2016 - 2018	0.5	0.067	0.265 – 1.047	0.52	0.067	0.26 – 1:05 AM
Gender						
Male				1		
Female				1:12 AM	0.185	0.95 – 1:33 AM
Level of education of the mother						
None				1		
Primary				1:02 AM	0.888	0.82– 1:26 AM
Secondary and above				0.83	0.212	0.62– 1:11 AM
Missing value				0.91	0.615	0.63– 1:31 AM
Age group of the mother						
Under 35 years of age				1		
35 years and over				1:28 AM	0.063	0.99 – 1.67
Ethnicity of the mother						
Mossi				1		
Others				1:13 AM	0.388	0.85 – 1:45 AM
Religion of the mother						
Catholics				1		
Not Catholic				0.92	0.344	0.76 – 1:10 AM
Marital status of the mother						
Married				1		
Unmarried				0.79	0.378	0.46 – 1:34 AM
Household water source						
Other sources (wells, hand pumps, street vendors, rainwater)				1		
Public fountain terminal				0.95	0.627	0.76 – 1:18 AM
Valve				0.72	0.076	0.50 – 1:04 AM
Type of Toilet in the household						
No Toilet				1		
Simple latrines				0.74	0.185	0.47– 1:16 AM

Other (flushing and ventilated latrine)				1:16 AM	0.584	0.68 – 1.96
Household size						
Less than 5 people				1		
5 people and more				1:13 AM	0.206	0.94 – 1:36 AM

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218 **Discussion**

219 This research focused on the dynamics of inequalities in infant and child mortality between
220 formal and informal neighbourhoods in Ouagadougou, the capital of Burkina Faso. The analysis
221 is based on longitudinal data collected by the Ouagadougou Population Observatory over a
222 recent period: 2010-2018. Compared to previous research on the subject, this analysis relates
223 the dynamics of mortality inequalities between the two habitat environments with contextual
224 factors and various health and urban development policies in the city of Ouagadougou.
225 Moreover, the use of data on mortality by causes, rarely available in the general population, has
226 made it possible to support the results on the dynamics of mortality inequalities.

227 The results of the analysis confirm the excess mortality of children in informal neighbourhoods
228 compared to those in formal neighbourhoods as documented elsewhere in the literature (Fink
229 et al., 2014; Lankoandé et al., 2016). This vulnerability of children living in remote areas is
230 mainly due to socio-demographic, economic and behavioural parameters (Djourdebbé et al.,
231 2015; Soura et al., 2015; Rossier et al., 2016). However, mortality differentials have narrowed
232 over time with a faster decline in mortality in undeveloped areas. The main source of this
233 reduction is a sharp decline in deaths from malaria and respiratory infections in informal
234 settlements. Overall, these results give credit to a hypothesis of a rapid improvement in living
235 conditions coupled with a better use of care in these informal neighbourhoods.

236 The improvement of living conditions in undeveloped neighbourhoods may be associated with
237 the closure of housing estates and projects for the servicing and restructuring of informal
238 neighbourhoods, while the increase in the use of care is explained by the policy of free care for
239 pregnant women and children under five, adopted by the Burkinabe government from March
240 2016.

241 Indeed, various projects to improve informal settlements have been implemented in recent years
242 in the city of Ouagadougou, with a view to improving the living conditions of the populations
243 living there. By way of illustration, the project for the development and opening up of peripheral
244 districts (PADQP), whose activities began in the period 2007-2011, aimed to facilitate access
245 to basic social services for populations in irregular neighbourhoods (Baron et al., 2021). More
246 specifically, a partnership between private operators and the National Office of Water and
247 Sanitation (ONEA) has made it possible to test a drinking water supply system in the homes of
248 residents of these neighbourhoods. Two OPO areas benefited from this project (Nonghin and
249 Polesgho). In the same vein, the project “Sustainable sanitation in the undeveloped and

250 peripheral districts of the commune of Ouagadougou in Burkina Faso” (PERISAN) made it
251 possible to carry out 15 913 family works (latrines) for the benefit of 80 406 people in 30
252 undeveloped districts, including those monitored by the OPO (Sow, 2019). The city has also
253 benefited from the Ouagadougou Peripheral District Sanitation Project (SPAQPO), which
254 aimed to improve rainwater drainage systems, collect and recover solid waste and open up
255 peripheral districts. Most recently, the Ministry of Urban Planning and Housing in collaboration
256 with international partners launched a project to restructure “not well off” neighbourhoods in
257 several regions of the country, including Ouagadougou. It is essentially an in-situ restructuring
258 that consists of developing roads in informal neighbourhoods and establishing basic social
259 infrastructure. The pilot phase of this project is currently being implemented in a rural
260 municipality (Saaba) in the Central Region. This non-exhaustive list of the various servicing
261 projects carried out in informal neighbourhoods is likely to improve the health conditions of
262 the populations living there and consequently contribute to accelerating the decline in mortality
263 in these neighbourhoods.

264 Secondly, it should be remembered that the quest for residential autonomy is one of the reasons
265 that pushes people to settle in informal neighbourhoods in the city of Ouagadougou. The
266 populations live there hoping that the State will undertake subdivision operations that would
267 allow them to be the formal owners of the occupied lands. These usually gain value in the event
268 of a subdivision. This strategy led them gradually to invest in their housing which is usually
269 demolished during the operations of formal allocation of plots. However, this land occupation
270 approach has been severely tested in recent years when the state has stopped subdivision
271 operations in the city of Ouagadougou since 2015. This measure may encourage people to
272 invest more in their living environment, and this may have a positive impact on their health and
273 consequently on the mortality of children living in the area. This is the case, for example, of the
274 Polesgho district where communities sometimes organized in association, with the support of
275 some partners such as NGOs, are striving to improve their living environment through the
276 installation of fountains and the construction of social infrastructure such as health centres and
277 schools (Baron et al., 2021).

278 Finally, it should be mentioned that some public policies are likely to benefit the poorest more
279 than the wealthy. Recent work by Samandoulgou and colleagues ((2022)) shows that the policy
280 of free health care implemented since March 2016 has reduced inequalities in access to care
281 between the poor and the rich in Burkina Faso. Similar results have been documented in Sierra
282 Leone (Bognini et al., 2021). In addition, some initiatives specifically target indigent

283 populations. This is the case for social safety nets (cash transfers or not) and certain projects
284 such as the solidarity approach project in reproductive health (PASSAGE). This project,
285 implemented between 2006 and 2009, aimed to improve the offer of services, access and quality
286 of care for certain target populations: young adolescents, pregnant women and their families
287 and the most deprived population identified with NGOs and local associations (Dubourg et al.,
288 2010).

289 It is imperative to mention the few limitations of this research. Initially, the Ouagadougou
290 Population Observatory is not representative of the city of Ouagadougou as a whole. However,
291 beyond this question of representativeness, the longitudinal nature of the data makes it possible
292 to highlight causal mechanisms that would not be different for the rest of the city. Secondly, it
293 was difficult for us to establish in a statistical approach a causal relationship between policies,
294 projects and the dynamics of mortality inequalities between formal and informal
295 neighbourhoods over the period of analysis.

296 Beyond these few limits, this article revives the debates on health inequalities according to the
297 socio-economic gradient in cities of developing countries in general. On the one hand, the health
298 disadvantage of the poor persists in most African capitals and seems to contribute precisely to
299 the erosion of the urban advantage in terms of health compared to the rural world (Amouzou et
300 al., 2023). Of the other part, the example of cities such as Ouagadougou suggests a rapid decline
301 in mortality in the city due to a convergence of mortality levels between spontaneous habitats
302 and formal neighbourhoods adequate policies for the benefit of the poorest could accelerate the
303 transition of mortality in cities in countries in the Netherlands development pathway and thus
304 contribute to the achievement of SDG target 3.2 to reduce preventable deaths among newborns
305 and children under five in general.

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