SITUATION ANALYSIS OF INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS IN KISUMU
SITUATION ANALYSIS
OF INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS
IN KISUMU

CITIES WITHOUT SLUMS
SUB-REGIONAL PROGRAMME FOR
EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA

KENYA SLUM UPGRADE PROGRAMME

UN-HABITAT
United Nations
Human Settlements Programme

Government of Kenya

Sida
Swedish International
Development Cooperation Agency

Municipality of Kisumu
FOREWORD

The Cities Without Slums (CWS) Sub-Regional Programme for Eastern and Southern Africa was launched in response to the situation of increasing poverty in the region. The programme seeks to assist Member States in the sub-region to achieve the Millennium Declaration Goal 7 Target 11 of “Cities Without Slums,” by strengthening institutional arrangements, building partnerships and supporting the improvement of conditions of people living and working in slums. The following cities were selected for the pilot phase: Kisumu (Kenya), Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), Lilongwe (Malawi), Maputo (Mozambique), Durban (South Africa), Arusha (Tanzania), Kampala (Uganda), Maseru (Lesotho) and Ndola (Zambia). In Kenya, the Government entered into an agreement with UN-HABITAT in 2003 under the form of a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) for collaboration in Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme. The MoU states that the Government of Kenya and UN-HABITAT agree that the Programme will cover urban areas in Kenya, starting with selected slums in Nairobi and Kisumu municipalities.

The first phase of this initiative started in June 2004 (see progress report in Annex 1) and consists of several activities, among them the production of this Kisumu Situation Analysis, which is an in-depth review of the present conditions of informal settlements as well as an assessment of past efforts to upgrade slums in Kisumu. This document also provides an assessment of the political, social, physical, economic, cultural and institutional factors impacting on informal settlements. The report acknowledges the fact that through the participation of the citizens of Kisumu in the study, a number of salient issues emerged reflecting the actual situation in the slums. Key among the findings was the trend in land tenure, with a majority of residents owning land under the freehold tenure system. It also emerged that basic infrastructure is poor, with a majority of the settlements having little access to services. With these and other significant findings, the report represents the outcome of several months’ consultations with key stakeholders, including the public and private sectors, NGOs, grassroots and international development partners.

The purpose of the Kisumu Situation Analysis is to serve as a working paper and help a variety of stakeholders to evolve a consensus regarding the conditions in slums and guiding principles for slum upgrading, with a view to identifying a way forward and by developing an Action Plan. In this regard, this report proposes an integrated approach to slum upgrading and singles out the major issues of security of land tenure, improvement of basic infrastructure, housing improvement and access to health and social services.

I trust that we shall all endeavour to mobilise resources towards this quest: making Kisumu a living example of a City Without Slums.

Anna Kajumulo Tibaijuka
Under Secretary-General and Executive Director
UN-HABITAT, Nairobi, 2005
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Situation Analysis of the Slums of Kisumu has been an exciting and all consuming exercise, which has enabled us to unearth salient issues that would need to be addressed if the conditions of those who live in these areas are to be improved.

This endeavour would not have been possible without a number of people whose assistance we would like to acknowledge. These include the residents of the slum areas who provided information during community consultations and as key informants, the local leaders including Her Worship the Mayor, Councillors, Chiefs and Assistant Chiefs, Government Officers, CSO staff including the NGO Network, Action Aid, Plan (K), World Vision, Pandpieri Catholic Centre, KENAHU, Jua Kali Association, Kisumu Pamoja Housing Co-op., SANA staff, the departments of Planning, Environment, and Social Services within the Municipal Council of Kisumu (MCK), Maseno University Urban and Regional Planning Department, and UN-HABITAT. Thanks should also go to Dr. Winnie Mitullah of Nairobi University for the incisive comments which influenced the structure of the final document.

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The Situation Analysis Team:

Dr. G. M. Onyango    Lead Consultant, DURP Maseno University
Mr. George Wasonga   Director Environment MCK
Mrs. Isabella Asamba Technical Advisor SANA
Mrs. Peris Teyie     DURP Maseno University
Mr. Jack Abuya       Planning Department MCK
Mr. Bernard Odera    Environment Department MCK
Mr. Emmanuel Ooko    Planning Department MCK
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<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
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<td>ADC</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
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<td>MTEF</td>
<td>Medium Term Expenditure Framework</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Kisumu is one of the three urban centres in Kenya, together with Nairobi and Mavoko, which have been selected to pilot the implementation of the global Cities Without Slums (CWS) initiative. In the national context, the Government in collaboration with United Nations Human Settlement Programme (UN-HABITAT) established the Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme (KENSUP) to provide a framework that can sustain long-term nationwide slum upgrading in Kenya. KENSUP seeks to harness political will while strengthening fledgling slum-dweller organisations in order to promote all-inclusive processes based on consensus building and partnerships.

It is against this background that the slum upgrading process has been launched in Kisumu (see progress report in Annex 1), with a preliminary undertaking of a situation analysis study of the identified slum settlements. This situation analysis is substantially an outcome of collaborative efforts between the Municipal Council of Kisumu (MCK), the Government of Kenya (GoK) and the UN-HABITAT to assess the present state of the slums in the municipality of Kisumu. With a focus on land issues, housing, infrastructure, social services and livelihood, the analysis synthesises the perceptions and values of the slum dwellers and the main stakeholders involved in slum-related issues. Also included is an analysis of the effectiveness of past and ongoing upgrading initiatives in the selected slum settlements.

Seven slum settlements (see map on page x) have been identified for the study, namely Nyalenda “A” (including Nyamasaria), Nyalenda “B”, Manyatta “A”, Manyatta “B”, O bunga, Bandani, Manyatta-Arab, and Kaloleni. Through a process that included desk study of secondary data, key informant interviews and a series of stakeholder consultations, data was assembled for further analysis. Focus group discussions held in each of the respective settlements were particularly informative and highlighted the existence of a rich knowledge base among community members. A Political, Economic, Social-cultural and Technology (PEST) analysis of the slum settlements and an in-depth institutional analysis of the pre-selected institutions further brought to the fore certain critical elements for consideration in the slum upgrading process. The final draft of the situation analysis was then subjected to a consultative forum, which brought together slum dweller representatives and other key stakeholders to build consensus on the emerging issues. The outcome is this situation analysis report consisting of seven related chapters.

The first, introductory chapter sets the slum upgrading process in Kisumu in the wider context of the CWS and KENSUP frameworks, highlighting the methodology of the study. Chapter 2 reviews existing conditions in slum settlements, bringing into perspective the historical development of the slums and the factors that have influenced it. This chapter also brings into focus the main themes of the report, namely land issues, housing, infrastructure, social services and livelihood, concluding with a PEST analysis to identify the Political, Economic, Socio-cultural and Technological factors influencing slum development and conditions. Chapter
Chapter 4 presents a set of slum upgrading strategies and approaches, which opens the way to the next two chapters, with one analysing the institutions involved in managing various defining aspects of the slums and the next one reviewing the policy environment, respectively. The last chapter concludes the report with some suggestions on the way forward.

The high degree of enthusiasm displayed by the slum community during the preparation of this report is a clear indication of their readiness to embrace change and partake in any efforts that would contribute to the improvement of conditions in the slums. Although the communities in each of the slums were able to identify some ongoing initiatives in their settlements, there appears to be a significant communication gap between the implementers and the larger community base, which considerably reduces the significance of such efforts. This situation is worsened by the fact that the lead institutions, such as the Municipal Council, are either completely left out of such implementation frameworks, or then only marginally involved, obscuring recognition of such efforts within the citywide development strategy. Among the important initiatives the study has identified are those in the water and sanitation sector in Nyalenda by KIWASCO, borehole water provision, solid waste management and sanitation improvement in Manyatta by SANA, along with roof catchments for water provision in Manyatta and Obunga by AFRICA NOW, among a host of others. The study contends that such important initiatives ought to find a coordinating framework that would further enhance synergies and direct scarce resources for maximum benefit to the poorer slum dwellers.

Housing quality varies across the seven slum settlements under review, mixing traditional and modern types. Those settlements that have already been exposed to the site and service schemes, such as Manyatta and Nyalenda, are gradually being modernised, with more land owners sub-dividing parcels and selling to prospectors with an economic purpose. The result is a planning nightmare, with a confused blend of modern houses dwarfing the mud-thatched structures interspersed across the settlement. Obunga and Bandani exhibit the highest density of housing structures, with more than 80 per cent of plots built largely with mud walls and old, re-used corrugated iron sheets. Bandani and Kaloleni are the oldest of the slum settlements and
host a predominantly Muslim community in structures that have weathered with time, most of which are in a serious state of disrepair. A positive feature of these two settlements is that the accesses are fairly discernible, even where they are not well developed and maintained. All the slum settlements in Kisumu are well provided in rental housing, mostly built of cheap material with very little consideration for spacing concerns. Rents in these settlements range from 300 to 800 Kenyan shillings (1.00 KSh = 0.013 US dollar) for a single room unit with communal facilities. The study contends that housing is indeed a critical component of any integrated slum upgrading process, especially with regard to quality improvement and the related spatial considerations. Therefore an owner improvement scheme would be a desirable type of action.

Basic infrastructure provision in the slum settlements under review is very poor insofar as it has to do with access. For instance, Nyalenda, O bunga and Manyatta have been provided with water distribution infrastructure. However, the service remains largely unavailable to households, primarily because the poor are unable to gain access through individual piping extensions. Issues of affordability feature very prominently in these cases, although the situation in Manyatta is slightly different as the existing piping network does not carry any water. Shallow wells provide a widespread source of water in slum settlements and a cheap alternative given the presence of high water tables in these areas. However, these high water tables make it difficult to construct proper latrines, which put shallow wells under constant threat of contamination by waste. The few available latrines are poorly distributed and low quality, with frequently burst sewer lines spewing waste on the roads and creating health hazards for residents. In these conditions, it is not surprising that poor slum dwellers and as a matter of routine can only rely on hand-carted water for cooking and other forms of ingestion, and at costs that are significantly higher than those of piped supply. Evidence of electricity was noted in a majority of slums, although most connections were into commercialised units. The study further established that infrastructure in the slum settlements had largely been laid out to rural rather than urban planning standards; in practise, this means that road width is squeezed to only four metres, with vehicle accessibility limited to bicycles. Access to main roads is mostly by handcarts, as potholes and damaged drains limit use of motorised transport.

The health sector is in no better condition than infrastructure in Kisumu slums. Some areas are devoid of government health facilities and others have none of any sort at all, forcing residents to walk long distances for access to healthcare. The odd private facility available in the settlements provides services only to those able to afford them, encouraging increased use of alternative medicine. HIV/AIDS prevalence is on the increase, a factor which civil society organisations providing home-based care put down to inadequate funding. Poor living environments combine with lack of proper nutrition and sanitation to cause high morbidity rates among infants, and the children orphaned by HIV/AIDS have to contend with an increasing absence of kinship networks. Although the number of private waste collectors is not insignificant, combined capacity falls well short of the volumes produced, leading to
accumulation in various spots. This situation is exacerbated by the Municipal Council’s inability to extend waste management services to slum dwellings. The main existing disposal methods vary from composting or burning to collection of recyclable fractions such as plastics and tins by street children for sale to recycling enterprises. The potential for waste recycling remains relatively high in slum dwellings – provided, that is, that deliberate efforts can be made to promote its economic value.

Social facilities such as schools, social halls and markets are quite inadequate in the seven slum settlements, and where they exist, they lack basic amenities such as playing grounds and sanitation facilities. To the exception of Obunga, the settlements feature municipal-run primary schools that have been greatly overwhelmed by increased enrolment since introduction of universal free primary education in Kenya. As for markets, those in Nyalenda and Manyatta were built under the settlement upgrading schemes undertaken with World Bank support in the 1980s. These markets have remained unused and are in a bad state of disrepair, as most slum dwellers will rather trade closer to the CBD where they take over road sides and open parks. This may signal a lack of proper consultation with the local community at the time when the markets were in the planning process.

The situation is the same with social halls in Manyatta and Kaloleni, both quality buildings that remain largely disused. Crime is high, especially in Obunga, and is encouraged by four distinct factors: trade in stolen goods, brewing of illegal liquor, presence of people of dubious professions and lack of streetlights. The slum belt provides a vast pool of cheap labour to the town, as unemployment and poverty levels tend to be higher than in most areas within the greater Municipal boundary. However, for all the inadequacy of social facilities in Kisumu slums, relative homogeneity in culture and traditions within each settlement is a positive attribute that would support upgrading initiatives.

Income levels play a role in urban slum development, influencing general infrastructure development and maintaining a strong link with the socio-economic system. Housing provides a major source of income and has potential for growth. Areas with electricity have seen the emergence of service industries such as salons, barbers, public payphones and shade restaurants. Fewer than 30 per cent of those employed are in the formal sector, with the informal economy catering for the bulk of the remaining working population. The study showed that previous improvements in slum environments (access, drainage, etc.) had led to significant income enhancement, especially when designs had taken into consideration the aspirations of a majority of the community. It was also evident that Kisumu continues to attract populations from the surrounding districts, who form ethnic enclaves in the town, with higher concentrations in the slum dwellings. These can be entry points for intervention initiatives in the slums.

Historically, upgrading initiatives in Kenya started in 1929 when an improvement from the traditional circular forms of grass-thatched housing was proposed, greatly influencing the new housing that dominated the peri-urban settlement. Subsequently in the 1950s, local government sought to improve services, setting up a tenant purchase-and-rental housing scheme with good facilities and access, but could not compete with cheaper peri-urban housing. Later, other projects, including the USAID and the Migosi Site and Service schemes, were launched, targeting the low-income groups.

Today, residents in the slums have organised themselves to protect their interests. The Kisumu Slum-
dwellers Association (KSDA) mobilises membership in a bid to access credit for housing improvements. Through KSDA, slum-dwellers have been able to engage development partners in positive ventures in the settlements. Areas with lower population densities, like Kanyakwar, provide opportunities to establish land banks for Municipal development and particularly in connection with slum upgrading strategies. This report further recognises the present role of civic society organisations (CSOs) in spearheading identification and implementation of various affordable technologies that are conducive to improved lifestyles for slum residents. This report also stresses that if access to information related to technological development is to be improved, local resource centres must be set up in slum settlements.

Politically, there is a positive climate both locally and nationally, enhanced by the revival of the East African Co-operation and supported by local governance reforms such as the introduction of the Local Authority Service Delivery Action Plans (LASDP). The recent launch of the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) came as further proof of the political groundswell in favour of localised development initiatives with poverty alleviation as a primary target. A shared resource, Lake Victoria has attracted such interest as to be identified as an economic growth zone. With its strategic location in the lake region, Kisumu stands to derive benefits from this dispensation as it favours integrated approaches to the task of upgrading living conditions in the slums. Expanded political space enhances community participation in decision-making and provides opportunities to integrate poor slum dwellers in decision-making processes within the settlements.

Finally, the situation analysis contends that existing policies are up to the task of providing a proper environment for slum upgrading initiatives. However, this report notes that lead institutions whose direct mandates include slum development and control have so far largely operated in an uncoordinated manner. The Kisumu Municipal Council lacks the capacity required for effective planning and management of ongoing sporadic slum development. This gap has effectively been filled by NGOs, which provide support in slum settlements. Coordination remains a major challenge, yet many donor-funded studies have pinpointed opportunities for linkages that can help to build a cooperative framework among stakeholders to address the challenges and mobilise resources.

Together with stakeholders in the slum upgrading process, the MCK has sought to provide a coordination framework through a CDS secretariat. Through the NGO network in western Kenya, concerted attempts are also being made to leverage individual NGO initiatives within the wider city development agenda. A key proposal under KENSUP is to set up an interagency institutional framework that allows for optimal engagement of key partners at policy, execution and monitoring/evaluation levels. However, the slum-dwelling poor remain the common denominator in all these institutional considerations, and success of any institutional framework is largely dependent on the latitude provided for their active engagement.

This situation analysis has identified seven specific action areas for enhancements, as follows: security of tenure with sustainable land management, improved quality of the living environment, opportunities for better livelihood, affordable housing stock, frameworks for primary healthcare, opportunities for recreation and socialising, and environmental improvement in the slums.
Map of Kenya
1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 General background

Kisumu, Nairobi and Mavoko together are the first group of urban centres that have been selected to pilot the global Cities Without Slums (CWS) initiative under the Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme (KENSUP) framework. Through collaboration between the Government of Kenya and UN-HABITAT, KENSUP has been established to create the conditions that can sustain long-term, nationwide slum upgrading in Kenya. The common approach behind KENSUP is one that seeks to harness political will while strengthening nascent forms of organisation among slum dwellers in order to promote an inclusive process based on consensus and partnership. The programme aims at consolidating experiences from current and previous interventions to undertake an integrated slum-upgrading programme that will eventually improve the conditions of those living and working in Kenya’s informal settlements.

As part of a wider slum development strategy of systematic upgrading in Kenya’s urban areas, the situation analysis carried out in Kisumu between September and November 2004 has surveyed the state of Kisumu’s slums with regard to land issues, housing, infrastructure, social services and livelihoods. Attempt has been made to trace the historical development of the slums, with a view better to understand their development trail. Further analysis of the institutional framework and policy environment prevailing in Kisumu provides insights into the intervening factors and their relative influence on the current condition of the slums. The political, economic, socio-cultural and technological circumstances making up the external environment of the slums puts their evolution and growth in a wider context. Understanding external dynamics is indeed crucial to any slum upgrading strategy.

Box 1: Indicators of an upgraded slum area

Access to water
A household is considered to have access to improved water supply if it has sufficient amount of water for family use, at an affordable price, available to household members without being subject to extreme effort, especially to women and children.

Sanitation
A household is considered to have adequate access to sanitation, if an excreta disposal system, either in the form of a private toilet or a public toilet shared with a reasonable number of people, is available to household members.

Secure Tenure
Secure Tenure is the right of all individuals and groups to effective protection by the State against forced evictions. People have secure tenure when:
- There is evidence of documentation that can be used as proof of secure tenure status;
- There is either de facto or perceived protection from forced evictions.

Durability of housing
A house is considered as ‘durable’ if it is built on a non-hazardous location and has a structure permanent and adequate enough to protect its inhabitants from the extremes of climatic conditions such as rain, heat, cold and humidity.

Sufficient living area
A house is considered to provide a sufficient living area for the household members if no more than two people.

1.2 The slums of Kisumu

Overcrowding has often been considered as a defining feature of slums. Indeed, a slum may be an area overcrowded with buildings, or buildings overcrowded with people, or both. However, density is not the only defining criterion for slums. Neighbourhood facilities such as access to water, quality of housing, access to sanitation and healthcare, security of tenure and various aspects of social livelihoods can be just as important. Box 1 lists a few major indicators that...
help determine whether a settlement qualifies as an upgraded slum or otherwise.

Three major factors can be found behind the emergence of slums:

• Changes in urban land use patterns play a significant role. The slum develops into an area of high land value but cheap rents.

• Housing shortage and maintenance: slums are “urban villages” acting as “entry areas” to the cities, and where immigrants adjust to the urban ethos. Slum dwellers cannot afford proper housing, because private enterprise will not supply it at prices which they can afford.

• The psychological bias in favour of success through acculturation is all the stronger as slum dwellers have easy access to the rest of the town. This is how the psychological barriers originate with physical separation.

Slum environments are far from static: people keep moving in and out all the time. However, slum areas have become a quasi-permanent feature of the urban mosaic, and therefore must be integrated in urban development.

These defining elements can be found in Kisumu. The slums there are generally unplanned settlements that have grown as more rural areas were brought within boundaries of the town. Although densities may not be as high as in Nairobi’s own slums, they remain significant with an average 80 per cent plot occupancy rate. Structural standards are varied, ranging from mud/wattle to well-built stone houses. However, the issues of tenure and quality of housing is not so critical, since a significant proportion of houses are made of durable material and many landowners have title deeds or can get some without much ado. Tenants in the area typically have no formal lease contract with the landlord, as renewals are based on willingness to pay rent.

Slum formation in Kisumu has been associated with the rapid growth of urban population caused by migration in circumstances that do not favour rapid rates of absorption and acculturation. Rural immigrants move into these areas rather than the older council housing because opportunities for rental housing are often unavailable. Slum expansion is also due to rapid urbanisation and the authorities’ slow reaction to these problems. Municipal authorities have been focusing on planned areas, designing magnificent buildings and infrastructure against the backdrop of those slums where the bulk of the population and workers live.

1.3 The Kenya slum upgrading programme (KENSUP)

The Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme (KENSUP) is a collaborative initiative between the Government of Kenya and UN-HABITAT whose main objective is to improve the livelihoods of people living and working in slums and informal settlements in Kenya’s urban areas. The Programme has started with selected slums within the statutory, regulatory and legal boundaries of the Nairobi City Council, the Kisumu Municipal Council and the Mavoko Municipal Council.

KENSUP was launched following a meeting between Kenya’s former president and the Executive Director of UN-HABITAT. Its patron is Mwai Kibaki, Kenya’s current president, who formally launched it during the global observance of the World Habitat Day on 4th October 2004.
KENSUP as part of the National and International Human Settlements Agenda

At national level, KENSUP fits clearly in the strategic framework laid out in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Plan, the National Housing Policy, the National Housing Development Programme and the Economic Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation, all of which recognise slum upgrading as an integral part of shelter development.

Programme-specific objectives are as follows:

a) To consolidate, rationalise and institutionalise a broad range of shelter-related policies, including creation of institutions and mechanisms for sustainable funding and development of shelter and related infrastructure.

b) To implement decentralisation, partnerships, consultation, stakeholder participation, consensus building, leadership and the empowerment of beneficiary communities in upgrading projects.

c) To establish institutional frameworks and mechanisms for effective implementation of slum upgrading and shelter-related programmes.

d) To establish socio-economic and physical conditions prevailing in slums and informal settlements, through relevant mapping, in order to set the stage for improvement in land tenure, basic services, livelihoods and housing structures.

e) To develop and implement appropriate service improvement, including design, delivery strategies and approaches.

f) To assess the prevalence and impacts of HIV/AIDS and integrate strategies to address the problem.

g) To build or strengthen the capacity for research, planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and replication of shelter and human settlements programmes at the central government, local authority and settlement/community levels.

At international level, KENSUP is a clear demonstration of the Government’s commitment to the Habitat Agenda and the Millennium Goal of improving the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by the year 2020, as set out in the Cities Without Slums Initiative and the Declaration on Cities and Other Human Settlements in the New Millennium.

KENSUP will support implementation of the National Strategies and of the international development agenda through provision of the following to slum dwellers: access to basic urban services, support to informal sector income-generating activities, developing and enhancing human capital and creating an enabling environment for citizen participation, engagement and empowerment.

The main objective of the programme is to improve the livelihoods of people living and working in slums and informal settlements in Kenya’s urban areas. This entails promoting, facilitating, and where necessary, providing security of tenure, housing improvement, income generation and provision of physical and social infrastructure, including addressing the problems and impacts of HIV/AIDS. To achieve these goals, the programme calls for full engagement and active participation of stakeholders, including NGOs, CBOs, the public and private sectors as well as development partners.
The respective municipal councils of the three designated urban areas – Nairobi, Kisumu and Mavoko are implementing this strategy in four successive phases, as follows:

- **Inception Phase**: This entails a broad-based consultation and consensus-building process among all the stakeholders involved in programme development.
- **Preparatory Phase**: Building on the consultations and the situation analysis, this phase prepares the groundwork for the implementation phase. It will begin with systematic mapping, including consultations with structure owners, tenants and public authorities, and will also monitor policies and institutional arrangements for citywide slum upgrading.
- **Implementation Phase**: This comprises specific project interventions and implementation in informal settlements.
- **Replication Phase**: Analysis of lessons learned, replication and scaling up.

This situation analysis report is the main outcome of the inception phase in Kisumu and to a large extent will form the subsequent preparatory phase. It will serve as background paper for discussions and consensus-building on the situation in slums, the conditions governing slum upgrading and the actions needed to improve the situation.

### 1.4 The methodology of the Kisumu situation analysis

The situation analysis team brought together staff from the Municipal Council of Kisumu, a local NGO - SANA International, Maseno University and community representatives under the coordination of UN-HABITAT. The team undertook the assessment, documented the conditions of slums and informal settlements, and examined the effectiveness of existing slum upgrading strategies and approaches. The process included a desk study of secondary data...
on slums in Kisumu. Such secondary data consists of available census data, reports, case studies on individual settlements, surveys undertaken by national and international institutions, as well as slum mapping exercises completed by slum dweller organisations and support NGOs. The study focused on housing, infrastructure, land tenure, community facilities, health and the environment.

A series of stakeholder consultations were held at community level. Triangulation was achieved through key informant interviews with different local stakeholders from civil society organisations (CSOs) as well as the public and private sectors. Community consultations were designed to ensure representation of a cross-section of community members, CSOs, faith-based organisations (FBOs) and local leadership within the areas.

A stakeholders’ workshop was held after the collation of field data, with the following objectives:
- To provide an opportunity to share the results from the FGDs and Key Informant Interviews.
- To enable community members to appreciate their role in development planning.
- To allow participants to take part in information analysis and subsequently develop a sense of ownership of the process.

The workshop outputs reinforced the preliminary findings of the assessment.
2.0 BACKGROUND TO SLUM SETTLEMENTS IN KISUMU

The background to slum settlements in Kisumu (see map on page x) is laid out in three distinct sections of this chapter. The first section traces the historical development of the slum settlements in the wider context of Kisumu’s urbanisation, from humble beginnings as a railway terminus in 1898. This section brings into perspective the elements that characterise the shape and form of the slums, in a bid to individualise this area of spatial development vis-à-vis other urban morphologies.

Illustration 1: The slum belt surrounding the central-business district in Kisumu

The second section discusses the conceptual analysis framework for slum upgrading that has been adopted for this situation analysis. The section reviews the thematic areas of land, housing, general infrastructure, social services and livelihoods; in the process it draws heavily on secondary sources to describe how slums currently fare in these areas and points out both opportunities and threats. The purpose is to provide a basis for the specific analysis that follows in the next chapter.

The third and last section in this chapter brings into focus the externalities that influence the development of slum settlements in Kisumu. The analysis uses the PEST framework, drawing attention to the political, economic, socio-cultural and technological dispensations that have an external influence on intra-slum development.

2.1 The historical development of slum settlements in an urbanising Kisumu

2.1.1 General background to Kisumu

Kisumu is a name derived from a Luo word, “kisuma” – meaning a place where the hungry get sustenance; this could have been due to its role as a regional centre for barter trade. The Maragoli, Nandi and Luo people used to exchange tools, foodstuff and livestock there. This role continues to this day, with Kisumu acting as a commercial and transportation hub for the Lake Basin region. As the third largest urban centre in Kenya with an area of 417 sq. km (157 sq. km. of water and 260 sq. km. of land) and a population estimated at 500,000, Kisumu has grown from humble beginnings as a railway terminus in 1898. By 1971, Kisumu had a total area of 53 square kilometres following a boundary extension incorporating the densely populated peri-urban settlements of Manyatta, Nyalenda, together with a large portion of mostly rural land.

Topographically, the town divides into two, the hilly North and the southern plain. The southern plain is the floor of the geographically complex Nyanza Rift System. Originally, the town only covered the residual hill at the tip of Winam Gulf, which has better drains and therefore attracted earlier settlements. The hill
rolls gently to form the central parts of the municipality, which includes the slum areas of Nyalenda and Manyatta “B”. Most of this land is liable to flooding, mainly because of the topography and soils. The land then rises gently through Kanyakwar and eventually merges with the steep escarpment of the Nyabondo or Nandi Hills, which forms the Northern boundary and a physical barrier to the town’s expansion.

To appreciate the layout of the study area, some details of land-use in the town can help put in perspective the critical role of accessibility for the residents. Kisumu’s residential land use falls into five groups, namely:

1. The high-class residential areas of Milimani (the former European residential area).
2. The high-income residential areas of Tom Mboya-Kibuye (the former Indian residential area).
3. Low and middle-income public housing (Municipal, Railways, Kenya Post, Kenya Power, etc.).
4. The Kanyakwar residential area.
5. Peri-urban unplanned and slum settlements.
6. Rural extended boundary areas.

The central part of the town hosts government offices, the port, an industrial area and housing for the middle and high-income residents in a well-planned area. It is obvious from existing plans that before the boundary extension, the original municipal areas were characterised by high levels of planning, service delivery and infrastructure provision. Being at the origins of Kisumu, railways naturally took up vast tracts of land in the new town, and substantial areas were reserved for a new commercial district and government functions, including staff residences.

Surrounding the central part is a belt of unplanned slum settlements that has developed as a complete semi-circle around the old city, opening up a huge gap in the rates of urbanisation between the two zones. It is evident that part of the slum formation process is attributable to selective urbanisation by the colonial administration and bequeathed to the newly independent government that has since perpetuated it. However, changes have occurred in the location of industries, with the development of tertiary industries accompanied by the fluidity of residential location in areas such as Otonglo, in Korando sub-location. Therefore development “leapfrogs” the slum belt and into areas further away from the CBD, creating a new belt of better housing in Nyamasaria and Kanyakwar.

Beyond the slum belt is rural land that was incorporated into the town boundary as part of the extension. Kanyakwar sits on a portion of this land; it is subdivided and allocated to individuals for development. The rest of the land is on freehold tenure and is used for residential and agricultural purposes; this is supposedly a land bank for future development of the town. The land adjoins slum areas and provides avenues for further expansion of housing structures, as landowners have changed use to more lucrative provision of cheap slum housing. Unfortunately, these areas too have developed without any proper accessibility.

In terms of infrastructure development and support, Kisumu’s standing is comparatively better in the region, and the town continues to attract investment. Renovation of the industrial sector is being attempted and the Molasses plant in Korando has begun operations. Under City Development Strategy plans, the town is to become an economic development centre, with positive benefits radiating across the whole region. One implication, though, is that migration to the town is unlikely to abate in the short term, which calls for careful anticipatory planning.
2.1.2 Characterising the slum belt of Kisumu

2.1.2.1 Physical characterisation

Kisumu is a relatively young town and its concentric pattern of expansion is breaking as the city extends to new areas. The slum belt forms the outer ring of the old town as a residential area for the poor working class that is in rapid transition. The transition is making itself felt in the urban structures, affecting the capacity of existing access roads to cope with changes. This phenomenon calls for reorganisation of the planning and administration system; the land tenure system must also be reorganised in view of rising land prices in the Kisumu slum belt.

Kisumu's early town planning was patterned after the “garden city” model, with low densities in the European areas, extensive intra-urban distances, large housing plots and lavish recreational space. The general structural development made it difficult to improve accessibility within the peri-urban areas, as this had remained outside the ambit of the colonial infrastructure network. For lack of proper guidelines there was no accessibility within the slums and, as a result, access to activity centres and emergency services today is difficult for slum residents. Providing access to public transport within these areas is proving difficult, too. A historical perspective can shed light in the origins of the present accessibility problem in the peri-urban areas Kisumu.

The bulk of Kisumu’s slums are to be found in the flat eastern part of the municipal area. Unlike the northern portion, a large part of which the Commissioner of Lands has acquired for planned urban development, the eastern area is developing with little planning, if any. However, this area naturally presents the most serious problem in terms of natural drainage, due to a combination of the type of soil, a low gradient and a high water table. This implies that the land that is easily available for expansion of low-income housing in the slum area entails the highest cost for infrastructure investment.

2.1.2.2 Social and demographic characterisation

Kisumu still experiences a net immigration flow from the surrounding districts of the Lake Basin; mainly because of the variety of resources that continues to attract populations and investors within the region. Cultural forces dominate migration trends, with the surrounding districts contributing the bulk of the migrants. One of the definable cultural practises fuelling migration is the tradition of land inheritance, with the resulting ever-smaller land parcel sizes and poor farming productivity creating an impetus for migration. The bulk of migrants are most likely to settle in the slum belt, in the process adding to the pressure on the already impoverished settlements.

The bulk of the population increase in the inter-census period 1979-1999 has taken place in the peri-urban areas. For instance, of the 214,240 inhabitants of the urban area in 1989, 55 per cent (118,617) were residing in the peri-urban slum settlements; representing an increase of almost 50 per cent from the 1979 total
slum-resident population (58,830). The bulk of this increase was concentrated in the Manyatta, Pandpieri and Nyalenda areas. Densities in the settlements have also significantly increased, as depicted by the figures from the 1999 census summarised in Table 1 below.

Today, pockets of slum-like settlements are developing, if gradually, in Kanyakwar, Chiga (Kibos) and Korando; the implication is that over 60 per cent of the population live in areas that lack the basic necessities required in a dense form of urban environment.

2.1.3 Historical structural development

Founded in 1898 as Port Florence, Kisumu became the terminus for the Uganda railway and, as a port, overtook Port Victoria at the mouth of the River Nzoia. At the time, the town was ideally located on the shores of Lake Victoria, at the end of the caravan trail from Pemba, Mombasa and Malindi, and with the potential for connections by steamers to the whole of the Lake Basin. The development of the Uganda railway was to follow the established caravan routes to the shores of Lake Victoria. Mumias and Port Victoria lost to Port Florence as the centre for the region’s development.

On Friday 20th December 1901, the line reached its new railhead, Port Florence.

Over time, Kisumu developed as a colonial town to serve as a railway terminus and a lake port, a legacy that subsequently created the present structural problem resulting in the broad “slum belt” in the built-up area of the town. In 1908, an outbreak of bubonic plague led to the zoning of residential areas in the town, as follows:

- **Block A**: Consisted of the port, official residences for colonial officers, government and railway headquarters, prison, police posts and hospital, together with residential areas for Indians and Europeans employed in the town.
- **Block B**: Developed as a buffer block between Block A and C.
- **Block C**: Was the official African residential area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Area in Sq Km</th>
<th>Density pp/ Sq Km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manyatta &quot;A&quot;</td>
<td>20,700</td>
<td>21,210</td>
<td>41,910</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20,955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manyatta &quot;B&quot;</td>
<td>10,891</td>
<td>10,136</td>
<td>21,027</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>6,372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyalenda &quot;A&quot;</td>
<td>12,507</td>
<td>11,224</td>
<td>23,731</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>8,475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyalenda &quot;B&quot;</td>
<td>13,162</td>
<td>12,482</td>
<td>25,644</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>4,204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanyakwar (Obunga)</td>
<td>4,380</td>
<td>4,196</td>
<td>8,576</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>1,009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kogony (Bandani)</td>
<td>7,150</td>
<td>6,811</td>
<td>13,961</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>1,066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Kolwa</td>
<td>36,560</td>
<td>33,842</td>
<td>70,402</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>5,771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaloleni</td>
<td>6,467</td>
<td>7,048</td>
<td>13,515</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>6,436</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
However, beyond Block C, a new settlement of African villages was rising just outside the town boundary. The type of development in the area was poor, with semi-permanent housing structures and very poor sanitation facilities.

In 1930, the town boundary was reduced “to make it more manageable”. This reduction in town boundary effectively excluded the settlement areas beyond Block C. Therefore, the residential area developed as a peri-urban unplanned settlement, without any basic infrastructure. On the other hand, the areas in Block A had infrastructure, grew in an organised manner and housed the better-off urban residents. After independence in 1963, Block B merged into Block A, in the process becoming part of the inner city.

Subsequently, Kisumu’s slum area continued to expand outwards. However, in 1972 the surveying and issuing of land title deeds in areas newly acquired for municipal expansion gradually reined in this expansion. By that time, more than 50 per cent of the population lived in the slum belt. As the expansion of the central parts of the town has accelerated, so has the density of population in the slum area.

The present rate and nature of growth of Kisumu, and particularly in the slum areas, surpasses any current programme for provision of services. The pressures thus exercised on land in the old parts of the town caused a shift of residential land-use to areas further away. This increased the demand for public transportation and fares increased to exorbitant levels. As a result, most people walk to work or school, leading to the growth of bicycle taxis known as “boda boda” to fill the niche for a cheaper and flexible mode of transport, day and night. The phenomenal growth of boda boda has created employment for young people in the slum areas.

Map 2: Land segregation in the old town

Boda boda as an important means of transport in Kisumu. Photo: © UN-HABITAT
2.1.3.1 Urbanising the villages

When the town boundary shrunk in 1930, African residents on the eastern low-lying areas became excluded from the benefits of planned urban development. The rapid growth of this area created a unique problem for Kisumu, unlike other towns in western Kenya. This is evident in the introduction of the tenant-purchase housing schemes by the Municipal Council (established in 1941): the schemes could not compete with the cheaper options available in the peripheral areas of the town. The development of these peripheral areas fell within the ambit of the African Development Council (ADC) of Central Nyanza; only the ADC had the power to pass by-laws regulating the building of houses in this “rural” area outside the town boundary, as the land in town was in the hands of the settlers and a few Asians.

The peri-urban houses were in essence rural settlements, continuing the pattern of the Luo villages in the area. The settlements served two purposes. First, they reduced transport costs, making it easier for single males to pay regular visits to villages in order to attend to issues commensurate with their status as the employed elite. Secondly, the settlements enabled men to live with their wives and children continuously while maintaining a rural pattern of life since they were a walking distance from the town.

2.2 The conceptual thematic framework for analysis of slum upgrading

2.2.1 Land issues

In this report, land tenure refers to the public and private rights encompassing the relationships of landowners to tenants, sub-tenants and holders of easement, neighbours, visitors and workers, creditors as well as mortgage and tax collectors. This process has undergone changes since the establishment of the first colonial administrators in Kenya at the end of the 19th century.

Land tenure comes in two categories, namely freehold and leasehold. With freehold tenure, one owns land until such a time when all the descendants have died and no one owns the land any longer. With leasehold, on the other hand, a group and/or individuals hold the interest on the land for a specific period. Leasehold allows people who do not own primary interest (such as freehold tenure) to use land or have access to it.

The earlier inhabitants of the area, the Luo, influenced the distribution of land in the peri-urban areas of Kisumu. To the Luo, land is a property of the community, usually the clan. The clan owned land and each member of the clan used a parcel to farm and thereby feed his family. Grazing land and watering places were common and everyone was obliged to provide access to such common land. It was normal to find grazing land and water points in one location and division of land for farming was so designed as to allow for footpaths to these watering places.

Subdivision of consolidated pieces of land continued along with inheritance from uncles, brothers, etc. Land value in monetary terms did not rise until the last three decades. Payment for a piece of land was usually a token payment, which did not reflect genuine market value. The usual line of defence for this was that it is unethical to profit from a brother or kinsman in need. It must be pointed out that land purchase in those areas of Kenya that were formerly designated as “native reserves” tended to be restricted to people of the same ethnic group. This is why land transactions involved people from the same ethnic group. In the 1950s and 1960s, migrants from Siaya moved to Kisumu and established homesteads in the peri-urban areas of the
town, forming significant clan enclaves. They recreated their villages complete with custom and tradition but did not embrace urban planning. The initial temporary nature of their stay led them to buy or receive as gifts small parcels of land to establish themselves in the area. Because of the culture of bequeathing land on the sons, they further sub-divided their small parcels to their male progeny, who would also sub-divide them. The eventual land parcels became uneconomical for agricultural purposes, although a number of homes continued to breed livestock.

In the Kisumu “slum belt”, land has gone through the process of adjudication and a large percentage has been registered as individual interests on freehold tenure. The main reason is that neither the Municipal council nor the central government has been able to acquire interest on this land due to the costs involved. The cost of compensation would be quite high in comparison to the Kanyakwar area, where the main land use was subsistence agriculture. The peri-urban area features a number of quality structures that are unaffordable for the cash-strapped council to acquire with a view to gaining full control over their development. The net effect has been the inability of the council to set up land banks in these areas for public facility development.

Ironically, the process of urbanisation has seen communities that were initially rural being overwhelmed as more and more immigrants moved into this area, and the original inhabitants felt marginalised as outsiders purchased land and put up quality development.

2.2.2 Housing

Housing quality varies across the seven slum settlements, fusing traditional and modern houses. Settlements that have already been exposed to the site and service schemes such as Manyatta and Nyalenda are gradually being modernised, with more landowners sub-dividing their parcels and selling them out for economic gain. The result is a planning nightmare, with a confused blend of modern houses dwarfing the mud-thatched structures interspersed within the settlement. Obunga and Bandani exhibit the highest density of housing structures, with more than 80 per cent of plots constructed largely with mud walls and old reused corrugated iron sheets. Bandani and Kaloleni are the oldest of the slum settlements and host a predominantly Muslim community in structures that have weathered with time, most of which are in a serious state of disrepair. A positive aspect in these two settlements is that the accesses are fairly discernible, even where they are not well developed and maintained. All slum settlements include significant numbers of rental units, mostly built from cheap material with very little consideration for spacing concerns. Rents in these settlements range from KShs 300 to 800 for a single room unit with communal facilities.

2.2.3 General infrastructure

The distribution of the physical infrastructure is a function of the development of the town. High-income residential areas and formal public housing areas are well served with infrastructure. However, the emerging areas of Kanyakwar still rely on septic and conservancy tanks for sewer disposal. Water and electricity
Situation Analysis of Informal Settlements in Kisumu

Peri-urban unplanned and slum settlements may enjoy access to basic facilities, depending on the proximity of the property to other developed areas. However, such proximity has increased incidences of illegal tapping onto private service lines, often associated with high risks if found out. Sewerage remains a major problem, due to the small size of many of the plots and to the narrow and unsystematic access roads that do not allow for construction of sewer reticulation. As a result, pit latrines predominate. This can only be a temporary stopgap as the high water table and the number of users lead to a rapid filling up of these pits. Black cotton soils in parts of Nyalenda, O bunga, Bandani and Manyatta affect drainage and toilet construction, while rock outcrops in Bandani and Nyawita curtail latrine construction.

Poor road network is the norm in almost all areas in the Kisumu slum belt as the council input in terms of planning and capital outlay is minimal. Over the years, infrastructure supply has been biased in favour of the low-density areas of the planned old town. The municipal rental areas are also characterised by decay in infrastructure. A combination of the council’s financial constraints and poor governance among the urban poor has resulted in a tendency to concentrate resources among the better-off areas of the town; this was evidenced in the recent urban road improvement programme, which saw the poorer areas being given lower priority in implementation.

Road reserves should allow for the development of a number of infrastructural services, including piped water, storm drainage and sewers. In the slum areas, this has not been possible because road networks are unplanned and the few road reserves are being encroached by developers.

are available to those who can afford them. However, Kisumu is faced with acute water shortage as only 40 per cent of the population have access to piped water supply from KIWASCO, the sole water utility in town.

The slum and peri-urban settlements, where about 60 per cent of the Kisumu population lives, are the most affected with over 60 per cent of slum residents getting water from unsafe sources during the wet season. As a coping mechanism, a majority of slum dwellers rely on unprotected wells and springs that are subject to high degrees of contamination due to the rampant use of pit latrines and to high water tables. As a direct consequence, a high prevalence of water- and sanitation-related morbidity is to be found in the slums.

Some 11 per cent of slum residents have no latrines and must rely on undignified coping mechanisms such as relying on neighbours’ toilets, wrap and throw and other unspecified alternatives (most likely, use of open fields). The O bunga slum is the most affected, with almost 40 per cent of residents lacking access to proper latrines. The major factor behind this situation is none other than the technical challenge prompted by loose soils and high water tables.
2.2.4 Social Services

The Kisumu council’s Social Services Department is responsible for providing social services that include community centres, housing and social support. Other departments include Health and Education.

However, the council has not been able to fulfil its mandate with regard to social services. The litany of problems includes: low-quality housing with poor access along with high or uncontrolled rents and limited and unevenly distributed health services. Most of the existing institutions lack basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and solid waste disposal, a situation that can only raise environmental health concerns.

Understaffing in the professional and technical cadre has bedevilled the Municipal Council of Kisumu in these crucial areas and thus hampered service provision. This has curtailed its capacity for leadership and revenue generation for effective delivery of services and facilities. Incidental effects include the disconnection of power to the streetlights, leading to poor security on most of the roads in the city at night. Even where social centres are established, as in Manyatta and Kaloleni, they remain widely unused for lack of any sensible attractions for the slum communities.

Primary schools are not well distributed across the slum settlements, some of which (Obunga and Bandani) have none at all. In Manyatta “B” a single primary school serves the large population. The poor condition of the physical infrastructure combines with current over-enrolment (subsequent to the advent of free primary education) to make those schools unattractive.

2.2.5 Livelihoods

The bulk of the population in Kisumu slum areas work in the informal sector with monthly incomes ranging from KShs 3,000 to 4,000. Work places are located in the downtown and industrial areas distributed into three belts; the Central industrial area, Otonglo, and Kibos. However, these only provide about 30 per cent of employment opportunities a situation compounded by the collapse or relocation of manufacturing industries such as Kisumu Cotton Mills and Kenya Breweries.

Some employment opportunities are available near the residential, market and industrial areas. These admittedly informal establishments are not only operating in the proximity of formal sector locations but also are often providing services and markets for the formal sector. On top of this, the phenomenal growth of boda boda has created employment for young people in slum areas and provides cheaper and more flexible transport during both day and night.

Poor infrastructure in the slums of Kisumu. Photo: © UN-HABITAT
A number of support structures are available in the informal sector, which aim at supporting the initiatives of these workers. These include associations as well as savings and credit groups. These initiatives have been instrumental in sustaining employment in the informal sector, although a number of people express disappointment at the inability of such capital to result in massive improvement in business or trade.

Low incomes and job insecurity are the biggest challenge Kisumu slum residents have to face. Those in formal employment often find themselves out of work as employers lay them off after three months to avoid employing them on a permanent basis as required by law.

Notable is the lack of basic infrastructure and services to support investments; in cases where they are available, they are inadequate and dilapidated.


2.2.6 Summary of opportunities and threats on the thematic framework

The table below presents a summary of discernible opportunities and threats in relation to the specific themes defined for the situation analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific issue</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enhanced land values</td>
<td>Conflicts – Jo-Dak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some areas have title deeds, making acquisition easy</td>
<td>Prohibitive costs of land acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical planning Act may allow community participation</td>
<td>Freehold title deed allows owners cultural practises which reduce land value, e.g. burial use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased demand for housing.</td>
<td>Displacements of indigenous populations due to commercialisation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of appropriate technology for affordable houses.</td>
<td>Pressure for more land to cater for the needs of a regional capital</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transform houses from cultural to urban with modern facilities</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Ongoing housing improvement initiatives by slum dwellers using co-operative principles</td>
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<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased demand for housing.</td>
<td>Demolitions, resulting in conflicts in case of resistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of appropriate technology for affordable houses.</td>
<td>Displacement of the poor by better-off residents if housing conditions improve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transform houses from cultural to urban with modern facilities</td>
<td>Prohibitive cost of materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ongoing housing improvement initiatives by slum dwellers using co-operative principles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Need to improve infrastructure for a regional capital.</td>
<td>Lack of land to provide infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effective interest and support from different donors and CSOs (e.g. SANA, Undugu and World Vision)</td>
<td>Prohibitive costs of acquiring land for infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased use of appropriate technology to provide facilities; enabling the poor to engage in economic activities</td>
<td>Rapid displacement of the poor due to change in land value and sophistication in demand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social services</td>
<td>Need for better social services facilities</td>
<td>Need for investment for provision of superior services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increase in the quality of services, especially by the private sector</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improved access to social services</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enhance capacity to tackle HIV/AIDS.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement of CBOs, NGOs and MFIs in service provision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livelihood</td>
<td>Improved incomes</td>
<td>The poor being further marginalised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greater urbanising influence and creation of multi-ethnic, multicultural communities capable of integrating from rural to urban communities organising themselves around key socio-economic issues not ethnic politics</td>
<td>End of urban agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loss of cultural values - land inheritance, moving graves to cemeteries</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


2.3 The PEST analysis framework

2.3.1 Political factors

The opposition politics that once was a hallmark of the Kisumu region often pitted the local political leadership against the central government. The upshot was a slowdown in development initiatives for the town. The advent of multiparty politics has given Kisumu an opportunity to move out of under development placed upon it during the one-party system and the frequent fallouts this involved between the local party leadership and the central government.

Kisumu has remained a centre of political activity in the wider, East African region, with political factors affecting its socio-economic development.

In 1995, the government set up a commission to review the administration, finance, planning and status of the major urban centres in Kenya with a view to upgrade them from mere municipalities to city status (other than Nairobi which is already one), and the panel recommended the elevation of Kisumu. The rationale was that, owing to growth and expansion, the Municipalities had developed complex problems, calling for new modes of administration which their conversion to city status would support.

Positive recent political developments in East Africa and the revival of the East African Community have resulted in a boom that fuels Kisumu’s expansion. The noticeable increase in business activity is bound to have some consequences on migration trends into Kisumu in the long term. The central location of the town in the East African region, and especially in the Lake Victoria Basin, should result in increased demand for housing, and more so in the expanding peri-urban fringes.

Local political considerations need some scrutiny; especially the competing interests between the natives of Kisumu district and people whose home districts are outside Kisumu (Jo Dak) This rivalry has often pitted local politicians against each other, with negative effects on development opportunities in slum areas. Other factors to consider include the insistence by many people on much-needed change in electoral laws, on direct election of the Mayor and a professional city management body. All of this now hangs on the constitutional review, which is being delayed.

The expansion of political space in the multiparty era has created the potential for communities to participate in decision-making. A number of civil society organisations nurture this process, especially as it relates to provision of services to the communities. The LASDP and the Physical Planning Act specifically provide for community participation and should act as a catalyst for integration of the local community in decision-making procedures in the slums. Other related reform processes include the devolution of resources to the constituencies through the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) and other related sectoral-based funds such as the Constituency Aids Control and Constituency Bursary funds.
There exists a real possibility of exploiting such governmental goodwill by forging strategic partnerships with the local political leadership to direct these resources at targets that would register optimal benefits, especially for the poor slum communities.

2.3.2 Economic factors

Colonial administrative settlements had two basic functions: as a source of control of the local population and establishment of British rule, and as a centre for collection of revenue and development of economic enterprises for the mother country. The only thing that has changed after the colonial period is the concept of mother country. Kisumu’s economic development is still controlled from a national core that tends to have very little trickle-down effects on the city. Central government still sees the local authorities as revenue bases and remains somewhat wary of their potential for independence.

What stands out in many urban slum development studies is that income levels are a significant influence on transport development. The poorer segments of society have less access to transport and become marginalised in the development of the transport network and, eventually, in the general urban structure. One of the most important factors that tend to set transportation apart from other types of business is that its links to the entire socio-economic system it serves are very strong, making transportation a powerful tool for influencing the development of a poor community.

It is a fact that improved slum environments (access, drainage etc.) do actually enhance incomes in general, especially when slum areas are upgraded with due consideration for the aspirations of a majority of the community. We should be cautious with such a conclusion, though, as this link could result from the migration of new tenants with higher incomes into a slum area. Aspects of housing and income, as belaboured by many studies, are important, but it must be borne in mind that the environment of a house is just as important and that spatial accessibility is crucial as a first step towards improving the living environment.

In the Kenyan slums under review, only one third of those employed are in the formal sector. The informal sector provides for the bulk of the remaining working population. This includes transport, petty sales, repairs, carpentry, metalwork, and many other small-scale businesses that have yet to evolve out of the informal sector. Because of the general feeling of insecurity of the people employed in the informal sector, they tend to seek residence in locations where they can afford to pay rent in case they are temporarily out of a job - i.e., in the peri-urban settlements. In a town like Kisumu with such large numbers employed in this sector, there is a large market for the construction of cheap housing in peri-urban settlements and for developing sites for informal sector activities.

Urban agriculture is one potential area that has been neglected in Kisumu, even though it retains perhaps the greatest potential in providing employment and food to slum residents and the city in general. Available statistics on urban agriculture and livestock-keeping estimate a per capita livestock worth of KShs 150,000...
among slum households. This is despite the fact that local council by-laws do not recognise this practise as a core function of the urban centre. Because of this neglect of urban agriculture, Kisumu continues to be a net food importer.

Other economic potential like fisheries and tourism remain largely unexploited. These would provide business and job opportunities for poor slum dwellers. Victoria Lake itself is a vast reservoir for irrigation water; if used in connection with urban agriculture and in partnership with various stakeholders in the area, the lake could help contain the cost of living and significantly improve the nutritional status of the community. However, care must be taken to balance such undertakings with the delicate environment of the lake.

2.3.3 Socio-cultural factors

Urban areas continue to act as magnets attracting populations from rural areas in search of opportunities. Kenya’s urban population is estimated to grow some five per cent a year, but the rate is higher in the country’s major towns. However, it should be noted that population growth is not in itself detrimental; the problem instead lies with the incapacity of urban authorities to provide enough opportunities and at a pace capable of keeping up with urban population growth in order to meet the expectations of those who move into urban areas. The current outcome is the expansion of informal housing areas.

However, cultural forces dominate migration trends, with the districts in Nyanza – namely Kisumu, Nyando, Siaya, Bondo, Suba, Migori, Homabay and Rachuonyo – contributing the bulk of the migrants into Kisumu. Migrants from the Kisii districts of Gucha, Nyamira and Kisii Central have also made a significant contribution in Nyalenda and Nyamasaria. However, slums have tended to be predominantly ethnic with new migrants coalescing around ethnic groups, as evidenced by the Kisii enclave in Nyamasaria.

The slum, at least in its early stages, presents a picture of such primitive living conditions that it is hard to imagine its people as happy, achievement-oriented and hopeful. However, community neighbourhoods act as anchor points for socio-cultural development as part of various residential development initiatives. This is achieved through designation of a focal area that provides an opportunity for neighbourhood residents to develop a sense of belonging. Such a focal area could be a multifunctional centre serving the interests of all genders, both young and old. The centre would include a school, a community hall, recreation activities and possibly a shop. This would be an adequate response to the priorities identified among slum residents, while also addressing the social needs of the community.

It is critical to address socio-cultural attitudes along side other interventions to reduce those socio-cultural practises that are incompatible with the drive to urbanise. Such interventions include getting residents to understand the need to stop certain rural practises, such as large-scale livestock keeping.
In the slums of Kisumu, the potential is there to build on existing social structures, using them as a basis for enhancing social-cultural practices within the community. These structures include strong ethnic ties (including council of elders) between the dwellers, which can be used as entry points for “soft” development such as capacity building and awareness creation for planned interventions.

2.3.4 Technological factors

The final aspect in this PEST analysis is the fact that slums combine residential and business functions; on top of residential areas, slums are also workplaces with business activities that require access. The issue is how slum expansion (postulated as given) can combine with the relevant technologies in order to ensure that these benefit to the ever-increasing numbers of residents.

Technological development in the slum areas of Kisumu has been promoted by civil society organisations. These CSOs have been involved with technologies ranging from water and sanitation to housing construction and waste disposal. However, the issue of cost keeps rearing its head behind every assessment of the technologies that can improve slum resident lifestyles. However, professionals in the building industry, for example, often manage to reduce costs without compromising quality. As part of such efforts, bricks are increasingly used in house-building, which substantially reduces the cost of wall construction.

Use of intermediate technology in Kisumu slum areas includes, among others: the APPROTECH hand-held water pump; smoke hoods to reduce smoke-related health hazards; fuel-effective stoves; ventilated, improved pit latrines and ecosan latrines. It remains for slum residents to make full use of solid waste recycling technologies, as this type of activity has great income-generating potential. Widespread application of these technological options requires effective dissemination in the first place.

After this background overview of the slum settlements in Kisumu, it is important to examine the existing institutional structures in terms of the capacity and capabilities required for the purposes of the slum upgrading project in Kisumu.
3.0 SITE-SPECIFIC ANALYSIS OF INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS

3.1 Analysis of specific informal settlements

There are three distinct types of informal settlements in Kisumu, (see map on page x) as follows:
- Areas that have not experienced any intervention (Nyalenda, Obunga, Manyatta-Arab).
- The suburban fringe.
- Areas that have experienced intervention (Manyatta, Kaloleni).

This gradation of the prevailing conditions in Kisumu slums results primarily from a combination of secondary sources, intensive community consultations and interviews with relevant government and council officials. This analysis also seeks to highlight the unique attributes of individual settlements.

The sites surveyed in more detail included Nyalenda “A” (including Nyamasaria), Nyalenda “B”, Manyatta “A”, Manyatta “B”, Obunga, Bandani, Manyatta-Arab and Kaloleni. Other areas that were also included were potential slum pockets in Korando, Kanyakwar and Chiga. The site-specific findings shed light on the general characterisation of the slums, with the main focus on the five key areas of land, housing, infrastructure, social services, and livelihoods.

3.1.1 Nyalenda “A” and “B”

Nyalenda “A” and “B” (including Nyamasaria) are areas in rapid transition. Original inhabitants are selling land to newcomers who have been putting up quality residential houses. Original owners tend to stay in typical rural housing surrounded by new developments.

Most of Nyalenda is characterised by a relatively lower density of housing development. Typical housing is of the rooming type, including a courtyard with shared facilities. The main access roads are generally wide, with a few narrow feeder roads.

3.1.1.1 Land tenure and use

Land in Nyalenda “A” is on freehold tenure. Families hand land down to successive generations, as is typical in a rural setup. To this extent, the area can be characterised as a rural settlement caught up in urban expansion. The result was a massive concentration of people in a rural-like environment with Luo-style rural housing in the urban fringes. Cultural land-use practices persist in Nyalenda “A” despite its location and proximity to the upmarket Milimani residential area, resulting in periodic conflicts with Municipal authorities as grazers invade parks and other amenities in pursuit of pasture.
The traditional culture of burying the dead within the compound persists; this makes it very difficult to bring such parcels into the urban land market, because of the personal attachment of family members to the burial place of the departed and the unwillingness of people to buy land with gravestones on them.

Nyalenda “B” (Pandpieri) is similar to Nyalenda “A” in many ways, but the major difference is its ability to attract new developers. Although Pandpieri grew as an extension to Nyalenda, internal accessibility there is slightly better. Probably because of proximity to swamps and the distance from the major areas of economic activity, the Pandipieri settlement has had a lower density for a long time. It has fewer graves and therefore is more amenable to the land market.

Surveying in most of the area and title deeds available except for the Kisumu prisons farm, which is un-surveyed. The process of getting documentation after land subdivision is very lengthy and some informal subdivisions for inheritance purposes are not registered.

On the eastern side of this area lies a large tract of agricultural land that is seasonally flooded. This land is an important component of the community’s livelihood and is still owned communally by the native inhabitants of the area. However, because it is virtually a wetland there has been no clear strategy for its proper development, although the community’s ownership is recognised, if only informally.

3.1.1.2 Housing

The majority of the houses in Nyalenda “A” and “B” are made of mud and wattle with iron sheet roofs. This is a carry-over from rural housing and its so-called “semi-permanent” houses (tin roofs, plastered/un-plastered floors with the occasional plastered mud wall). Landowners put up rental houses on land on which they also have their homes. Due to high construction costs, many of these rental houses lack basic amenities such as toilets, power, water and security. Outdoor space is also inadequate. Most of the buildings have had no council approval.

There are quite a number of very modern housing structures in the periphery of Nyalenda “A” and “B”, near the Milimani area. The establishment of a small factory on its outer reaches near Dunga and the development of recreational places by the lake saw the setting up of electric power lines and water reticulation to serve these activities. This had a multiplier effect, as a larger proportion of developers were able to tap into this infrastructure. Encouraged by lower land costs compared with the inner city, better housing is emerging in this sub-zone for the middle class who do not want to live far away from the town centre.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>House Rents</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mud walled with GCI roof</td>
<td>KSh 300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cement Wall/mud floor</td>
<td>KSh 400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cement Wall/floor</td>
<td>KSh 500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cement Wall/floor with water</td>
<td>KSh 700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cement Wall/floor with power</td>
<td>KSh 1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near the ring road</td>
<td>KSh 1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>KSh 2500 +</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pandpieri benefits from the location of a recreation centre at Dunga near the lake. This has caused a rise in property values and an invasion by high-income earners who are buying properties there and putting up large residential housing adjacent to the existing rooming housing. This process is a knock-on effect from the limited availability of land in Milimani (at the
centre of the town), which houses the urban rich, and is bound to accelerate. Improved accessibility in the area will push out economically weaker residents to other areas in order to create space for expansion of the Milimani area.

Housing rents in Nyalenda “A” and “B” vary between KShs 500 and 700 per month for a house close to water supply and a toilet facility. With power connection, the rent goes up to KShs 1000, which is quite unaffordable to most would-be tenants.

3.1.1.3 Infrastructure

Particularly worthy of note is the fact that for a long time, the planning standards in force in Nyalenda “A” and “B” were those for a rural area, which means that access roads were only six metres wide. Under urban conditions, such roads are for access to single plots only. In a rural context even this six-metre feature was not fully adhered to and many access roads have been squeezed to widths of as little as four metres.

With their rural transport network, Nyalenda and Pandpieri have the basis for upgrading to an urbanised transport system. However, the Urban II upgrading programme is uncompleted for lack of funds, among other reasons. The Ring Road is the only access network that has been completed. However, completion has led to increased values for properties adjacent to the Ring Road and the whole strip is slowly changing to commercial uses.

The Ring Road runs on the outer edges of Nyalenda and Pandpieri and is the only public transport vehicle (“matatu”) route in the area. Beyond this point, access into the slums is only possible by foot or bicycle. Those wishing to use a matatu must walk to the Ring Road. This is quite inconvenient for those staying on the outer edges of the slum belt, especially when they have heavy loads to carry and would welcome public transport.

All the roads in Nyalenda are narrow tracks eroded by runoff water, with homes constructed close to the road or road reserves. These roads lack drainage which compounds the erosion problem. Runoff water from the Ring Road has also increased erosion of the area’s narrow roads.

The main type of sanitation in the area is the pit latrine. A few houses have water closets with septic tanks, which has been a major factor in ground water contamination. Many plots are of small sizes on black cotton soils, this makes it difficult to construct pit latrines, and residents in these areas resort to alternative waste disposal methods including use of open spaces. Use of polythene bags to be disposed of at night (“flying toilets”) is increasing.

Sources of domestic water include pipe water and wells, with Municipal piped water selling from standpipes. Nyalenda is positioned next to a main water delivery pipe of 200mm diameter which provides water whenever KIWASCO makes it available. However, the temporary nature of a majority of the housing structures makes the option of individual household connections unattractive. The cost of water supplied by vendors is three times higher than that accessed in houses connected to the water system; a 20-litre container sells for KShs 20. Ground water is highly contaminated, resulting in high morbidity levels, and water from streams is for washing and livestock use.

3.1.1.4 Social services

There are no government health facilities in Nyalenda “A” and “B”, and the private sector provides services to those who can afford them. The basic cost in the private hospital/clinics is about KShs 300 per visit, which often includes the cost of medicines along with good service. In addition, residents walk long distances to the GoK district hospital, the MCK Lumumba health centre and the Joel Omino dispensary. Alternative
medicine is the most commonplace response to various healthcare needs.

HIV/AIDS is rampant in Nyalenda, due to traditional beliefs, poverty, early school drop-out, idleness and drug abuse. A number of civil society organisations provide home-based care but resource availability constrains activities. In many instances, patients have lost opportunities for care and support through denial.

Solid waste disposal is a major problem in Nyalenda. Municipal services do not cover this area of town for several reasons, including poor access, lack of refuse transport and dustbins, and residents’ casual attitude to waste disposal. A minority of residents have taken to composting or burning, but a majority resort to dumping on any empty spaces.

Social facilities such as schools, social halls and markets are quite inadequate in Nyalenda. Where available, they lack basic amenities. Area residents and a Councillor have pointed out that those markets funded by the World Bank (in Nyamasaria and K’Owino) were not working because of poor planning at odds with the needs of the community. These markets have no electricity or water and access is poor. As a result, they are used for other purposes (e.g., K’Owino market as a lodge and cattle shed). The council collects revenue from the market but does not plough it back, since most of this money ends up in recurrent expenditure, mostly salaries and allowances.

3.1.1.5 Livelihood

Most residents work as petty traders in Nyalenda or beyond. Many work in the ‘Jua Kali sector in the town centre. Domestic work in the nearby Milimani area is a widespread means of sustenance, a carry-over from the days of the colonial social structures. A small number of Nyalenda residents are in formal employment. Petty trading is the predominant source of income, followed by Jua Kali artisanship, salaried employment, and farming. Farming takes place in “Nam Thowe”, a prime area for developing productive urban agriculture. However, in almost all sectors, income levels are low and availability of serviced plots continues to be a major challenge in establishing small-scale enterprises in the area.

Fishing in Lake Victoria provides a significant source of income, with jobs either as fisherman or fishmonger. Housing represents another major source, with further potential both in terms of construction labour and rents.

3.1.2 Obunga and Bandani

The Kisumu industrial area is the main source of livelihood for Bandani and O bunga. The name “bandani” actually refers to its location in the industrial area. These two working-class residential areas are rather dense in comparison to other slum areas in the Kisumu belt. The type of housing responds more to the needs of the poorer segment of the working class in the industrial area, with a predominance of rooming housing. Casual industrial employment provides sufficient numbers of tenants for investment in housing.

The inadequacy of physical infrastructure and basic social services in this area is comparatively worse than in other slum areas. Although residents have proof
of ownership, demand for land in this area remains scarce and there is a distinct lack of new owners to build quality housing.

3.1.2.1 Land tenure and use

Land ownership in Bandani and Obunga is quite commercialised as a majority of residents have bought the parcels as opposed to inheriting. Those who have bought land endeavour to acquire title deeds to their property on a leasehold tenure. There has been a gradual fragmentation of land in Bandani and Obunga as use changes from agriculture to housing and commercial purposes, a trend that has accelerated since the mid-1990s. During these 10 years, farming has come to a virtual halt but a few families still keep some livestock.

As the pressure for plots to build houses grows, land is increasingly sub-divided into smaller parcels with a commensurate rise in rents, the typical plot size being less than 0.2 hectare. Grabbing and use of public land along the railway line is also common practise in Bandani. Moreover, ownership of land has changed from a communal system in the 1970s to individual ownership of title deeds for specific parcels of land, leading to displacement of some community members.

In the 1990s a number of employees who had been laid off with redundancy fees bought land as an investment, causing land values and rents to rise. As a result, the so-called immigrants outnumber the locals. The rural social fabric has broken down and the area has become more insecure. Commercialisation of land has been so rapid that in the absence of planning controls there is virtually no land left for public facilities.

3.1.2.2 Housing

Being located on the edge of the industrial zone, Bandani and Obunga provide housing for a significant number of lowly paid blue-collar workers. Many of these are on short-term contracts that give them little job security, and therefore they can afford only very low-quality housing. Over 80 per cent of households live in semi-permanent housing structures.

Although it has the same population as Obunga, Bandani has expanded to include a reasonable proportion of improved housing structures. The sub-zone faces a larger problem than the others do, though, as the Kisumu-Butere railway line hinders access by road. For the majority of people in the area who walk to work to the nearby industrial area, this is not a problem. However, the railway line is a hindrance; it creates a physical barrier that deters potential investors and makes it difficult to develop the area.

Rents in Bandani and Obunga are comparatively lower than in Kisumu’s other slum settlements because of the access problem. Rents are a function of house sizes. In most cases, houses are poorly built with little ventilation, broken walls, and drainage right upfront. Most houses have neither electricity nor piped water connections, due to poor planning and the low incomes accruing to landlords. A 3m x 3m rooming house will
typically rent for KShs. 300 a month, excluding water and electricity.

The desire to maximise on rental income has seen landlords put up many small, congested houses with no vehicular access at all and no consideration for sanitation facilities.

3.1.2.3 Infrastructure

Obunga and Bandani are the areas with the worst road network. Roads are generally impassable due to poor drainage and inadequate spacing of houses and other buildings. Blocked storm drainage and sewers are widespread.

With unclear beacons demarcating roads, people build on road reserves. Residents use handcarts or push vehicles through the bad segments. At times, they fill up potholes as a last resort. They use handcarts to access main roads.

The use of motorised transport in this sub-zone is generally limited to the shops at the peripheral fringes. Due to poor access, ribbon development has taken place on the fringe of Bandani, parallel to the main tarmac road.

As mentioned above, Bandani has a special problem in that the railway line to Butere cuts it off from the main road. There is only one level crossing, which does not link well with the internal paths within the area. Transportation costs have increased because of the circuitous route taken to deliver building materials to sites in the slum.

Public transport picks and off-loads passengers along the Busia road, for those in the lower parts of Obunga and those in Bandani. Upper Obunga residents have to walk to Kondele for public transport.

Water is the major problem in Bandani and Obunga, especially in the inner core areas. Frequent shortages force members of the community to fetch water from nearby streams, springs, wells or the lake, which are all contaminated. In Bandani, an attempt by civil society organisations to drill a borehole was halted after hitting a rock formation. The same rock outcrop has also hampered construction of pit latrines in the area. Water sells at KShs 20 for a 20-litre container. The water is of questionable quality and decontamination adds to costs.

As the survey found, latrines are scarce in the area; they are inadequately distributed and of poor quality. The geological profile of the area makes it expensive to put up toilets. As an alternative, some people wait until night to help themselves while others walk long distances to bushy areas.

The neighbouring estate (Nyawita) has sewer lines that burst frequently, spewing waste on the roads running into Obunga, while the Kisat sewer treatment plant pours waste into the River Kisat, creating a health hazard for Bandani residents.

3.1.2.4 Social services

There are no health facilities in Obunga and Bandani which, like all the other slum areas, rely on the Provincial General Hospital and two Municipal health centres: one in Lumumba and another off Obote Road in the industrial area. These facilities are rather far away, especially for residents of Bandani. At the same time, the poor living environment causes frequent disease outbreaks in the area. Lack of proper nutrition and sanitation results in high infant morbidity. The coping mechanisms are highly risky, with sharing medicines leading to drug resistance. Popular alternatives to formal healthcare include the use of panadol for many ailments as well as traditional and herbal medicine.
Regarding waste, poor community awareness of and attitudes to environmental health has resulted in careless waste disposal by many residents. Some plots are too small to allow for digging of compost pits although there are isolated cases of rubbish composting and burning. The council does not provide waste removal services, opening up an opportunity for private collectors; these are early days yet but the potential is great.

**Mgongo Wazi**

There is no formal market in Obunga and the fish frying market sits on a road reserve. The business employs over 400 residents of Obunga and has thrived without government support. The fishmongers rely on mgongo wazi, which is bony fish left over by fish factories after filleting. Obunga was initially a drinking spot, but this changed with the advent of mgongo wazi.

HIV/AIDS in Bandani and Obunga is a major social challenge, as in the rest of the Kisumu slum belt. However, inadequate funding for care and support for the sick in the community results in high mortality rates among the victims. The remaining orphans and widows end up being marginalised in the community, and all the more so in this social setup where there are no kinship-networks to act as support structures.

Kudho Primary is the main primary school serving Bandani and Obunga. The school is plagued with a myriad of problems including class congestion, staff and classroom shortages, and lack of land to build extensions. Poor performance in school is the norm, leaving the children in a poverty trap where education fails to open up opportunities. A number of residents have resorted to taking children to faraway schools, but running to and from school exposes them to many hazards along the way.

Lack of land for public facilities in Bandani and Obunga has led to a dearth of markets, community halls and recreation centres. Traders use roadsides to set up business, and tree shades serve as venues for seminars and meetings for various groups.

3.1.2.5 Livelihood

Obunga has a reputation as a “robbers’ den” There is a saying that “it is only the exterior f Obunga that is ugly but the inside is quite good.” Stolen goods, illegal liquor and people of mixed and dubious professions are the hallmark of the sub-zone. Insecurity is high in Obunga and Bandani and is only compounded by lack of streetlights.

The vast majority of residents earn relatively low incomes from occupations that include brewing of illicit alcohol (a major income earner) and fish-frying which acts as a source of both food and income. Sale of firewood for cooking and fish-frying is also widespread. Boda-boda cyclists and handcarts act as means of transport and sources of employment. Itinerant trade is the easy way of earning income, as little capital
is required to start the business. A few people seek employment outside the area as construction workers, Jua Kali artisans, running kiosks, hawking, as well as formal employment in services and manufacturing. A number of residents are jobless at any given time as most employment opportunities are on a casual basis.

World Vision (WV), among other support agencies, is active in the area. WV programmes are child-focused and planned for spill over effects on the community. They have brought some improvement in the facilities offered by educational institutions. However, WV’s efforts are constrained by the land issue, as is the case with other support agencies.

3.1.3 Manyatta

Manyatta stands as the most successful development in the whole Kisumu slum belt. The upgrading scheme in Manyatta “A” has improved the access network but also raised property values. This has attracted a population with comparably higher incomes than the original inhabitants who sub-divided property and sold it.

The result is a mix of different income groups in Manyatta, which has raised its potential for an easy transition out of slum status. Average income is higher than in the other slum areas, as indicated by the quality of the living environment, and the basic framework for slum improvement is already in place.

3.1.3.1 Land tenure and use

In the late 1970s the World Bank’s Urban II Slum upgrading scheme brought tarmac roads and water reticulation to most of Manyatta. Under the scheme, land was acquired for public infrastructure and facilities; schools, health facilities and markets were built, together with tarmac roads with proper storm drainage, water and sewer systems. Immediately after completion of this development, land prices shot up by more than 500 per cent; 0.1 hectare plots that used to sell for KShs 15,000 to 25,000 shot up to a range of KShs 50,000 to 200,000, depending on proximity to roads, water and neighbouring developments.

In Manyatta, land ownership has changed steadily from individual ownership by indigenous populations to small plots bought by people from outside the region who have invested in residential and commercial buildings. However, this has created a problem of “double sale” by unscrupulous property owners, with a resulting myriad of land disputes.

The government has never owned land in the Manyatta area. This is causing many problems and the need for land for public purposes is quite clear. With the increase in land values, compulsory acquisition will be quite costly, though.

3.1.3.2 Housing

The main objective of the Urban II upgrading scheme was an improvement in the quality of housing in the slum areas, but a shortfall in project funds leaves the scheme uncompleted. The Municipal Council’s annual reports for the period make for some interesting reading, with details of the administrative and political manoeuvres that took place as the project was being implemented. In the event, the last phase, which was to cover Manyatta “B” and Nyalenda, was 50 per cent completed, which means that some parts of Manyatta have not been upgraded. The practical upshot was that the poorer population found itself marginalised, as land price rises in the upgraded area forced them to move to the unimproved, so-called “Manyatta B”. As a result, Manyatta “B” features “semi-permanent” housing of the sort found in Nyalenda, with a similar history of development. In the improved Manyatta “A”, there is little evidence of cemented graves and homestead type of residential arrangement. A sub-
large number of houses in Manyatta are permanent structures of reasonably good quality, catering for the emerging middle class who either want houses for rental purposes, or property to develop.

Manyatta has grown as a residential area for the lower segment of middle-income earners. The resulting rise in rents is consigning the poorer segment of the community to marginal areas. Rents range from KShs 300 to 1,000 for mud and wattle houses to KShs 800 to 2,500 for semi-permanent houses to KShs 3,000 to 7,000 for permanent houses - not including those houses with much higher rents. Rent default is a constant source of distress to landlords in the area, especially in the lower rent segment.

In the lower parts of Manyatta “B”, poor drainage, susceptibility to water logging and the black cotton soils make construction very difficult. Those houses devoid of adequate foundations are liable to collapse. It is worth noting that almost all plots are accessible although in some instances roads are bad and narrow. There is need for storm drainage and streetlights to improve security.

3.1.3.3 Infrastructure

Manyatta is the only area in the Kisumu slum belt where roads are well designed and the network has been improved to increase accessibility to more than 60 per cent. The major roads have been re-aligned, occasionally requiring removal of housing structures to reduce meandering. Road construction has also allowed developers to lay down a water distribution network for the whole area. However, as it was not included in the previous slum upgrading project, the lower part of Manyatta has to cope without proper road and water networks, like the rest of the slum belt. The only motorised access to lower Manyatta (commonly referred to as Manyatta “B”) is from the Nairobi road. Otherwise, walking remains the main mode of transport.

Manyatta enjoys the best public transport in Kisumu. Most of the matatus and the “kondeles” (shared taxis) ply this route. Thanks to improved roads, public transport also operates within the area, collecting and dropping passengers. This is mainly the case in the Manyatta “A” area. Residents of Manyatta “B” walk to collection points in the upper reaches of the area. They can also use transport on the Nairobi road. However, connecting roads in Manyatta “B” and access roads in Manyatta “A” suffer the fate of all roads in the Kisumu slum belt; they are narrow, muddy, waterlogged in the rainy season and devoid of both drainage systems and street lighting. It is worth noting that for all the demarcation and opening of planned roads, negligent development control by the council has allowed encroachment on road reserves by developers.

The Urban II scheme brought substantial improvement in the sewer system in parts of Manyatta. Apart from that, soils block connections to the sewers in the rainy season and many owners have resorted to use of septic and conservancy tanks. Soil and rock structure in lower Manyatta “A” and “B” restrict the construction of pit latrines; as a result, developers put up toilets that fill up quite rapidly, spewing waste into the neighbourhood. There are isolated instances of flying toilets (called “atonga waindi”), although most people resort to sharing toilets in the neighbouring plots when their own compound has none.

Water sources in the Manyatta area include boreholes, shallow wells, unprotected water springs, piped water and water vendors. Residents complain about the high cost of clean water due to the exorbitant fees charged by water vendors. The price of stream water is KSh 1.50 per litre, while tap water costs as much as KShs 2.00 per litre when demand is high.
3.1.3.4 Social facilities

Concerted efforts have sought to improve the quality of facilities and schools in Manyatta. These include efforts under the Urban II scheme, support by World Vision and many other institutions that have not only improved classrooms, but also put up toilets and provided school furniture. However, these schools still need basic facilities to cater for the large numbers of students. State schools have no electricity and this has hampered improvement in their operations, including provision of a reading place for pupils in the evening. Crowded classrooms, inadequate desks and inappropriate learning material are commonplace, especially in the lower classes.

The Manyatta area has four major markets: Manyatta, Kondele, Koyango and Kaego. The markets have no access to water, electricity, refuse collection or proper toilets. Residents complain of harassment by the council’s revenue collectors. On the other hand, bribing collectors is common practice for those operating outside the market area.

The Kosawo Community hall, constructed as part of the Urban II scheme, is poorly managed by the council. It stands dilapidated with broken windows, cracked roof, broken doors and blocked toilets. Water and electricity outages are frequent and yet, this being the only public hall in this area, demand is quite high.

There are no public dispensaries in Manyatta. The private hospitals in the area are beyond the reach of many. Most people have to walk long distances to the provincial or district hospital, or to the Lumumba health centre. Residents complain of poor service at the hospitals, including long queues and cost sharing. To avoid high hospital costs many women deliver at home. The traditional birth attendants assisting them are said to be more capable on the whole than staff in some of the private clinics.

During consultations one resident referred to Manyatta as "polythene town" and, indeed, a poor waste disposal combines with relatively higher incomes to generate an abundance of plastic waste in the area. Several civil society organisations have started waste-recycling projects. However, local waste disposal practice does not make it easy to sort out the waste as required for recycling.

A number of residents either compost or burn waste. However, in the poorer neighbourhoods, waste is frequently dumped by the roadsides, and in some cases ends up blocking drainage.

Orphans and widows stand as the living legacy of HIV/AIDS in Manyatta, with poverty taking its toll on affected families. The economic cost of taking care of a sick person for an extended period reduces family resources. The presence of NGOs and supportive MoH staff coupled with free VCT and home-based care has ameliorated this devastation to some extent. However, rising unemployment and idleness among the young must be addressed as they provide ever-fresh fodder for the pandemic.

3.1.3.5 Livelihood

Residents have attributed rising insecurity in Manyatta to low levels of employment. The local community ranges from professionals in very well paid jobs to those at the bottom end of the job ladder who are never sure of their daily meal. This social disparity within the same neighbourhood acts as a major cause of social resentment, resulting in a high degree of insecurity especially for the better-off segments of the community.

Self-employment in the informal sector provides a source of income for a significant number of Manyatta residents. These jobs include kiosks and hawking as well as handcart and boda boda services. Electricity
in parts of the area has allowed for light industries such as Posho mills tailoring, carpentry and welding to be widely practised. Service industries such as salons, barbers, public payphones and shade restaurants also benefit from the availability of electricity.

Many organisations in the area are also making low-interest credit available to residents in order to enable them improve incomes; they include KADET, WEDCO, KWFT and UNDUGU.

3.1.4 Manyatta-Arab and Kaloleni

These two areas are small enclaves sandwiched between Municipal estates in the old town. The enclaves are for residents professing the Muslim faith. Manyatta-Arab spreads over less than one hectare, and Kaloleni over about one and half hectares. The two slums stand out in contrast to the well-planned and built Municipal estates surrounding them.

3.1.4.1 Land tenure and use

People used to squat these areas because of the colonial system of settling people based on ethnic background. After Kenya’s independence, the communities in these two areas continued to occupy the areas as the council sought land to put up tenant housing.

It has been easier to re-plan these two areas since they are located on government land with leasehold tenure. Initially, tenants occupied the land on Temporary Occupation Licence (TOL) terms and were not allowed to put up permanent structures. The land has since been re-planned. After the upgrading programme and allocation of plots within the slums, a few tenants have managed to get title deeds.

3.1.4.2 Housing

Houses in Manyatta-Arab and Kaloleni are made of mud and wattle with iron roof housing. They come in the typical Swahili style, with a small courtyard in the centre surrounded by rooms and a wet core at one end. Although the quality of the houses have the potential of connecting to the Municipal sewer and water networks. However, they also suffer the double inconvenience of blocked sewers and lack of running water in the pipes, which similarly plagues the neighbouring estates.

3.1.4.3 Infrastructure

The re-planning project in Manyatta-Arab and Kaloleni has created a sense of order, with road reserves nine metres wide. Streetlights are put up and almost all the houses have electricity connections. KIWASCO has set up communal water points that give most residents access to piped water.

Connection to municipal sewers was a logical next step in the improvement project; this had not been possible earlier since the issue of tenure needed addressing. After re-planning, connection to sewers is now possible provided, that is, that effective maintenance is there to prevent any further blocking of the main sewer in the area.

There is no storm water drainage, though, and in the rainy season some parts of Kaloleni are inaccessible by road. Manyatta-Arab is yet to have any modicum of road access; its size and density would require some degree of demolition to provide nine-metre roads in the area, though.
3.1.4.4 Social services

Manyatta-Arab and Kaloleni have Muslim schools. However, these are are located on such small parcels of land that high-rise development would be required if the children were to have anything like reasonable play areas. The schools also act as community centres.

There are no dedicated community facilities in these areas. However, since these are small enclaves sandwiched between Municipal estates, they have been able to use the social services in the neighbouring estates. Unlike those in other slum areas, residents have been able to operate as members of the wider city fabric.

3.1.4.5 Livelihood

Income levels in Manyatta-Arab and Kaloleni are quite low. As in all slum areas, a number of petty traders sell foodstuffs, alongside water vendors, carpenters, fitting mechanics, boda boda cyclists and other assorted, informal sector activities. The minority who work in the formal sector are confined to the lower cadres of employment.

Self-employment continues to provide the main source of sustenance. Proximity to the Kibuye market and the Jua Kali areas have been critical factors in the development of employment for these residents.

3.1.5 Sub-Urban fringe areas

Kisumu’s suburban fringes border the existing slum area. They include Kibos, Usoma and Kanyakwar, which have the potential of degenerating into slums. It is important to point out this fact, as the zone is undergoing rapid subdivision and urbanising without sufficient infrastructure and social services. The areas still enjoy fresh environments but densities are building up.

3.1.5.1 Land tenure and use

Land tenure in sub-urban fringes is mixed, with a small proportion of the leasehold type. The bulk of the land on freehold tenure consists mainly of native population homesteads. In Kanyakwar, however, a number of people have bought land for residential development. The rapid subdivision and sale of land is reminiscent of the trend in Nyalenda and Manayatta a few years ago; council records indicate that in a number of the subdivisions in the area, the quality of surveys is wanting.

However, the lower land densities and the nature of development in many areas of suburban fringes provide the Municipality with an opportunity to set up a land bank for its own development projects. This would go a long way not just towards provision of community facilities to support slum development, but also towards handling of any population spillovers as redevelopment in other areas displaces people into the suburban fringes.
3.1.5.2 Housing

Although the Structure Plan gives indications of spatial development, there is no clear-cut policy for housing development in the area and quite evidently, the result is rather mixed. Houses are high quality, especially in the Kanyakwar area. They include bungalows, flats and maisonettes. Building materials vary from stone to brick with galvanised corrugated iron-sheet roofs and tiles. The houses have access to electricity where possible. The compounds are spacious but in many instances multiple residential units cram into single plots. In areas closer to the town centre, plot coverage exceeds the allowed 50 per cent. With poor development control, some areas (e.g., Migosi) have plot coverage of 80 per cent, hardly allowing for any space between them.

3.1.5.3 Infrastructure

Infrastructure development in suburban fringe areas is just as bad as in the slums. However, slightly lower densities make it possible to put up pit latrines and septic tanks. Few properties have connections to piped water. Roof catchments are a commonplace method of water collection, on top of shallow wells, streams and springs in some areas.

The road network in Kisumu’s suburban fringes is of rural standards, making it impossible in the near term to cope with the traffic which the development being envisaged is expected to bring. For the time being, drivers must manoeuvre through narrow, six-metre wide roads which, to make things worse, are affected by encroachment. This suggests that the new settlements in Kisumu’s fringe areas may replicate the predicament of slum areas.

The narrow width of the roads may make it impossible to provide infrastructure services that depend on road reserves, such as sewerage, water, street lighting and storm drainage.

3.1.5.4 Social facilities

The social facilities found in Kisumu’s suburban fringes are of low standards and unable to meet local demand. In Migosi, the community facilities set up by the World Bank have virtually collapsed, except for the primary schools where capacity falls well short of the large number of pupils.

Typical rural schools serve the other areas, though with inadequate buildings and sanitation facilities. Most of these rural schools have no access to tap water, increasing the predisposition of many of the children to water-related health problems.

3.1.5.5 Livelihoods

The fact that many of Kisumu’s peri-urban areas are rural-oriented poses the most significant challenge to improvement of livelihoods. Some residents still tend to focus on agriculture-oriented activities even when land productivity is questionable. A number engage in informal activities in the local shopping precincts.
Kisumu’s peri-urban areas provide a vast pool of cheap labour for a number of entrepreneurs in town. However, unemployment and poverty tend to be much worse than in most areas of the greater Municipal boundary.

With their relatively lower densities, suburban fringes provide ideal grounds where Kisumu’s development strategy could focus on creating employment opportunities for residents and forestall the existing mismatch between employment and residential areas in the city centre.
4.0 UPGRADING STRATEGIES

Settlement upgrading has had a rich historical background in Kisumu right from the colonial era, when deliberate attempts were made to turn away from “wattle and daub huts with grass roofs” in favour of corrugated iron roofing. The post-colonial era saw further efforts to improve the quality of housing units. Most significant in this regard were the “site and service schemes” and the “upgrading schemes”. Whereas the site and service schemes involved land issues alongside efforts in favour of new housing, upgrading schemes focused on improvement of existing units. Slum dwellers have, as a matter of necessity, gradually organised themselves into cooperative and/or daily saving schemes in order to improve living conditions.

Illustration 3: Type plan and section for african housing 2

Today, there is evidence that such schemes have encouraged and supported owner-initiated upgrading of settlement units, although this largely obtains at either individual or organised group level. The significant difference between this more recent strategy and the colonial and post-colonial era initiatives is that it is driven by owners themselves.
This chapter brings these development strategies into perspective and highlights them as potential sources of practical wisdom for current and prospective efforts to upgrade slums in Kisumu.

4.1 The historical planning approach

The genesis of slum upgrading in Kisumu has a significant historical perspective. In a correspondence dated 22nd May 1929, the DC pointed out to the Executive Engineer that “wattle and daub huts with grass roofs in this wet climate are most unsatisfactory and not economical, in fact are a perpetual source of worry.” Similar concerns were also expressed in correspondence (dated 8th August 1929) where the Resident Commissioner commented to the Commissioner of Lands that:-

“The African housing problem is even more acute than that of European and Asiatic housing because the present housing is not only unsanitary for the occupants but is a positive danger to the whole community. Government whilst insisting that “no one shall build or renew thatched huts in the town owing to the ever imminent menace of Plague, continues to build such huts in the midst of the township for its own servants.” This need to improve the quality of housing for the African population in Kisumu was addressed on paper by the Chief Native Commissioner when he prepared draft house-type proposals for native housing.

These type plans offered possibilities for improvement from the traditional circular forms of grass-thatched housing that had dominated the African housing. These fresh possibilities had a strong influence on the type of new housing that began to come up in peri-urban settlements. Although they still resorted to local construction material – i.e., mud and wattle – these new forms substituted corrugated iron (GCI) sheets for grass thatch. Since GCI roofs signalled that the owner’s social status was improving, many strived to build houses with GCI roofs.

It should be pointed out here that the plan proposed by the Chief Native Commissioner recognised that the sewer plan prepared at the same time did not take in the African neighbourhood, and therefore did not include the zone’s soak-away pits in the plan proposals. The sewer plan also excluded the buffer zone and areas outside the large plots of European housing, although sewers were necessary in the denser Asian and African settlement. The plan would cover only those areas within the Municipal boundary that had been subdivided and planned for occupation.

In the meantime, the railway company had also developed its own staff housing units. These were in effect bachelor quarters of single rooms in a row, a common feature all along the railway line and up to the terminus. The 3m. by 3m. rooms had nothing else to offer, and variations of the same were built for servants in the European and Asian compounds. This type of structure was to have the greatest impact on commercialised housing in the African villages on the periphery of Kisumu.

Illustration 4: Typical landhies layout

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Pit Latrine
4.2 USAID and Migosi site and service schemes

The USAID scheme was a low-income, low-cost housing development project which, as its name suggests, was launched by the United States Agency for International Development. Under the scheme, core units of two rooms, a wet core and a kitchen were built and allowed their low-income owners to develop the remaining units over time. As for the Migosi Site and Service scheme, this one was launched by the World Bank and the Kenyan government to provide adequate land for low-income housing development. Plots (“site”) were serviced (“service”) with water reticulation, sewerage and roads, and were targeted at low-income groups. In the event, most low-income beneficiaries sold their plots, most of which ended up being developed by medium- and high-income groups. The target groups were effectively marginalised.

This gentrification process is a risk to most upgrading schemes. Those that fail to address the core factor behind slums, namely poverty, always have to contend with this phenomenon. Therefore, the issue of sustainable income sources must be addressed to ensure that tenants continue to afford improved housing.

The “site and service” schemes have not met the objective of providing for the residential needs of the urban poor; instead, the schemes effectively continued to marginalise the poor to areas with inadequate spatial accessibility. The rents (ranging from KShs 800 to 2,500 per month) associated with these “site and service” housing schemes are still much higher than those in the slums. People with higher incomes have moved into these areas and inflated the rent market.

The street network of the planned-unit and cluster developments has been designed for the purposes of efficient and safe movement of vehicles and reduction of cut-through traffic in residential neighbourhoods. In most of these planned-unit developments, pedestrians have been left out. This stands in stark contrast with the upgrading plan for Manyatta and other areas of the slum belt where pedestrians have been specifically catered for through access paths and narrow roads. However, in the absence of pedestrian paths, improved access roads in this area brought an influx of motorised residents who have effectively converted the three-metre wide access paths into roads to and from their newly acquired properties.

Expansion of the road network in the Kanyakwar area in the 1970s, under the Urban II upgrading and “site and service” schemes, was the latest change that was made to Kisumu’s road infrastructure. For all their expansion over time, the peri-urban and slum settlements remain stuck with roads built to rural standards, making it difficult for these areas to integrate into the urban transport system. This in effect has meant that the alignment of the public transport routes in areas outside the old Municipal boundary has followed a typically rural pattern, with the transit points located along the main roads to Busia, Nairobi, Kakamega and Miwani.
4.3 Kaloleni and Manyatta-Arab upgrading schemes

At MCK’s initiative, land use in Kaloleni and Manayatta-Arab has been rationalised to accommodate building areas with provision for roads and drainage. The upgrading scheme included provision of electricity and a social hall. Through community effort, a school was constructed. Improvement of housing is due to better access. The estates have streetlights, although they are not functional now as the Kisumu municipal council has failed to pay bills to Kenya Power and Lighting Company.

During the project, housing was not upgraded. Since the residents in these areas were squatters, unlike those in the slum belt, fears were that some people might lose opportunities to own land and houses. Nobody had a title deed since the Municipality owned the land. However, some of the residents were given title deeds after the upgrading.

Residents have suggested that housing schemes be introduced to make affordable loans available for construction. Investment in housing is economically quite viable due to the area’s proximity to town. Rooms currently rent for KShs 500 to 1,500 per month. However, the issue of land ownership stands as the major obstacle to the area’s redevelopment.

4.4 Slum-dwellers’ initiatives

The Kisumu Slum-dwellers Association (KSDA) has begun to mobilise membership in favour of access to credit for housing improvements in a cooperative framework. Under this approach, members contribute shares that are then used as collateral for a development loan granted by a participating credit institution; the loan is gradually refunded from the rent accruing from the houses once built. So far, KSDA has registered the Kisumu Pamoja Housing Co-operative with the Ministry of Co-operatives, providing the legal basis for furthering its goal of affordable housing for members. A lower form of credit cooperative is the revolving fund, a popular alternative at smaller, intra-community social levels and mostly among similar gender (predominantly women) groups. These are fledgling initiatives worth building on.

Another initiative, known as Kisumu Muungano wa Wanavijiji (under the national umbrella of Federation of Slum Dwellers in Kenya), started in May 2003 with an initial focus on Nyalenda “B”. Five daily savings groups (DSG) have since been established, as follows:

- Progress Savings Scheme (Self Help Group): 209 savers, KShs 110,000.
- Oboch Daily Savings Scheme (Self Help Group): 250 savers, KShs 154,000.
- Okambo Savings Scheme (Self Help Group): 36 savers, KShs 8,600.
- Makhola Savings Scheme: KShs 14,000.
- Dunga Savings Scheme: KShs 4,300.

In addition to this, an outreach programme has been launched for the benefit of Obunga, Manyatta, and Bandani. Current group activities include: daily savings, lending to members (for purposes such as welfare, business development), HIV/AIDS awareness, and counselling support for the young and children.
Attached to these daily savings schemes are two major attributes that could only benefit slum upgrading in Kisumu, namely, the greater sense of belonging and cohesiveness built through the Muungano Wa Wanavijiji framework, and the community “capital” that leverages the scheme leaders’ negotiations with the government. In the case of Kisumu, it would be necessary to elevate the daily savings scheme concept from a welfare orientation to one that embraces a broader development agenda.

4.5 Recent CSO initiatives in the slums

With support from SANA International, the residents of two slum settlements have launched upgrading initiatives focused on improved access to safe drinking water, sanitation and solid waste management. The initiatives are funded by Cordaid, a Dutch donor agency. Neighbourhood associations have been established in the settlements as part of the initiatives to coordinate the upgrading process.

Other initiatives are being undertaken by Undugu Society, CCF, World Vision and KUAP in the slums of Kisumu City.
5.0 INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

An assessment of the capacity of the major institutions that could support the slum upgrading process has provided opportunities to map out strategies for the implementation stage. The Kisumu Municipal Council remains the main implementing agency, in line with the KENSUP structure; GoK Ministries are also participating. The community is currently involved in different capacities through civil society, although deliberate attempts have been made to institutionalise their participation. For the purposes of institutional analysis, the civil society sector has been split into those NGOs that provide resource support, the intermediary group that work with CBOs to implement activities, and those NGOs that undertake the implementation themselves.

5.2 Kisumu Municipal Council

Kisumu Municipal Council is legally constituted under the Local Government Act (Cap. 265 of the laws of Kenya). Its main function entails mobilisation of internal and external resources to address the following urban development concerns and social needs of the population:

• Overall planning of the city.
• Provision of social services, especially water supply and sewerage services.
• Infrastructure development and maintenance (roads, parking spaces, parks, public amenities, houses, etc).
• Environmental sanitation, refuse collection and safe disposal.
• Housing, health, education, welfare, recreation and sports.
The Kisumu Water and Sewerage Company Ltd (KIWASCO)

This is the provider of water and sewerage services to the City of Kisumu, with mandate to provide water and sewerage services within the Municipal jurisdiction.

Specific role in the slums
- as an organisation:
  • Informal settlement service strategy, which entails performance contracting of Independent Service Providers (ISPs) for the extension of water and sanitation services. The ISPs are fully community-oriented and have distinct identities with the target service community.

- in partnership:
  • Designed along concepts of ownership and sustainability, primary drive being collaboration with local administration structures and CBOs

Motivation to work in the slums selected
- The slum residents pay more for water than those in up market areas.
- Response to the Millennium Development Goals

Institutional Capacity
KIWASCO is to enter into performance contracts with the ISPs under its jurisdictional license granted by the Water Services Board.
Zonal framework established to coordinate and supervise performance of ISPs, comprised of Zonal Officer and two support staff from KIWASCO. ISP must have demonstrated local confidence and support of the local community.

Challenges
- Human resource capacity (lacking community development training.
- Commitment and criteria for identifying ISP.
- Community level management concerns in new service dispensation.
- More stringent consumer regulations (and change resistance.
- Misconception ((ISP seen as scheme to enrich others.
- Land ownership (provision of space for piping network.

The council had previously embraced a management framework whereby execution was the sole responsibility of the line departments in charge of all sectors of urban development. However, the Kenya Local Government Reform Programme (KLG RP) has resulted in a shift away from a totalitarian type of management to one that largely involves stakeholders at all levels of decision-making. The government has, for instance, introduced the Local Authorities Service Delivery Action Plan (LASDAP) to involve local communities in the identification, planning, implementation and monitoring of local projects. This three-year strategic action plan is funded by the central government through the Local Authorities Transfer Fund (LATF).

Consequently, as it assessed the strengths of the Kisumu Municipal Council, the situation analysis laid greater emphasis on its institutional capacity to embrace this new shift in governance. The recent establishment of the Kisumu Water and Sewerage Company (KIWASCO) to manage the water supply and sewerage services is largely seen as driven by the shift in national policies regarding local government.

The Kisumu Municipal Council has a representative structure that clearly distinguishes between civic and executive functions, which are headed by the Mayor and the Town Clerk respectively. The civic wing is made up of 25 Councillors, of which 17 are elected through universal suffrage while others are nominees of the majority party. The council controls the local bureaucracy; it is in charge of a wide range of local functions. However, budgetary approvals and key administrative support are the responsibility of central government, through the Ministry of Local Government. At the time of independence, the Ministry of Local Government gained the right to approve all council estimates as well as to oversee financial and planning decisions.

In 1974, the central government abolished the main source of income of the local authorities, known as the Graduated Poll Tax. The re-introduction of the Service Charge in the 1980s saw the re-emergence of the central government role in controlling this source of revenue. This role has recently been taken over by the LATF, which effectively shifts back the planning, imple-
Situation Analysis of Informal Settlements in Kisumu

The present organisational structure of the Kisumu Municipal Council gives it little leverage to implement effective planning programmes in the extended areas of the municipality, especially in view of weak planning and development control frameworks and inadequate capacity to enforce planning regulations. Institutional norms are weak and unsupportive of planning. The council has only recently established a full-fledged planning department, but requires both human and financial resources to measure up adequately to the responsibilities. To fulfil the planning function, the council closely collaborates with the District Physical Planning Office in the preparation of structure plans and of some development plans for the Municipality.

A major problem relates to the skewed nature of overall funding for local government. The Nairobi City Council has been able to spend far more than any local authority in Kenya, because of the higher per capita income of the population being served and because of its unique ability directly to borrow development funds abroad with the Kenyan government as guarantor. Most of the time, the Nairobi council receives almost half of the amounts disbursed by the Ministry of Local Government, with Kisumu and other municipalities sharing the remainder. This puts constraints on these municipalities’ capacity to improve infrastructure, especially in the underprivileged, peripheral areas.

In Kisumu, this situation is exacerbated by the large rural expanse absorbed into municipal boundaries in 1971. The expansion presents a unique challenge, particularly in trying to balance revenues from these areas with the sheer demand for service extension. Of the current annual budget of approximately KShs 300 million, almost 75 per cent is spent on personnel, leaving the rest to be shared between operations and maintenance.
### Financial estimates for FY 2004/05

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Source: LASDAP 2004/2005

Though “bottom heavy” in terms of staff, the Kisumu Municipal Council has a critical mass of trained and experienced professionals manning its 11 line departments, including Town Clerk, Treasurer, Engineering, Planning, Inspectorate, Social Services, Water and Sewerage, Public Health, Environment, Education, and Housing Development. The council has defined many major policies in line with development demands, although implementation has been somewhat slow.

This slow pace was largely attributed to inconsistencies caused by frequent transfers of Chief Officers, particularly the Town Clerk. Other factors hindering timely execution of council included vested interests, especially among the political leadership, and insufficient budgetary support. Towards this end, the council has embarked on the process of elaborating a Corporate Management Strategy whose objectives include, (among others):

- Restating the mandates of the various departments.
- Establishing systems for more efficient day-to-day administration of council activities.
- Finding innovative ways and means of improving the productivity of the council’s revenues and resources.

Once implemented, the plan would bring a number of benefits, such as service delivery strategies for each department, quarterly work plans as well as funding and capacity-building strategies.

For the time being, the council has already defined a city development strategy for Kisumu, which takes in the strategic development concerns of the population. Obviously the council regards the slum upgrading initiative as an initial response to the population’s concerns.

An interview with the acting Town Clerk during the survey indicated that the council found it difficult to obtain adequate funding for infrastructure development in Kisumu. The Clerk added that the suspension of the Kenya Urban Transport Infrastructure Programme had dealt the Municipality a significant blow.

Some attempts have recently been made to encourage public-private partnerships in order to complement council-run services, notably with regard to street lighting and solid waste management. Since these initiatives are largely in their infancy, it has not been possible yet to analyse their contribution to council policies. In the meantime, the agency management principle as applied by the council on a public facility, the Jomo Kenyatta Grounds, testifies to an interesting shift in management practise: in this particular case an agent of the council, the Lake Victoria Trust Fund has been assigned total responsibility to manage the facility on behalf of the council.

At the root of Kisumu’s infrastructure and funding problems in the slums is the fact that although they lie within municipal boundaries, peri-urban areas are administered as freehold land. This means that the relevant government department or the local authority
would have to take over the full cost of road improvements in the settlements, as is the case in rural areas. Where the title is leasehold, the cost would be put on the title deed as a condition for such tenure. It is important to note here that even simple planning decisions, such as provision of access roads, are undertaken by the central government as part of the allocation of the title deed.

In respect to community outreach, the Social Services Department employs “community development assistants” who work in communities and provide good entry points to community participation in planning and management. Within the communities, especially those in the slums, there is evidence of formal institutional structures such as the Location Development Committees (LDC), where grassroots representation is facilitated with a view to identifying and defining those development needs catered for by LASDAP and District Development Plans, respectively. However, the linkage between the LDC and the process of developing a LASDAP is not clearly defined and representation on the LASDAP team may not necessarily coincide with the one on the LDC. As they bring together GoK civil servants at the local level, local councillors, community representatives and CSOs, LDCs provide adequate bases which, with the addition of neighbourhood associations, would ensure effective community participation in LASDAP.

Complaints over inadequate transport and logistics are commonplace in Kisumu council. Beyond basic service provision, such inadequacy has repercussions on the council’s capacity for development control. Data management systems need strengthening to enable the council to manage development and provide guidance on city growth and expansion. As things stand, accessing large amounts of basic information across departments is a logistical feat, especially for planning, monitoring and evaluation purposes, so that ad hoc approaches seem to be the regular, alternative modus operandi.

A restructuring of Kisumu Municipal Council operations is a prerequisite if any meaningful planning decisions are to be made at local level to improve accessibility in peri-urban areas. Such restructuring should include:

1. Enhancing the planning department and improving its capacity to provide planning and development control services.
2. Overhauling the Inspectorate Department to enhance its cardinal role in development control.
3. Improving local authority capacity to raise funds for infrastructure development.
4. Reducing central government control over development planning and monitoring in the town.
5. Institutionalising community development assistants.
6. Community development planning to be instituted as the basis for LATF.
7. Clear mapping of resources and income projections for specified periods.
8. Involving the public in control management (education, concessions, etc.).

5.3 Central Government

In Kenya, planning is undertaken at different levels and with varying scopes, resulting in a variety of planning authorities. However, this report focuses on those institutions with a direct influence on urban planning and development.

The centralised government planning structure is an outgrowth of Kenya’s colonial legacy: Provincial Administration has its headquarters in the Office of the President, with municipal councils tightly controlled by the Ministry of Local Government. Caught in between
is the Department of Physical Planning, which is striving to decentralise its planning operations although headquarters in Nairobi retain strong influence. The Department of Land Administration finds itself in a similar, ambiguous situation. The role of planning institutions in urban areas is a multifaceted act in an ever-changing environment where interference and interests rear their heads in different ways.

The central government is active in the Municipality, especially through parastatal corporations. The study found that other bodies share in urban government as well, and that between them they are empowered to make policy with regard to a wide range of matters. Such organisations include Kenya Power Lighting Company, Kenya Posta and Kenya Telekom. These often provide utility services in complete disregard of planning issues or the local authority.

The Physical Planning Department (PPD) is the major urban planning authority in Kenya and, unlike other bodies; it prepares plans and policies for urban development. The department plans and monitors implementation of planning proposals in all areas under county council jurisdiction and, in Municipalities, in conjunction with the local authority. The PPD prepares structure plans to guide development in urban areas. The structure plans are broad frameworks featuring the broader transport network, land-use development indicators and infrastructure needs and requirements, based on projected population growth and structures. The plans improve on the traditional master plans, which specified fixed land uses in given areas with little flexibility. The PPD also prepares regional development plans which do not only guide rural development, but also pinpoint the spatial relations of urban settlements within regions.

Staffing interests and objectives differ between GoK departments, and therefore frequently diverge in their understanding of policies. Similar gaps can be found between the Kisumu and GoK ministries on a number of policy issues. Politics hinder operations, particularly when it comes to policy implementation (e.g., demolition of houses constructed on by-passes and railway lines, and illegal structures.

In the city itself, government departments provide a broad spectrum of capacities and professionals. Although policy implementation capacity may be curtailed by local resources, ministries are able to draw on large human resources within the government system. GoK often lacks sufficient funding to implement projects, though. The Mid-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) is not well understood and as a result funds and budgets are not well-coordinated, causing fund disbursement delays or even occasional misallocation in fund disbursement. Decision-making remains frequently centralised, with priorities determined by the national rather than the local office. This is often combined with lack of political will to see implementation through at the local level.

In practise, GoK also tends to gloss over slums. GoK rules and regulations hardly give any special consideration to the unique circumstances of the slums and, in the long run, tend to marginalise poor communities in the settlements. GoK data management systems also need strengthening if they are to link up with the council’s own and allow for policies that specifically target the urban poor and the population in the slums.

### 5.4 Civil Society Organisations

A couple of representative CSO’s were identified for the purposes of this situation analysis. Attempts have been made to ensure representation across different scales of operations for both local and international CSO’s. Those selected give a fair general picture of the organisations operating in Kisumu slum areas.
Civil society organisations are able to adopt and push new technology fast, putting them at the forefront of developmental change. CSOs pass the benefits of effective technologies on to local communities. However, competing interests between different agency projects curtail CSO ability to build linkages with like-minded partners.

As they look to respond to competing financial demands, CSOs adopt a variety of approaches and flexible intervention strategies, and able to adapt fast to new requirements. Access to funds from international sources is the main strength of these institutions. However, increasing demands on these resources is putting ongoing initiatives under strain, with funding capacity limited due to reliance on donor support.

Illustration 5: Relationship between Donors and Civil Society Organisations in Slum Areas

5.4.1 International NGOs

These organisations have their headquarters outside Kenya and usually operate in more than one country. They tend to work in partnership with other local NGOs and CBOs to implement programmes and typically have already undertaken projects in the region.

Christian Children Fund (CCF)

This organisation focuses on the general welfare of vulnerable children. Its activities include identifying such children and providing care and support at school and household levels. In conjunction with other organisations, CCF could play a significant role in initiatives in the education and health sectors.

Africa now

This development organisation looks to provide sustainable solutions to the problems afflicting poor communities through access to appropriate technological and innovative service and livelihood options. It has launched a “Child-to-Child” peer education campaign for health and hygiene promotion and been active in low-cost water supply options for schools, safe disposal of solid waste, and improved sanitation. It has a presence in the region.

World Vision (WV)

WV uses child sponsorship to raise funds for its projects. WV has been working with CBOs in Manyatta, Bandani and Obunga on water and sanitation initiatives, especially in schools. It has also been involved in school building improvement and provision of learning equipment and material. This organisation has great potential in addressing the social aspects of slum development.

Plan Kenya

This organisation also uses sponsorship as a basic source of funding to help children realise their full potential. Its areas of concern include learning, sanitation, micro-enterprise development and capacity building.
Plan Kenya is not listed among those organisations currently at work in Kisumu slums.

As a matter of principle, Plan Kenya works with CBOs as implementing partners on the ground, where it confines itself to a facilitating role. This gives it the inherent strength and experience to engage with slum communities in Kisumu. Furthermore, CBOs on the ground largely define and determine the course of intervention, contributing significantly to ownership.

5.4.2 Local NGOs

Sustainable Aid in Africa (SANA)
SANA has been involved in a number of water and sanitation initiatives in the Kisumu slum belt, including construction of at least 11 improved water points and over 100 ventilated improved pit (VIP) toilets for community members. Other activities have included capacity building for public healthcare, including water and sanitation. SANA uses participatory approaches when planning and implementing interventions and has been noticeably successful. SANA could play a useful role and use its own best practices in community-based water and sanitation projects.

Kisumu Urban Apostolate Programme - Pandpieri
Although the Pandpieri programme has been known for its street children rehabilitation initiatives, it has developed to include other sectors in its action in Kisumu slum areas. Over 2,000 community volunteers and a total of 92 permanent staff support its healthcare programme.

The Pandpieri centre is developing different areas of non-formal education that are integrated in its overall rehabilitation programme. It has also experimented with mobilising community members to build housing for the very poor and old, and so far eight such houses have been built in Nyalenda.

Undugu Society
The Undugu Society in Kisumu is also targeting street children for rehabilitation. However, the focus is on the teenage segment that is usually overlooked by most other programmes. Undugu has been working mainly in the slum areas of the town and, in partnership with the Jua Kali sector, has managed to provide skills training to a number of young people. This unique initiative puts Undugu in a pivotal role in capacity building and improved livelihoods for young slum dwellers.

The major challenge has been providing the start-up capital and support that enable young people to start off once trained.

Kisumu Core Association (KCA)
This is an umbrella organisation that has a number of community-based groups as its members. Its unique character stems from a focus on environmental management initiatives. Members have been involved in a number of solid waste collection and processing activities in the slum area. According to them, this type of activity has real development potential and may provide twin benefits in the form of employment and environmental cleanliness.

Support for Tropical Initiatives in Poverty Alleviation (STIPA)
STIPA contributes to poverty alleviation efforts through use and promotion of locally available resources within the poor communities. It has engaged in capacity building in favour of boda boda operators. This has included sensitisation to a number of public issues (in partnership with MCK, Traffic Police and DSDO) and the need to regulate the industry. STIPA’s local networks can help develop programmes related to livelihood improvement strategies.
5.4.3 Community-Based Organisations

For the purposes of this report, CBOs refer more specifically to community-based organisations registered with the Department of Social Services and welfare and/or self-help groups. Many CBOs with varying capacities and capabilities operate in Kisumu’s slum areas. However, a number of these organisations set targets which they are not able to meet. The sector is rife with accountability challenges coupled with duplication of efforts and activities. In some instances, we have noted some presence but not much to show for it.

Sustainability or lack of project management skills are a challenge to staff, who must keep on justifying their positions. More often than not, the validity of data from these institutions may be questionable. Most of their activity output is not made public or shared.

On the other hand, these CBOs provide entry points for those institutions that are prepared to work with the communities in slum areas. They provide avenues to mobilise the population, since many in the community are registered members of one or another of those CBOs. They also provide a nucleus that can be used to build Community Planning Units as part of the upgrading project, since they tend to be area-specific, including in terms of membership.

5.5 Donor agencies

Several donor agencies have funded initiatives in Kisumu Municipality, targeting various sectors. These include Agence Française de Développement (the French overseas development agency) with a feasibility study on water and sanitation in 2004 as a follow-up to an earlier, similar study by JICA. Britain’s DFID funded a study on Partnership Approaches to Meeting the Needs of the Urban Poor in 1997, Sweden’s Sida sponsored another on the Environmental Situation in 2001 and Kenya’s Ministry of Local Government carried out a similar exercise in 2004. UN-HABITAT initiatives include the City Development Strategy, Cities Without Slums, the Regional Urban Sector Profile Study, the Lake Victoria Water and Sanitation Initiative and Sustainable Urban Mobility.

Sida funded a study on the Development of Slums and Peri-urban Settlements in 2002 – so far the only study with a specific focus on slum areas. However, the other studies appreciate the issue and provide linkages with the situation in slum settlements.

Donor agencies have the potential to put together a collaborative unit where they would work together to address the various challenges posed by slum areas. This would enable these agencies to channel limited resources to specific targets without undue duplication.

5.6 Private sector

Kenya’s National Chamber of Commerce and Industry represents the interests of the country’s business community. Other similar organisations include the Kisumu Central Business District Association, the Kisumu Jua
Kali Members Association and the Kenya National Hawkers Association.

Private sector skill levels are high and varied, ranging from the professionals in industry to technicians in the Jua Kali sector. However, the private sector tends to focus capacity on profitable areas.

Funding sources are varied and flexible. Many companies run social support schemes that target the vulnerable in the community. However, the focus again is on profit and not necessarily pro-poor.

Good transport and logistics is a hallmark of the formal private sector, as exemplified by Kenya Breweries and Coca-Cola. Data management systems exist but slum areas are not among their focal points; instead, the focus tends to be specific and inelastic.

For all these shortcomings, if any sector can provide the engine behind a livelihood-based approach to slum upgrading, it must be business. Versatility and a wide spectrum of activities allow the private sector to be involved at different levels in any slum-upgrading programme. Firms like Safaricom, Kenya Commercial Bank and Barclays Bank, among others, have already been involved in various social support initiatives of a spontaneous nature. If specifically channelled to slum areas, such initiatives would be of great benefit. They could be encouraged and allocated specific target areas within the overall action plans of the slum upgrading initiative.
6.0 POLICY ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews policy development processes, with specific reference to Kisumu, in the areas of planning, land administration and management, infrastructure, social issues and housing. Attempts have been made to identify the existing practise of implementing agencies and institutions, especially those of the Kisumu Municipal Council and GoK. However, it must be borne in mind that these distinct policy elements all work together, and they are singled out below for the sole purposes of clarity in analysis.

6.2 Planning

The administrative structure based on the separation of races in colonial Kenya has resulted in great confusion and contradiction in planning. Successive urban development plans for Kisumu in 1948, 1954 and 1960 were never implemented. A significant landmark was the 1943 Housing Ordinance, which allowed for establishment of semi-rural communities outside municipalities. This provision was to blight the provincial administration and the Native Commissioner for some time, though, as it effectively transferred to the rural administration the task of town planning for all the populations in urban fringes.

Rural access was primarily designed to allow for foot and bicycle access and also provide a route for livestock to watering places. However, most of these demarcations in the rural hinterland were not adhered to. The new access roads were superimposed on existing paths that had been there for generations, most of them having not only sentimental but also practical value. Further informal subdivision of rural land did not show much consideration for these colonial demarcations, thereby compounding any future planning for the transport infrastructure in these regions. One practical upshot was that houses were built on boundaries, and graves dug on road reserves.

Up until 1972, when the boundary of the Municipality was extended, unplanned settlements fell under the jurisdiction of the Kisumu County Council and the district administration of the rural Kisumu District. This meant that any planning that was applied in this peri-urban region was of the rural type, and therefore was less demanding of developers than urban planning. Rural regulations allow for narrow roads (six metres wide) and unspecified building materials, and have little to say about density regulation and development. These gaps can be traced back to the plethora of planning laws and the lack of coordination between planning authorities in the urban and rural interface. These have since been consolidated into a new physical planning law to allow for better coordination of standards and requirements. The recent Physical Planning Act came as an attempt to address the broad planning parameters that were initially spread across different pieces of legislation. The statute was developed with input from practising planners and academics that helped
put together the various bits and pieces. It is hoped that the new statute will make it easier to plan and control development in a more coordinated manner.

With the 1972 extension, Kisumu was confronted with the problem of two distinct urban configurations within a single boundary, as two areas with different growth structures were being merged. The most outstanding planning problem is land tenure administration, more particularly its negative impact on provision of resident access to Kisumu’s new areas and the new subdivisions.

In peri-urban areas under freehold tenure, the minimum width requirement was six metres for access roads to plots, compared with nine metres in urban areas. After annexation of peri-urban areas; the six-metre roads had to be expanded to the nine-metre urban standard. The problem was that in those areas outside the jurisdiction of urban regulations, with no control on residential structure development, housing ended up being constructed so close to the road reserve that any expansion as required by planning regulations would force their demolition.

The planning standards embodied in the Urban II scheme have generally been accepted as applicable to housing schemes for low-income earners. However, they were developed in the 1970s, that is, before new; cheaper building materials were introduced in the housing market. Urban local authorities have yet to recognise that these new materials are acceptable in their areas of jurisdiction. Use of bricks and stabilised soil blocks for housing has not yet been integrated in Kenya’s planning standards.

Of outstanding importance is the fact that planning for Kisumu was undertaken by the Ministry of Lands and Housing, Physical Planning Department, until the elevation of the Municipal planning section to a full department in the recent past. Kenya’s Director of Physical Planning delegates his powers to the District Physical Planning Officer (DPPO) who is in charge of a specific district. The DPPO prepares plans for implementation and monitoring by the Municipal Council. The first conflict arising from this arrangement is the role of the DPPO vis-à-vis the District Development Committee (DDC), of which he is a member. The DDC monitors and approves development in the District, but the rules are rather grey when it comes to the rural-urban interface.

On the other hand, individuals in a peri-urban area can submit subdivision proposals to the Lands Department, which can approve these subdivisions as a rural scheme, notwithstanding the fact that they are within the jurisdiction of the Municipal Planner. This structure allows the Lands Office to approve plans that would not meet the standards of a typical urban planning scheme.

The city council needs a structure plan that would provide the basis for preparation of local development plans for all slum areas and use participatory approaches (see. Physical Planning Act 1986). This would work best if such an approach were to include arrangements for an effective communication system that would allow for dissemination of government policies; this type of system is currently used by the Physical Planning Liaison Committee, with different stakeholders participating in the education process.

6.3 Land administration and management

The 1903 Township Ordinance made Kisumu a “Grade A” town and extended its boundaries to fit a town of this status. The few local residents caught up in the extension lost security of tenure on their land. After they transferred to areas outside the township, though, their secure tenure was lost again through the 1915 Crown Lands Ordinance; with all native land turned
into Crown Land overnight, local residents became tenants at the will of the Crown. This only reinforced the effects of the 1906 Masters and Servants Ordinance, which constrained the movement of Africans outside Crown Land and limited their freedom to enter and leave employment. The Command No. 1922 of 1923, popularly known as the Devonshire White Paper, allowed limited ownership of land by the Asian community while legalising the separation of Africans from other races on health grounds.

The concept of Local Native Councils was effectively imported from South Africa through the Native Authority (Amendment) Ordinance of 1924; this piece of regulation also established the office of the Chief Native Commissioner, who was to administer special residential locations for Africans and to control planning and land development in these areas. The Local Government (Municipalities) Ordinance of 1928 established the Kisumu Town Planning Authority, a body appointed by the Governor. As the representative of the Governor at the local level, the District Commissioner had a lot of say in the running of this body.

The most important piece of non-statutory legislation ever to affect the land tenure system in the peri-urban areas of Kisumu was the 1915 Crown Lands Ordinance... It decreed that all so-called native land was Crown Land, under Crown protection for and on behalf of the local community and administered by the Governor. The ordinance excluded Asians from such land, restricting them to urban areas.

This is how the post-colonial period came to inherit urban areas with conflicting land tenure systems, hindering Kenya’s urban planning machine.

It must be stressed that to a significant extent, land tenure revolves around the issue of who owns land and where this land is located. Greater inequality of income and wealth leads to a greater degree of residential segregation and more severe exclusion of poor people from access to the better land plots if to any land at all. Easy access to land is a necessary precondition for life in an urban environment. However, land is limited in quantity, immobile and permanent. This puts a high premium on it, especially in urban areas. However land-grabbing typically takes hold only of those areas of marginal public land that would fetch low prices on the market, such as land distant from the city, swamp land, unsuitable hillsides or land close to estuaries and river banks.

It fell to the Ogutu Commission (1968) to recommend Kisumu’s 1972 boundary extension, incorporating the peri-urban unplanned and slum settlements within the purview of the Municipal Council. As suggested above, this process caused the division of the town into two distinct land-tenure zones, namely land under leasehold in the old boundary, and land on freehold in the extensions.
Government leases are usually for 30 to 99 years with reversionary interests held by the state. These “reversionary interests” are an important clause in leasehold contracts that allow for land administration in urban areas, especially when the costs of acquiring such land could be prohibitive. The practical import is that on expiry of a lease contract the government may decide not to renew it and thus revert the interest on the land back to the state. Such land may then be available for public use, particularly for re-planning and re-allocation to new users, as the economic conditions may dictate.

One particularly interesting type of tenure is the Temporary Occupation Licence (TOL). It is similar to leasehold but is granted by the Commissioner of Lands for a short period (e.g. a few months) and for a specific use. Use of TOL for the construction of kiosks, “open air” markets, etc., is only possible where the local authority has control of the land. This is not the case with the extended areas of Kisumu, where the council has no land.

All the land that was added in the 1972 boundary extension was on freehold tenure. Conversion to leasehold tenure would require acquisition of such land by the government. Such acquisition, as undertaken under the Land Acquisition Act (Cap.295 of the Laws of Kenya) is allowed for the purposes of defence, public safety, public order, public morality, public health, town and country planning or the development or use of any property in such a manner as to promote public interest. In this regard, large tracts of land have been alienated in the Kajulu/Kanyakwar area for urban development. Residents were forced to move out and many transferred to the Bandani area, where they created new settlements outside the development restrictions imposed under leasehold tenure.

In effect, only a limited proportion of the Municipality is under leasehold tenure (the old town and Kanyakwar), with the bulk being administered as freehold. The whole of the slum belt falls in this area under freehold tenure and is administered by a myriad of land and planning laws. Of primary importance is the Registered Land Act (“RLA”, Cap. 300 of the Laws of Kenya). RLA applies in land formerly placed under customary law (i.e. Crown Land, and later Trust Land).

The Land Control Act (Cap. 302 of the Laws of Kenya), which controls dealings in agricultural land such as sale, transfer, lease, mortgage, exchange, partition, subdivision or other disposal, is the law applicable in the peri-urban “slum” settlement. However, the law is running behind development, because for all practical purposes this area is not agricultural in nature. A Land Control Board administers control of all agricultural land on freehold title. The board is comprised of a large number of civil servants and is chaired by the District Commissioner. Although the Director of Physical Planning is represented, the process of group decision-making in the sensitive area of land gives the department little room both for effective input in the administration of such land and for due regard for the Physical Planning Act. Most of the power is vested in the Commissioner of Lands, whose decision is final. This process does not facilitate urbanisation, especially in fringe areas.

An interview with the District Land Officer in Kisumu during the survey highlighted this problem of freehold tenure and planning in peri-urban areas. She indicated that when individuals submit their title deeds for change of use from agricultural to residential/commercial/industrial use, this surrender of title for change of use could be turned into an opportunity to change the nature of tenure. This never happens, though. The protection of land rights under Kenya’s constitution ensures that freehold interests pertain until such is acquired. If the land were acquired, it would be administered under the Government Land Act, which gives the planning authority greater control over
development. This includes subdivision, access provision, leasing and reversionary interests.

The Planning Act should have been able to address any inconsistencies in land tenure systems in the urban sphere. In the meantime, the land tenure system in the peri-urban areas of Kisumu continues to operate in this grey zone, and the planning authority remains unsure how to solve the problem of accessibility in the slum belt – a prerequisite if the quality of life in the area is to be improved without the attendant high costs of land acquisition for road infrastructure.

Land value in Kisumu is determined by a myriad of factors, with access playing an important role. Data on land value must be treated with caution, though, as the land market in Kisumu has been undergoing rapid change in the last few years due to demand for residential properties. The valuation figures shown in the table below may not reflect the market values of such parcels of land.

However, land value distribution can be reasonably generalised on the basis of the valuation roll to present an overview of the area under study. The table above shows selected properties, which give a general reflection of land values from the valuation roll. The market values of land in slum areas have risen with new acquisitions, with prices as high as one million Kenyan shillings per hectare in Nyamasaria and Nyalenda.

Land beyond the slum belt that had been considered as poor value due to inadequate transport infrastructure has been brought into the market, thereby providing an outlet for the middle- and higher-income residents in search of new settlements. Pressures from an expanding inner city and the developing peri-urban area have imposed new, higher land value structures in the slum belt, making it more expensive for the local authority to purchase land for the development of access networks.

The Physical Planning Liaison Committee has suggested three major ways out of this morass, as follows:

- Developing policies and enforcing measures to change freehold land into leasehold. Any future land subdivision should be issued with leasehold not freehold titles.
- MCK to access resources to acquire freehold land tracts and change them into leasehold.
- MCK to have a land bank strategy for public purposes.

Small plot sizes are a constraint to provision of public facilities, which would require either acquisition or the setting aside of land by the community. However, small plot sizes and the freehold land tenure system with competing commercial interests would necessitate compulsory acquisition, with attendant high financial costs, if such facilities were to be provided.

6.4 Infrastructure

Kisumu has 255 kms of roads of which 148 kms are paved and the remaining 107 kms are gravel. Only a small proportion of the paved roads can be found in the slum areas – in fact, only Manyatta can boast of paved roads running through it. The Kenya Urban
## Estimated land value within the study area of selected locations

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<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyalenda</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>6,000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>10,000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.06</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makasembo Rd.</td>
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<td>24,000</td>
<td>600,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mosque Rd.</td>
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<td>519,400</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBD Obote Rd. (lower)</td>
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<td>600,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odera St.</td>
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<td>1,350,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyerere Highway</td>
<td>2.5941</td>
<td>778,200</td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airport area Kenya Pipeline</td>
<td>0.0288</td>
<td>21,600</td>
<td>750,000</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Source: Municipal Council of Kisumu Valuation Roll 1995
Transport Improvement Programme (supported by the World Bank, now suspended due to alleged corruption among implementers) has brought some improvement to the road network in Manyatta and the Ring Road in Nyalenda.

The Municipal Council of Kisumu has the authority to develop and maintain roads in the town. The Ministry of Roads focuses on trunk roads that are designed for transit traffic rather than to serve local needs. With its limited financial base and considering the high investment cost of urban infrastructure, the council has no plans for road development, although it is determined to maintain existing roads. Attempts have been made to open up tracks in slum areas using limited council resources, but the results are disastrous and not very professional since the relevant fund allocation was only for a token amount.

Provision of water and sewerage services is directly linked to road development since all three networks typically run concurrently. The practical implication is that roads must be designed to provide adequate access for the laying down of pipes. In those areas with better access, this has not been a problem, such as in the upper parts of Manyatta where the Urban II upgrading scheme has been implemented. However, the problem is real in the other parts of the slum belt. As a result, water is available to those people who are located in areas adjacent to wider access paths. Usually, it takes a single person to tap water from the trunk line on the main road for distribution to those who live along the way and adjacent to the feeder pipe. The person pays the municipal council (now KIWASCO) a fixed sum, which can be subsequently recovered from selling water to the people who tap the water from illegal connections along the main line. This shows that access at the spatial level is a multifaceted phenomenon: not only does it allow residents access (by road) to activities inside and outside the region; but it also creates opportunities for access to service infrastructure.

Privatisation of Kisumu Council’s water and sewerage department (through creation of KIWASCO) has directed a significant amount of planning activities towards improvement of this type of service. The French government is supporting the company’s efforts to set up systems and improve provision of water and treatment of waste. Sweden’s Sida is also actively engaged in this area and has financed a number of studies. However, the unplanned nature of the slum areas makes it difficult to design infrastructure layout without massive capital investment for compulsory acquisition of land for access and public facilities. The Urban II upgrading scheme has brought this problem to the fore.

The existing road reserves are “rural” in size (at times as narrow as three metres) and any road development would need to revert to urban planning standards to ensure some degree of adequacy. Although urban planning standards are applied to subdivisions in these areas, the situation is made more complex by land tenure on freehold; in this case, the final say on subdivision applications tends to stay with the Department of Land where adherence to planning standards is often disregarded.

Long-term road development in slums and neighbouring areas needs some guidance if slum expansion is to be contained. In this respect, the following methodology has been implemented in Nairobi with reasonable degrees of success. It is an option that could be tried in the slums of Kisumu.

This methodology calls for a piecemeal approach to the acquisition of land for road expansion, in view of the high costs involved. Approval of development, which includes construction, reconstruction, subdivi-
sion and sale, should be granted on condition that the developer freely surrenders a predetermined strip of land to enable the free acquisition of his strip of adjoining land for road expansion and improvement.

Cost of water to the urban poor is relatively high. Access to water is a basic right and not a commercial good; yet we find that the poor spend up to three times more on water bills than what the better-off city residents spend for the supply. In slum areas, water is sold in measures of 20-litre jerry cans. Each full jerry can costs KShs 20 and a family may use more than five such cans every day, in effect spending KShs 3,000 per month on water. Most residents with piped water connections pay an average KShs 850 per month.

There is a need for policy initiatives to address the high service charges, e.g. electricity connection charges, cost of access to sewerage, etc. The overall policy objective should be equity in service distribution. For example, connecting a house to the power grid now costs KShs 40,000 in urban areas, making it quite unaffordable to many of the residents and landlords in slum areas.

More formal community participation in infrastructure development would create a sense of ownership as well as local employment. This would include a replication of the concept developed in rural road access programmes, in which communities provided local labour for improving and maintaining local access roads. The practical outcome was that roads were maintained all year round and local community members found gainful employment.

6.5 Social Issues

There is no clear policy or basis for provision of social services, new schools, hospitals or community halls in slum areas. The problem is that these activities are considered as incidental to residential development. Moreover, with various interests competing for limited resources, such a policy hardly stands a good chance. Still, clear policies are obviously needed to forestall the long-term negative effects of residential development. Such development can be traced back to the origins of urban expansion in Kenya when the planning process failed to factor in the dynamics of rural urban migration.

Social support at the community level is best appreciated through the concept of the neighbourhood. This concept is based on the premise that urban family units will be able to combine into a community that has definite social contacts and recognisable physical unity. Against this background, the planner designs an urban unit which gives the residents a sense of living in one place as distinct from all other places, where social equipment (schools, playing fields, etc.) is conveniently located, and where through-traffic is discouraged by
use of bypasses. Such arterial bypasses should act as physical boundaries.

One facility that is often used as a focal point for any given neighbourhood is the local school, mainly because:
1. Education is based on family and school life.
2. There is contact between parent and teacher.
3. Children play together after school hours.
4. The buildings are not foreign to the pupils, being a place of visit five days a week.
5. Children can walk with ease and safely to school.

A number of CSOs working in the area have used the concept of neighbourhood as an entry point to the community. The best example was provided by World Vision in Manyatta, where schools have served as focal points for social support. These institutions can also be built to include community information centres.

A number of credit support organisations are active in the Kisumu slum belt. They would need support from slum-targeted micro-finance coupled with promotion of labour-intensive approaches.

In Kisumu’s slum areas the focus has mainly been on public health and HIV/AIDS intervention and support. This policy approach is being hampered by rising costs of medication for AIDS patients and inadequate local health facilities to support public health policies. Support for CBOs providing home-based care in the slums should be integrated in any upgrading policy, to ensure that such vulnerable people are not marginalised in the process.

The Country Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) is the governing policy that specifically addresses the effects of poverty in Kenya. It has not been easy to implement the proposals in the PRSP because of limited funding. The CWS strategy should be seen as tackling some of the concerns expressed in the PRSP. Therefore community facilities such as schools, health units, social centres and open areas should be included in the CWS strategy. CWS should also provide for youth-friendly environments where issues pertaining to young people and reproductive health policy are handled together, since this is an emerging area of concern; such efforts could act as a strategy to contain the spread of AIDS.

### 6.6 Housing

For all its good facilities and access, the tenant purchase and rental housing developed in the 1950s was inadequate and cheaper peri-urban housing continued to grow at a tremendous pace, providing an alternative, competitive housing market. Before independence, considerable effort was placed in construction of low-cost housing for Africans, a change in values that sought to bring indigenous folk into the colonial economy.

Due to high competition, it is almost impossible for new tenants to get these houses, since incumbent tenants hand them down from generation to generation!

**Councilor, Manyatta Ward**

However, rising construction costs make it very difficult for the Municipal Council to provide housing for the lower income and the private sector does not fare better for the same reason. The construction cost index rose from 604.3 in 1987 to 666.4 in 1988, 732.2 in 1989 and 892.9 in 1990. Therefore it is only natural for developers to choose the most cost-effective construction methods to satisfy rising demand for cheap housing. Although the municipal council had arranged for land banks for housing construction through the National Housing Corporation, in practise it found
that almost all the plots had been grabbed by well-to-do people and that it could not get adequate funding sources to develop the land banks.

During the same period, a gentrification process has pushed the lower income residents out of these tenant purchase and rental housing estates for the benefit of better-off groups who were able to pay higher rents for municipal housing.

In Kisumu the bulk of quality housing development has been targeted at the upper middle class and the high-income groups; unsurprisingly, these are the residential areas where roads have been improved with public funds.

The only other area with quality housing in Kisumu is in the emerging, mixed residential zone in the Mamboleo area of Kanyakwar. The road network in this area is poor, though, with most access roads still featuring six-metre reserves. The zone is also far from the core employment areas, and poorer residents find that extra transport costs offset the savings on rent.

Building standards stand out as one of the issues that must be addressed to respond to the need for adequate affordable housing. Tenant purchase schemes have not been able to provide housing for the urban poor, not only because of their small numbers but also as a result of a general housing shortage in Kisumu, which leads to a gentrification process.

Although most pro-poor housing strategies focus on owner-occupiers, rental housing still provides the best avenue for addressing most of the housing needs of slum dwellers in Kisumu. Rental housing is the single most important segment of housing provision, and strategies must be developed if it is to meet people’s needs. At the same time, it must be appreciated that local authorities, in their present circumstances, are not able to fulfil this need on their own.

Policies on housing are not responsive to local circumstances, with too much focus on ownership.

District Physical Planning Officer

Policies to increase the housing stock in Kisumu’s slum areas must be put in place in order to keep a lid on increase on rents. Local authorities must review, enforce and, where needed, reinforce building standards. This should be supported by effective enforcement of government policies, especially on planning standards. These processes must be streamlined and made customer-friendly. There is also a distinct need to enhance awareness of existing legislation for the benefit of both landlords and tenants.
7.0 ACTION PLAN AND WAY FORWARD

7.1 Introduction

The way forward can only be a function of community needs, council capacity and the operational environment. The previous chapters in this report have singled out and itemised the issues that must be addressed and the strategies that must be put in place to further the process of the Cities Without Slums initiative in Kisumu, Kenya. It must be appreciated that all the aspects mentioned below must be seen not in isolation, but rather as part of a single agenda that must be implemented if the objectives are to be met.

7.2 Kisumu Millennium City

Kisumu has been declared the first Millennium City by the United Nations Secretary General Kofi Annan. Annan’s special advisor Jeffrey Sachs delivered the message in January 2006 during his visit to Kisumu city. He noted that Kisumu has the unique opportunity to partner with Bar Sauri village (Millennium village in Yala, Siaya District) by being the engine of rural development. He said the town had immense resources and strategic location in the East and Central African region and therefore the Millennium Project would help realise development goals by supporting interventions that aim at reducing poverty. The International Community will now look at Kisumu as an aspiring hub of development and the city must be prepared to direct more resources to set targets.

The UN Millennium Project is a three-year initiative conceived by the United Nations to analyze policy options and develop a plan of implementation for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are a set of clear targets for reducing poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation, and discrimination against women by 2015. These goals were adopted by world leaders at the United Nations Millennium Summit in September 2000.

New York Columbia University’s Earth Institute scientists and development experts in agriculture, nutrition and health, economics, energy, water, environment and information technology will work with the Municipality of Kisumu and the Government to apply a proven, integrated package of interventions to help the city get out of extreme poverty.
### 7.3 Sector-specific priority areas

The analysis process with community members in slum settlements has identified priority areas that must be addressed if Kisumu is to become a city without slums. These areas are listed below by order of priority.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority Areas</th>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Timeframe</th>
<th>Institution(s) in charge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Land           | Enhance security of tenure with sustainable land management | • Address issue of subdivision through planning by-laws and set minimum plot size  
 • Provide titles where there has been none before  
 • Develop sustainable land-use activities in the wetlands | 6 Months  
 Continuous  
 Start 2006 | MCK, GoK, CSOs, Community Planning Units |
| Infrastructure | Enhance the quality of the living environment. | • Improvement of access roads  
 • Installation of street lights  
 • Provision of storm drainage  
 • Provision of safe water and sanitation facilities (including public toilets)  
 • Provision and improvement of markets  
 • Rehabilitate/increase number of health facilities  
 • Build community centres | Start 2006 (3 yrs) | MCK, GoK, CSOs, Community Planning Units |
|               | Enhance environmental improvement in the slums | • Provide and improve open space and recreation space e.g. by planting trees.  
 • Establish community systems for solid waste management  
 • Disseminate information and alternative, energy-efficient technologies | Start 2006 (Continuous) | MCK, GoK, UN-HABITAT, CSOs, Community Planning Units |
| Livelihood     | Improve opportunities for better livelihoods in slum areas | • Improve access to capital for investment  
 • Provide opportunities for entrepreneurs to set up small-scale businesses in slum areas  
 • Promote employment terms that enhance worker status, e.g. staff housing  
 • Evaluate pricing of water to address issue of affordability | Start 2006 (Continuous)  
 2006 | MCK, GoK, UN-HABITAT, CSOs, Community Planning Units, Private Sector |
| Housing        | Increase affordable housing stock | • Build quality housing through private-public partnership  
 • Develop consensus towards regularising rent | Start 2006 (3yrs)  
 2006 | MCK, GoK, CSOs, Community Planning Units, Private Sector |
| Social Services                  | Improve frameworks for primary healthcare | Provide education on safe water and improved sanitation  
Set up HIV/AIDS support centres  
Provide education and counselling on diseases  
Enhance public collection of refuse | Start 2006 (Continuous) | MCK, GoK, CSOs, Community Planning Units, Private Sector |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                                 | Enhance opportunity for recreation and socialising | Set up community information and resource centres  
Improve staffing in schools, clinics  
Set up recreation areas as nucleus for community neighbourhoods | 2006  
2006  
2006 | MCK, GoK, CSOs, Community Planning Units |
| External Environment            | Reinforce community participation in decision-making | Each Settlement Project Management Unit to set priorities within Local Authority Service Delivery Action Plan  
Reinforce Neighbourhood Associations | 2006  
January 2006 | MCK, GoK |
|                                 | Improve economic opportunities for residents | Provision of a spatial framework for donors, private and public sector investment in housing technology, trade and industry infrastructure, service and recreation facilities, urban agriculture and environment management  
Detailed layout plans and policy documents should be developed after the social survey and shared with stakeholders | Start 2006 | MCK / GoK |
|                                 | Building social capacity to implement interventions | Using elders as entry points to the community  
Establishment of neighbourhood focal points, such as schools, social centres, information centres and other social services | Start 2006 | PIU / CSOs |
|                                 | Providing opportunities for access to technology | Appropriate technology support  
Solid waste management interventions  
Information access centre to be repository for information on technological interventions | Already started by CSOs | Donors / CSOs |
7.4 Establishing the institutional framework for the Kisumu CWS programme

7.4.1 Multi-Stakeholder Support Group

To coordinate the slum upgrading programme in Kisumu, it is proposed that a Multi-Stakeholder Support Group (MSSG) be established as the overall policy organ. It would be responsible for policy direction and guidance to the PIU and ensure effective and efficient use of all programme resources. In order to promote good governance, accommodate all interests and eliminate potential for conflict, it is proposed that the Kisumu MSSG bring together varying numbers of representatives from all the key stakeholders, including representatives of:

- Kisumu City Council
- KENSUP
- G.O.K
- CSOs
- Slum Settlement Neighbourhood Association
- Programme Secretariat
- Business community

7.4.2 Programme implementation unit

The programme implementation unit shall be comprised of:

- All MCK Heads of Departments.
- Representatives from three relevant government departments.
- Representatives from three CSOs with active programmes in the slums of Kisumu.

For effective implementation, the PIU shall set up a Programme Secretariat (PS) headed by the Director of Planning of the MCK, with one representative of the relevant government ministry and one CSO representative who is also a member of the MSSG and whose organisation is at the time actively involved in slum upgrading in Kisumu. The Programme Secretariat shall have a well-developed technical support unit with the capacity required for effective programme implementation.

7.4.3 Site project implementation units

For the purposes of the strategy, each slum settlement shall be considered as a Site Implementation Unit. For ease of coordination at slum level, each unit will receive support to set up a neighbourhood governance structure. The structure will come under an umbrella organ; it will maintain appropriate links with all ongoing projects in the slum as well as with policy-making and implementation organs (MSSG and PIU).

7.4.4 Programme support unit

The unit shall serve under the direction of the Programme Secretariat and would include all the required expertise for delivery of the CWS programmes. It would have the capacity to out activities as and when deemed necessary subject to approval by the MSSG.

7.4.5 Inter-agency support committee (IASC)

On this committee will sit representatives of the relevant Ministries, KENSUP and donor agencies (bilateral and multilateral) with an interest in Kisumu city development.

7.5 Dissemination of the action plan

Dissemination of the findings of the situation analysis and the action plan is important in ensuring that all stakeholders understand and appreciate the whole process and the way forward. This dissemination
process could be three-pronged, along the following lines:
1. Working with the various mass media to ensure that the broad issues addressed in the study and the findings are shared with the public. This will create a general sense of awareness among both slum residents and stakeholders in the CWS process.
2. Publish the situation analysis and the action plan. Produce easily accessible information material in three languages, on the key findings and the way forward.
3. Organise a high-level public event to adopt the Action Plan and launch the Preparatory phase.

Illustration 6: Organisational chart for the Kisumu slum upgrading programme

IASC (Inter Agency Steering Committee)
MSSG (Multi-Stakeholder Support Group)
PIU (Project Implementation Unit)
PSU (Programme Support Unit)
GoK (Government of Kenya)
CSOs (Civil society organisations)
HoD (Heads of Kisumu Council Departments)
SPIU (Site Project Implementation Unit)
Situation Analysis of Informal Settlements in Kisumu
ANNEX 1

Progress Report
June 2004 to September 2005

CITIES WITHOUT SLUMS SUB-REGIONAL PROGRAMME FOR EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA
(KISUMU, KENYA)

Inception phase (completed activities)

- A Steering Committee of key stakeholders has been set up and comprises of: Municipal Council of Kisumu, GoK (MoLH, MoLG), Maseno University, Provincial Administration, Local NGOs/CBOs, FBOs, Private Sector, Development Partners and UN-HABITAT

- The Slum Upgrading Secretariat has also been established at MCK. The secretariat also includes a Geographic Information System (GIS) covering the whole of Kisumu. A digital map has been produced for the city, based on recent high resolution satellite images. The GIS database has been connected to a server and made accessible to the offices of the Mayor and the Town Clerk as well as to different departments at MCK through a local area network.

- The production of a Situation Analysis of the informal settlements in Kisumu is now complete. The Analysis has been produced through an inclusive and collaborative process involving not only the Municipal Council of Kisumu (MCK) but also the local Maseno University, key local and international NGOs, CBOs and UN-HABITAT. In total there are approximately 200,000 slum dwellers in 8 different informal settlements in Kisumu.

- An Action Plan for the improvements of the informal settlements in Kisumu has been developed. Each informal settlement has developed its own priorities based on the local challenges and opportunities. The priorities have been entered in a timeframe, given a key focal point and initial cost estimations have taken place.

- Capacity building has taken place at MCK to improve on internal data management and to make efficient use of the GIS database. E.g. to improve on revenue collection efficiency and transparency by linking to the digital cadastre database. Other responsibilities will be to collect, edit, analyse and manage information on informal settlements, population, housing, land use, and urban transport mobility.
The impact of the project with the creation of the secretariat, has led to improved coordination and management capacity within MCK. The physical planning of the municipality has improved and the efficiency of delivering plans has been enhanced. The council’s capacity to coordinate and assist development partners on issues regarding slum upgrading has also improved. Furthermore, the monitoring and evaluation of urban trends within Kisumu has been significantly enhanced.

Preparatory phase (On-going activities)

- An application for funds from Cities Alliance is being prepared together with AFD (French Agency), WSP (World Bank), UN-HABITAT, UNEP, and Sida. AFD has already agreed to support water and sanitation provision in the slums of Kisumu through a soft loan of 20 million Euros for the next four years.
- Enumeration of slum dwellers in Kisumu Informal settlements is in progress
- New saving schemes have been initiated in selected slums and is on-going
- Socio-economic and physical mapping has also started in selected slums
- MCK has been given 400,000 USD by the Government (KENSUP) for addressing priority areas identified in the Action Plan. These include construction of community information centres, rehabilitation of market and health facilities, construction of public toilets among others. Project design and planning of these social amenities is currently in progress.

Preparatory phase (Activities to do)

- Carry out cost estimates and financial packages for the implementation phase of the project
- Prepare and submit project proposals to development partners eg Cities Alliance
- Capacity building in Revenue management and information technology
- Set up a media strategy
- Mobilize resources

Implementation phase (Activities to do):

- Construct roads, drainage, water and sanitation facilities
- Construction of community information centres
- Improve on social amenities (schools and health centres)
- Promote low-cost housing technologies and materials
- Provide suitable security of tenure
- Support micro-finance for asset generation
- Encourage income generating activities
- Planting trees to improve open spaces and the environment
SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES - CWS KISUMU INITIATIVE

2003
January  KENSUP MoU was signed where Kisumu is mentioned in the following paragraph: ...WHEREAS UN-HABITAT and the Government have agreed that the Programme will cover the urban areas in Kenya, starting with selected slums within the statutory, regulatory and legal boundaries of the Nairobi City Council and Kisumu Municipal Council.

2004
January  Initial discussions with Municipal Council of Kisumu (MCK).
February  Detailed discussions with the Planning Department at MCK.
March  Preparatory work within UN-HABITAT on CWS budget and timeframe
       Follow up meetings with MCK Town Planner.
       Preparatory work with the Programme Document.
April  Drafting the Cooperation Agreement with MCK.
       Initial meeting with a few international Development Partners.
May  Drafting the ToR for the Situation Analysis and Action Plan.
June  Appoint CWS consultant for Kisumu, Mr. Peter Donde.
July  Meeting with MCK Town Clerk and Town Planner.
       Internal UN-HABITAT coordination on activities in Kisumu including ROAAS.
       Finalisation of the Programme Document.
August  Meeting with key stakeholders at MCK Sign the Cooperation Agreement between UN-HABITAT and MCK.
       Internal UN-HABITAT coordination on activities in Kisumu.
       Production of UN-HABITAT brochure on activities in Kisumu.
       Meeting with new MCK Mayor and Town Clerk.
       Meeting with Development Partners in Kisumu.
       Brief introduction to MP from Kisumu on CWS in Kisumu.
September  Development Partners meeting on Kisumu at UN-HABITAT.
          Brief introduction to Minister of Lands and Housing on CWS in Kisumu.
          Production of CWS webpage on Kisumu.
October  Meeting with GUO on activities in Kisumu.
          Finalise a small scale agreement with SANA.
          Initiate the establishment of a Situation Analysis with local actors.
          Discussion with RCMRD on the establishment of a CWS/CDS secretariat at MCK.
November  World Habitat Day, meeting with Mayor and Town Clerk.
        Brief introduction to Director of Housing on CWS in Kisumu.
        Arrival of Intern working on CWS Kisumu for 3 months, Ms Hannah Loizos.

2005
March  Social Mapping commenced in Kisumu informal settlements.
June  Launching of the GIS Secretariat at MCK.
July  KENSUP Commits 400,000 USD to MCK for slum upgrading.
August  Situation Analysis of Kisumu Informal settlements edited and ready for publishing.
ANNEX 2

MAPS OF INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS IN KISUMU
Map 1: Kisumu Informal Settlements
Map 2: Nyalenda
Map 3: Nyamasaria
Map 4: Manyatta Arab
Map 5: Manyatta
Map 6: Obunga
REFERENCES


The Cities Without Slums (CWS) Sub-Regional Programme for Eastern and Southern Africa was initiated in the year 2000, in response to the situation of increasing poverty in the region. The programme seeks to assist Member States in the sub-region to realize the Millennium Declaration Goal 7 Target 11 of ‘Cities Without Slums,’ by strengthening institutional arrangements, building partnerships and supporting the improvement of conditions of people living and working in slums.

In Kenya, the Government is collaborating with UN-HABITAT in a Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme that covers urban areas in Kenya, starting with selected slums within Nairobi, Mombasa, Kisumu and Mavoko Municipal Councils.

In Kisumu, the first phase of this initiative was to prepare the Kisumu Situation Analysis, which is an in-depth analysis of the present and past conditions of informal settlements in Kisumu town. The report is the culmination of several months of consultations with key stakeholders, including the public and private sectors, NGOs, grassroots and International Development Partners.

The purpose of the Kisumu Situation Analysis is to serve as a discussion piece for diverse stakeholders to arrive at a consensus about the conditions of slums and the conditions governing slum upgrading, and for them to identify a way forward by developing a concrete Action Plan for a citywide slum upgrading programme. In regard to this, the study proposes an integrated approach to slum upgrading, singling out issues of security of land tenure, improvement of basic infrastructure, housing improvement, access to health and social services and improving management of the environment to ensure enhanced quality of life and reduction in poverty levels.