

**Ministry of Finance and
Planning**



**Popular Version of
The Second Report on
Poverty in Kenya**

**Jointly prepared by
Human Resources and Social Services
Department (HRSSD)
and
Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS)**

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This popular version of ***Poverty in Kenya*** was compiled from work originally prepared by a team of officers from the Human Resources and Social Services Department (HRSSD) and Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) in the Ministry of Finance and Planning, which is contained in the two volumes of the ***Second Report on Poverty in Kenya***.

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1. Introduction: What is Poverty

There is no single definition of what poverty is, primarily because it is perceived differently by different people. The list of what can be included under the general heading is large and diverse; some people may take a narrow approach, limiting the term to a lack of material well-being, while others may argue that lack of freedom, spiritual well-being, civil rights and nutrition also contribute to the definition of poverty.

The Second Report on Poverty in Kenya adopted the material well-being approach, which defines the poor as those members of society who are unable to afford minimum

basic human needs comprised of food and non-food items.

This short definition has been much elaborated on by the poor themselves. When communities were asked to define poverty in the 1997 Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA), the emphasis of each respondent tended to differ, (some examples of what individual respondents said are included in box 1) but three features emerged from all the districts.

1. Poverty was considered the inability of an individual or household to afford basic necessities such as food, clothing, housing, health and education for children. This definition was presented in all districts as the primary meaning of poverty.

Box 1: What is Poverty-The Voice of the Poor

"Don't ask me what poverty is because you have met it outside my house. Look at my house and count the number of holes [in the walls]. Look at my utensils and the clothes I am wearing. Look at everything and write what you see. What you see is poverty". (ex Mau Mau freedom fighter, Nyeri District 1996)

"You try as a human to make ends meet but you cannot succeed" (*Koso gimoro itemo kaka dhano to ok inyal yudo gino*) (Men in a rural village, Kisumu)

"The government seems to value wildlife more than human beings" (Morans in Kajiado following the demise of a member of the community trampled by elephants)

"For a poor person getting soap to wash is difficult", "a poor person is full of anger. He doesn't see anything good in this world". (laments of poor person in Nyeri District)

"When the community is poor, you are also poor. You cannot be rich in a poor community. You cannot eat alone when your grandchildren are starving, or take your children to school when your brother's children are at home" (Key Informat, Kisumu)

Source: Second Participatory Poverty Assessment Study - Kenya, March 1997.

2. Poverty is a condition in which an individual or household cannot generate new income. In poverty, an individual or household may be forced to sell basic possessions to pay for medical or educational services because there is no surplus cash. Land and Livestock might be sold in this way.

3. Poverty is also a condition wherein the individual or household has few possessions or none at all.

These definitions are ones of absolute poverty, whereby people fall below a certain minimum standard which is considered necessary to satisfy the most basic of needs. In all the communities covered in PPA-II, there was a clear indication from the communities that poverty also has a definite relative dimension. Through social mapping and wealth ranking exercises, all communities identified three levels of wealth – rich,

poor (or average) and very poor. The communities were also able to give characteristics to those in each group (See Table 1)

Table 1 : Characteristics of Poverty Groups

Rich	Poor (Average, Majority)	Very Poor
Steady Jobs or income generating opportunities such as businesses	Casual Jobs and Small Scale Businesses	No job security, illicit business such as commercial sex or <i>chang'aa</i> brewing
Many material possessions such as land, livestock, houses, commercial plots	Some material possessions: household items such as radio, furniture, cooking utensils; some may have animals, may or may not have land	Usually landless with few household items, no livestock
Easy access to services such as health, schools for children, credit etc.	Limited access to services – medical bills paid with difficulty, usually through credit. Children go to school (primary level), but there are fees problems.	Very poor access if any to health educational and related services. No access to credit.
Behaviour which reflects arrogance and ostentation	Behaviour is mainly in line with established norms and values	Stressed behaviour associated with begging, stealing, violence, loneliness; some laziness, talking to self while walking; others are hard working, humble and religious.
Neatly dressed, healthy	Fairly neat in dress	Very untidy in terms of dress and habitation
Viewed positively – <i>midozi</i> in terms of status	Seen as average, normal	Viewed negatively
Have prospects for improving their condition to become richer	Aspire to join the rich by associating with them	Inability to plan their lives – no hope of improving their condition
Have few children (relative to wealth) who continue to higher education	Children drop out of school to seek employment	Large family size leads to many children who become <i>chokoras</i> in urban areas

Source: Second Participatory Poverty Assessment Study – Kenya, March 1997

In addition to being able to define what poverty is and show differences between groups in poverty, the poor people who took part in the PPA further described four pervasive and systematic problems that effect their lives adversely – these are

Corruption- a core poverty issue not just a problem affecting high levels of governments and business in the country. In many instances it has been pointed out how pervasive low level corruption is and a lack of access to justice and protection affect poor people's lives. The problems of corruption, 'connections', and

violation of basic human rights with impunity were voiced repeatedly by a wide majority of all people who participated in the discussions.

Violence and Public Safety - in both rural and urban areas, poor people reported a decline in social connectedness, along with increases in crime, lawlessness, selfishness and violence. This is reflected not only in violence and public safety issues outside the home, but in conflict and violence within the home.

Powerlessness - "while participation" may be happening in the context of poor peoples own organisations, by and large they are excluded from participation in decision making and in equal sharing of benefits from government and NGO programmes. The poor want desperately to have their voices heard, to participate, to make decisions and not always be handed down the law from above.

Insecure Livelihood - the poor typically have few assets to make a living. Livelihood strategies are precarious and include a patchwork of low paying, dangerous, often backbreaking work for low returns. All over the country, both in rural and urban areas, the poor believe that insecurity had increased.

It is clear that the poor face a long list of difficulties, including access to services, vulnerability to adverse natural conditions, especially drought, and the resultant food insecurity and disease. Landlessness, or possession of inadequate pieces of land, unemployment and lack of opportunities to generate income are all serious problems for the poor. Poor physical conditions such as poorly maintained roads and low quality housing, insecurity and inadequate support from extension workers further make the situation worse.

2. How is Poverty Measured

The Government of Kenya has supported a number of initiatives to measure poverty within the country – primarily through the Welfare Monitoring Surveys (WMS)ⁱⁱⁱ and the Participatory Poverty Assessments^{iv}. While one exercise has been qualitative, revealing dimensions of poverty that would otherwise have remained a mystery, the quantitative exercises have been focussed on ascertaining the exact number of people in poverty.

However there are a number of issues that have to be dealt with in regard to measuring poverty. Firstly there is the choice of poverty line - general there are three of these used in the country – the food poverty line, the hardcore poverty line and the absolute (or overall) poverty line, each of these give different measures for poverty, and each has its own shortcomings and advantages.

The next issue is the unit of measure – this is more complicated than it seems, as information can be recorded on the basis of Adult Equivalent, Household and Individual. In each of the cases presented here Adult Equivalent has been used which takes account of age differences in consumption by applying internationally accepted adult equivalency scales, meaning that household consumption (which was reported in the questionnaires) is divided by the number of adult equivalents in the household, allowing

comparison between households, and between surveys.

Finally, all the results presented here are based on the **Headcount Ratio**, which is the ratio of people living in poor households in the total population, and is chiefly used to allow comparison between different periods of

time and areas – it does not account for the intensity of poverty (also known as the Poverty Gap), which gives an indication of how deep poverty is in the country and is usually measured by the **Poverty Intensity Measure** which is a

representation of the average difference between the poverty line and the actual income (or expenditure) of each household.

Box 2: The Measure of Living Standard

Standard of living has been traditionally measured in terms of a person's ability to attain universally recommended basic items for survival such as food, clothing, health, education and shelter. While the human body requires minimum food-energy intake to maintain bodily functions, food energy intake alone cannot be a valid welfare indicator because there are some essential non food goods and services that even the poorest person cannot do without. Total consumption of both food and non-food is therefore considered a better welfare indicator than food-energy intake.

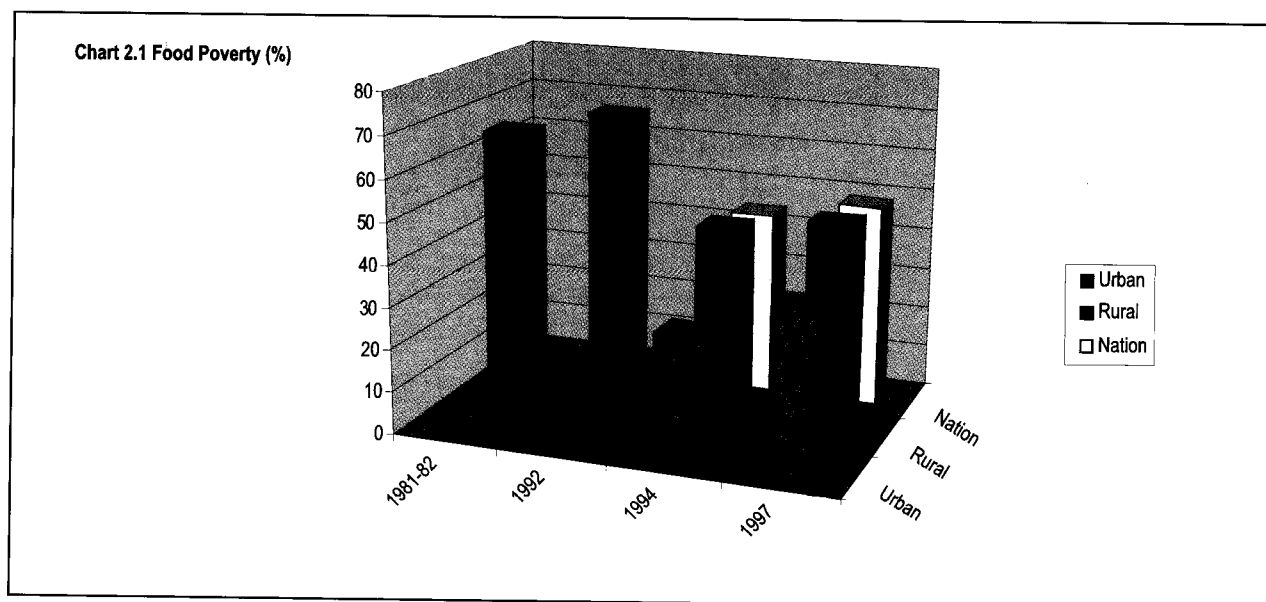
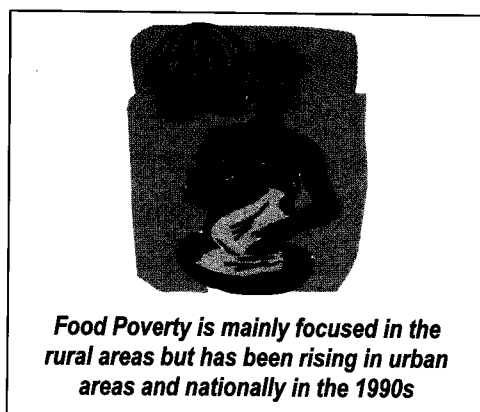
Source: Second Report on Poverty in Kenya - Volume 1 Incidence and Depth of Poverty

2.1 Food Poverty Line

The Food Poverty Line is the line, below which people do not meet their minimum food requirement. This has been set at 2250 calories per day per adult person in Kenya, a figure based on FAO/WHO recommendations for food consumption for specific age groups. In monetary terms this has been calculated as the equivalent of KShs 927 per adult person per month in rural areas and KShs 1,254 in urban areas in 1997, (in 1994 the amounts required to purchase 2250 calories were KShs 702.99 in rural areas and 874.72 in urban areas). Those who spend less than these amounts on food are considered to be food poor. It should be noted that this does not necessarily imply that these people are absolutely poor, they may choose not to spend this amount of money on food, rather choosing a different type of expenditure which may be more in line with their own tastes (or needs).

Figures for 1981-82 and 1992 are only available for rural areas, however the information that is available for 1994 and 1997 show a number of key issues. Firstly, a greater proportion of the rural population is food poor, than the urban population (47.2 per cent and 50.7 per cent in 1994 and 1997 respectively in rural areas, and

29.2 per cent and 38.3 per cent for the same years in urban areas). Secondly that food poverty in urban and rural areas (and therefore also nationally) has risen between the two years. In 1994 29.2 per cent of the urban population, 47.2 per cent of the rural population and 44.3 per cent of the national population were food poor, compared to figures of 38.3 per cent, 50.7 per cent and 48.7 per cent for the same areas three years later.



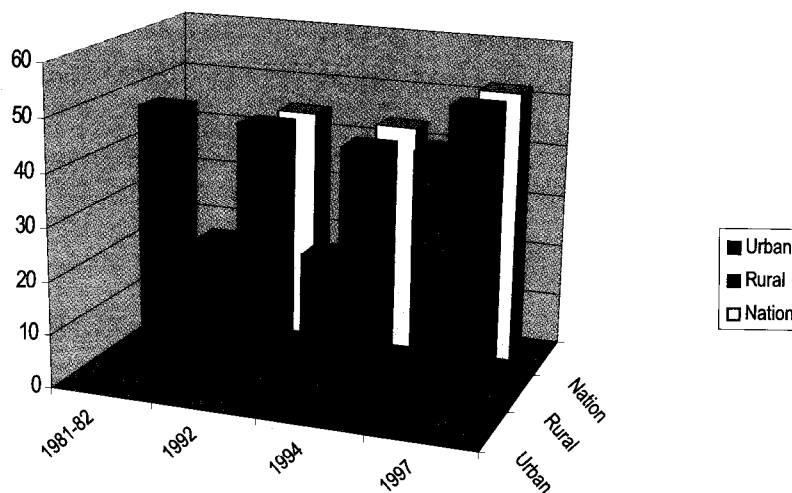
2.2 Overall Poverty Line

This is derived by summing the food expenditure level that brought about the required food energy intake (identified previously as 2250 Calories) and the non food expenditure allowance. The non-food component is calculated using the mean non-food household spending in the neighbourhood of the Food Poverty Line (the neighbourhood in this case is defined as a band of -20% and +10% on the lower and upper sides of the food poverty line).

This has been estimated at KShs 1,239 per month per adult person in rural areas and KShs 2,648 in urban areas in 1997. The Overall Poverty Line is the same as the Absolute Poverty Line (The figures for 1994 were

KShs 978.27 in Rural and KShs 1489.63 in Urban areas). Chart 2.2 shows that following slight declines in rural poverty between 1981/2 and 1992, and 1992 and 1994 (from 47.9 per cent to 46.3 per cent to 43.8 per cent), Absolute (Overall) Poverty rose again between 1994 and 1997, to a level of 52.9 per cent. There was a substantial increase in urban poverty between 1994 and 1997, up from just under 29 per cent, to just over 49 per cent, however this still remains below the levels found in rural areas. Nationally absolute poverty has increased from 43.8 per cent in 1994 to 52.3 per cent in 1997

Chart 2.2 Absolute Poverty (%)



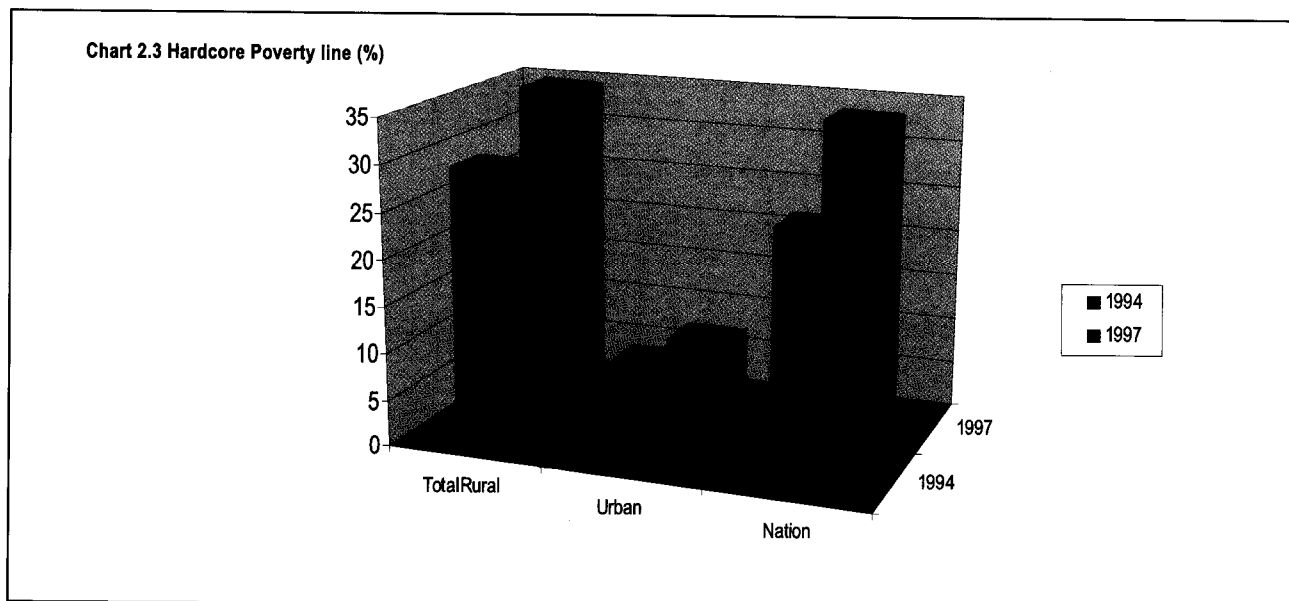
2.3 Hardcore Poverty Line

This is set at a level where total expenditure is equivalent to the Food Poverty Line. This means that even if people living at this level of expenditure were to devote their entire spending to food, they would still not

have enough to eat. This has also been established at KShs 927 per month per adult person in rural areas and KShs 1,254 in urban areas for 1997.

Figures for this measure are only available from the 1994 and 1997 surveys, and from this it is apparent that the Hard Core Poverty has been increasing in rural areas^{vi} (up from 29.2 per cent to 34.8 per cent), while decreasing in urban areas (down from 10.1 per cent to 7.6 per cent). In the country as whole, about one third

of the population (33.7 per cent) is considered hard core poor, this is an increase from the previous figure of 26.1 per cent.



3. Health

Health policies and strategies in Kenya are geared towards reducing the incidence of disease and improving the health status and thus the quality of life of the general population. The objectives of these policies and strategies have included reduction of morbidity, mortality and fertility through promotion of primary health care, increasing access to health care services and encouraging the private sector to play a bigger role in the delivery and financing of health care services.

3.1 Accessibility of Health Services

In the consultations with the poor carried out during the PPA of 1996/7, inability to access health care was one of the basic components of poverty. Peoples perceptions on the standard and quality of the health services on offer are not particularly complimentary — the PPA points out that while health facilities do exist in most areas, the poor have limited access to them because of cost, or because of the quality of the treatment offered at the facility nearest to them, this

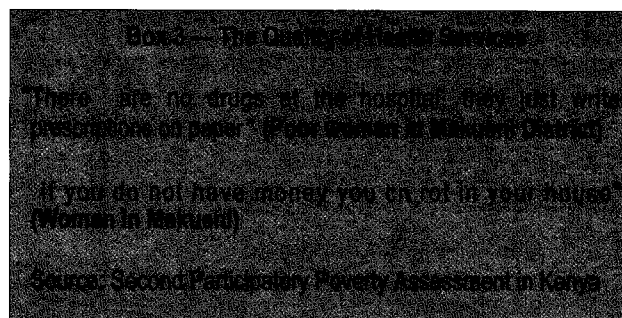


Chart 3.1 :
Time Taken to Reach Nearest Qualified Doctor

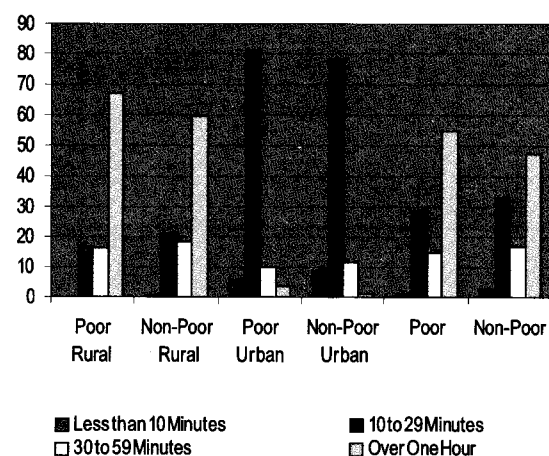


Chart 3.2
Time Taken to Reach Nearest Hospital

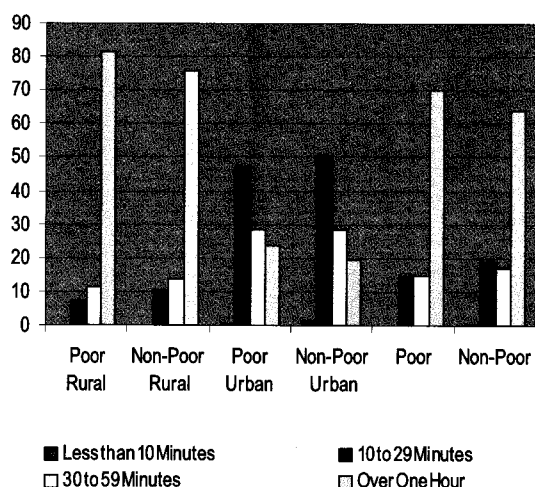
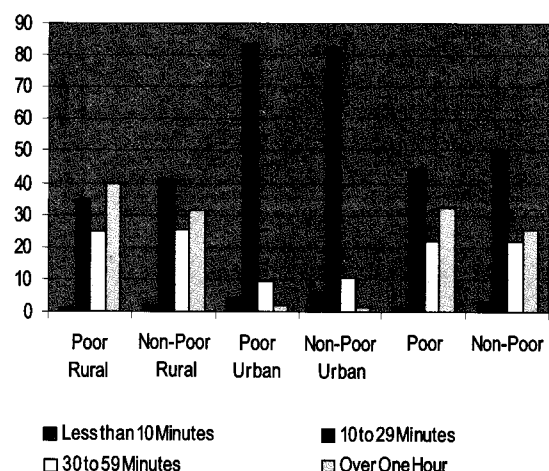


Chart 3.3 : Time Taken to Reach Nearest Dispensary



would include availability of medicine. Box 3 gives examples of the type of responses that were received in regard to the quality and availability of health services.

WMS III asked questions regarding the length of time taken to access the nearest health facility, and as can be seen from Charts 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3, the poor and in particular the poor in rural areas are particularly disadvantaged in terms of length of time taken to reach the nearest health facility.

Nationally more of the poor than the non-poor (54.7 per cent compared to 47.3 per cent) take over one hour to reach the nearest qualified doctor, however in this instance the biggest difference is between the poor in urban areas, where 81.1 per cent of the population take between 10 and 19 minutes to reach the doctor and the

poor in rural areas where 66.8 per cent of the people take over one hour to achieve the same. Location would therefore appear to accentuate the difficulties in

accessing doctors that have already been created by peoples poverty status.

A similar picture is shown in terms of time taken to reach the nearest dispensary, where 88.4 per cent of the urban poor and 87.3 per cent of the urban non-poor take less than half

an hour to reach the facility, while in rural areas only 35.7 per cent of the poor and 43.3 per cent of the non-poor take this length of time. The figure for time taken to reach nearest hospital are even more in favour of the urban non-poor; over half (52.1 per cent) of them take less than 30 minutes whereas 81.4 per cent of the poor in rural areas take over one hour to reach the nearest hospital.

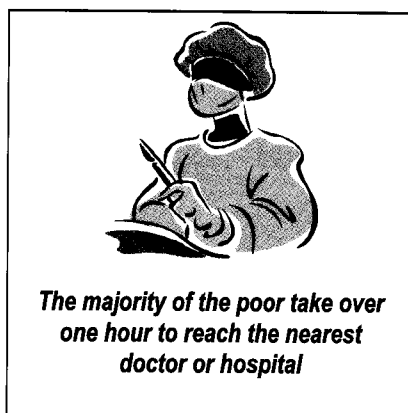
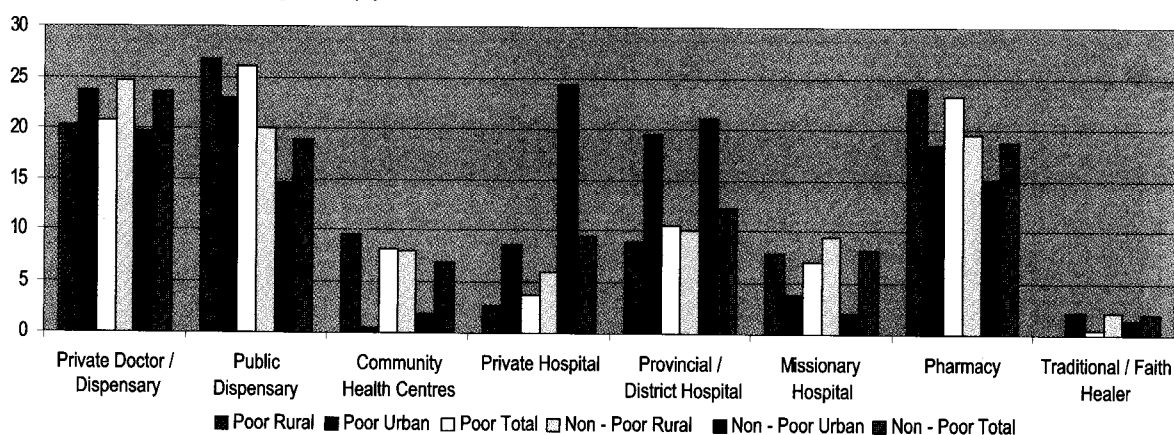


Chart 3.4 Action Taken during Illness (%)



3.2 Action Taken During Illness

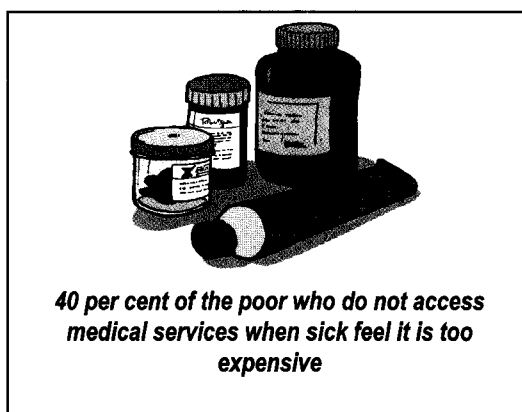
Nationally, the majority of the non-poor prefer private treatment (51.4 per cent utilise private doctors / dispensaries, private hospital and pharmacies), and

while the poor are not in a position to avail of this option as much, a considerable amount (47.7 per cent) do choose these actions first.

The most frequent action when sick for the non-poor is to consult a private doctor/ dispensary (26.4 per cent), the most favoured action amongst the urban non-poor is to attend a private hospital (22.4 per cent). This preference for private treatment is also reflected in the actions of the urban poor who also most frequently consult a private doctor/ dispensary (23.7 per cent). Amongst the poor nationally just over a quarter (26.1 per cent) attend the public dispensary — this is also the most frequent destination for the poor in rural areas. Again the urban — rural divide is evident in the type of action taken.

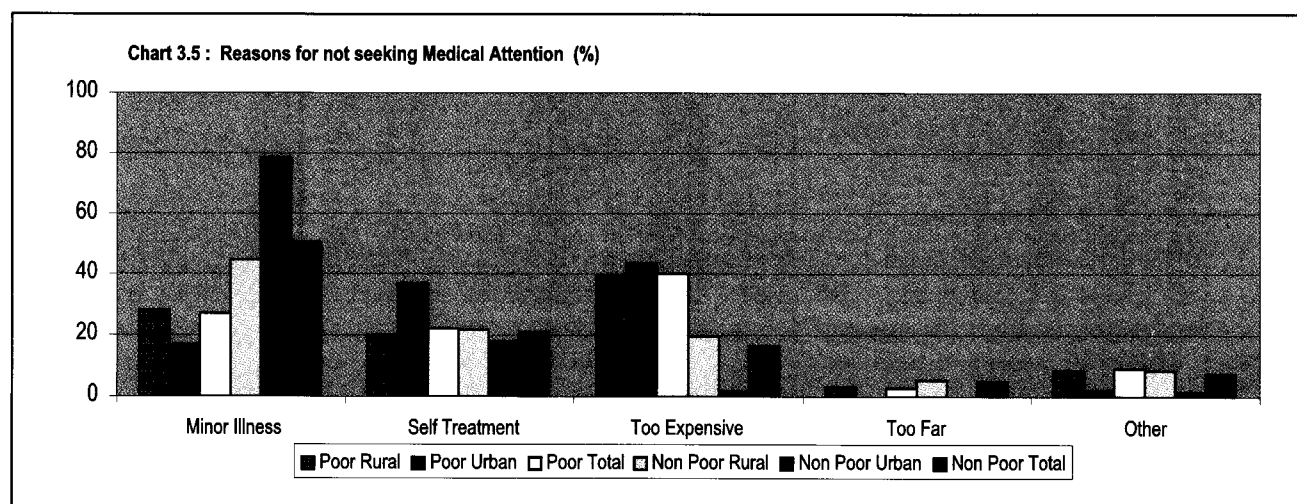
Nationally, over 88 per cent of those who are sick receive treatment. The highest figure for not receiving treatment is amongst the poor in rural areas (12.4 per cent), the lowest is amongst the non-poor in urban areas (7.3 per cent).

Of those who did not access medical attention during their illness — a large number gave the fact that it was only a minor illness as a reason for not doing so. This



was in fact the main reason given by the non-poor for not seeking assistance (50.7 per cent), particularly so in urban areas (73.6 per cent as opposed to 44.8 per cent in rural areas). Amongst the poor however there was a different story. While a sizable portion did report minor

illness as a reason for not having sought medical assistance (26.6 per cent), the most frequent response (40 per cent) was that medical care was too expensive, and in this instance there was little difference between rural (39.5 per cent) and urban (43.8 per cent) areas



3.3 Expenditure on Health Care

Amongst the poor health care expenditure accounts for 8.6 per cent of their total non-food expenditure, the ratio

is higher for the non-poor; they spend 12.7 per cent on health care. Those in rural areas spend a greater

proportion of their non-food expenditure on health care amount of money on average on healthcare (almost than in urban areas, however in real terms those in KShs 284). urban areas spend more than those in rural areas. The non-poor households in urban areas spend the largest

Table 3.1 Expenditure on Health Care

	Doctors Fee (KShs)	Medicine (KShs)	Hospital (KShs)	Other (KShs)	Medical Insurance (KShs)	Total (KShs)	Percentage of total non-food expenditure (%)
Poor Rural	0.8	11.1	2.5	1.1	0.4	15.9	11.8
Non-Poor Rural	6.7	73.2	22.3	7.2	2.7	112.1	16.2
Poor Urban	2.9	18.4	6.4	2.2	1.7	31.6	5
Non-Poor Urban	31	132	89.1	12.8	18.8	283.7	9.5
Poor Total	1.2	12.5	3.3	1.3	0.7	19	8.6
Non Poor Total	11.8	85.7	36.4	8.4	6.1	148.4	12.7

4. Education

Education plays a major role in human development through empowering people to improve their well being and to participate actively in nation building. Education strengthens peoples ability to meet their needs and those of their families by increasing their productivity and potential to achieve higher standards of living and

4.1 Education Level of the Population

In WMS III a question was asked to all those over six years of age regarding whether they had ever attended school. The proportion of respondents who had actually attended school was generally quite high, however more of the non-poor than the poor had been to school (79.9 per cent of the poor and 86.2 per cent of the non-poor).

A much higher proportion of females have received no education — regardless of poverty status. For instance, while 20.8 per cent of poor males had received no education, the figure for poor females was 29.8 per cent; from Chart 4.1 it can be seen that this situation is repeated for all income and location groups.

Of those who have achieved primary education as their highest level of education the situation appears to be quite equitable in gender terms, that is, the differences in numbers between male and female are not very large. This disguises the fact however that males are disproportionately represented in both the groups who have attended secondary or higher education; for instance amongst the non-poor urban (the most likely group to have attended higher education), the proportion of males who have reached this level is over

Box 4 — Education

"Education has become the privilege of the rich" (FGD member in Makueni District)

Source: Second Participatory Poverty Assessment in Kenya

thereby improve their quality of life. Furthermore, it is generally accepted in Kenya that poverty decreases as the heads level of education increases.

Chart 4.1 Population with no Education (%)

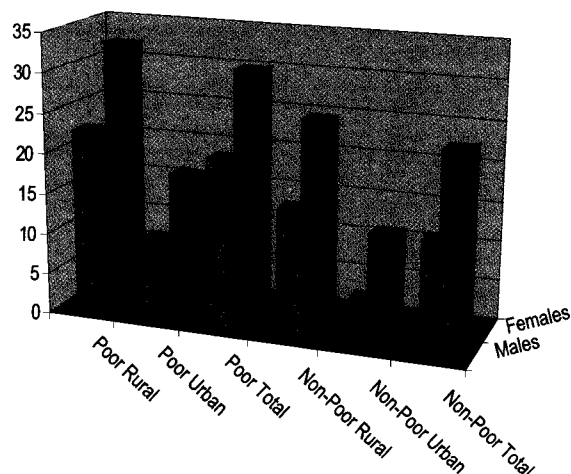
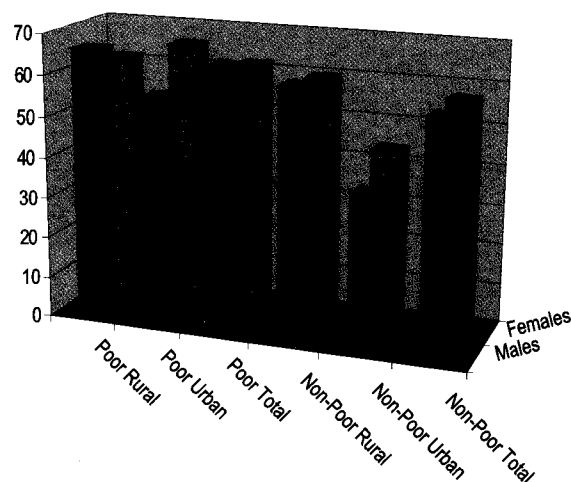


Chart 4.2 Primary Education as Highest Level of Education (%)

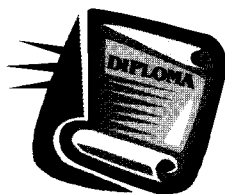


twice the size of the proportion of females (11.3 per cent compared to 5.2 per cent), whereas women have a higher representation amongst those with no education in all categories.

It is also apparent from Charts 4.3 and 4.4 that a much higher proportion of the non-poor attend secondary and higher education, for example, amongst poor males only 13.6 per cent have attended secondary education, whereas

26.4 per cent of the non-poor have attended. The situation is reflected amongst the female population, where in secondary education 8.4 per cent of poor

females have reached secondary education, 19.2 per cent of the non-poor have managed this level of education.



Education strengthens peoples ability to meet their needs and those of their families by increasing their productivity and potential to achieve higher standards of living and thereby improve their quality of life.

Chart 4.3 Secondary Education as Highest Level of Education (%)

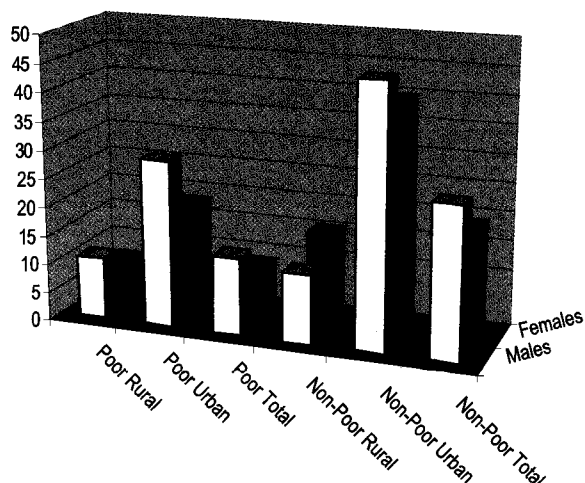
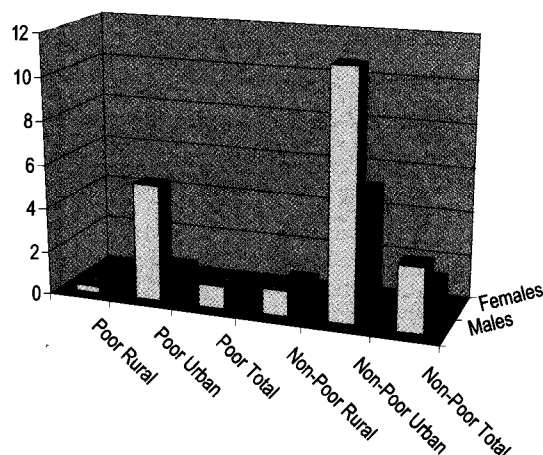


Chart 4.4 Population who Reached Higher Education (%)



4.2 Enrolment Rates

The Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) is a measure of the proportion of children enrolled in a schooling level, expressed as a percentage of the total number of children in the relevant age group for that education level.

The Net Enrolment Rate (NER) on the other hand measures the proportion of children enrolled in a

schooling level who belong to the relevant age group, expressed as a percentage of the total number of children in that age group.

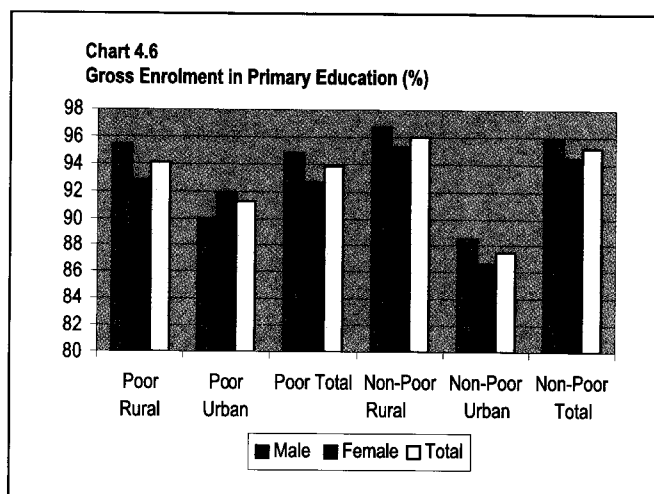
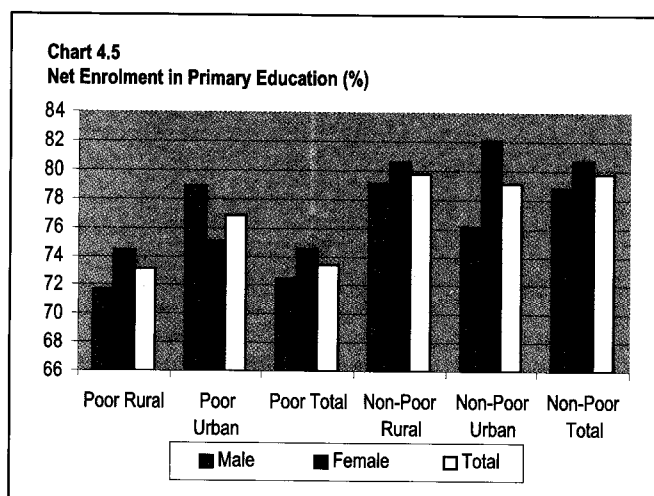
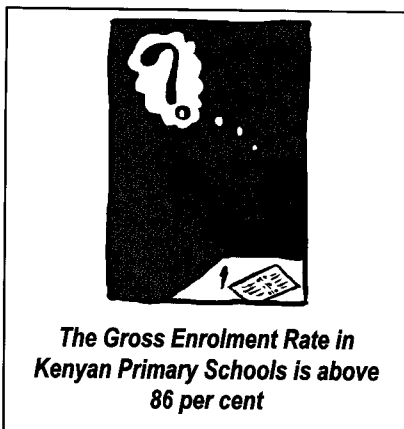
In Kenya the relevant age group for primary education is six to 13 years, and for secondary level it is 14 to 17 years.

In primary education the GER for all groups is above 86 per cent; there is a slightly greater proportion of boys from both poor and non-poor households enrolled than girls (94.8 and 95.9 per cent, compared to 92.7 and 94.4 per cent), in general the lowest figures for gross enrolment are amongst the non-poor urban.

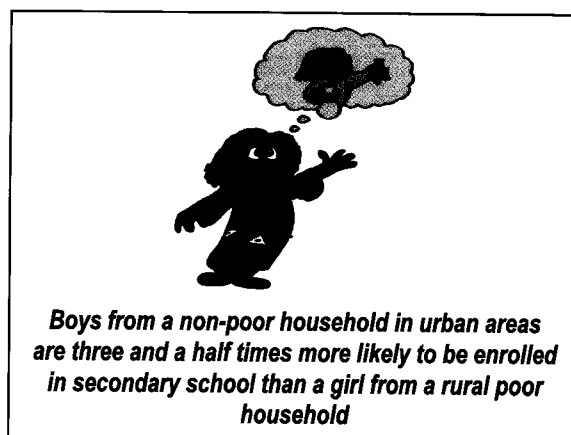
There is a difference between the NER of the poor and non-poor, in both rural and urban areas; for girls and boys the difference is generally between six and seven per cent in favour of those coming from non-poor

households. Unlike the proportions for GER, the percentage of girls in the NER is higher than boys in all cases, except amongst the urban poor, this difference is between 1.5 per cent (non-poor rural) and six per cent (non-poor urban).

The fact that there is a greater proportion of girls in the net enrolment figures, and a higher proportion of boys in the gross enrolment figure may suggest that boys are given the opportunity to repeat a year if they fail their exams, whereas girls are forced to drop-out.



In secondary education (Charts 4.7 and 4.8), the NER for the non-poor is higher than that of the poor, in fact it is almost twice as high (26 per cent compared to 13.5 per cent). There is also a substantial difference between urban and rural areas; 17 per cent of



children from urban poor households, compared to just under 13 per cent from rural poor households, are enrolled in secondary education at the right age, the figures are even more striking for the non-poor, 37.5 per cent compared to a 23.9 per cent.

While the primary enrolment rates do not show substantial differences in the NER and GER figures between boys and girls, males have a substantially higher net and gross enrolment rate amongst both the poor and non-poor, and in urban and rural areas. So much so that a male from a non-poor household living in urban areas is over three and a half times more likely to be enrolled in secondary education than a girl from a rural poor household, and over four times more likely than a girl from an urban poor household (a NER of 43.2 per cent compared to 12.5 and 9.5 per cent). This is in line with the findings of the

PPA, which discovered that some rural parents prefer to educate boys compared to girls, arguing that a girl will eventually get married and therefore need only to be prepared for that role.



Amongst those children who are not in school, the primary reason given is that the family cannot afford to pay for Childrens education.

The substantial differences in the NER and GER figures between primary and secondary levels of education indicate a high dropout rate, with a low proportion of the school going population proceeding

to secondary school, and consequently to higher levels of education — this is even more pronounced amongst girls than boys.

Chart 4.7
Gross Enrolment Rate Secondary Level (%)

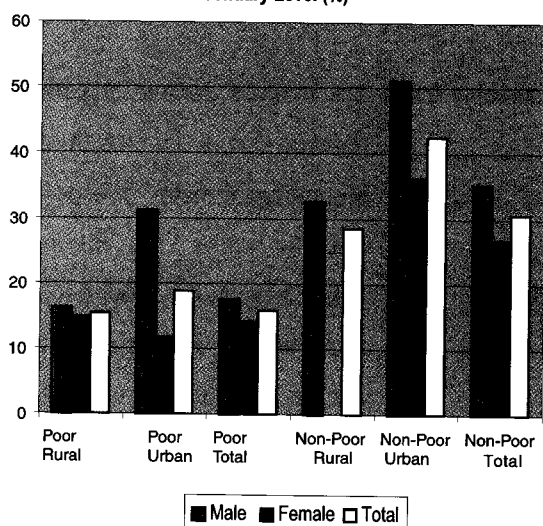
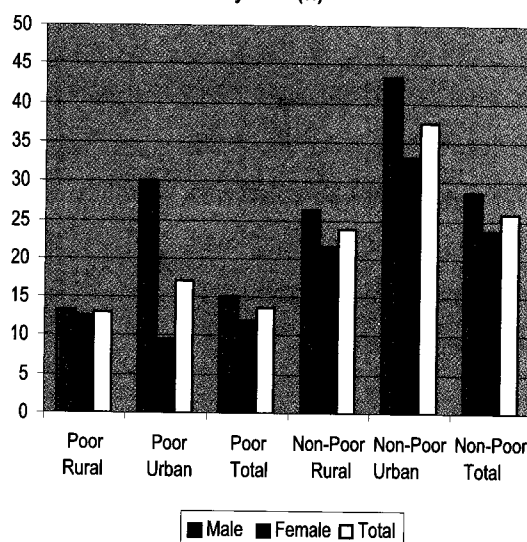


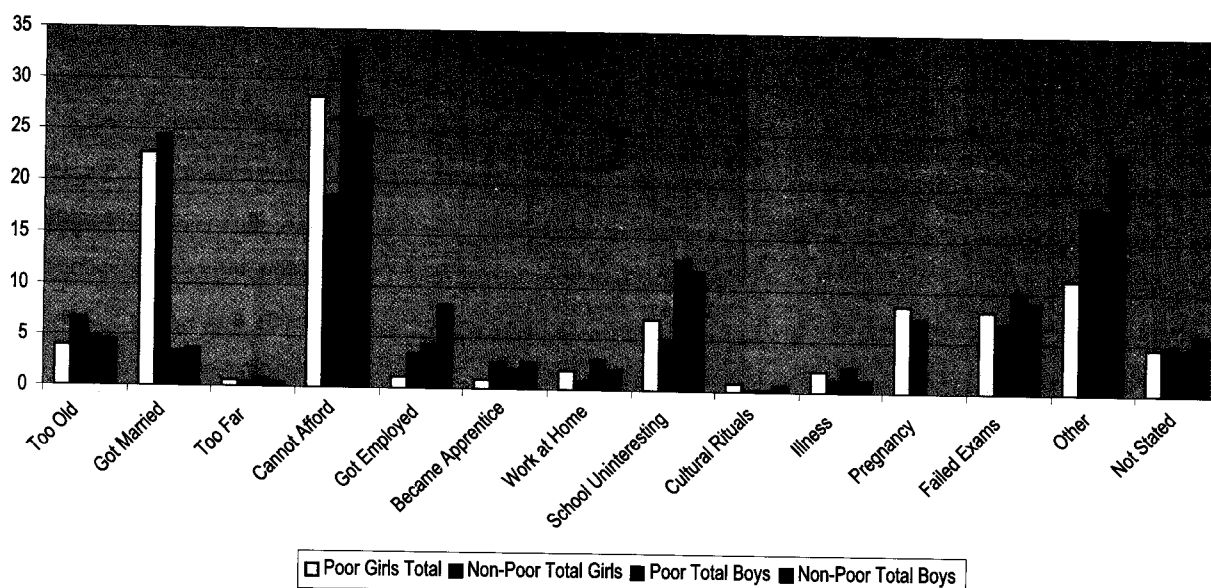
Chart 4.8
Net Enrolment Rate Secondary Level (%)



Amongst those children who are not in school, the primary reason given is that the family cannot afford to pay for Childrens education. During the PPA carried out in 1997 it was highlighted that many of the poor pointed with nostalgia to those days when the government used to provide textbooks and exercise

books for the children. Due to cost sharing many children have been forced to drop out of school. However, as Chart 4.9 shows, getting married, and falling pregnant also account for a high proportion of girls of school going age who are not in school.

Chart 4.9 Reasons for not Currently Being in School (%)



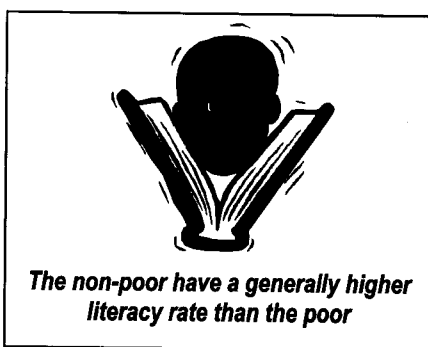
4.3 Adult Literacy

Literacy, broadly defined, is the ability of people aged 15 and above to read and write. In the WMS III the question was asked who can, with understanding/ability, read and write a short simple statement in their everyday life?

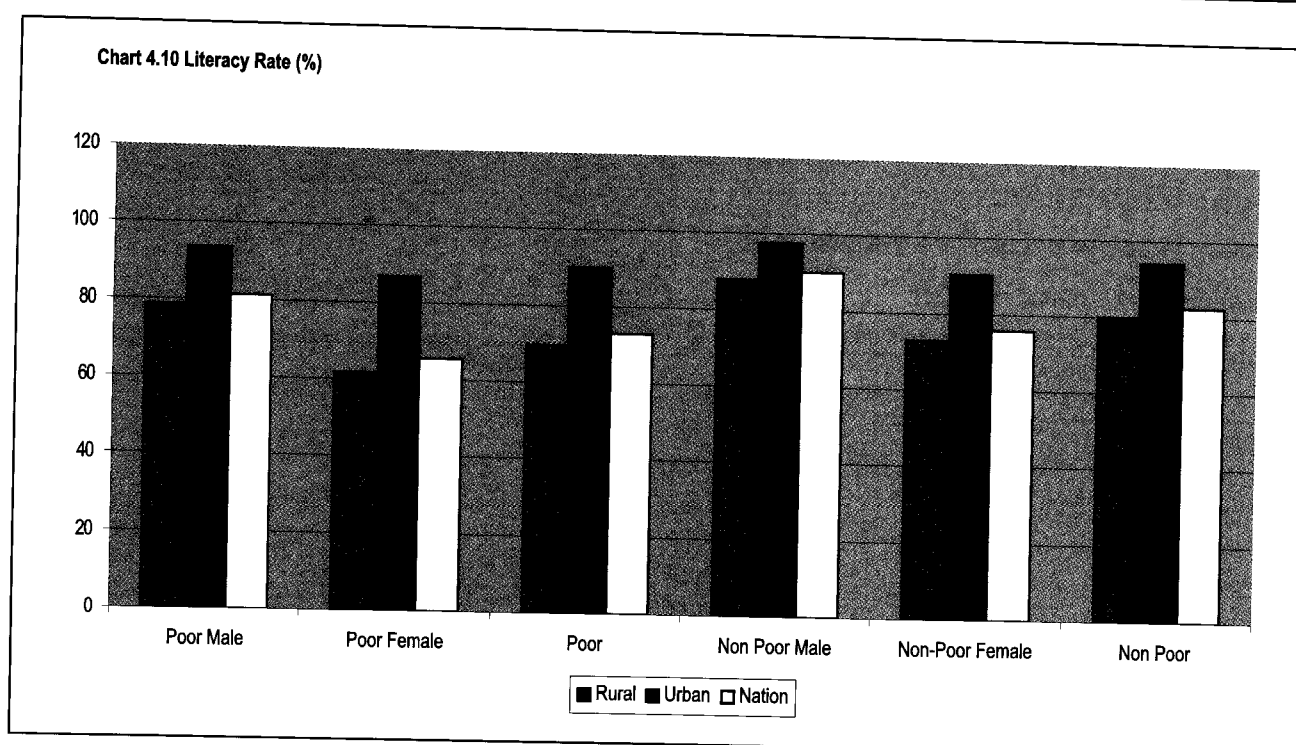
Chart 4.10 gives a representation of the literacy rates in Kenya — from this

three striking observations can be made. Firstly, the non-poor have a generally higher literacy rate than the poor (82.7 per cent compared to 73.1 per cent).

Secondly, there are marked gender disparities in literacy rates, a much higher proportion of males, irrespective of poverty status, are literate; for example while only 65.5 per cent of poor females are literate, 81.4 per cent of poor males are able to read and write.

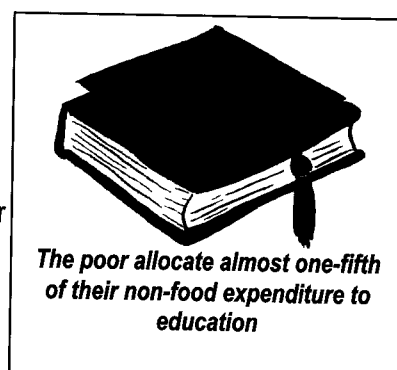


Thirdly, there are also considerable differences in all categories between those living in the urban areas (who have a higher literacy rate), and those living in the rural areas.



4.4 Expenditure on Education

Spending on education accounts for a sizeable proportion of the non-food expenditure of both poor and non-poor households. The poor in fact allocate almost one fifth (19.6 per cent) of their non-food budget to education; in rural areas this is even higher (25.5 per cent). Amongst the non-poor, while education is still the biggest single expenditure item in the non-food budget, it only accounts for 14.2 per cent of all spending (again the rural areas are higher than the urban areas, 16.5 per cent compared to 12.1 per cent).



In real terms mean annual education expenditure amongst the poor is generally lower than that of the non-poor (KShs 2,198 compared to KShs 7,386). Table 4.1 also shows that expenditures in the urban areas are in general twice that of the rural areas, the information

also indicates that households in urban areas have higher expenditures than households in rural areas on all items.

When looking at what way this expenditure is broken down, it becomes apparent that the largest single expenditure for both the poor and non-poor is on fees for secondary education, in urban and rural areas (this ranges between 34.2 per cent and 19 per cent).

Considering that primary education in public schools is free, primary school fees form a considerable proportion of expenditure for all groups. The PPA of 1997 indicated that while primary schools are generally available and physically accessible, however, most poor people have limited access because of the various financial requirements. This includes demands by

school administrations for uniforms, payment for watchmen, money for buying chalk, activity funds and other expenses.

expenditure allocated towards *Harambee* was highest amongst the rural poor, and was higher for the poor in general than the non-poor.

It is also interesting to note that the portion of

Table 4.1 Mean Annual Expenditure on Education (KShs)

	Primary Fees	Secondary Fees	Boarding	Uniform	Primary Books	Secondary Books	Transport	Harambee	Insurance	Total
Poor Rural	229	741	105	301	214	65	21	207	32	1914
Poor Urban	885	1161	166	436	268	62	166	217	36	3395
Poor Total	355	822	117	327	224	64	49	208	33	2198
Non-Poor Rural	578	2537	389	504	374	181	142	358	115	5178
Non-Poor Urban	2792	7428	8967	1040	749	343	329	1126	894	15597
Non-Poor Total	1048	3573	496	617	454	216	181	521	280	7386

Table 4.2 Distribution of Expenditure on Education (%)

	Primary Fees	Secondary Fees	Boarding	Uniform	Primary Books	Secondary Books	Transport	Harambee	Insurance	Total
Poor Rural	12.0	38.7	5.5	15.7	11.2	3.4	1.1	10.8	1.7	100
Poor Urban	26.1	34.2	4.9	12.8	7.9	1.8	4.9	6.4	1.0	100
Poor Total	16.1	37.4	5.3	14.9	10.2	2.9	2.2	9.5	1.5	100
Non-Poor Rural	11.2	49.0	7.5	9.7	7.2	3.5	2.7	6.9	2.2	100
Non-Poor Urban	17.9	47.6	5.7	6.7	4.8	2.2	2.1	7.2	5.7	100
Non-Poor Total	14.2	48.4	6.7	8.4	6.1	2.9	2.5	7.0	3.8	100

5. Food and Nutrition

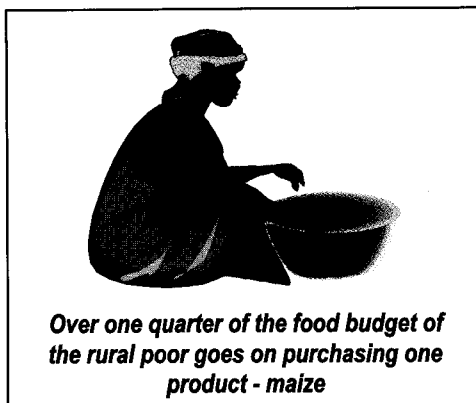
As already seen the food poverty line has been given an expenditure value which is sufficient to purchase 2250 calories per adult equivalent per day, this is the equivalent of KShs 927 per adult per month in rural areas and KShs 1,254 in urban areas in 1997. It was also seen that a very large number of people do not consume this basic amount on a daily basis -

38.3 per cent in urban areas, 50.7 per cent in rural areas and 48.7 per cent nationwide. This means that a greater proportion of the rural population is food poor, it is also apparent from the information in section two that food poverty in urban and rural areas (and therefore also nationally) has been rising.

The PPA discovered that the poor have perfected the art of seeking food in such situations of scarcity. For instance, in the event that they are unable to produce enough food, wide ranges of strategies are adopted to deal with the situation. This includes seeking food from

relatives and friends, eating at neighbours and consuming foodstuffs, which under normal circumstances they would rather avoid. It was also established during this exercise that in cases of food shortages in the household, most poor individuals may go hungry for some days until they get something to eat. In one district,

Nakuru, people felt that the theft of household goods and cattle increases when food shortages are most critical



Box 5 - Food Availability and Preparation during stressful periods (Coping Mechanisms)

"You see those few potatoes in the bag? I have just borrowed them from someone, trusting that I will repay with the work of my hands" (Mother in Nyeri)

"Women are forced or compelled to do some other evil things. Do we leave children to die?" (Rural woman in Makueni)

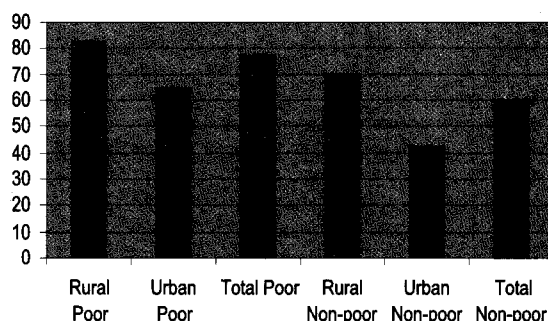
"A poor person depends on other people until he finds a way of coming up" (Key informant, Kisumu)

Source: Second Participatory Poverty Assessment in Kenya

5.1 Food Expenditure Patterns

Very large shares of the household budgets of both the poor (83 per cent) and the non-poor (70 per cent) go on food consumption. It is only among the urban non-poor that food takes less than half of the total household budget, one possible understanding of this situation is that food is costly, incomes are low and most

Chart 5.1
Expenditure on Food as a Proportion of Total Expenditure (%)



5.1). The value of food consumption among the poor was generally lower than that of the non-poor, both in rural and urban areas; the rural non-poor spend twice as much on food as the rural poor, while the urban non-poor spend 82 per cent more than the urban poor (See Chart 5.2). The observed gap could be due to differences in the quality of foods consumed, with the poor spending on relatively cheap, low quality foods while the non-poor spend heavily on more expensive foods. For instance over a quarter (27 per cent) of the rural poor food budget went to buying maize grain and maize flour, considerably greater than the amount spent on meat (7.7 per cent) and while the urban poor

spend less on maize (14 per cent), and more on meat (10 per cent of the food budget), these compare unfavourably to the expenditure patterns of the non-poor. Among the rural non-poor the share of the food budget allocated to maize consumption still featured highly (19 per cent) but meat, along with vegetables and beans, shared the second rank with about 11 per cent of the budget allocated to them. Among the urban non-poor, expenditure on meat featured prominently (14 per cent) followed by vegetables (12 per cent), with maize only being the third ranked purchase (See Chart 5.3).

Chart 5.2 Value of Total Food Consumed (KShs per household per month)

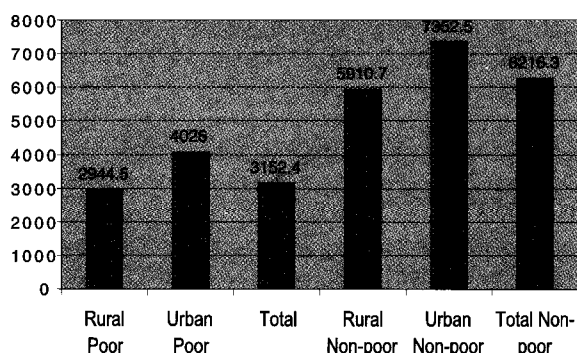
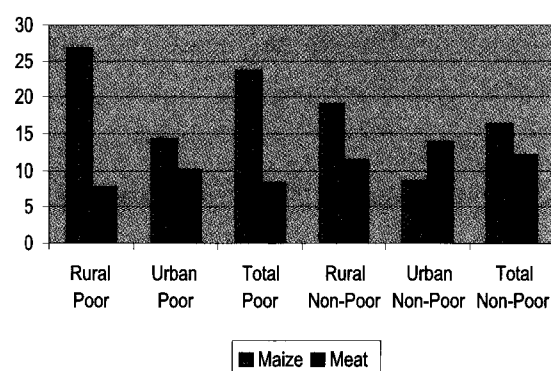


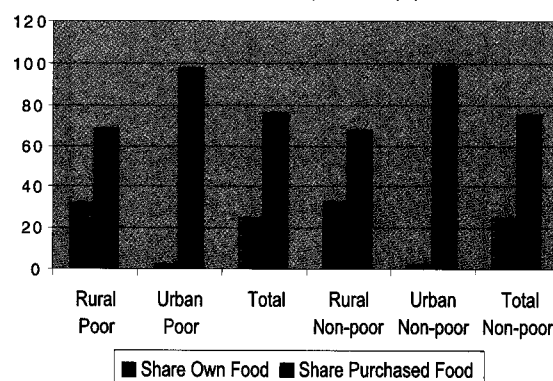
Chart 5.3 Household Food Purchases



5.2 Consumption of Own Produce

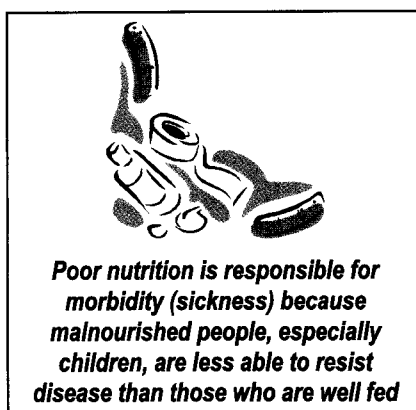
The share of self-produced food in total food expenditure amongst rural households is around 32 per cent. Although the rural non-poor spent more than twice the poor on food, their share of self-produced and purchased food is almost the same. The share of self-produced food is very minimal in urban areas where purchased food accounts for over 98 per cent of food consumed.

Chart 5.4 Share of Own Product Food In Food Expenditure (%)



While one would expect most rural households to rely more heavily on the food they produce on their own farms, particularly maize and vegetables, this is not the case. There are a number of possible reasons put forward, firstly because of large families farms have been subdivided into uneconomical portions; secondly because of lack of rains many families cultivate but fail to receive adequate harvests to sustain them. A third possibility is that rural households practice subsistence farming with little application of modern

inputs to boost production, a fourth reason may be that some districts are relying on purchased food because cash crops occupy most of the land available.^{vii}

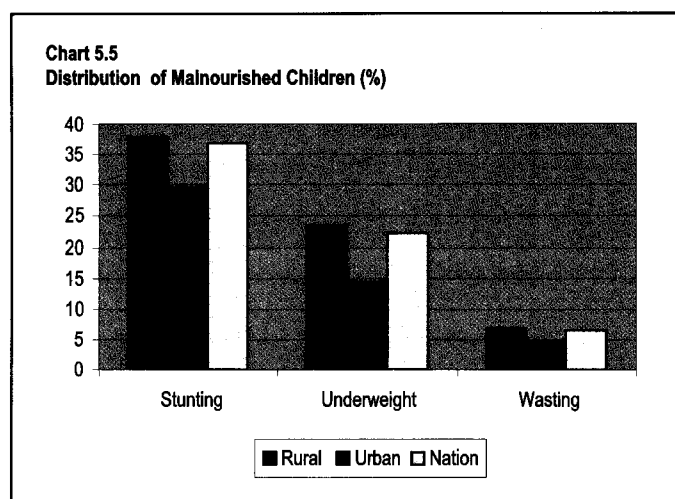


This is in line with the findings of the PPA which found that in urban areas most households rely on food purchases. The fact that the rural economy is moving towards a similar system is a cause for concern as it is ill prepared to sustain this practice.

5.3 Child Nutrition and Food Poverty

Studies have shown that nutritional status is usually associated with food intake, which, as was shown in the previous section, is dependent on income. Thus, where the incidence of poverty is very high, malnutrition is more likely to be high. Poor nutrition is also responsible for morbidity, because malnourished people are less able to resist disease than those that are well fed.

Among children, nutritional status is a sensitive indicator of health and well being. Poor nutritional status is a result of complex interactions of many factors, for example lack of access to adequate and balanced diets, poor sanitary conditions, inadequate health care and safe water supply. In children, especially those below the age of five, malnutrition leads to poor physical and mental development and increases the risk of death due to the resultant weak immunity against infection.



There are three measures, which are generally used to monitor childrens nutrition levels — **stunting**(which measures height for age and is an indicator of a cumulative growth deficit resulting from chronic inadequate food intake or prolonged ill health), **wasting** (which measures weight for height and reflects recent or acute under nutrition) and **underweight** (which measures weight for age and is a mixture of the other two).

Children in urban households displayed a lower prevalence of malnutrition for the three nutritional status indicators, for example in rural areas, 38 per cent of the children who were surveyed were stunted while in urban areas 29.5 per cent were stunted.

As expected, at national level stunting levels are highest (42.3 per cent) for children belonging to the food poor households and a higher proportion of children from food poor households (26.3 per cent) were underweight than children from non-food poor households (19.3 per cent).

While it is clear that children of rural food poor households suffer a higher prevalence of stunting, underweight and wasting compared to the urban households, it is also interesting to note that in urban areas there is a significant proportion of children in non-food poor households who are malnourished. The relatively higher prevalence of wasting amongst the non-food poor could be due to transitory food insecurity, child morbidity, such as diarrhoea, and caring capacity.

Chart 5.6
Child Malnutrition (%)

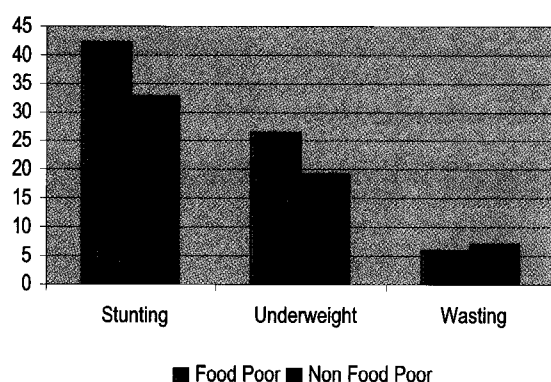
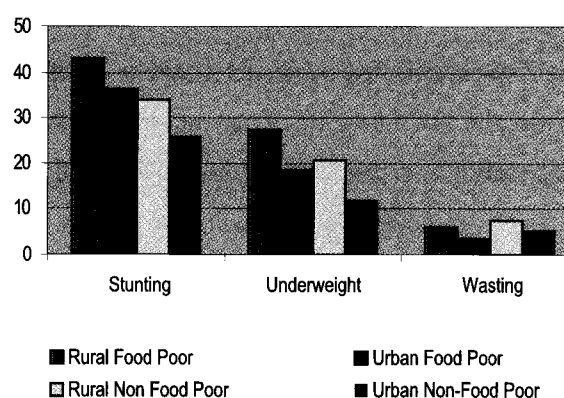


Chart 5.7
Distribution of Malnourished Children (%)

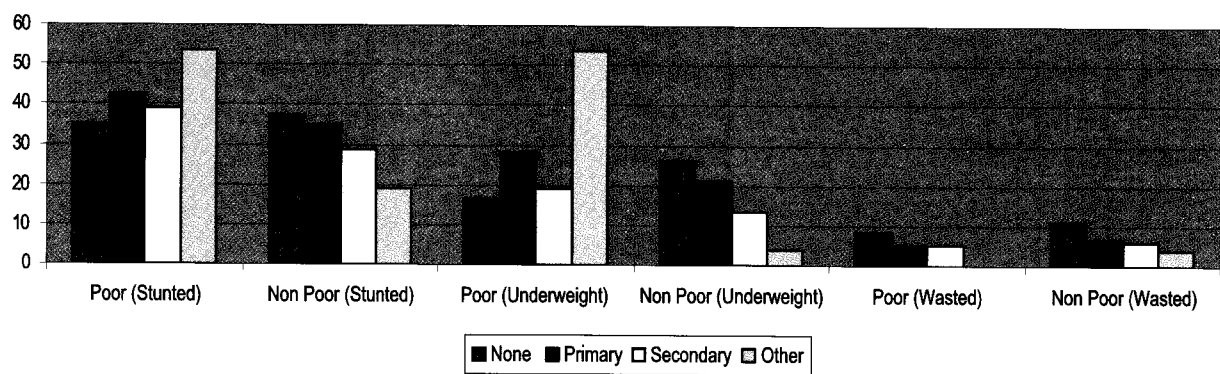


5.4 The Impact of the Level of Education of the Household Head on Child Malnutrition

Among the non food poor households, as the level of education of the household head increase the proportion of malnourished children decreases, however for the food poor no clear trend emerges, suggesting that other factors are more important as causes for malnutrition. Non- food poor heads that have

primary education have lower prevalence of child malnutrition (35.1 per cent) compared to the food poor household heads (42.5 per cent). Heads with secondary education depicted lower child malnutrition rates for the non-poor (28.8 per cent) compared to the food poor with 39.1 per cent.

Table 5.8 Child Nutrition by Education Level of Household Head



6. Housing

Housing is a basic need of the population and contributes significantly to better living standards and household welfare — quality of housing is perhaps more important than ownership status, particularly in urban areas where over 80 per cent of the non-poor and 76 per cent of the poor rent their dwellings, clearly different to the rural areas where 95 per cent of the poor and 83.5 per cent of the non-poor own their dwellings.

Housing carrying capacity is essential in determining the level of crowding — the number of rooms gives an indication of the size of the dwelling, and the number of people sleeping in the main house also gives an

indication of whether there is crowding or not. While a higher proportion of the non-poor live in houses of three rooms and more, dwellings in rural areas are on average bigger and less crowded than those in urban areas. Information available on the number of persons sleeping in the main room shows that there is generally more overcrowding in poor households, who exhibit a larger number of persons sleeping in the main room (See Charts 6.1 and 6.2).

Chart 6.1
Number of Rooms

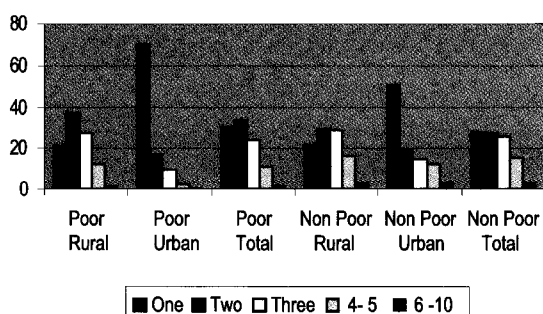
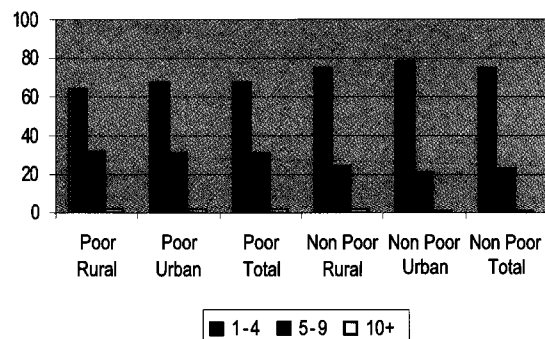


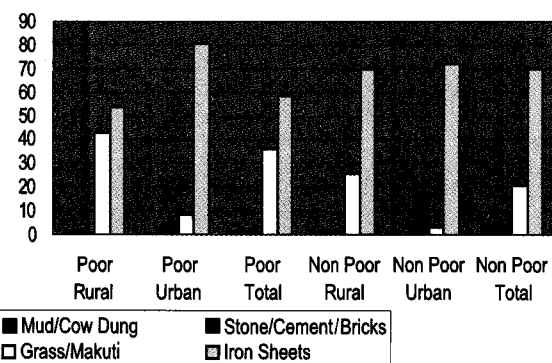
Chart 6.2
Number Sleeping in the Main Room



The types of material used in construction determines the quality and durability of the house, and is often region and culture specific — climate in particular is an important factor, as is the income status of the household.

The most common materials used for roofing by both the poor and the non-poor are iron sheets and grass/makuti — there is a higher percentage of the non-poor with iron sheet materials (70.1 per cent opposed to 58.7 per cent of the poor), and a higher proportion of

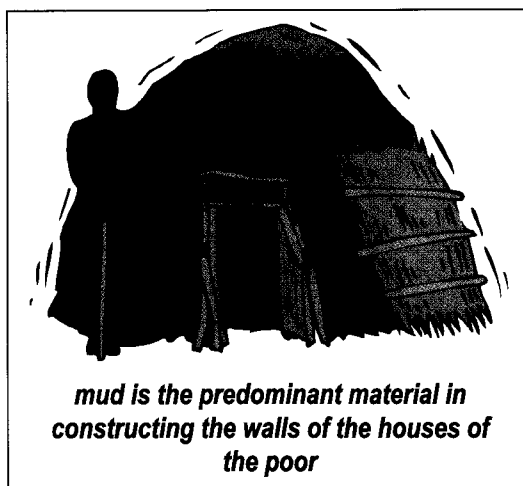
Chart 6.3
Roofing Materials (%)



poor households have grass/makuti roofs. It is only really in urban areas that Stone/Cement/Bricks is a material used for roofing, and the non-poor are three times more likely to utilise this material than the poor (17.8 per cent compared to 5.4 per cent).

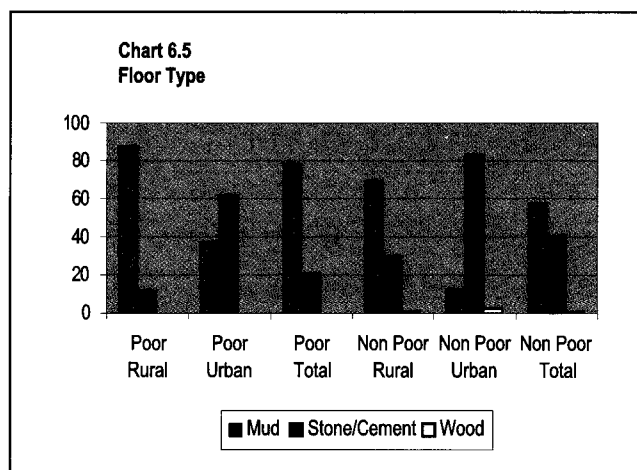
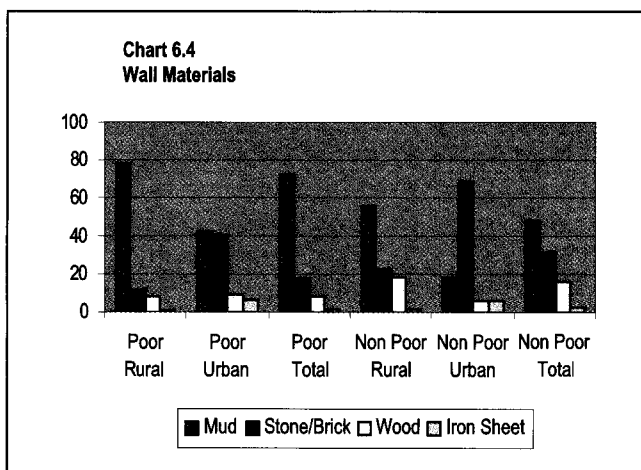
There is a strong urban / rural divide in the type of material used in the construction of house walls — for instance while 42.8 per cent of the urban poor live in houses constructed of

mud/cow dung, in rural areas the figure accounts for 78 per cent, however this is still the predominant building material amongst the poor in urban areas. Bricks and stones are more common amongst the non-poor in the urban areas, accounting for 68.4 per cent of walls; only 18 per cent of the urban non-poor had houses made of mud (See Chart 6.4).



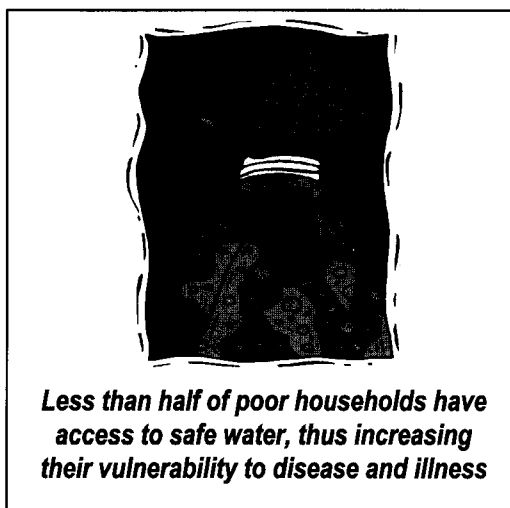
Mud floors are the most common for both the poor and non-poor, however there is a difference between houses in rural and urban areas, and between the poor and non-poor. Amongst the poor in rural areas, 87.7 per cent of dwellings have mud floors, whereas amongst the poor in urban areas this figure is only 37.9 per cent, the predominant type of flooring amongst this group is stone/cement (61.7 per cent). Amongst the non-poor in rural areas the figure falls to 69

per cent of dwellings with mud floors — almost 30 per cent of dwellings in this category have floors constructed of stone / cement. In urban areas the non-poor mainly have stone / cement floors (83.1 per cent) ,only one in eight of urban non-poor (12.6 per cent) live in mud floored dwellings (See Chart 6.5).



7. Water and Sanitation

Water scarcity accentuates poverty by directly limiting peoples access to a basic necessity and indirectly limiting access to food and employment. From a gender perspective, the burden of inadequate and unsafe water and poor sanitation is borne by women and girls who have to fetch water for domestic use, irrigation and livestock. This reduces the opportunity for women to participate in the formal labour markets. Improving access to water will also have the benefit of freeing up time and energy for girls to attend school.

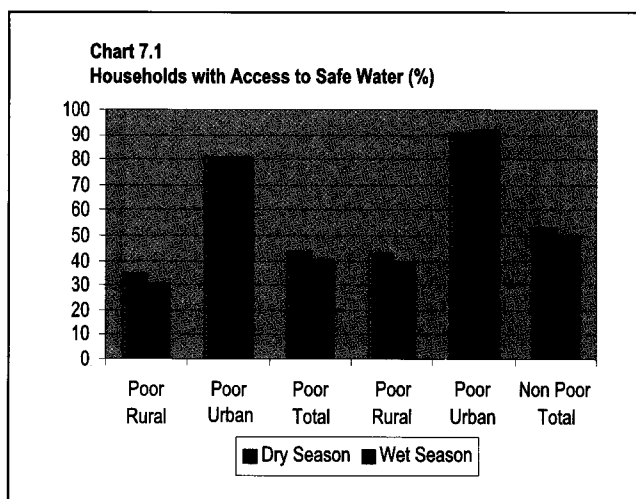


Improved household and community water security, safe environmental sanitation and better hygienic practices are among the most effective approaches of minimising the transmission of and exposure to pathogens and wastes in and around communities and households. When access to water and sanitation is sub-optimal, levels of disease, mortality and morbidity in a population are likely to be high.

7.1 The Main Source of Water

Safe water includes piped water in compound, water from public outdoor taps and boreholes and water from protected wells; on the other hand unsafe water includes unprotected wells and rainwater, lakes, rivers and ponds, water from vendors and trucks. At national level the proportion of non-poor household who have access to safe water is higher than amongst non-poor households. Households in urban areas also have better access (by a ratio of almost two to one) to safe water than households in rural areas (See Chart 7.1). It is perhaps somewhat surprising that there are no major seasonal differences with regard to access to safe water.

When the actual sources of water are examined in more detail, it is again apparent that there is no major



seasonal difference in the sources of water between the poverty groups, except in rural areas, when households rely on rain water more during the wet season, and change this to using rivers, lakes and ponds during the dry season (See Charts 7.2 and 7.3).

There are however significant disparities in sources of water between urban and rural areas — during the dry season for instance the most common sources of water in rural areas are unprotected wells, rain water and rivers, lakes and ponds, while the most important sources in urban areas are piped water in compound and public outdoor taps and boreholes.

water in compound (23 per cent compared to 12.7 per cent), whereas the opposite is true for dependence on unprotected wells, rainwater, rivers, lakes and ponds (the water sources for 54.8 per cent of the poor compared to 46.9 per cent of the non-poor).

There are also differences between poor and non-poor households. In the wet season more non-poor households than poor households depend on piped

Chart 7.2 The Non-Poors Sources of Water (%)

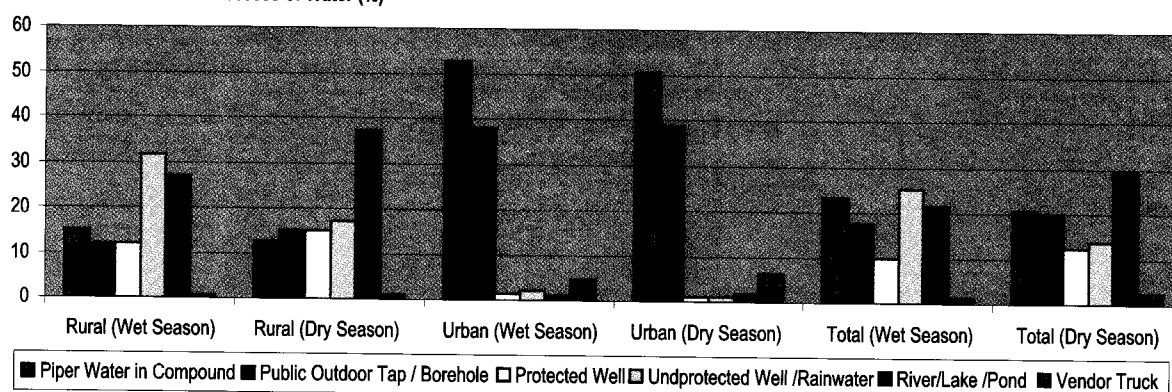
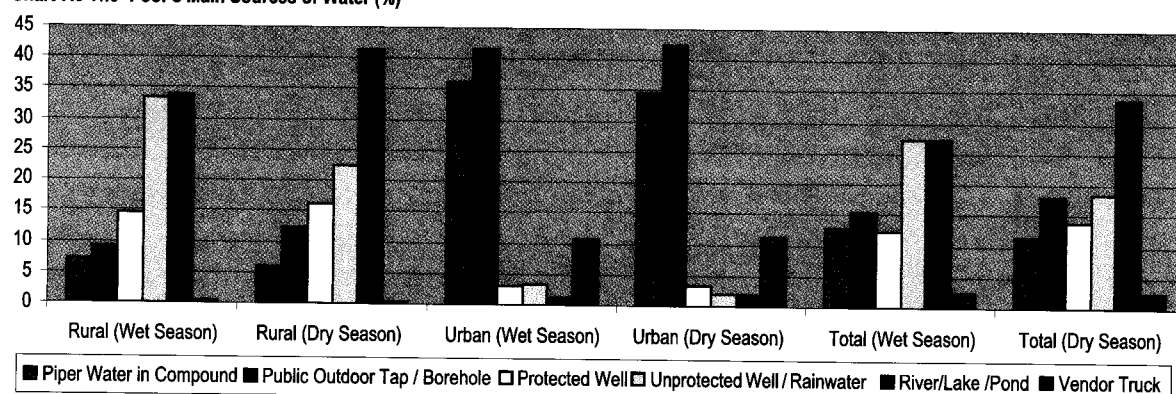


Chart 7.3 The -Poor's Main Sources of Water (%)



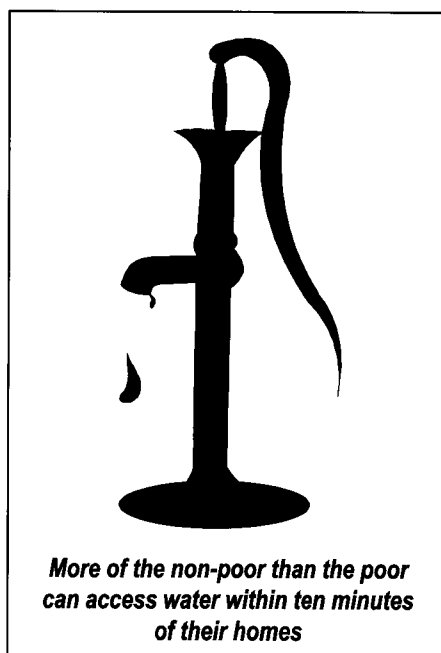
7.2 Time taken to Collect Water

The time taken to collect water is a good measurement of the distributional aspects and the adequacy of the

water supply. From a poverty perspective, time taken to collect water is an indicator of the extent to which

human resources are spent in the search for the most basic of commodities.

During the dry season, almost 80 per cent of the population nationally are able to collect water in less than 30 minutes — however when this is broken down further much more of the non-poor (almost 36 per cent) can access water within ten minutes of their home, compared to the poor (23 per cent). In rural areas this disparity is even more pronounced, 25.5 per cent of non-poor households can collect water in less than ten minutes, whereas only 14.2 per cent of poor households are able to.



During the wet season about 93 per cent of the population can access water in less than 30 minutes, yet again though the difference between the poor and

non-poor is significant, with over half the non-poor households being able to access water in less than ten minutes, with just over one third of poor households being able to do this. There is also a significant urban — rural difference, for instance amongst the poor, 64.9 per cent of households in rural areas could access water in less than ten minutes, the corresponding figure for the rural households was 26.2 per cent, these figures are reflected amongst the non-poor.

Chart 7.4 Time Taken to Collect Water-Dry Season

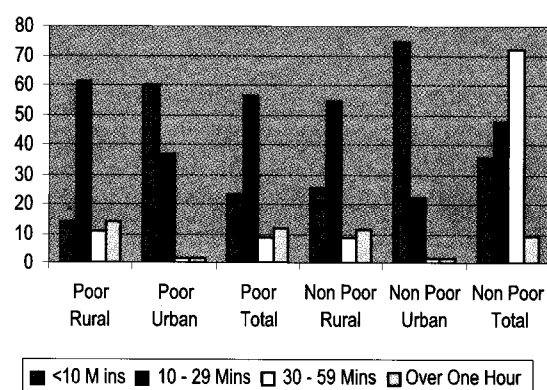
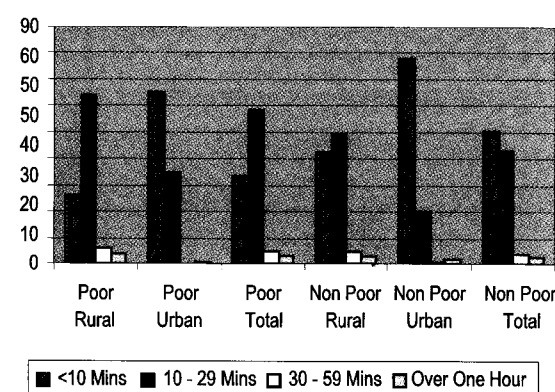


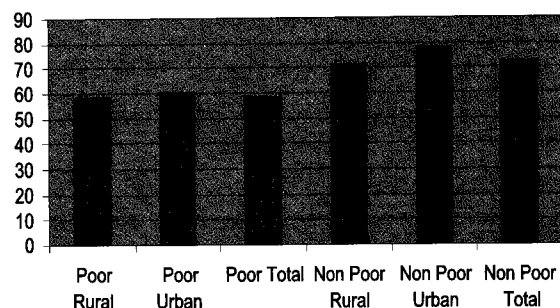
Chart 7.5 Time Taken to Collect Water-Wet-Season



7.3 Sanitation

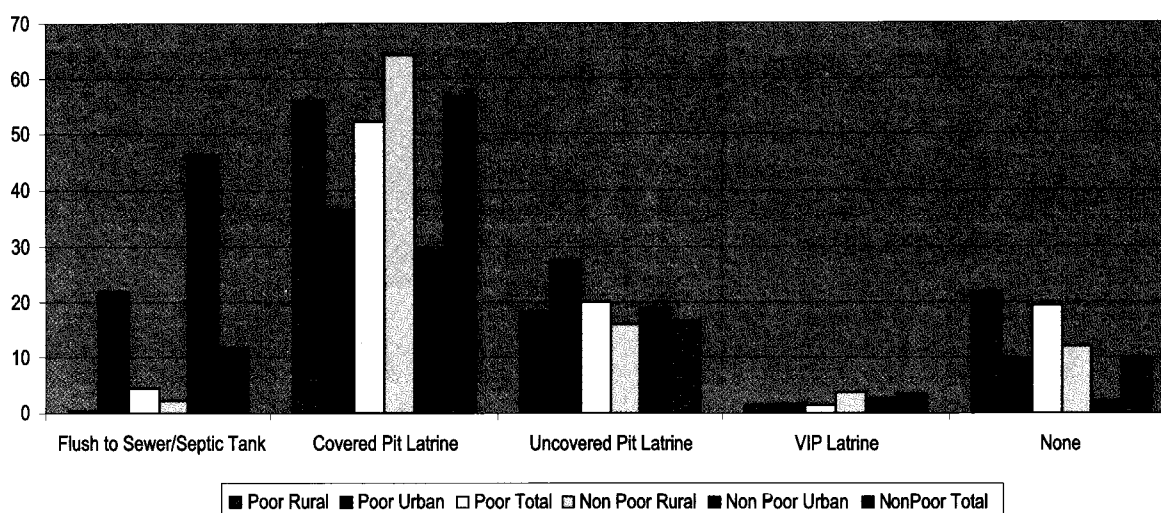
Safe sanitation includes the use of flush toilets, covered pit latrines and Ventilated Improved Pit (VIP) latrines for waste disposal; unsafe sanitation includes the use of a pan or bucket, uncovered pit latrines and "other" or "no" means of waste disposal. At the national level non-poor households (72.2 per cent) have better access to safe sanitation than poor households (58.3 per cent), and urban households have better access to safe sanitation than households in rural areas. Over 70 per cent of poor households use covered and uncovered pit latrines, and nearly one fifth of houses have no toilet facilities. Among the non-poor households the two most important ways of waste disposal are uncovered and covered pit latrines, it is a little bit surprising that such

Chart 7.6 Households with Access to Safe Sanitation (%)



as high number of non-poor households in the rural areas do not have access to safe sanitation. Flush toilets are the preserve of the urban population.

Chart 7.7 Type of Toilet Used (%)



8. Land Holding

During the PPA of 1997 land was perceived to be scarce in all districts. It was further pointed out that those who have no land have the ambition to have some in the long run — the goal for almost everybody, including those with plots of land in urban areas, is to own a shamba. In this sense the PPA sees land as having more than an economic value, it is a social and almost spiritual entity.

During the PPA few poor households reported owning large land parcels, and it was observed that most poor households own no land at all, seriously disadvantaging their strategies to earn a livelihood. This differs from the results of the analysis of the WMS which shows that in terms of mean land holding size, the differences between the poor and non-poor is not particularly large

—nationwide the mean total land holding size for the poor is 3.8 acres, while for the non-poor it is slightly higher at 4.1 acres (See Chart 8.1)

Chart 8.1 Mean Land Holding Sizes (Acres)

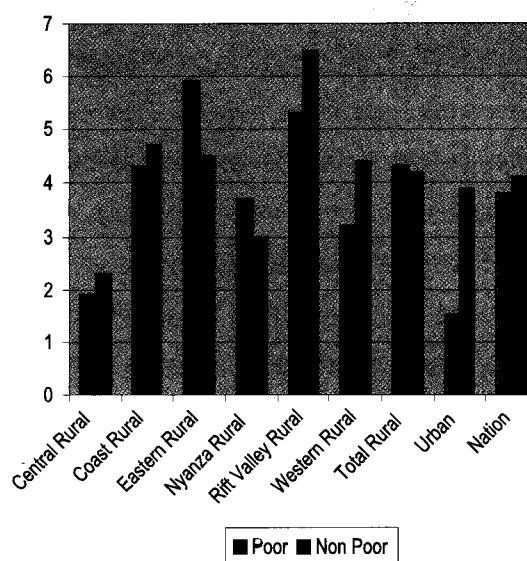


Chart 8.2 Distribution of Land Holding Size among the Poor (Acres)

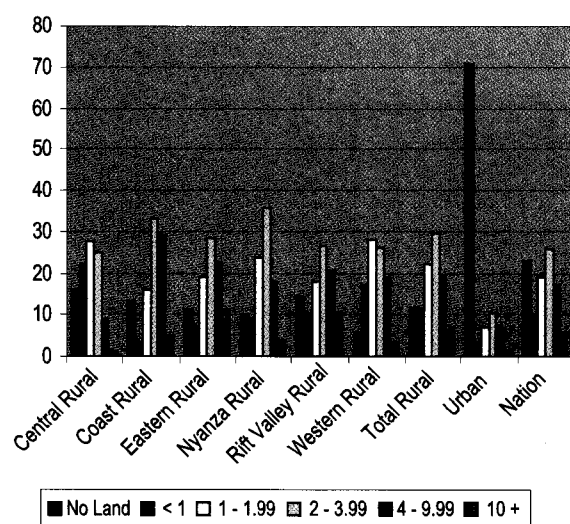
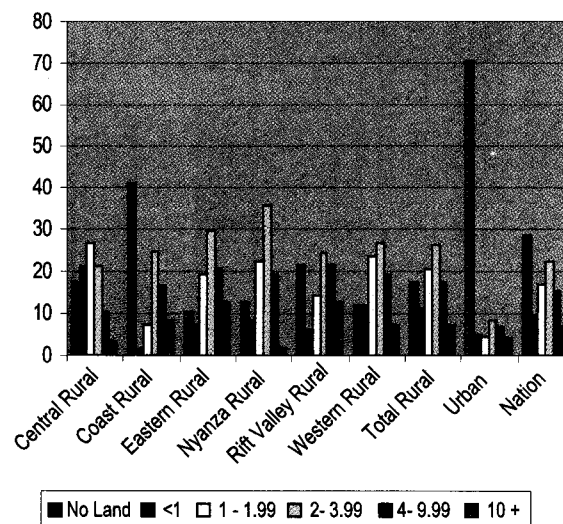


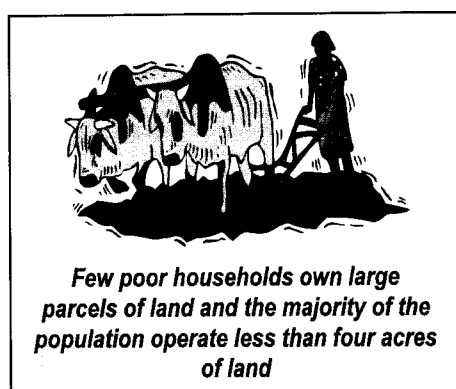
Chart 8.3 : Distribution of Land Holding Size among the Non Poor (Acres)



Land holdings, defined as land owned or operated by a household either under crops or livestock rearing, vary in size across districts, for instance land holding sizes amongst the poor in Eastern Rural are 5.9 acres on

average, but are as low as 1.9 acres amongst the poor in Central Rural (See Charts 8.2 and 8.3). Nationwide 22.8 per cent of the poor and 28.6 per cent of the non-poor operate no land, and perhaps not surprisingly

there is a big difference between rural (11.5 per cent of the poor and 17.3 per cent of the non-poor) and urban (70.6 per cent of the poor and 70.5 per cent of the non-poor) dwellers who have no land. The majority of both the poor and non-poor (70.7 per cent and 72.7 per cent) own / operate less than four acres of land, however more of the non-poor (6.9 per cent) than the poor (5.6 per cent) own / operate more than 10 acres of land.



their district of residence (over 90 per cent amongst the non-poor), it is also interesting to note that the non-poor in Nairobi have the third highest mean landholding size

in the country at 5.7 acres, after the non-poor in Rift Valley Rural (6.5 acres) and poor in Eastern Rural (5.9 acres).

Further compounding the problem of poverty and land ownership the PPA asserts that land is used by

At the provincial level, the data shows that for the poor and non-poor the Rift Valley rural and Eastern Rural have the largest mean landholding sizes. Land managed by the urban dwellers is generally outside

the poor in such a way that they usually have little or no inherited land and tend to sell the little land they have in order to meet the major expenses relating to school fees, illness or death.

Table 8.1 Mean Land Holding Sizes (Acres)

	Poor (In the District)	Poor (Outside the District)	Poor (Total)	Non-Poor (In the District)	Non-Poor (Outside the District)	Non-Poor (Total)
Central Rural	1.7	0.2	1.9	1.9	0.4	2.3
Coast Rural	4	0.3	4.3	4.2	0.5	4.7
Eastern Rural	5.8	0.1	5.9	4.3	0.2	4.5
Nyanza Rural	3.5	0.2	3.7	2.8	0.2	3.0
Rift Valley Rural	4.8	0.5	5.3	5.6	0.9	6.5
Western Rural	2.9	0.3	3.2	3.9	0.5	4.4
Total Rural	4.0	0.3	4.3	3.7	0.5	4.2
Nairobi	0.1	1.6	1.7	0.0	5.7	5.7
Total Urban	0.3	1.2	1.5	0.3	3.6	3.9
Nation	3.3	0.5	3.8	3	1.1	4.1

Source: Government of Kenya (2000) Second Report on Poverty in Kenya: Volume II — Poverty and Social Indicators

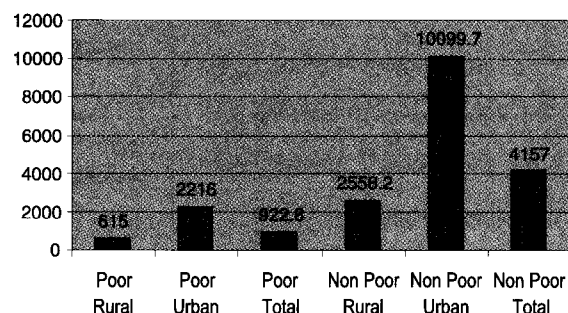
9. Expenditure and Ownership of Assets

9.1 Expenditure Patterns

In Kenya expenditure is used instead of income to measure poverty because it is easier to obtain reliable information on expenditure in surveys where people are asked to recall information, than it is to gather information on income. Income may be under reported accidentally or on purpose, particularly if people fear that it will be relayed to the tax authorities, or used as a means of excluding them from possible benefits.

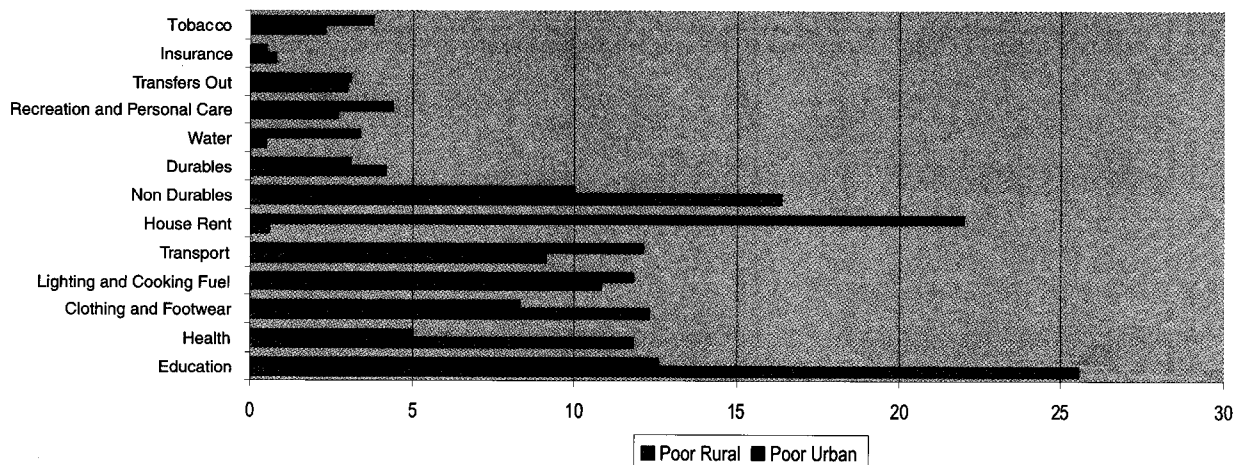
As already shown in section five a sizeable proportion of total expenditure in households in Kenya goes on food, leaving a smaller amount for non-food items. There is a marked difference between the poor and non-poor in terms of actual amounts of money spent, and also between urban and rural areas; non-poor rural households spend four times as much as the rural poor on non-food items, while the non-poor urban households in turn spend almost four times as much as non-poor rural households (See Chart 9.1).

Chart 9.1 Value of Non-Food Expenditure (KShs per household per month)



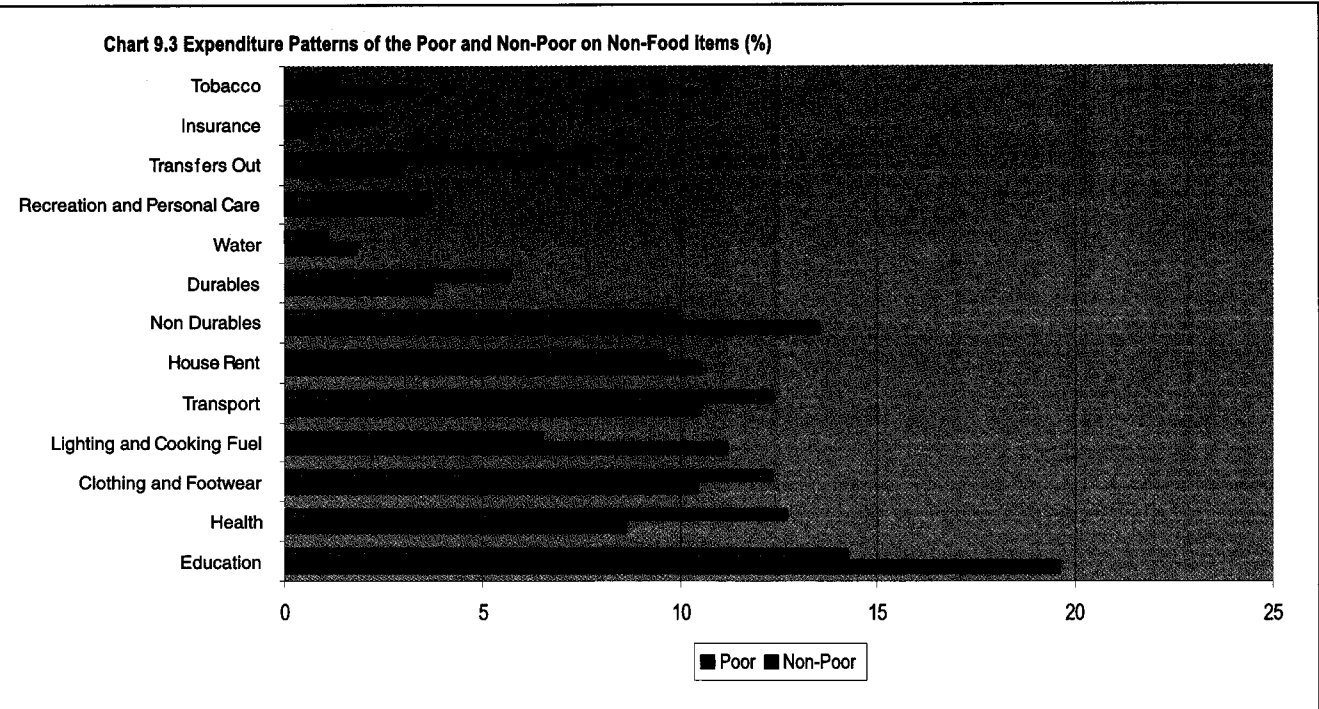
Five items account for over three quarters of the non-food budget of rural poor households, these are education, non-durables, clothing and footwear, health and lighting and cooking fuel. These items only account for about 48 per cent of the expenditure of the urban poor, but house rents, which the rural poor do not generally have to pay, account for by far the biggest proportion of their expenditure (22 per cent). The breakdown of how the little money available to the poor is spent is presented in Chart 9.2 below.

Chart 9.2 Expenditure Patterns of the Poor on Non Food Items (%)



One of the main basic necessities identified as being a component of poverty was clothing — yet the figures show that on average, even though a poor household in rural areas gives over one eighth of its non-food expenditure to this item, they can still only spend KShs

76 a month on this, in comparison a non-poor urban household, who still attribute a high proportion of their income to expenditure on clothing (10.2 per cent) manage to spend KShs 1030 per month on such items.

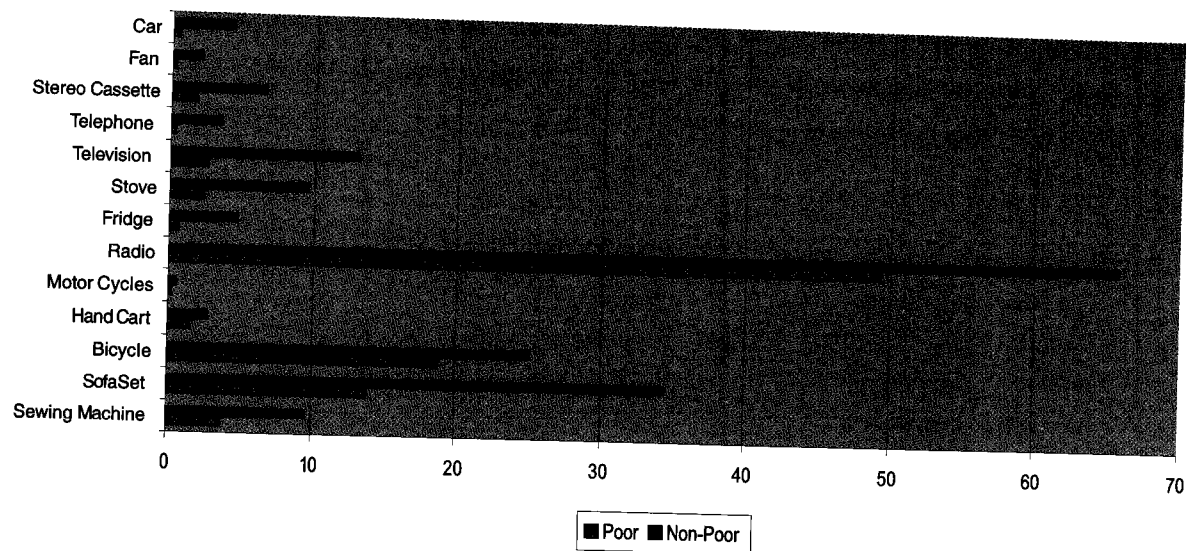


9.2 Ownership of Assets

Ownership of certain assets is considered as an indication of a household's socio economic status, this can however be region or community specific (like housing), and may also be based on tastes and preferences. However the WMS III shows that more of the non-poor own each of the assets selected than the poor. Radios are the most commonly owned asset, the second and third ranked assets are bicycles and sofa sets. In general the urban poor own more assets than the rural poor — however some of the differences, such as the fact that more rural poor own bicycles, may be a reflection of the practicalities of daily life.

In the case of the non-poor, there are wide margins in ownership of assets between rural and urban households, with a higher proportion of the urban non-poor owning each of the assets in question, except handcarts and bicycles. Ownership of televisions in general is low, but five times more non-poor own television than the poor — not only a reflection of affordability, but also the availability of electricity (See Chart 9.4).

Chart 9.4 Ownership of Assets (%)



10. Government Response to Poverty

Since Independence in 1963 poverty eradication has been the main objective of Kenya's development policy. The first development plan (1966) highlighted ignorance, disease and misery as being major obstacles to development and called for their eradication. However as the preceding chapters show poverty is still widespread and severe.

In 1999 the Government of Kenya introduced the **National Poverty Eradication Plan (1999 — 2015)** to provide a national policy and institutional framework for action against poverty in Kenya. It was felt that the NPEP

signals the Government's determination to address the poverty challenge not only as a political necessity and moral obligation, but also on grounds of sound economic principles that recognise the critical role and potential contribution of the poor to national development"

The plan has three major components, each with a framework for further action by government, civil society, the private sector and donor partners

(1) **A Charter for Social Integration:** This charter sets out the rights and responsibilities of citizens, communities, businesses, civil society organisations and policy makers; and sets an enabling environment for pro-poor policies and planning. Recognition of the right to literacy and numeracy, health and freedom from preventable disease, sufficient food and clean water, freedom from injustice and physical and mental harm for all citizens are central elements of the charter. Clear sector targets for poverty eradication have to be set, and followed up on, by the responsible ministries

and laws and regulations have to be reviewed regularly to ensure that they do not handicap the disadvantaged and low-income groups. This is expected to lead to major improvements in the supply and accessibility of essential services for the poor.

(2) **Improved Access to essential services by low income households:** The NPEP recognised that low income households lack basic health, education and safe drinking water, and outlined how by 2015 this shall be overcome through the provision of Universal Primary Education, improved access to Mother and Child Health Service Centres and universal coverage in Basic Social Services (primary education, preventive health care, food security and water and sanitation).

(3) **A strategy for broad based economic growth:** The plan estimates that to provide these social services would require an economic growth rate of six per cent per annum, and this growth will have to be equitable, sustainable and broad based, with a particular emphasis on small scale agriculture, rural small business and micro-enterprise.

Key among the tools that the NPEP intends to utilise are a **Poverty Eradication Budget (PEB)** which should appear as a single item in the national budget for passing on to operational units in the sectoral ministries and other agencies, according to agreed priorities for poverty reduction. Secondly, the **Ring Fencing** of at least ten per cent of the budget of sectoral ministries for poverty eradication initiatives, and finally the establishment of an **Anti Poverty Trust Fund (APTF)** outside the government machinery to

mobilise and utilise resources on visible poverty reduction initiatives.

The NPEP is to be implemented over three phases: the first phase (1999 - 2004); second phase (2005 — 2010); and final phase (2011 — 2015), and that by 2004, the numbers living in Absolute Poverty would be reduced by 20 per cent.

The first phase corresponds to the countrys ***Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper 2000 — 2003***, which was launched in June 2000, and stated that

The primary development goal for Kenya is to achieve a broad-based, sustainable improvement in the standards of welfare for all Kenyans.

The I-PRSP states that the poor must be provided with the means to help themselves through income earning opportunities, ready access to means of production, the provision of affordable, basic services and the protection of the law. It further says that this cannot be achieved through short term relief measures but requires a deliberate and long term policy to increase equity of opportunity.

The I-PRSP relies heavily on the fact that a fundamental prerequisite for poverty reduction is economic growth that considerably outpaces population growth. The immediate objective of the I-PRSP is the restoration of sustained rapid economic growth in order to generate the wealth and economic expansion necessary to reduce the incidence of poverty. At the same time a number of targeted short term measures to directly address some critical causes and manifestations of poverty will be undertaken.

The I-PRSP has five basic components and policy objectives

(1) To Facilitate Sustained and Rapid Economic

Growth: Macroeconomic policy will be aimed at increasing real per capita GDP growth by at least three per cent a year, keeping inflation below five per cent, gradually increasing foreign exchange reserves, maintaining the current account deficit at sustainable levels, reducing the domestic debt burden and interest rates, improving allocation of resources and providing assistance to the private sector.

(2) To Improve Governance and Security: Key components of achieving rapid economic growth are improved governance to create an enabling environment for the private sector, improving security and infrastructure. The main focus of the interventions on the governance side will be on enhancing accountability and transparency; strengthening oversight bodies; strengthening budget planning and execution; changing the incentive structure for potential participants in corruption, and removing rent seeking opportunities.

(3) To Increase the Ability of the Poor to Raise their

Incomes: The I-PRSP recognises that the poor will be ill-placed to take advantage of economic growth unless deliberate interventions are put in place to increase their opportunities and access to the resources, and skills required for them to move out of the poverty trap. The most immediate concerns for government action are identified as - dismantling intrusive, restrictive and outmoded laws and regulation, while maintaining protection for workers, society and the environment; creating an effective agricultural advisory service; establishing an effective and efficient private marketing system for

agricultural produce; promoting rural non-farm employment; rehabilitate and maintain infrastructure; implement widespread public works schemes; and overcoming the existing power problems.

(4) To Improve the Quality of Life of the Poor: This revolves around the provision of basic social services for the poor, in a manner that involves a closer working relationship with development NGOs, religious organisations and other private providers to increase the range and quality of product. The main areas of focus are improving primary school enrolment and completion; enabling more children to attend secondary school; providing all public primary healthcare facilities with an appropriate and adequate supply of drugs, and making these affordable to the poor; increasing the provision of potable water in poor areas, while preparing for the privatisation of water supply in the urban areas.

(5) To Improve Equity and Participation: Government considers that improved equity and participation are the key to tackling emerging issues of social unrest and crime, and thereby ensuring continuance of order and social justice. These are seen as cross cutting issues and improving equity and participation need to be considered in the implementation of all policies and the setting of all priorities.

Appendix 1: Overview of Key Poverty Indicators

Poverty Lines

(i) Absolute Poverty

	Poverty Line Value (KShs)	Adult Equivalents Below Poverty Line (%)
Rural	1,239	52.9
Urban	2,648	49.0
Nation		52.3

(ii) Food Poverty

	Poverty Line Value (Food Consumption in KShs)	Adult Equivalents Below Poverty Line (%)
Rural	927	50.7
Urban	1,254	38.3
Nation		48.7

(iii) Hardcore Poverty

	Poverty Line Value (KShs)	Adult Equivalents Below Poverty Line (%)
Rural	927	34.8
Urban	1,254	7.6
Nation		33.7

Access to Health Facilities in Under 30 Minutes

	Dispensary (%)	Doctor (%)	Hospital (%)
Rural Poor	35.7	17.0	7.2
Rural Non-Poor	43.3	21.9	10.4
Urban Poor	88.4	86.8	4.8
Urban Non-Poor	88.3	87.5	52.1
Total Poor	45.8	30.4	15.1
Total Non-Poor	52.9	35.9	19.2

Education Level of the Population

	No Education (%)	Primary Education (%)	Secondary Education (%)	Tertiary Education (%)
Rural Poor	27.6	63.5	8.8	0.2
Rural Non-Poor	20.2	60.2	18.7	0.9
Urban Poor	12.9	60.6	23.6	2.9
Urban Non-Poor	8.1	40.6	42.9	8.5
Total Poor	25.4	63.1	10.9	0.6
Total Non-Poor	18.2	57.0	22.7	2.1

Primary School Enrolment Rate of the Population

	Net Enrolment Rate (%)	Gross Enrolment Rate (%)
Rural Poor	73.1	94.1
Rural Non-Poor	79.8	96.0
Urban Poor	76.9	91.2
Urban Non-Poor	79.1	95.2
Total Poor	73.5	93.8
Total Non-Poor	79.8	95.2

Child Nutrition

	Percentage Stunted	Percentage Wasted	Percentage Underweight
Rural Food Poor	43.0	5.9	27.2
Rural Non-Food Poor	33.9	7.4	20.6
Urban Food Poor	36.4	3.6	18.6
Urban Non-Food Poor	25.9	5.1	12.0
Total Food Poor	42.3	5.7	26.3
Total Non-Food Poor	32.7	7.0	19.3

Access to Safe Water

	Dry Season (%)	Wet Season (%)
Rural Poor	34.4	30.8
Rural Non-Poor	42.9	39.1
Urban Poor	80.6	80.7
Urban Non-Poor	90.2	91.9
Total Poor	43.3	40.4
Total Non-Poor	53.0	50.3

Further Reading

The information contained in this report comes from a number of sources. Interested readers are referred to the following readily available documents for more information.

1. Second Report on Poverty in Kenya Volume I : Incidence and Depth of Poverty, Ministry of Finance and Planning, June 2000
2. Second Report on Poverty in Kenya Volume II : Poverty and Social Indicators, Ministry of Finance and Planning, December 2000
3. First Report on Poverty in Kenya Volume I : Incidence and Depth of Poverty, Ministry of Planning and National Development, June 1998
4. First Report on Poverty in Kenya Volume II : Poverty and Social Indicators, Ministry of Planning and National Development, July 1998
5. The Second Participatory Poverty Assessment Study — Kenya, Ministry of Planning and National Development, 1997
6. Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper for the Period 2000 — 2003, Ministry of Finance and Planning, June 2000
7. National Poverty Eradication Plan 1999 — 2015, Department of Development Coordination, Office of the President, February 1999

i Government of Kenya (2000) Second Report on Poverty in Kenya — Volume I Incidence and Depth of Poverty, Ministry of Finance and Planning, Nairobi

ii Government of Kenya (1997)

iii There have been three rounds of the Welfare Monitoring Survey carried out in the 1990s, the first, referred to as WMS I in 1992, the second, WMS II, in 1994 and the third, WMS III in 1997.

iv There have been two Participatory Poverty Assessments, the first in 1994, and the second in 1996/7.

v A full discussion on the merits of these approaches, as well as a detailed district report on the Head Count and Poverty Intensity Ratios (P_0 and P_1) are contained in the first and second reports on Poverty in Kenya, produced by the CBS and HRSSD

vi The Information for North Eastern Province in 1997 is missing because this data was not collected during WMS III (for more details see Volume I of the Second Report on Poverty).

vii A further possibility concerns the reliability of the data — given that districts vary in their farming seasonal calendars, it could be that the WMS III was carried out when it was not harvest season in most districts.