

KENYA NATIONAL HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT 2006

**HUMAN SECURITY AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT:
A DELIBERATE CHOICE**

Foreword

This is the fifth National Human Development Report for Kenya. It presents an independent voice on the interconnectedness of human security and human development. Though sponsored by UNDP, the report does not reflect UN or UNDP policy. It is a rejoinder to the unprecedented promise by World leaders to address as a single package, peace, security, development, human rights and fundamental freedoms. As articulated in the Secretary General's report "In Larger Freedom: towards development, security and human rights for all", "We will not enjoy development without security, we will not enjoy security without development, and we will not enjoy either without respect for human rights. Unless all these causes are advanced, none will succeed".

UNDP-sponsored Human Development Reports over the years have won a well-deserved reputation for excellence. They have played an indispensable catalytic role in helping shape and forge concrete responses to key policy debates. As this report persuasively argues, one of the challenges facing community development in Kenya is that of controlling human insecurity, which challenges the efforts towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals by the target date of 2015. This agenda will not succeed unless we can decisively resolve the bottlenecks retarding progress in the key realm of human security. The report looks at the facts and delivers a compelling and comprehensive analysis on how this can be done. It suggests ways and means in which the country and its leadership can take concrete action to address deficits in security, to safeguard Kenya from the threat of want and fear so that every man, woman and child in the street can have the freedom to live a life of dignity.

It is my hope that, as an articulation of a key development challenge, this report will frame an ambitious agenda for Kenya in the months and years to come.



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This National Human Development Report is the result of a collective and participatory effort. The drafting team - whose lead contributors were: Dr. Joseph Onjala, Mr. Elijah Agevi, Mr. Albert Mwenda, Mr. Willis Wasala, Mr. George Kut and Mr. Seraphin Njagi - provided the initial direction to the report. Several organizations shared their data and other research material. They included: the Government of Kenya - Central Bureau of Statistics; the Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi; the Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis; the Institute of Economic Affairs; and UN-HABITAT.

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Acronyms

ACEG	-	African Centre for Economic Growth	KIPPRA	-	Kenya Institute of Public Policy, Research and Analysis
AIDS	-	Acquired Immuno-deficiency Syndrome	KNCHR	-	Kenya National Commission on Human Rights
ALI	-	Adult Literacy Index	KEMSA	-	Kenya Medical Supplies Agency
ALRMP	-	Arid Land Resource Management Programme	KNFP	-	Kenya National Focal Point
APPPPI	-	Adjusted Real GDP per capita (PPPS) Index	KSIA	-	Kenya Security Industry Association
ART	-	Anti-Retroviral Therapy	KWH	-	Kilowatts per Hour
ASAL	-	Arid and Semi-arid Lands	LATF	-	Local Authority Transfer Fund
CBOs	-	Community-based Organizations	LASDAP	-	Local Authority Service Delivery Action Plan
CBS	-	Central Bureau of Statistics	LEI	-	Life Expectancy Index
CCN	-	City Council of Nairobi	MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
CDF	-	Constituency Development Fund	MICS	-	Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey
CGD	-	Centre for Governance and Development	MNCs	-	Multinational Corporations
CGEI	-	Combined Gross Enrolment Index	MOH	-	Ministry of Health
CGER	-	Combined Gross Enrolment Ratio	MOEST	-	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
CIDA	-	Canadian International Development Agency	MPET	-	Master Plan on Education and Training
CIFA	-	Community Initiative Facilitation Assistance	NACC	-	National Aids Control Council
CKRC	-	Constitution of Kenya Review Commission	NARC	-	National Rainbow Coalition
CO	-	Country Office	NCBDA	-	Nairobi Central Business District Association
CSOs	-	Civil Society Organizations	NEMA	-	National Environment Management Authority
DCR	-	Development Cooperation Report	NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organization
DfID	-	(UK) Department for International Development	NHC	-	National Housing Corporation
DPC	-	District Peace Committee	NHDR	-	National Human Development Report
DRC	-	Democratic Republic of Congo	NHIF	-	National Health Insurance Fund
EA	-	East Africa	NHS	-	National Health Service
ECK	-	Electoral Commission of Kenya	NPEP	-	National Poverty Eradication Plan
EFA	-	Education for All	NSC	-	National Steering Committee
EMCA	-	Environmental Management Coordination Act	NSSF	-	National Social Security Fund
EMOP	-	Emergency Operations	NTAT	-	National Technical Advisory Team
ERS	-	Economic Recovery Strategy	OCHA	-	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
EU	-	European Union	OCPD	-	Officer Commanding Police Division
FAO	-	Food and Agriculture Organization	OCS	-	Officer Commanding Police Station
FEWS-NET	-	Field Early Warning System - Network	OECD	-	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
FKE	-	Federation of Kenya Employers	OLF	-	Oromo Liberation Front
FPE	-	Free Primary Education	PAC	-	Parliamentary Accounts Committee
GDI	-	Gender-related Development Index	PER	-	Public Expenditure Review
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product	PHC	-	Public Health Care
GEM	-	Gender Empowerment Measure	PMTCT	-	Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission
GHDR	-	Global Human Development Report	PPO	-	Provincial Police Officer
GNP	-	Gross National Product	PPP	-	Purchasing Power Parity
GoK	-	Government of Kenya	PRGF	-	Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility
GSU	-	General Service Unit	PRSP	-	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
HDI	-	Human Development Index	SALWs	-	Small Arms and Light Weapons
HDR	-	Human Development Report	SAPs	-	Structural Adjustment Programmes
HIV	-	Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus	SOT	-	Suppression of Terrorism
HPI	-	Human Poverty Index	SSA	-	Sub-Saharan Africa
IDPs	-	Internally Displaced Persons	TB	-	Tuberculosis
IEC	-	Information, Education and Communication	TJRC	-	Truth, Justice and Reconciliation Commission
IGAD	-	Inter-Governmental Authority on Development	UN	-	United Nations
ILO	-	International Labour Organization	UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
IMF	-	International Monetary Fund	UNDP	-	United Nations Development Programme
IPCC	-	Inter-Governmental Panel on climate Change	US	-	United States
IP-ERS	-	Investment Programme for Economic Recovery Strategy	VCT	-	Voluntary Counselling and Testing
IPPG	-	Inter-Parties Parliamentary Group	WFP	-	World Food Programme
ITDG	-	Intermediate Technology Development Group	WHO	-	World Health Organisation
JICA	-	Japan International Cooperation Agency	WMS	-	Welfare Monitoring Survey
KANU	-	Kenya African National Union	WMSII	-	Welfare Monitoring Survey II
KDHS	-	Kenya Demographic and Health Survey	WSSD	-	World Summit for Sustainable Development
KENSUP	-	Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme	WTO	-	World Trade Organization
K-HURINET	-	Kenya Human Rights Network			

Summary

Key Messages of the Report

The Concept and Framework of Human Security

This report examines how Human Security and Human Development are mutually reinforcing anchoring the concept on UNDP's expanded definition as articulated in the 1994 Global Human Development Report. At the outset, the report observes that for a large majority of Kenyans, the broader dimensions of human security is a novelty since they have till now all along embraced security in the traditional sense.

The expanded human security concept was introduced by UNDP in 1994 in an attempt to move away from the narrow traditional security focus hinged on the protection and military defence from threats to territorial integrity and sovereignty of states. It expanded the frontiers to include a comprehensive coverage of other factors that, perhaps even more significantly, threaten life, survival, dignity and the well being of individuals.

This broader concept equates security with people rather than territories, with development rather than arms. It visualizes that without human security, there is limited chance for people to enhance their capabilities and expand freedoms by removing barriers to development, livelihoods and sources of unfreedom - such as poverty, poor economic opportunities, social deprivation or absence of institutions for the maintenance of peace and security. It places human security threats under seven main clusters:- economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security, and political security. This definition provides elements that are so concrete that, when considered together, provide a powerful conceptual tool for policy and action to move forward the cause of human development and welfare.

In that vein, human security permits progress on human development by providing the essence (a) to live a long, healthy and productive life (b) to access knowledge (c) to have sufficient material to meet basic needs (d) to participate freely in community and public life. Guaranteed security reassures progress on several fronts, namely (i) strong growth, sustainable and equality of wealth (ii) development of human health and education (iii) fight against poverty (iv) creation of decent jobs (v) support to women and advancement of gender equality (vi) taking care of the environment, and (viii) promotion of good governance, both political, economic, social and cultural.

Despite the critical linkage between human security and human development, Kenya has not explicitly embraced the concept of human security in her development approaches.

The State of Human Development

Kenya's Human Development Index has increased marginally in recent years, reflecting people's improving standards of living from rising economic growth. Nevertheless, a majority of Kenyans are still trapped in deepening poverty.

The Human Poverty Index for 2005 is 37 percent but income poverty levels are higher at 56 percent. Other important messages are as follows:

- Kenya's HDI has increased from 0.520 in 2004 to 0.532 in 2005 maintaining Kenya in the Medium human

development level. This has largely resulted from the benefits of growth in the economy and increasing access to educational and health facilities.

- Regions within the country with low HDI and GDI coincide with those encountering persistent human insecurity in form of conflict and disasters such as floods, low potential as in ASAL areas and those that suffer degradation.
- Regions with high human development are those that offer higher opportunities and with relatively better human security.
- Women empowerment and participation in economic, professional (administrative, managerial and technical) and political/elective spheres, although improving, still remains very low.

A significant implication of the above is that without guaranteed safety from personal harm and threats to life and property, human beings cannot engage in development activities that enrich their lives and enable them to conquer adversities such as hunger and poverty. As a fundamental platform for the human development process, human security lays emphasis on human rights and opening up resources and livelihood opportunities to people. It anchors on the entrenchment of the rule of law and legal and judicial systems that deepen concerns for human rights in the country and safeguarding people from underlying causes of human insecurity that include economic despair and social injustice.

It also includes providing people with secure, productive and satisfying lives and deepened processes and systems that give people chances for survival, livelihood and dignity.

National Responses to Human Insecurity

Kenya has pursued a myriad of policy regimes, legislative and legal frameworks and programmatic interventions aimed at reducing human insecurity and improving livelihoods.

However, to a large extent, these efforts have directly sought economic development. Access to education, health, property rights, social security, freedom and political participation, equality and non-discrimination have over time been seen from a purely economic perspective.

By implication, economic development has been viewed as the ultimate goal and achievement of human development as a residual. One of the main reasons has been that the concepts of human security and human development had not become part of policy discourse before 1990. In recent times, Kenya has instituted efforts aimed at addressing human security and human development including addressing fear-based insecurity, gender based-insecurity, terror threats, as well as want-based insecurity. Such efforts include major policy articulations such as NPEP, PRSP, ERS, Police Act and Police reforms including community policing, Safer Cities Programme, GJLOS, peace building initiatives, Anti-terrorism Bill, Slum Upgrading, and the establishment of funds such as CDF and LATF. However, the interventions have not been backed by adequate resource allocation necessary for implementation, and coordination efforts have remained problematic.

The expanded human security concept introduced by UNDP in 1994 places human security threats under seven main clusters:- economic security, food security, health security; environmental security, personal security, community security, and political security.



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Human Security Threats from HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB

Kenya has made commendable progress in reversing the trend and prevalence of HIV/AIDS from 13.9 percent in 1999 to 6.7 percent in 2003. Nevertheless, challenges remain particularly in effective prevention and behaviour and attitude change, which threaten the achievement of a sustained progress in human development. While the impact and magnitude of HIV/AIDS is real, malaria remains a leading killer, accounting for about five percent of deaths. If untreated, malaria can have a fatality rate of up to 50 percent. In turn, the cumulative number of people living with active TB reached 200,000 by 2005. However, only about 50 percent of the estimated cases have been captured by the TB control programme, raising fears that more people could be living with TB. Despite critical significance of malaria and TB, the two do not appear to receive as much public attention as they deserve.

Human Security, Poverty and the Development Nexus

Poverty and human insecurity are connected in a circular manner as each of them leads to the other. In the Kenyan situation this relationship springs from competition over resources, among others. Chronic poverty has not received the research and policy attention that it deserves, with development, insecurity would be minimised.

Partnerships for Human Security

Dealing with the multi-faceted phenomenon of human security and human development requires renewed, well-

coordinated and effective partnerships. The partnership arrangements must clearly define the manifestations of insecurities and ensure that various actors are assigned roles based on their comparative advantages and divergent interests. The success of the partnerships also hinges on the availability of engagement frameworks that accommodate all actors and clearly defines their roles. The proposed Private/Public partnership policy strategy should be speeded up to provide a more predictable way of engaging. The success of the partnerships is anchored on the extent to which the national government is willing to provide an enabling environment for actors to engage - which entails the provision of legal, policy and institutional frameworks. Adequate budgetary allocation to support human security initiatives is imperative.

Delivering Human Security

Human security is all-embracing and remains relevant in addressing a myriad of issues, including:

- Achieving a prosperous and economically just society that ensures equal distribution of national wealth
- Ensuring sufficiency in food to a level that guarantees decent life and access to basic education for all
- Guaranteeing social security and essential health care
- Ensuring freedom from personal and community harm for all Kenyans
- Guaranteeing environmental and political security
- Pursuing partnerships for posterity.

The underpinning principle for such an aspiration is that it is participative and integrative, touching on all aspects of security in order to attain human development.

Overview

Human Security and Human Development

Overcoming the Confinement of Wants and Fears

In order to “perfect the triangle of development, freedom and peace - people must be free from want – so that the death sentences of extreme poverty and infectious diseases are lifted from their lives – and free from fear – so that their lives and livelihoods are not ripped apart by violence and war. Indeed, all people have the right to security and to development”. These words of the UN Secretary General capture in a particularly succinct manner the spirit and the message of this report: the 2006 Fifth National Human Development Report for Kenya. By recognizing the mutually reinforcing inter-linkages between development, peace, security and human rights, the report legitimizes human security as a critical area for policy engagement and dialogue at this time, given its deteriorating landscape, and urges for the prioritization of these concerns within the country’s development agenda.

This edition of the Kenya HDR deals with the links between Human Security and Human Development in Kenya - viewed as a deliberate choice. It highlights the pertinent challenges and their relevance to achieving the MDGs, as well as the potential success, which could be expanded through partnerships between Kenyans and their international development partners.

The expanded human security concept was introduced by UNDP in 1994 in an attempt to move away from the narrow traditional security focus hinged on the protection and military defense of territorial sovereignty. It expanded the frontiers to include a comprehensive coverage of other factors that, perhaps even more significantly, affect the well-being of human lives. The report introduced a new concept of human security, which equated security with people rather than territories, and with development rather than arms. It visualized human security threats under seven main clusters: - economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security, and political security. That definition provided very concrete elements that when considered together provide a powerful conceptual tool for policy and action to move forward the cause of human development and welfare.

The theme ‘Human Security and Human Development’ has been chosen as an area of focus for a number of reasons. First, without human security, Kenya will not be able to attain the Millennium Development Goals. The circumstances that lead to and reinforce human insecurity are often the same conditions that diminish a country’s prospects for improving human development and reducing poverty. Second, Kenya continues to witness frequent and severe disasters, diseases and so forth, further diverting Kenya off its optimal development path.

In the most fundamental sense, human insecurity disrupts normal life and social infrastructure, often with devastating outcomes such as loss of property, disruptions in human freedoms, and in cases of conflict, losses of life. It disables societies. Poverty, socio-economic inequalities, lack of employment opportunities, distrust and discrimination in their various forms, as well as ineffective governance are some of the examples of the kind of issues that exacerbate tensions between groups and heighten domestic insecurity.

Human insecurity disrupts the society and its structures and, in that context, its concern should be socially built in everyone’s duty to take preventive measures. The Government, with its public sector muscle, ought to implement effective policies for human security, including championing the coordination efforts. The engagement of the community/society, acting together with organized groups, should also assist to safeguard the vulnerable groups. The academics should be encouraged to research and discuss themes related to risk, vulnerability, and security and disaster, so as to come up with credible options that could point to solutions. Private enterprises, with their economic resources, could also be instrumental in investing in research on human insecurity and its deleterious consequences on people’s lives and human-centered development.

The international community has pledged to achieve the MDGs by 2015. To achieve national MDG targets, countries must ensure that all citizens have full access to human security in order to have livelihoods that meet basic human needs. Kenya has committed itself to achieving the MDGs by the target date. The achievements made so far, especially in education, have yielded encouraging results. Economic recovery since 2003 has provided the country with a new opportunity to reduce poverty levels. However, with the recent drought in the country, there have been some setbacks in such areas as the elimination of hunger and chronic malnutrition.

The MDG pursuits should take into account the centrality of Human Security as encapsulated in the 1994 HDR. The 2005 Global HDR revisits the theme of security, reminding us that “the right to life and security are among the most basic human rights. Yet, they are also among the most widely and systematically violated.” Human insecurity remains one of the greatest obstacles to human development. It is both a cause and a consequence of mass poverty¹. Although Kenya has avoided the kind of violent political conflict that has afflicted many African countries, it has experienced persistent violent conflicts in some parts of the country. Revisiting the 1994 report, the 2005 HDR reminds us that Human Security has two aspects: (i) safety from chronic threats like hunger, disease and political repression; and (ii) protection from sudden disruptions in patterns of daily life by violence and violation of human rights. The human insecurity that Kenya has experienced relates primarily to the first category of human threats: chronic hunger, disease, violation of human rights, violent crime and threats to personal property.

Since the 1990s, the scope of Kenya’s human insecurity has expanded, putting significant brakes on progress in human development. This situation has introduced risks and vulnerabilities at the individual, family, community and national levels. Increasing human insecurities have resulted in both direct, quantifiable losses, such as declining livelihoods and increasing poverty. Poverty in turn results in alienation and isolation, exclusion from shared opportunities enjoyed by others, inaccessibility to predictable incomes, assets and services, and psychological and emotional deficits.

The 2006 NHDR theme is also in sync with the UNDP Regional Bureau for Africa’s core programme, which covers more or less the same issues now facing Kenya:

The 2005 Global HDR reminds us that “the right to life and security are among the most basic human rights. Yet, they are also among the most widely and systematically violated”.

(i) Democratic Governance; (ii) Poverty Reduction; (iii) Security, Crisis Prevention and Post-Conflict Reconstruction; (iv) Energy and Environment; and (v) HIV/AIDS. The theme links with the UN Charter, which stresses “Freedom from Fear and Want”; the twin objectives of security from threats to life and freedom from deprivation of basic human needs such as food, health, and shelter. There is therefore a reasonable degree of congruence between issues that occupy Kenya today and the UNDP Africa Agenda.

In the light of these developments, obvious questions remain: “Why is there persistent human insecurity in Kenya? How has it been addressed in the past and what new interventions need to be taken for the future?. In the context of new dimensions of human security, who should be responsible for the tasks of delivering security as a public good? What are the institutional capacities needed to deliver these? What are the policy implications?”

About Kenya's 2006 NHDR

This Fifth Human Development Report 2006 for Kenya elaborates the challenges posed by escalating human insecurity in the country. To address this situation, Kenya needs effective interventions, adequate institutional cooperation and committed inclusive partnerships. Without these essential elements, the pathways for improving human development could ultimately remain elusive. This calls for an urgent prioritization of human security concerns in the national agenda.

The report recognizes that the country or regions within it will not achieve any of their major goals of peace, clean and safe environment, and social integration, without a level of sustainable development that guarantees human security. However, what emerges in the Kenyan context is a fragile process of growth, overwhelming challenges of poverty for the majority of people, border areas of the country continually confronted with armed conflicts, civil strife and cattle rustling, major socio-economic challenges including recurring droughts, floods and hunger, massive unemployment, environmental degradation, the spread of infectious diseases, and more pointedly, HIV/AIDS pandemic. All these elements of human insecurity call for deepened reflections on how best the country could respond, to pull back the clock of run-away development and peace.

The report anchors on the 1994 global Human Development Report, that first put together a comprehensive definition of human security. It also pays due recognition to the 2003 Human Development Report, that elaborated on the concept of people's participation as a key element of the human development paradigm. The report then goes ahead to link the spatial geographic distribution of various forms of human insecurities with the HDI ranking at the province and district levels. The report argues that the regions ranked at the tail end of the HDI rating have suffered and often continue to experience human insecurity in the form of violent conflict.

Linking Human Security to Human Development

Human security and human development are mutually reinforcing. They provide the context in which people can

enlarge their choices, freedoms and human fulfillment while focusing on the individual as the means and end of development. The new dimensions of human security go beyond the protection of states' territorial integrity, to encompass the centrality of people in every aspect of their lives. These aspects include food security, job security, health security, personal and community security and also include freedoms and rights. Deficits in these aspects constitute the surest pathways to a low quality of life and a guarantee to remaining there.

On the upshot, by enlarging people's capabilities, human development enhances human security. Poverty reduction remains at the core of human security. Poor people are most vulnerable in terms of job insecurity, health insecurity, food insecurity, personal insecurity and environmental hazards. Enhancement of their well-being can make them more secure on all these fronts. For example, interventions such as enhancing food production, improving the distribution and entitlements, and ensuring better access to markets contribute to food security through increased incomes and improved nutrition. Without such essentials for health personal security would be impaired by the body's weakened immune system, which in turn would increase one's vulnerability to diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria and TB.

Human Security and Human Development

Kenya's Human Development Index (HDI) has increased marginally from 0.520 in 2004 to 0.532 in 2005. The increase can be attributed to improved standards of living signaled by high economic (or GDP) growth and overall enrollment rates (educational attainment or level of knowledge). The expansion in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was mainly underpinned by Agriculture and Forestry, Wholesale and Retail trade, and Transport and Communication supported by better access to money and credit facilities, while gross fixed capital formation recorded an impressive growth in the same period. The overall school enrollment rate in Kenya has also increased substantially in the last two years, catapulted by the implementation of free primary education.

Kenya's Gender-related Development Index (GDI) for 2005 is estimated at 0.547, showing an improvement over the 2004 value of 0.538. Central province has the highest ranking, primarily due to the high score in the equality aspect of the income component of the index, this is supported by improved opportunities in the province. The best regional performers are mainly well endowed with rich agricultural land, offering women greater latitude for high income. The worst districts are found in the North Eastern province with fewer opportunities. Mostly, the districts which suffer such forms of insecurity as ethnic conflict and cattle rustling (Turkana, West Pokot, Tana River, Marsabit, Samburu and Migori) are found in this category.

The 2005 Human Poverty Index for Kenya is 37%, having increased marginally from 36.7% in 2004. The HPI value for Kenya is lower than the income poverty level of 56%. This means that the incidence of income poverty in the country is higher than human poverty. Despite rapid economic growth in the last two years, human poverty appears to deepen. This can be attributed to growing structural inequalities in the HPI components (Access to health, Water, and Doctors, and

the Nutritional Status of Children). Again, the best performing districts are found in the agricultural high potential areas while the worst performers are found in the low potential areas that are also prone to insecurities.

Dealing with Human Security and Human Development

Considerations of human security have largely been tangential to Kenya's policy development. Immediately after independence the country pursued a development paradigm informed by the philosophy of African Socialism. Its objectives echoed social justice; human dignity and freedom of conscience; freedom from want, disease, and various forms of exploitation; equal opportunities; and high and growing per capita incomes, equitably distributed. These elements signalled a beginning in the country's search for human security and human development, although the corresponding concepts were not explicitly stated in any precise terms. The Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1964, which steered development during the first decade after independence, indicated the Government's ambition and desire for a rapid growth of the economy as opposed to human development. The concerns for poverty, unemployment and income disparities were subsumed derivatives through the trickle down forces. Access to education and health services, property rights, social security, freedom and political participation, and equality and non-discrimination were envisioned from a purely economic perspective. Efforts to reduce poverty, to improve capabilities, to ensure environmental sustainability and to enhance good governance and promote freedoms, were derivatives from the broader policy that targeted economic growth as the end and not a means to development.

The second regime started in 1978. The economic and human development fortunes that Kenyans had enjoyed in the early periods after independence dwindled greatly during this era. The introduction of SAPs - involving trade liberalization, privatization of public enterprises, retrenchment of public employees through public sector reforms, reductions in Government expenditure - led to the imposition of user fees on such social amenities as education and health, as well the removal of subsidies and price controls. Such measures diminished the access to these services by the poor and vulnerable groups, further denting the human development gains.

Kenya has made some attempts and achieved moderate successes in dealing with its human insecurity challenges. However, some of the critical outstanding issues of human insecurity have evaded solutions, notably through implementation deficits. In March 1999, the Government launched its National Poverty Eradication Plan (1997/2001) with the support of development partners, aiming at reducing by 50 percent the incidences of poverty in both rural and urban areas by the year 2015. It also focused on strengthening the capabilities of poor people to improve their income. In order to access the IMF Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF) window, the Government prepared an interim PRSP in 2000 and a full PRSP in 2002. The PRSP rationale was that the fight against poverty could not be won without the participation of the poor people themselves. While NPEP was embedded in a long-term vision, the PRSP sought to implement the NPEP in a series of three-year rolling plans, while relating budgetary allocation to specific aspects of its implementation. In the PRSP, agriculture, small-scale industries and off-farm rural activities were given priority. The Kenyan PRSP process was broad based with consultation at both national and district levels.

Like many other policy processes, the need for resource allocation through adequate budgetary support remained a challenge. In some instances, there was reluctance to

prioritize the allocation of resources to programmes that target the human security and human development needs of the poorest and most vulnerable of the society. While the twin objectives of the PRSP were economic growth and poverty reduction, the policy sought growth in general incomes rather than how much the incomes of the poor would increase proportional to the average. The 2005 Global Human Development Report reminds us of the flaw in this approach, arguing instead that higher human development gains would spring from well managed pro-poor growth. Demonstrating this point in the case of Kenya, that report suggests that "If Kenya were to achieve a 1% per capita growth rate on current distribution patterns, it would not halve poverty until 2030. However, doubling the share of the poor in the future growth even at the 1% per capita growth rate, would enable the country to halve poverty by 2015, thus meeting the MDG target. In other words, pro-poor growth would shorten the time horizon for halving poverty by 17 years ²"

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB as Special Cases of Human Insecurity

Despite Kenya's recent gains in reversing the trend in their incidence and prevalence, HIV/AIDS, malaria and TB present major challenges to the country, threatening its capacity to sustain progress in human development. From the health perspective, their incidence and prevalence constitute serious concerns, since there is still no vaccine, no known cure and no easily affordable treatment for HIV/AIDS, while malaria and TB remain major killers in Kenya. An added risk is that HIV can remain asymptomatic for many years, masking the reality that the virus could be spreading rapidly but silently across the country. The long incubation period between infection and illness implies that persons infected with the virus may infect others without realizing the danger to which they expose them. This underlines the urgency for effective prevention and changes in behaviour and attitudes in order to combat HIV/AIDS and mitigate its effects. Such actions are key to the consolidation of the recent gains in reversing the country's prevalence rates from 13.9 percent to the current level of 6.7 percent.

Nevertheless there is hope, based on the understanding of the dynamics of the epidemic and more accurate analysis of the impacts and preparedness for their mitigation. This message of hope is reinforced by the will of persons infected and living with HIV and AIDS coming out in the open and to step up the campaign and fight back to lead fulfilling lives.

The determinants of the epidemic cannot exclusively be explained in terms of individual risk-taking behaviour. The causal factors are to be found in the poverty and deprivation and in the social and economic alienation suffered by a large segment of the population. Poverty, manifesting itself in a myriad ways, undermines the coping capacity and development prospects of vulnerable groups. The brunt of poverty at the household level is immense, since this is where the impact of low resources, inadequate social services, limited access to balanced foodstuffs and lack of opportunities combine to create a disabling environment, unsuitable for enhancing the realization of the goals of human security including guaranteeing political freedoms, assuring economic security, addressing the challenge of poverty, and controlling communicable diseases.

The impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic often leads to stigmatization, discrimination and isolation from traditionally supporting social networks. In addition, the secrecy that surrounds HIV/AIDS in many communities compounds efforts to deal with the infection. The long period of human suffering by the affected manifests human insecurity.



Chronic Poverty and Insecurity

There is limited empirical research which examines the nature of the relationship between chronic poverty and human insecurity in Kenya. However, human development policies need to be better attuned to the links between the two, in order to respond to growing threats to human security. Most of the literature on poverty has focused largely on descriptive accounts of the impact of human insecurity on poverty. Poverty is cast as a consequence of human insecurity. The Kenya PRSP 2001 – 2004 identifies insecurity as a principle cause of poverty. In Kenya, human insecurity is on the one hand manifested through banditry, hijacking, livestock raiding and theft, robbery and looting, physical injury and mutilation, rape and murder, the destruction of material property - such as shelter, clothing, livestock and other forms of capital. On the other hand, it comprises deprivations in health, economic provisioning, hunger and nutritional deficits, diseases and so forth.

The Kenya PRSP report (September 2001) states that the poor tend to be clustered into such social categories as: (i) the landless, (ii) people with disabilities (iii) female-headed households (iv) households headed by people without formal education and/or jobs (v) pastoralists in drought-prone ASAL districts, (vi) unskilled and semi-skilled casual laborers, (vii) AIDS orphans, (viii) street children and beggars, (ix) subsistence farmers, (x) urban slum dwellers and (xi) unemployed youth.

Renewing Partnerships and Cooperation to Address Human Security

To effectively deal with the multi-faceted phenomenon of human security requires new and dynamic partnership arrangements. Well-coordinated and effective partnerships are essential in addressing human security and human development concerns in Kenya. The partnerships must of significance accentuate the depth and breath of human security paradigms and their interrelationships to facilitate the formulation of credible strategies and policy proposals. Human security addresses the dual goal of freedom from

want and freedom from fear. In addition addressing human security requires a two-pronged approach. This entails protection, which includes legal and institutional frameworks, and empowerment that enables effective participation in efforts aimed at addressing human security concerns.

Human security is manifested in five identifiable levels including the individual, community, national, regional and international levels. Human insecurity is manifested in economic insecurity; poverty; deficits in the provision of services in education, health care, social welfare and political freedoms; and in changing social structures. In some areas of the country, it also manifests itself in rising conflicts, upsurges in refugee numbers and proliferation of small arms across the borders. Each of these levels requires different interventions and varied actors with a new partnership paradigm in order to be effective. Recognition, capacities and resources are essential for dealing with human security concerns at all levels. In addition, addressing insecurity requires the inclusion, participation and empowerment of all the actors involved. Indeed, in designing partnership arrangements aimed at addressing human security, it is imperative that the manifestations of insecurities be clearly defined and the roles of the various actors assigned according to their comparative advantages and divergent interests.

A range of actors including individuals, communities, civil societies, the media, national governments, regional bodies and the international community have over the years designed strategies aimed at addressing human security concerns which extend to economic, food, health, environmental, personal and community, and political domains. This is in recognition of the fact that human security is the responsibility of all. The efforts over time have registered successful trends. However, more efforts need to be geared towards further consolidating the gains derived from effective partnership arrangements. In view of the foregoing, renewed partnership arrangements to address the challenge of human security will require inclusive and meaningful participation by all the actors in a coordinated and complementary fashion. The new partnership arrangement will optimise the collective efforts of various players. Effective promotion

Higher human development gains would spring from well managed pro-poor growth.

of human security will largely depend on the availability of engagement frameworks that accommodate all actors and have clear definitions of roles.

In the new partnership arrangements aimed at fostering human security, the Government will need to provide an enabling environment for other actors to engage with one another. This will include the provision of legal policy and institutional frameworks for enhancing the realization of the goals of human security including guaranteeing political freedoms, assuring economic security, addressing the challenge of poverty, controlling communicable diseases, reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, assuring food security, guaranteeing personal and community security, ensuring environmental sustainability, ensuring housing security and facilitating access to education. These must be coupled with adequate budgetary allocation for sustainability.

Other actors including the civil society, the private sector, communities, and the international community must also design programme interventions aimed at fostering human security. The civil society in particular will need to continuously build the capacities of the communities to be able to effectively engage in efforts aimed at promoting human development. Further, the civil society will of necessity need to refocus its efforts into meaningful discussions and actual channeling of resources into efforts that foster human security.

On the other hand, the international community should be required to increasingly support both financially and technically endeavours that address insecurity. In addition, the media will need to continue with its informative role to enlighten the public on issues of human security. Indeed, the private sector will need to focus its efforts at initiatives aimed at addressing human security challenges. This will require the channeling of investments into such endeavours. All these efforts will require coordination and effective engagement so as to thrive and be sustainable.

Delivering Human Security

The vision articulated in this National Human Development Report captures the aspirations of Kenyans with regard to human security. At the outset, the report recognizes that Kenya has not been completely devoid of a national human security vision. Bits and pieces of this vision are captured in various national policy documents. While distilling the vision, due recognition has been given to efforts by other countries that have in the past identified human security issues as impediments to economic development and the well-being of the human race. A review has been included capturing the experiences of other countries and the strategies they adopted to deal with human insecurities. Among them are social insurance systems, national health systems, and social assistance systems. Kenya's human security is anchored on and summarized in seven pillars.

The first pillar envisages a prosperous and economically just society that ensures equitable distribution of national wealth. The second one postulates a nation with sufficient food, that ensures decent life and access to basic education for all. Pillar three guarantees social security and essential health care. The fourth pillar envisions freedom from personal and community harm for all Kenyan citizens. Pillars five and six promise environmental and political security, respectively. Pillar seven envisages a nation that pursues partnerships that will not leave the citizens worse off. A number of broad principles are suggested that would guide the national effort in delivering security (see Chapter Seven).

End notes

1. 2005 Global Human Development Report, pg. 151
2. 2005 Global Human Development Report pg. 66

Linking Human Security to Human Development

The New Dimension

1.1 Introduction

People in Kenya continue to live in an environment that is increasingly characterised by human insecurity. In recent times, the incidence of crime has increased. This has been accompanied by rising vulnerability of people to diminishing livelihoods, health threats, frequently occurring food insecurity due to drought hazards, increasing poverty and problems of governance. From a crime perspective, human insecurities are in two broad categories. The first is the covert crime, less visible, and often under the rubric of corruption. This takes the form of embezzlement or misuse of public funds and is largely orchestrated by the elite and the well to do. The second is the overt crime, involving physical violence or assault. This can be in the form of homicide, domestic violence armed robbery, murder, manslaughter, rape, house breaking or carjacking. These types of crime are often committed by members of the lower strata of society, whose lives are characterized by poverty. Psychological suffering and anxieties are also on the rise as a result of dwindling livelihood opportunities and other stressful life situations. Apart from violence and crime, there are other human insecurities such as vulnerability to early death from preventable infectious diseases, poverty driven family instabilities, deficits in freedoms and rights, isolation and lack of identity and loss of things that people value in life. All these aspects of human insecurity act as breaks to the attainment of positive human development outcomes.

In the wake of rising human insecurity, people inadvertently have tended to respond reactively rather than preventing occurrence and addressing symptoms rather than the real causes. In the face of these developments, one can observe that "If to be secure means to be free from fear of being killed or abused; to be free from abject poverty that brings indignity and self-contempt; to be free to make choices and to live in dignity – then a majority of people in Kenya hardly live in security".³

This situation necessitates people's sensitization through articulation and debate on escalating human insecurity in an effort to re-ignite effective mitigation strategies. Conventional wisdom tells us that you cannot cure a disease by treating the symptoms. This equally applies to different aspects of human insecurity. The starting point must be to identify the causes and define the line of action to take.

Human security and human development are intimately related. Without guaranteed safety from personal harm, threats to life and property, human beings cannot engage in development activities that enrich their livelihoods and enable them to conquer adversities like hunger and poverty. On the other hand, until human beings possess capabilities (such as health, education, shelter) that give them the freedom to make satisfactory livelihoods, they remain vulnerable to adversities from nature, exploitation, and harm from others more powerful than them. Such situations breed violence within and between states and reduce space for the advancement of human development. In Africa for instance, the countries and regions with the lowest HDI scores are those that have suffered human insecurity, often in the form of violent instability. Nine of the 10 lowest HDI countries globally in 2005 had experienced protracted conflict at some point since 1990 and some suffered some HDI reversals over the decade.

HDI provides a tool for assessing the long-term costs of human insecurity since rising human insecurity is the surest pathway to the bottom of the HDI table – and one of the strongest indicators of a protracted stay there. Evidence in Kenya shows that the ten districts at the bottom of HDI, namely: Mandera, Turkana, Samburu, West Pokot, Tana River, Garissa, Wajir, Kajiado and Ijara – have aggravated human insecurity in several of the following areas: cattle rustling, land conflicts, banditry, proliferation of small arms, ethnic conflict, political unrest, cross border raids, unemployment and poverty. All of these districts suffer very low per capita GDP in terms of purchasing power parity compared to the Kenyan average. Five out of them have very low life expectancies and three have very low combined enrollment rates – all of which are essential elements of HDI.

1.2 Human Security as a Platform for Human Development

In the past, human insecurity threats and vulnerabilities were assumed to emanate from external sources and security was mainly conceived in terms of protecting state interests and the sovereign territory. The traditional formulation of security was focused on the protection of the state borders, not what should be central – the protection and guarantee of the welfare of the individual human being. However, with the end of the cold war and simultaneous with the establishment of the Human Development paradigm in 1990 through the works of Mahbub ul Haq, Amartya Sen, Frances Stewart, Paul Streeten, among others. The security approach witnessed a crucial shift, away from threats focusing on the territorial integrity of states, to those that threaten the life and welfare of individuals and peoples inside and across borders. This is a crucial linkage between human security and human development. Without human security, there is limited chance to enhance people's capabilities, expand freedoms that people enjoy and remove major barriers to development, livelihoods and sources of unfreedom - such as poverty, poor economic opportunities, social

In the past, human insecurity threats and vulnerabilities were assumed to emanate from external sources and security was mainly conceived in terms of protecting state interests and the sovereign territory.

BOX 1.1 The Concept of Human Security

Human security is a term, which can mean all, and nothing. In a general way, it is the fear of death and suffering that makes people insecure. Many phenomena carry the sense of insecurity – first of all, conflicts; but also terrorism and arms proliferation; transnational threats of people and drug trafficking; spread of HIV and other epidemics; environmental pollution and natural disasters; and, last but not least, abject poverty, which forces hundreds of millions of people to live oppressive, fragile and hopeless lives.

Human security, although not a legal concept, nor can it be very precisely defined, does however represent a set of very concrete elements – places, objects, values, feelings. Human security is what people lose when they abandon their homes – a job, a family, an identity. Human security is not an abstract idea – it is a real, tangible need. We should not look at human security from the point of view of theory and definition, but rather examine what practical steps and measures that can enable us to maintain people in, or restore them to, a state of security. In other words, 'human security' should be a conceptual tool that leads us to action

Source: Keynote address UNV Security Enhancement Workshop - Kenya July 2001

deprivation or absence of institutions for the maintenance of peace and security.

The primary challenges to human security have changed to emphasize more the threats that arise from lack of human rights, resources or livelihood opportunities. This focus that sanctifies the individual and community embraces three possible dimensions. The first focuses on the “rights based” approach to human security and anchors on the rule of law and treaty-based solutions to human insecurity. This approach seeks to strengthen the normative legal framework at both the international and regional levels, while at the same time, aiming to deepen and strengthen national-level legal and judicial systems on issues concerning human rights. The second approach focuses on the humanitarian conception of human security that emphasizes the “safety of peoples” from violence and guaranteeing them the “freedom from fear”. Such threats of fear cause people to flee over borders from the neighbouring countries to live in fragile security as refugees in Kenya but they also include internally displaced persons within the country due to conflict. Finally, the “safety of peoples” approach seeks to address the underlying primary and secondary causes of conflict and violence, specifically the “economic despair, social injustice or political oppression”, all of which are destabilizing factors to human livelihoods and development, and are clustered under “the freedom from want”.

The shift in approach viewed human insecurities in part as originating from neglect or inability to respond to people’s welfare. As a result, people are exposed to poverty and deprivation, inequalities and widening income gaps, disparities in economic opportunities and provisioning, illiteracy, ill health, rampant spread of infectious diseases – most pointedly AIDS - environmental degradation and disasters, population displacements due to ethnic conflict, social exclusion, drug trafficking, terrorism and proliferation of small arms. Many of these emergent threats, while requiring national security options, often require supplemental multilateral policy responses for promotion of national, regional and global peace and stability.

Box 1.2 Human Security: 1994 Definition

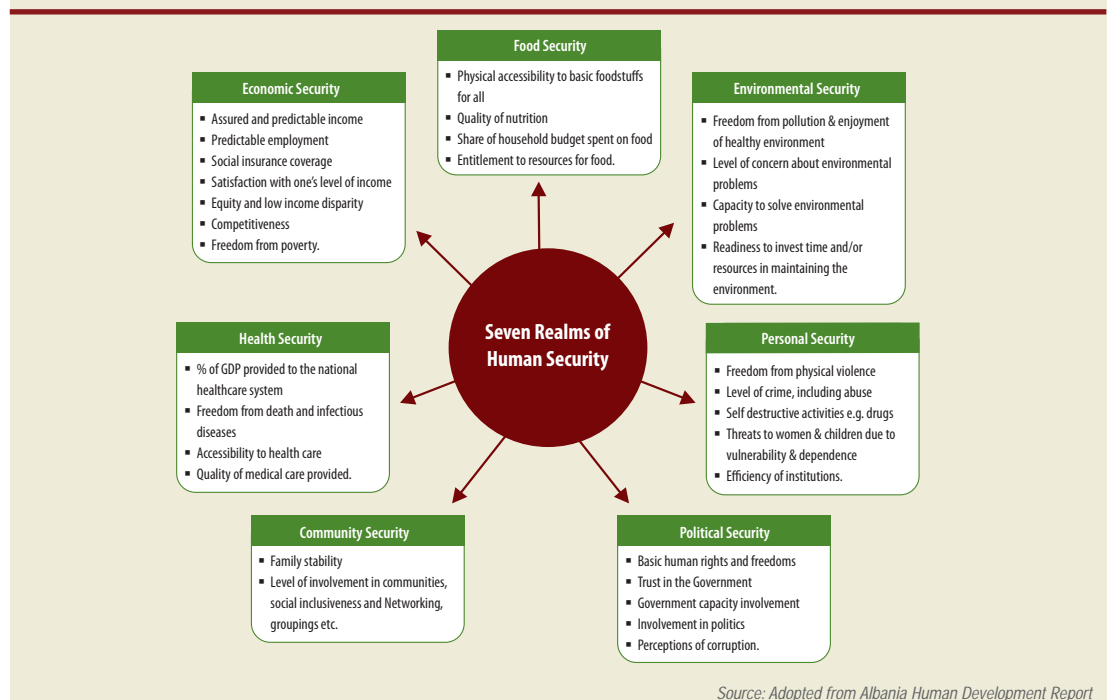
The concept of security has for too long been interpreted narrowly: as security of territory from external aggression, or as protection of national interests in foreign policy or as global security from the threat of holocaust. It has been related more to nation-states than to people. ... Forgotten were the legitimate concerns of ordinary people who sought security in their daily lives. For many, security symbolized protection from the threat of disease, hunger, unemployment, crime, social conflict, political repression and environmental hazards. (p.22)

Source: Human Development Report of 1994

The UNDP 1994 Human Development Report entitled “New Dimensions of Human Security” was the first major effort to elaborate the expanded concept of human security, correlating this with people rather than territories. Human security was perceived as an instrument of political stability as opposed to the force of arms. The report advanced the argument that reduced spending on armaments provided the international community with an opportunity to allocate more resources from savings for human development, and for human security. It anticipated a secure human environment that would at the same time provide resources for enhanced human capabilities, freedom from fear and freedom from want of basic human necessities.

The report articulated the intertwined concepts of “Human Development” and “Human Security”. It defined “human security” as focusing on providing people with secure, productive and satisfying lives in a safe, sustainable environment. Human Security has three generic components: (i) peace; (ii) social development with global development cooperation; and, (iii) a multilateral institutional framework geared to tranquility and provision of basic needs for all people. That report also considers human deprivation of basic needs and chronic threats, like hunger, disease and repression, as potential sources of conflict everywhere.

Figure 1.1 Broad Realms of Human Security



This is in tandem with UN Charter's two freedoms - freedom from "want" and freedom from "fear" - that are essential in catalyzing Human Development.

The Commission of Human Rights report "*Human Security Now (2003)*" notes the importance of security framework for policy in areas such as protecting people in violent conflict, the proliferation of arms, encouraging fair trade and markets to benefit the extremely poor, ensuring universal access to basic health care and universalizing basic education. It emphasized that "the objective of human security is to safeguard the vital core of all human lives from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats, in a way that is consistent with long-term human fulfillment. It means creating and using processes and systems that give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity."

In turn, the report by the UN Secretary General's High-level Panel of Threats, Challenges and Change entitled "*A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility (2004)*" identified six clusters of security threats to include: economic and social threats such as poverty; deadly infectious diseases and environmental degradation; interstate conflict; internal conflict, civil war and genocide; weapons of mass destruction; terrorism; and trans-national organized crime. The 2005 report of the UN Secretary General entitled "In Larger Freedom" explicitly linked security and development and made it categorical that "all people have the right to security and to development" emphasizing the need to honor commitments on poverty reduction, arms limitation, and protecting and promoting human rights. This would provide essentials for promoting people's livelihoods.

The main goal of human security is protecting individuals and society. Proponents of the narrow concept of human security focus on protecting individuals and groups from violent threats. The proponents of the enlarged view of human security as articulated in the global Human Development Report of 1994, broaden the threats from which individuals should be protected to include hunger, disease and natural disasters, repression as well as protection from sudden and harmful disruption in the patterns of daily life – whether in homes, in jobs or in communities". The report identified seven realms of non-military threats to security. These include: economic, food, health, environment, personal, community/societal, and political.

Amartya Sen developed the human security concept in more detail, linking it with the human development process. He argues that human security is a fundamental part of a broader development process. It is integrally connected with securing human capabilities, i.e. the various combinations of functionings (beings and doings) that the person can achieve, reflecting the person's freedom to lead one type of life or another and to choose from possible livings". In this context, illiteracy and innumeracy are forms of human insecurity in themselves. Illiterate people suffer more difficulties in finding employment and have limited capacities to understand and demand their rights. Lack of education hinders people's capacities to make informed decisions concerning their lives. According to Sen, the following elements enjoin the core of human security concept with that of human development:

- A clear focus on individual human lives
- An appreciation of the role of society and social arrangement in making human lives more secure in a constructive way
- A reasoned concentration of the downside risks to human lives, i.e. clear focus on immediate threats that menace survival, the continuation of daily life and the dignity of the human being. This means protecting people from pervasive threats such as conflict, deprivation, extreme poverty etc.

Box 1.3 Development as Freedom

Development can be seen as a process of expanding real freedoms that people enjoy. Focusing on human freedoms contrasts with narrow views of development, such as identifying development with growth of gross domestic product, or with the rise in personal incomes, or with industrialization, or with technological advance, or with social modernization. Growth of GNP or of individual incomes can, of course, be very important as means of expanding freedoms enjoyed by members of society. But freedoms depend also on other determinants, such as social choices and economic arrangements (for example, facilities for education and good health care) as well as political and civil rights (for example, the liberty to participate in public discussion and scrutiny). Similarly, industrialization or technological progress or social modernization can substantially contribute to expanding human freedom, but freedom depends on other influences as well. If freedom is what development advances, then, there is a major argument for concentrating on the overarching objective, rather than on some particular means, or some specially chosen list of instruments. Viewing development in terms of expanding substantive freedoms directs attention to the ends that make development important, rather than merely to some of the means, *inter alia*, play a prominent part in the process.

Development requires the removal of major sources of unfreedoms: poverty as well as tyranny, poor economic opportunities as well as systematic social deprivation, neglect of public facilities as well as intolerance or overactivity of repressive states. Despite unprecedented increase in overall opulence, the contemporary world denies elementary freedoms to vast numbers – perhaps even majority – of people. Sometimes, the lack of substantive freedoms relates directly to economic poverty, which robs people of freedom to satisfy hunger, or to achieve sufficient nutrition, or to obtain remedies for treatable illnesses, or to opportunity to be adequately clothed or sheltered, or enjoy clean water or sanitary facilities. In other cases, the unfreedom links closely to lack of public facilities and social care, such as the absence of epidemiological programmes, or of organized arrangements for health care or education facilities or of institutions for maintenance of local peace and order.

Amartya Sen, 1999.

- A choice of focus on the downside emphasizing more basic human rights, without which human development and livelihoods would be sacrificed.

Conflicts and other forms of human insecurity as witnessed in the Northern and North Eastern parts of Kenya result in significant human development costs. Such costs include loss of life, disability, wounding and/ or rape, collapsing food systems, disintegrating health and education services, lost incomes, psychological stress and trauma, all of which have negative consequences for human development. These undermine the potential for growth, depleting assets and reducing capacity to respond to losses in income and assets. In these circumstances, the poor people are especially vulnerable to intensified uncertainty and human insecurity.

The resulting human development reversals from conflict and rising insecurity further propel these zones and the country as a whole, away from the attainment of MDGs. The losses in welfare that the HDI reflects cumulate and extend across different dimensions of welfare. For example, in the conflict-prone areas of North Eastern Kenya, the rates of malnutrition are high with endemic conditions of food insecurity. The disruption of food systems, the collapse of livelihoods and the disintegration of already limited basic services create powerful multiplier effects. These have devastating consequences for poverty reduction and human development efforts.

The Millennium Development Goals provide initiatives aimed at removing deprivations, on which efforts to improve human security can be built.

Box 1.4 Threats to Freedom from Wants

The past 25 years have seen the most dramatic reduction in extreme poverty that the world has experienced. Yet at the same time, dozens of countries have become poorer, devastating economic crises have thrown millions of families into poverty, and increasing inequality in large parts of the world means that the benefits of economic growth have not been evenly shared. Today, more than a billion people – one in every six human beings – still live on less than a dollar a day, lacking the means to stay alive in the face of chronic hunger, disease and environmental hazards. In other words, this is poverty that kills. A single bite from a malaria-bearing mosquito is enough to end a child's life from want of a bed net or a \$1 treatment. A drought or pest that destroys a harvest turns subsistence into starvation.

For centuries, this kind of poverty has been regarded as sad but inescapable aspect of human condition. Today, that view is intellectually and morally indefensible. The scale and scope of progress made by countries in every region of the world has shown that over a very short time, poverty and maternal and infant mortality can be drastically reduced, while education, gender equality and other aspects of development can be dramatically advanced. The unprecedented combination of resources and technology at our disposal today means that we are truly the first generation with the tools, the knowledge and resources to meet the commitment, given by all states in the Millennium Declaration, "to making the right to development a reality for everyone and to freeing the entire human race from want".

In Larger Freedom, UN Secretary General

Human security permits every individual to enjoy the right to nurture his/her capabilities and enlarge/expand own choices without endangering others. It provides essential elements to promote Human Development by guaranteeing the ability: (a) to live a long, healthy and productive life (b) to access knowledge (c) to have sufficient material to meet basic needs, and (d) to participate freely in community and public life. Guaranteed security reassures progress on several fronts, namely (i) strong growth, sustainable/equality of wealth; (ii) development of human health and education; (iii) fight against poverty ; (iv) creation of decent jobs; (v) support to women and advancement of gender equality (vi) taking care of the environment, and (vii) promotion of good governance: political, economic, social and cultural. This National report makes the point that human security (i) is a fundamental public good, shared by individuals, communities, businesses, and the state alike, that makes it possible for all individuals to reproduce it for their basic needs without risks to life, pollution, poor health, originating from others; (ii) that human security serves us all while insecurity becomes a general threat to all, and (iii) that it encompasses a wider concept as articulated in the 1994 HDR to include capabilities (i.e. access to education, health, human rights etc). Security safeguards and expands people's fundamental freedoms to pursue the life they value, guaranteeing the gains and opportunities enjoyed today are sustained for tomorrow. It provides them with the expectation and confidence that their future is safe and worth anticipating, and engenders a promise that that their lives will not be arbitrarily put to an end through acts of crime or abject poverty. Human security is a minimum prerequisite and a platform for human development as portrayed in figure 1.2.

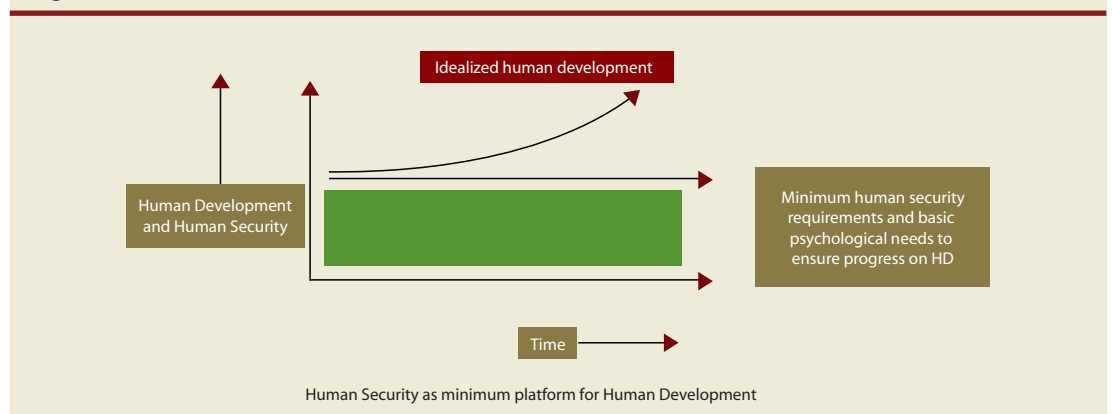
Human security should not merely be viewed as a basic right; it is also a foundation for progress in other areas, including health, nutrition and the development of institutions of democracy and peace building. Conflict undermines this foundation. The Human Security approach calls for a multi-pronged strategy: identifying threats, seeking to prevent them from happening, mitigating harmful effects for those that occur, and helping victims to cope with the consequences of widespread "insecurities" such as conflict, human rights violations and massive under-development. The Millennium Development Goals provide initiatives aimed at removing deprivations, on which efforts to improve human security can be built. These observations are in sync with the Human Development paradigm which argues that deficits in substantive freedoms related to vulnerability to economic poverty, deny people the opportunity to satisfy hunger, achieve adequate nutrition, remedy themselves from treatable illnesses or have the opportunity to be adequately clothed or sheltered, the enjoyment of clean water and sanitation, or access to adequate security.

1.3 Kenya's Security Vulnerability Profile

Kenya has experienced a marked decay in human security in recent years, from ballooning petty crime to the advent of ethnic cleansing. Physical security or freedom from violence has particularly witnessed prominent deterioration since 1990 in three main aspects. First, petty - and sometimes violent crime has increased dramatically, especially in urban areas. Second, the rural parts of Northern Kenya have witnessed an escalation of armed violence. Third, 'ethnic clashes' have resulted in deaths and displacement of people since 1991.

Human insecurity has become one of the biggest challenges facing Kenya today, making it a relevant subject for national policy dialogue. It is characterized by cattle rustling; drug trafficking; ethnic tensions; general crimes such as killings, robbery, muggings, car jacking and rampant thefts; domestic violence and other forms of rights infringement against women and children, corruption and mal-administration of justice. Although human insecurity has been associated with

Figure 1.2 Human Security as a minimum reform for Human Development



a decline in economic welfare, unemployment and social hardships, statistics indicate that crime is increasing despite an upturn in the country's economic performance over the recent past. Due to escalating human insecurity, both public and private expenditure on security has increased significantly. For example, between 1998 and 2003, Government expenditure on security rose from 3.73 percent of the total public expenditure to nearly 6.92 percent during 2003/04 fiscal year. Apart from the opportunity cost that the country suffers in not utilizing such funds on development projects, the growth in Government expenditure on security and related obligations increases pressure for higher citizen taxation. Private expenditure on security has equally escalated.

Given this scenario, the choice is to change conditions for the better. That means, putting in place systems to guarantee higher personal incomes, productive employment, improved health care delivery, better quality of education and housing, reducing crime and infringement of civic and political rights, absence of ethnic strife and armed conflict, less environmental degradation and pollution, and assuring sustained land productivity particularly in the vulnerable ASALs.

Economic Deficits and Vulnerability

A significant dimension of economic vulnerability springs from inaccessibility to a majority of Kenyans of assets for use in generating assured livelihoods, poverty, unemployment or even inflation pressures. The country's rising poverty is closely correlated with exposures to such insecurities as the risks to life, vulnerability as associated with marginal and unproductive land, and bad weather particularly in the ASAL areas. It is also correlated with the prevalence of diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis in some pockets of the country or the HIV/AIDS pandemic, which result in lower life expectancy, and increased vulnerability to hunger. The poor are most liable to increased risks of acute droughts, raw commodity price fluctuations, and unemployment. Yet, while the poor are the greatest victims of such shocks, they are the least able to deal with their occurrence.

Poverty

Income poverty is closely associated with lack of assets (land and capital) and poor access to economic goods and services, and unavailability of remunerative employment. In turn, poverty adversely affects participation in social and political processes and denies life choices. The poor are also particularly vulnerable to natural disasters. Access to land is both a human security goal by itself, and a conflict-prevention measure. Competition over land and water resources has been showed to potentially flare into disputes and conflicts in Kenya. Unavailability of suitable arable land, the inefficient access to and use of water and land, and related social factors and practices of exclusion aggravate the tensions as evidenced in the Northern parts of Kenya. Poor land productivity, particularly in ASAL, areas, makes the case for a "Green Revolution" in Kenya. Also, as data demonstrates, single female-headed households dominate extreme rural poverty because Kenya denies women independent ownership of assets, particularly land, thereby making them vulnerable in many ways. Regions that are distant from roads, infrastructure, markets etc suffer lower incomes as a result. This leaves them vulnerable to a litany of "external shocks" such as rapid inflation, drought, fragile incomes etc.

Some of the main determinants of human poverty are inequitable access to assets and poor levels of health and education among the economically active members of households, especially women; high dependency rates in households; diminishing opportunities for stable employment; low productivity of family plots; poor basic infrastruc-

Box 1.5 Multi-dimensionality of Poverty

Poverty at the individual or household level is complex. It affects individuals' or households' capacity to achieve an acceptable quality of life. These vulnerabilities can be summarised as follows:

The capacity vulnerability for meeting the basic needs of the individual

One dimension of poverty is the inability of the household to provide each of its members with sufficient food and shelter and meeting their basic needs. In a cash economy, the ability to meet the basic needs of the members of a household is determined by the balance between income and essential expenditure. The possession of assets, including labour, is often significant factor in enabling households to meet the basic needs of their members. Insecurity increases this vulnerability.

The capacity vulnerability to cope with emergencies

Poverty is the lack of minimum security to face the unforeseen events and crisis. For example, a health crisis is a common factor in triggering a decline in poverty or worsening poverty at the individual or household level. Medical costs or the loss of the labour of a productive member of the household often increases vulnerability to debt or may lead to distress sales of productive assets.

The capacity vulnerability to mobilize a support network

The capacity to mobilize support in the face of shortages or crises reduces vulnerability to slippages into poverty. Such support network often includes extended family and kinship ties as well as other alliances. Poverty is lack of a network that can provide such support in time of need.

The capacity vulnerability to benefit from opportunity

Socio-economic changes, inherent to every society, may lead to disaster at an individual and household level – for example, through collapse of agricultural prices or loss of traditional sources of income. Such changes also provide opportunities for advancement, such as the opportunity for employment or business. Poverty is the lack of resources, including economic or human - to seize the opportunities or to respond to a business or employment chances.

The capacity vulnerability to promote children out of poverty

Poverty often can also be an inheritance. Simply meeting the basic needs of children does not reduce their vulnerability to crisis or enable them to break free of the cycle of poverty. Poverty is the lack of capacity of families to enable children to grow out of poverty. Children born in the poor strata of society have a high probability of poverty, which then trickles down from generation to generation. Access to appropriate education and training is a key factor in graduating children out of poverty.

Source: Adopted from Afghanistan NHDR

ture; lack of comprehensive social policies and safety nets; inadequate road networks; and poor integration of rural markets to allow for the sale of agricultural surpluses.

A November 2005 Government report entitled "Geographic Dimensions of Well-being in Kenya: Volume II – Who and Where are the Poor? A Constituency Level Profile" graphically documents a telling profile of poverty and inequality in Kenya. The report shows that living standards for Kenyans have been declining steadily for over a decade.

The report presents estimates profiling poverty incidence⁴ within constituencies by gender and the level of educational achievements of the households. It indicates that Nyanza Province is the poorest in the country with a poverty incidence ranging from 65 to 80 percent, followed by North Eastern Province, which has an incidence of 64 percent. The next in line was Western Province with an incidence of 61

Table 1.1 Distinctive Characteristics of Poverty and Vulnerability

Dimension of Poverty and Vulnerability	Distinctive Aspects of Urban Poverty and Vulnerability
Income	Greater dependence on cash and market access for consumption needs. Inherent instability of employment opportunities derived from informal sector. High ratio of dependents to able-bodied adults.
Education	Insufficient service provision in rapidly growing cities. Inability to afford school expenses. Personal safety and security risks deter school attendance in some areas.
Health	Pollution of air and water injuries and deaths from traffic. HIV/AIDS risks. Unsafe working conditions (industrial and informal sector). Overcrowded and unhygienic living conditions. Poor families struggle to meet costs of water and fuel.
Tenure	Land and good housing is often not easy to afford. The poor occupy land illegally and construct shanties without official permission.
Personal	Domestic violence. Family breakdown and reduced support for children-vulnerable urban populations frequently lack extended family ties, which can provide safety nets. Greater social diversity and visible income inequality increases tensions and crime rate.
Financial	Lack of access to credit and safety nets from social and informal networks.
Disempowerment	Isolation of communities disconnected from jobs and services. Insufficient channels for obtaining employment, knowing legal rights, etc. "Social fragmentation weakens ties of trust and collaboration in general.

Source: World Bank, "Poverty, Vulnerability and Social Protection"

Malaria is a major human security threat, perhaps even more than AIDS, and is prevalent and on the rise in more than 60% of the country.

percent, Eastern with 58 percent and Coast 57.6 percent. In contrast, the richest rating was accorded to Central Province with a poverty incidence of 31 percent, followed by Nairobi with an incidence of 44 percent and Rift Valley with 48 percent. Nineteen of the top 23 districts in the richest category, with a poverty incidence of less than 35 percent are in the Central Province.

The report further indicates that households headed by individuals with educational attainment at the secondary level or above have less poverty compared to those headed by individuals with primary level of education. Within each constituency, households headed by individuals with no school education depict the highest poverty incidence. This pattern holds true for both urban and rural areas across all the 210 constituencies in Kenya. Poverty manifests itself in a number of capacity vulnerabilities as shown in Box 1.5.

Urban poverty is as multidimensional as rural poverty, with common features such as the lack of employment, adequate housing and services, social protection, health care, education and personal security. A UN Agency indicates that currently approximately 29 percent of the urban population and 47 percent of Kenya's rural population live under conditions of absolute poverty, where malnutrition and seasonal famine are not just a consistent fear, but also a frequent reality in their daily lives. The distinctive characteristics of poverty and vulnerability especially as manifested in urban areas are captured in Table 1.1.

Job insecurity

Dwindling livelihood prospects are among the growing threats to human security in Kenya. Unemployment is estimated at 23 percent, while among those considered employed, a significant portion is underemployed. Creating adequate employment opportunities is critical to poverty reduction initiatives. Outside agriculture there are few opportunities for secure employment in Kenya, a lack of which exposes people to vulnerability in livelihoods.

Illiteracy

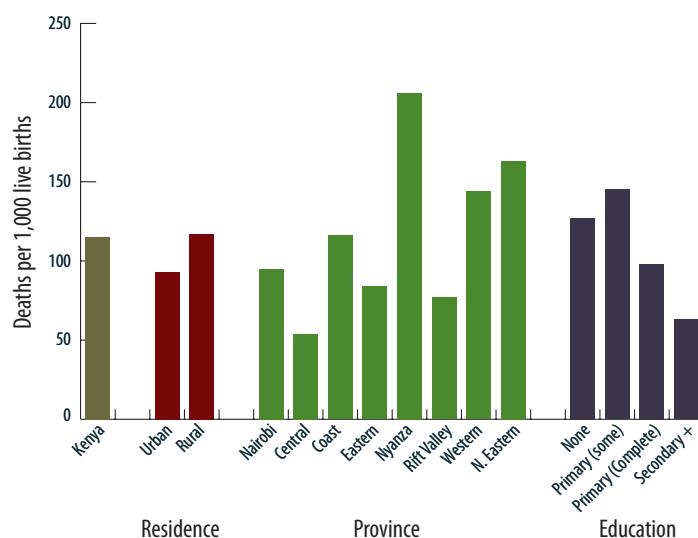
Literacy and numeracy by region, urban zones and gender are key components of HDI. They are also critical in influencing awareness of life opportunities, and access to basic needs, chances for income-generating activities as well as good health. Illiteracy tends to leave people vulnerable to exploitation, and also to disempower individuals by leaving them unaware of their rights. In Kenya, there are regional as well as rural-urban and class disparities in education that act as barriers to enhancing and sustaining human security and human development. For example, women suffer the lowest primary enrollment ratios in ASAL pastoral areas, where communities are continually exposed to general insecurity, endure very low incomes, and are more vulnerable to bad weather, poor roads and cattle raids.

Health

There is a correlation between health, poverty levels and poor access to income-generating activities. Nyanza per-



Floods often constitute insecurity

Graph: 1.1 Under 5 Mortality Rates

forms poorly on child mortality and has the highest HIV/AIDS prevalence rates. Life expectancy is a meagre 45 years for males and 44 years for females. The Kenya demographic and health survey further indicates that infant mortality is 77 deaths per 1,000 live births and under-five mortality is 115 per 1,000 live births. This means that nearly one in every nine children born in Kenya dies before attaining their fifth birthday, and the rates for both infant and under-five mortality, which reflect the degree of vulnerability to poverty and deprivation, are increasing. It also observes deterioration in immunization coverage for children, declining health services delivery, and widespread poverty.

Under-five mortality rates are 26 percent higher in rural areas than in urban areas. The rates by province display considerable differentials. Except for neonatal mortality, all childhood mortality indicators are highest in Nyanza province and lowest in Central Province. Under-five mortality is highest in Nyanza, followed by North Eastern Province and lowest in Central and Rift Valley Provinces. This implies that a child born in Nyanza is four times more likely than a child born in Central province to die before celebrating the fifth birthday. The same pattern is evident in the case of infant mortality rates.

Malaria is a major human security threat, perhaps even more than AIDS, and is prevalent and on the rise in more than 60% of the country. It affects 20 million Kenyans annually and its cumulative contribution to human suffering and economic loss is immense. It is estimated that, every year, 26,000 children under the age five years die from direct consequences of malaria infection. It is endemic in most parts of the country. Spatially, the country can be divided into a number of malaria threat zones: (a) stable malaria threat (Nyanza, Coast, and Western Provinces) (b) seasonal malaria threat (Central, Eastern, and North Eastern Provinces) (c) highlands prone to malaria threats (Rift Valley and some parts of Nyanza provinces), and (d) malaria free zones, mainly Nairobi and (some parts of) Central provinces. The increased incidence of malaria could be attributed to many factors, e.g., the degraded environment and unbalanced ecosystem, vulnerable and malnourished populations, lack of health infrastructure and poor access to health care services, functional illiteracy causing non-adherence to treatment regimes, and the overuse of poor quality and counterfeit medicines that increase the resistance of biological agents to drugs.

In turn, rural women are not only less likely than their urban counterparts to get care from a doctor but also more likely to get no care at all. The 2003 Kenya Demographic Health Survey indicates marked variations in antenatal care coverage, with two thirds of women in North Eastern Province not getting any antenatal care at all. The response to sickness by the poor is markedly different from the non-poor. Overwhelmingly, the poor cannot afford private health care (76% rural and 81% urban) and rely on public health facilities and a majority finds even the public health charges unaffordable. Often times, they do not seek public health care due to unavailability of drugs and many times resort to the traditional medicines.

Environmental Degradation, Pollution etc

Environmental degradation and poor access to clean and safe drinking water and sanitation are major environmental security threats. Man-made and natural threats to the environment have been caused by erosion, felling of trees, destruction of watersheds and increasing settlements in water catchments, which have had a considerable impact on people.

One potential harmful result of environmental degradation is climate change as predicted by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), who observe that the vulnerability impacts will include problems of floods, droughts, "altered food productivity, and complex disturbances in the ecological systems."⁵ Along with these issues are threats from consequent pollution and deficiencies in clean and safe water, clean air, and hygienic habitation. All these cause illnesses that reduce life expectancy. It is also well acknowledged that the level of air pollution is the most obvious challenge to the health of urban populations. It is pointedly one of the leading risk factors for respiratory diseases, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary diseases, lung cancer, pulmonary heart disease, and, bronchitis, which pose significant threats to human lives.

Food Insecurity

Vulnerability to food insecurity has been persistent in Kenya, touching on a wide range of aspects. The UN's Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) for instance, articulates food security from a multi-dimensional angle, where food security is defined to include stable, sustainable and adequate quan-

tity and quality of food supply for all and at all times, regardless of sex, age, class and race/ethnicity. But this has eluded the people particularly in the fragile ASAL areas that are endemically vulnerable to food shortages and occasioning frequently recurring appeals for humanitarian assistance from development partners.

Food insecurity in Kenya occurs both in urban and rural areas and in both high potential and Arid and Semi Arid (ASAL) areas. About 51 percent and 38 percent of the rural and urban populations respectively are food insecure. The insecurity has been attributed to many factors, including: droughts, decline in agricultural productivity; inefficient food distribution systems; population growth; unemployment; elusive access to income and high incidences of HIV/AIDS among others.

Food insecurity in Kenya has been classified as either chronic or transitory. Chronic food security results from a continuous inadequate access to food and is caused by the chronic inability of households to either produce or purchase sufficient food, whereas transitory food insecurity is the inadequate access to food due to instability in food production, food supplies and income. The food problem in Kenya is mainly transitory in nature. This has been exemplified by: periodic droughts over years, institutional failures and poor policies which cause food crop and livestock production to decline forcing the country to import substantial foodstuffs. While food crisis in the ASAL areas has been attributed to climatic and environmental conditions, other important factors include limited alternative sources of income, exploitative cereal marketing channels, unavailability of drought and disease resistant crop varieties, low/limited crop diversification, poor storage methods, lack of credit services, illiteracy and poverty. Food insecurity is also a question of entitlements where, not all can have a fair share of the food that is available or produced. Sen argues that some people are deprived of food due to a breakdown in the "means" of accessing food. As evident in Kenya, food insecurity has occurred without any decline in general supply of food. In other words, food production per person can increase and yet more people still go hungry. This is basically due to other intervening variables like food distribution patterns as well as national policies and subsidies. Furthermore, food shortages are not experienced uniformly even in the same food deficit zones⁶

Recurring food shortages especially before grain marketing was liberalized in Kenya have been attributable to the abandonment of indigenous drought resistant crops and soil conservation methods. However, initiatives being made to assist rural communities to revert to these practices are beset with inherent contradictions. Apart from changes in feeding habits and tastes over time, the market has not been overly receptive to these changes particularly with regard to indigenous crop varieties like millet, cassava, and cowpeas. It has also become increasingly difficult to convince consumers that their traditional crops and vegetables are not only well suited to local climatic conditions but are also nutritious. As a result, there is dire need for a concerted and a participatory effort aimed at sustainable co-existence between "new" technologies in agriculture and the traditional farming practices.

Food insecurity is also due to land fragmentation, as most of the original large scale farms have been sub-divided beyond economically sustainable production capacities. As a result of the fragmentations, some 89 percent of the households in Kenya live in less than 3 hectares and, more strikingly, 47 percent live on farms of less than 0.6 hectares. This shows that the farms in Kenya are predominantly small: only 10 percent of holding or 575,000 households are

above 3 hectares. One third of these are in the large farm areas of the Rift Valley Province and another one third in the marginal areas of Eastern Province (Kitui and Machakos) and Nyanza Province (Homa Bay and Migori). The balance is small pockets of large farms scattered in all areas of the country. Other bottlenecks to food security include farmers' inability to access food crop research findings, tribal clashes and displacement, illiteracy and rudimentary farming methods.

In turn the state of people's nutrition is fragile. About 44 percent of the population is under-nourished, reflecting low per capita and a skewed distribution of income, resulting in limited access to food. The incidence and intensity of hunger and malnutrition has increased significantly and per capita supply of the main staples has been declining since early 1980s. Chronic under nutrition in Kenya is associated with insufficient dietary intake because a significant number of households lack adequate resources (income) to secure basic food requirements.

The vast majority of people continue to face food insecurity, both in terms of quality and quantity. Insufficient income to purchase the necessities, and the lack of employment opportunities are some of the continuing major threats to food security.

Personal security

Personal security refers to the protection of individuals from physical violence. In the Kenyan context, the common threats include: robbery, a crime in which the threat of or actual violence is used to dispossess a person of their belongings; thefts of personal belongings from individuals themselves; mugging; physical assault of people; murder; domestic violence; rape and abuses against women such as sexual exploitation/humiliation and mutilation; exposure to drugs; and other general criminal activities against the person.

Gender-Related Insecurity

Insecurity especially in conflict areas affects women and girls differently from men and boys. Women and children constitute a disproportionate number of civilians affected by armed conflict particularly in the North and North-Eastern parts of the country. An estimated 80 percent of all internally displaced persons and refugees are women and children. The number of women and girls heading households in recent conflict-prone areas has increased dramatically. Rape, killings, maiming, forced displacement, abduction and torture of women and girls have generally characterised contemporary insecurity situations. During armed conflict, rape, domestic violence, sexual exploitation, trafficking and sexual humiliation and mutilation continually threaten women and girls. They are at risk in all settings, whether at home, in flight or in camps for displaced persons. The equality of rights, opportunities and access to resources among and between men and women are fundamental requirements for building durable peace.

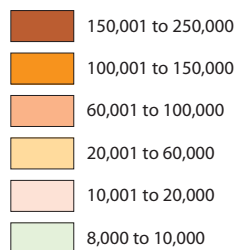
Community Security

Community security is focused on the protection of groups threatened by other, more powerful entities.⁷ Perhaps a telling example of this type of threat to human security is the crime of genocide. When an ensemble of individuals or a state systematically attempts to exterminate an entire group, borders are not necessarily crossed and sovereignty is not necessarily challenged. A graphic example of this is the conflict in Rwanda and Burundi which caused millions of people to flee, and many of the refugees from these coun-

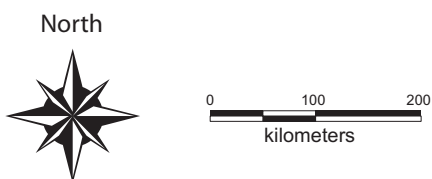
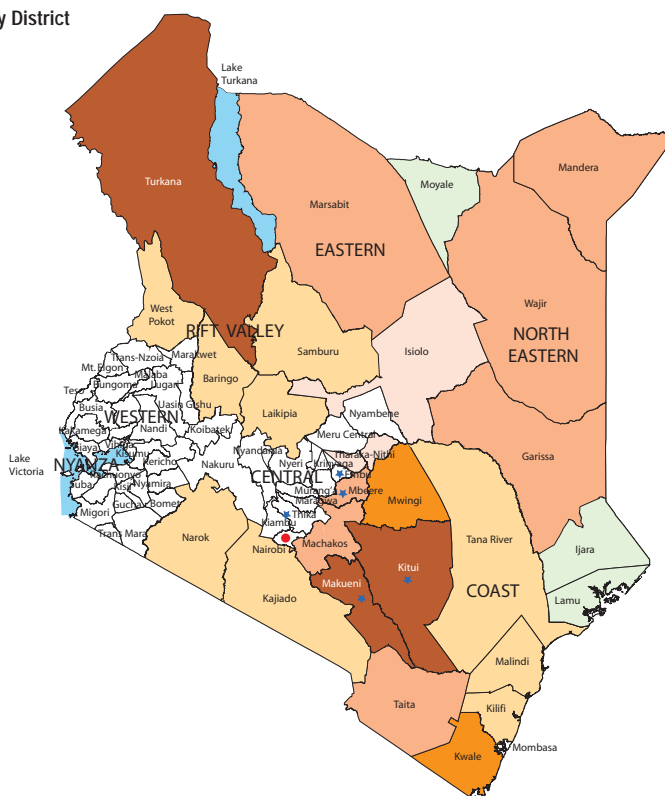
Map 1.1 Kenya: Food Insecure Population by District

Legend

Food Insecure Population Distribution



- Nairobi
- ★ Aflatoxin affected areas



The boundaries and names shown on this map DO NOT imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

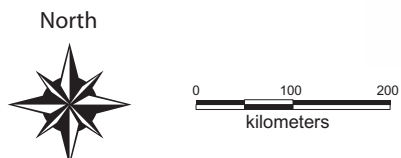
Source: OCHA Regional Office Nairobi

Map 1.2 Potential Conflict Areas

Legend

- Town
- Major Town
- City
- International Boundary
- Provincial Boundary
- Road
- Forest Reserve

- I Insecurity
- B Banditry
- EC Ethnic conflict
- CR Cattle rustling
- LG Land grabbing
- CT Cattle theft
- CBR Cross border raids
- R Religious conflicts
- U Unemployment
- P Political conflicts
- M Mungiki vs local Admin
- PO Poverty
- SA Small arms
- R Refugees/local host
- LC Land conflicts
- T Titanium Mining
- H Hyacinth



The boundaries and names shown on this map DO NOT imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.



Private expenditures on personal security precautions have risen to become only second to rent as the topmost consumer of Kenyans' household incomes.

tries left their homes on foot with nothing more than their personal effects, often their only remaining possessions to face a fragile future. As refugees, they faced double tragedy: they fled because they were afraid; and in fleeing, they started a precarious existence.

The rural-urban context of human insecurity

Urban Areas

Human security threats at the personal and community levels, from crime in the form of theft, burglary, armed theft and robbery, assault, car jackings and attacks on the forces of law and order have been increasing in the urban areas over the past decade from slums to well-to-do neighbourhoods. Rising population with increasing urbanization and lack of

employment opportunities aggravate the situation. A United Nations street/household victimization survey found that in the year 2000, 37 percent of over 10,000 respondents in Nairobi had been mugged, 29 percent had been burgled and 18 percent assaulted⁸. Moreover, violent confrontations between members of certain ethnic groups have recently taken place in the poorer areas of the capital city, much of which is perpetrated by members of a little known religious sect under the name of Mungiki.

Following these developments, private expenditures on personal security precautions have risen to become only second to rent as the topmost consumer of Kenyans' household incomes, accounting for between 9 and 18 percent of the take home pay, to hire security guard services from private security firms. On the business front, the impact of insecurity

on the economy has been significant, limiting the ability of firms to generate revenue by scaling down operations to certain areas and hours of the day. In turn, the country's industrial sector has increasingly become non-competitive due to rising the cost of production with increased expenditure on security infrastructure, hiring guards and inability to access raw materials and customers, and higher expenditures on replacing stolen property.

Rural Areas

Within the country's domestic setting, security concerns are meshed with the impact of foreign refugees and the flow of small arms across the country's borders, both of which have contributed to Kenya's spiralling levels of crime and lawlessness. "Ordinary" banditry and armed raids to steal livestock (the most prevalent form of rural crime) are often tied up with ethnic feuds. Often, a lack of financial and security resources has restrained meaningful and sustained anti-rustling interventions along the border areas.

Particularly vulnerable is the Northern Kenya, which although encompassing about two-thirds of the country's surface area, is home to 20 percent of Kenya's population, comprising mainly traditionally pastoralist communities⁹. Cattle rustling, an established practice in the area, used to be governed by commonly understood rules that prevented excessive violence. Sometimes elders would negotiate a truce and the return of some stolen cattle. However, recent years have seen a significant transformation. No longer are relatively small numbers of cattle seized at a time; they can number in the thousands. Raiders now often torch dwellings in the process, and, in another unprecedented practice, use automatic weapons to target people, including women, children and the elderly. Since the early 1990s, livestock are very often sold on the market in Nairobi or other urban centres, as well as in Southern Sudan and the Middle East, and therefore are not easily recoverable, as they had been in the past¹⁰. Much of the northern region is under the control of bandits and local warlords to the extent that the state's actual sovereignty over the region is sometimes questioned causing most communities to arm themselves in self-defense.

Ethnic Cleansing

A more recent case of what are often referred to as ethnic clashes erupted in parts of the Rift Valley Province and several adjoining districts in neighbouring provinces from the latter part of 1991, forcing people to abandon their land, livestock and belongings. Those who resisted were physically attacked. The appearance of 'clashes' in 1991 was the first incident of large-scale inter-ethnic conflict. In 1993 further skirmishes flared and more people fled their settlements¹¹. Raids subsided by 1994, but have continued on a lower scale to this date. In late 1997, similar violent attacks took place in the Likoni-Kwale area of the Coast Province, resulting in deaths and human displacement. Renewed ethnic cleansing took place in parts of the Rift Valley in 1998. Other flare-ups have occurred in the Tana River District (Coast Province), Wajir District (North-Eastern Province) and along the Gucha/Trans Mara border (Western Kenya).

From a regional perspective, armed conflict in neighbouring countries has bred insecurity in Kenya through cross-border incursions and trade in small arms, often related to kinship ties that traverse international frontiers. In terms of regional relations, a key threat to Kenya's territorial integrity since independence has been posed by Somalia in the disputed and lawless semi-desert North-Eastern region, where there is a large Somali ethnic population. Similarly, Kenya's security relationship with the Sudan has also been

severely strained since the late 1980's, amidst mutual accusations of assisting dissident rebel armies. Despite the tensions, Kenya has continued to play a leading role in the Inter Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD) the principal Sudan peace forum. On the other hand, relations between Kenya and Uganda have fluctuated widely. Minor frontier skirmishes between the two countries' security forces, involving cross-border pursuit of alleged rebels, also occur from time to time.

Proliferation of Small Arms

The regional illicit arms trade began in earnest in 1979 following Idi Amin's overthrow in Uganda¹² and instabilities in the neighbouring countries of Sudan, Somalia and Ethiopia. This flooded the northern Kenya with small arms and ammunition. Many automatic rifles cross the "porous border" with Somalia each month, and, an estimated 90-95 Percent of households in northern Kenya are believed to be armed¹³. Easily available, low-price smuggled weapons have found their way to Nairobi. A wider international conflict saw the bombing of the US embassy in Nairobi in 1998 and an Israeli-owned hotel near Mombasa in 2002, as well as the launching of surface-to-air rockets that shot at an Israeli passenger jet in Mombasa the same year.

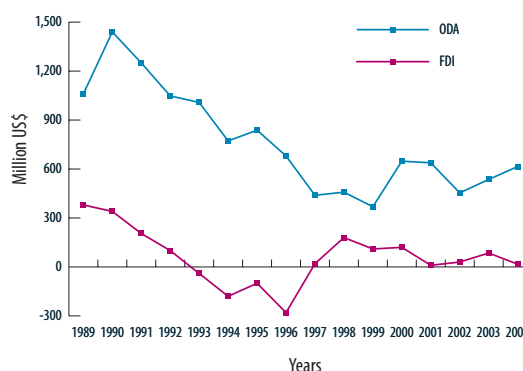
Donor relations, Reform and Stability

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, Kenya was perceived to be an island of stability in an otherwise tumultuous region. Because of objectionable political and economic governance, the donor community decreased net aid to Kenya from a high of US\$ 1.4 billion in 1990 to a low of US\$ 369 million in 1999. Due to similar donor concerns, net flows of private capital fell dramatically¹⁴.

After new aid to Kenya was suspended in 1991, pending, among other things, the liberalization of its political system, the Government quickly responded by legalizing opposition parties and holding multi-party elections to avoid increased violence and insecurity.

Though political factors, alongside economic ones, contributed to the donors' decision to suspend new aid to the Kenyan Government in 1991, 1997 and 2001, it was mainly progress on economic matters that led to aid renewal in 1993, partially in 1997-98 and more fully in 2000. After 1994, it became clear that donors, especially the Bretton Woods institutions, valued economic policy inducing reforms, notably the fight against corruption, more than political issues in giving aid.

Graph 1.2 Net Financial Flows to Kenya, 1989-2004



Raiders now often torch dwellings in the process, and, in another unprecedented practice, use automatic weapons to target people, including women, children and the elderly.

The Significance of Human Security Framework for Policy

A major significance of the Human Security framework for policy is that due consideration should be paid to addressing issues of democratic governance, crime, human rights, public health issues such as HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB, poverty and provision of basic needs. Equally important is the protection of people from external conflicts and socio-economic exploitation; containing civic unrest from ethnic identities; and supporting development. There is a need to promote strong sustainable and equitable development, enhance the development of human capabilities, health and educational attainment, support the fight against poverty and hunger, create decent and predictable jobs, support women, and create reliable systems for early warning.

End notes

3. UNV Security Enhancement Workshop Proceedings, July 2001
4. Percentage of the residents living below the poverty line
5. Page and Redclift (2002), *Human Security and the Environment: International Comparisons*, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, 110. cited in *Conceptualizing Human Security* accessed at www.american.edu/sis/students/sword/Back_Issues/1.pdf
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7. UNDP Human Development Report (1994), 30-32
8. *Economist*, 10 August 2002: Victimization Survey by UN HABITAT
9. Musambayi, 1998: 22-3
10. Musambayi, 1998: 27; Juma, 2000: 53
11. Human Rights Watch Report (1993: 1 and 90)
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13. Muggah and Berman, 2001: 10-1
14. Figures in current Dollars extracted from OECD, 2002

Human Security and Human Development

2.1 Measuring and Monitoring Human Development

It is not obvious to everyone that human development can be measured so as to inform as well as define policy, or even that human development can be targeted and monitored. This chapter discusses human development indicators used in the assessment of the level of human development in Kenya, which is based on the three Human Development indices, namely: Human Development Index (HDI), Human Poverty Index (HPI) and Gender-related Development Index (GDI).

Measurement of Human Development

The Human Development Index (HDI) developed by UNDP in 1990 measures the average achievement in basic human development in one single composite index. The HDI is derived from a simple average of three components: longevity, educational attainment or level of knowledge and decent standard of living. Longevity is measured by life expectancy at birth, while knowledge is measured by adult literacy rates and combined enrollment rates. Decent standard of living is measured by per capita income (Appendix 2).

The HDI value for a country shows how far that country has gone in attaining an average life expectancy of 85 years, access to education for all and a decent standard of life. The HDI facilitates the evaluation of progress in human capabilities over time and across countries and regions. Such evaluation facilitates the determination of priorities for policy intervention. In numerical terms, the HDI values range from 0 to 1 where 1 indicates the highest level of human development.

Although a country's HDI is helpful in assessing overall performance, it can conceal the fact that different regions within a country can have very different levels of human development. If data is available, the HDI can be disaggregated to assess progress at the regional and district levels and even among different groups in society. Disaggregated HDI values are arrived at using sub-national or class specific data. Using such disaggregated HDIs can provide useful insight in highlighting significant disparities and gaps. In this report, we have used district and provincial data to illuminate the disparities and track changes and trends of performance.

Nevertheless there remains a tendency to confine human development strategies and ideas within the human development index, ignoring the fact that HDI only serves as a narrow interpretation of human development dynamic. HDI is a simplification of a complex reality. It excludes in its calculation the political freedoms, participation and enjoyment of security. Human development is broader than its measure, and, the HDI message is that the essential human development objective is to expand education, literacy, health and survival, and to raise incomes. Human capabilities extend well beyond these areas and are arguably infinite. Successive Human Development Reports have shown that countries or regions with similar incomes can achieve different levels of human development, and similarly, regions with different security situations can result in different levels of HDI. A number of HDRs have explored this relationship, revealing no automatic links. Where links are strong, growth or improved security and human development are mutually reinforcing and vice versa.

Measuring gender inequalities in development

While the HDI measures average achievements, the GDI determines these averages adjusted for gender inequality. In 1995, the United Nations Development Programme devoted its annual Human Development Report to the analysis of gender relations and disparities in the world. The report introduced the gender-related development index (GDI) into human development calculations to capture gender differences (which are often immense).

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) uses the three variables of the Human Development Index to measure gender disparities. Simply, GDI measures achievements in basic human development adjusted for gender inequality. A GDI value close to 1 signifies achievement of equality for men and women. Generally, a low GDI ratio indicates deprivation of women in relation to men.

Measuring Human Poverty in Development

Human poverty has traditionally been measured in terms of inadequate consumption or income. It has been defined both in absolute and relative terms. Absolute poverty is a standard of living where one cannot raise the income required to purchase basic requirements. Relative poverty is when one cannot purchase a bundle of basic needs available to the reference social group.

Various reports in Kenya define poverty in an absolute sense. The Welfare Monitoring Survey (WMS) of 1997 estimated the national poverty incidence at 52% using household consumption data. This means that 52 % of the total Kenyan population lived below the poverty line in 1997 which was fixed at an equivalent of US\$ 0.68 per day in rural areas and US\$1.46 in urban areas at the then exchange rate of Ksh. 60.40 to the US dollar.

Since 1997, it is fairly obvious that the level of poverty has changed in the country. As no survey has been carried out since then, it has not been possible to obtain estimates of the current levels of income poverty in the country. The difficulty lies in the fact that survey data are not always available for applying the methods used to derive the estimates for 1994 and 1997.

Although widely used, income poverty measures have a number of weaknesses. Perhaps the most obvious is that they are based on income or consumption alone, ignoring other important livelihood parameters such as access to education, health and safe drinking water.

Human Poverty Index

In the 1997 Human Development Report, UNDP introduced the concept of Human Poverty so as to look beyond income in measuring poverty. The concept of Human Poverty encompasses lack of capabilities, lack of freedom, inability to participate in decision making, lack of personal security and inability to participate in the life of the community. Rather than measure poverty by income, the Human Poverty Index (HPI) uses indicators of the basic dimensions of deprivation: illiteracy, malnutrition among children, early death, poor health care and poor access to safe water (see Appendix II, Technical Note 2).

Human development can be measured and monitored to inform policy decisions.

Kenya's economy has maintained the momentum that started in 2003, with most sectors recording accelerated growth in 2005.

Human poverty or poverty of lives and opportunities is multidimensional in character and diverse rather than uniform in content. Over the years, the concept of poverty has been defined in different ways for different purposes. In human development terms, *Human Poverty Index* brings together different aspects of deprivation in the quality of life to arrive at a judgment on the extent of poverty in a community. The HPI concentrates on three essential elements of human life. The first deprivation relates to survival – the vulnerability to death at a relatively early age – and is represented in the HPI by the percentage of people expected to die before age 40. The second one being excluded from the world of reading and communication is related to knowledge and measured by the percentage of adults who are illiterate. The third aspect is related to a lack of decent standard of living, in particular, as regards overall economic provisioning. This is represented by a composite of three variables, the percentage of people without access to health services, the percentage of people without access to safe water, and the percentage of malnourished children under five.

Evidently, this view of human poverty is wider than the income perspective of poverty, according to which a person is poor if, and only if, her income level is below a defined income-based poverty line, a view popular with many countries, Kenya included.

2.2 Human Development Index (HDI)

Current HDI estimates at the national level

Kenya's HDI has increased marginally from 0.520 in 2004 to 0.528 in 2006. The increase can be associated with improved standard of living signalled by high economic (or GDP) growth and overall enrolment rates (educational attainment or level of knowledge):

GDP Growth in Kenya

Kenya's economy has maintained the momentum that started in 2003, with most sectors recording accelerated growth in 2005. Economic activities remained high throughout last (2005) year except in the fourth quarter, when drought experienced in some parts of the country adversely affected the livestock sub-sector. Real GDP grew by 5.8 Percent in 2005 compared to a revised growth of 4.9 Percent in 2004. The expansion in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was mainly underpinned by Agriculture and Forestry, Wholesale and Retail trade and, Transport and Communication with growths of 6.7 Percent, 6.5 and 8.3 Percent supported by better access to money and credit facilities. Equally, gross fixed capital formation recorded an impressive growth of 27.4 Percent in the same period¹⁵. The rapid shift in GDP growth has also been aided by the composition of the measure computed on the basis of the new System of National Accounts (1993 SNA) and a shift in base year from 1982 to 2002.

Overall Enrolment Rate

The overall enrolment rate in Kenya has also increased substantially in the last two years, catapulted by the implementation of free primary education. The Free Primary Education (FPE) Programme which was implemented in 2003 was intended to broaden access to primary schooling especially among the poor households. An extra 1.6 million children joined primary education under the initiative with enrolment increasing from 7.4 million in 2004 to 7.6 million pupils in 2005, representing an increase of 2.0 Percent while enrolment in secondary schools rose by less than one Percent¹⁶.

Primary school enrolment has increased from 7.4 million in 2004 to 7.6 million pupils in 2005. Enrolment in secondary

schools rose from 923,134 students in 2004 to 928,149 students in 2005. Teacher training colleges enrolled 22,280 trainees in 2005 up from 21,839 in 2004. The number of teachers enrolled for diploma training increased by 10.0 Percent from 1,891 in 2004 to 2,080 in 2005. Total enrolment in universities declined to 89,979 students in 2005 down from an enrolment of 91,541 students in 2004¹⁷. The number of learners enrolled for adult classes went up by 14.9 Percent from 109,923 in 2004 to 126,324 in 2005. The number of female learners increased by 11.5 Percent from 78,411 in 2004 to 87,422 in 2005 while male learners increased by 23.5 Percent from 31,512 in 2004 to 38,902 in 2005. Female learners remained the majority at 69.2 Percent in 2005¹⁸.

At a time when there is increased enrolment, overall development expenditure on education has declined by 16.1 Percent from Kshs 4.8 billion in 2004/2005 financial year to Kshs. 4.0 billion in 2005/2006. There is a shift in funding of development projects from both primary and secondary education to technical education, teacher education and general administration and planning¹⁹.

Human Development Estimates at the Sub-national Levels

Disaggregated Human Development Indices values at provincial and district levels, highlight significant variations in human capabilities and welfare in Kenya. At the provincial level:

- The 2005 HDI for Nairobi is 0.773, the highest of Kenya's provincial administrative regions. This value is attributed to a robust income component of the HDI. Understandably as in previous estimates, the high score is due to relatively numerous services, resources and opportunities that Nairobi offers as a major urban center and the country's capital. It is also notable that although Nairobi's HDI is relatively higher than that of the other regions, it has changed only marginally from a value of 0.748 in 2004, and is still lower than the 2001 value of 0.783. Again, the life expectancy of 66 years in 2001 is not yet attainable. Furthermore, the fairly high HDI value for Nairobi conceals glaring intra and peri-urban human insecurities. Over 60% of the city's residents live in slums, with high levels of crime, abject poverty and the absence of basic social amenities such as electricity and water.
- Provincial level comparisons also demonstrate that the Central Province has the second highest HDI of 0.637. (0.531); Rift Valley Province (0.528), and Coast Province (0.518). Central Province and parts of Rift Valley fall within the country's high potential zones that are better able to provide food and income-earning opportunities for a majority of the people living there. The HDI value for Kenya's eight administrative regions are shown in Figure 2.1
- Western Province has a HDI value of 0.516, while Nyanza with a HDI value of 0.468. The low HDI value for Nyanza is attributed to the relatively low life expectancy arising from the high incidence of diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis. An equally high incidence of HIV/AIDS has made the situation worse. The province's poor performance has also been attributed to lack of income-earning opportunities. Except for a few areas in the province that fall within the high potential zones, economic opportunities are limited. The major cash crops, cotton and sugar cane, have faced production and marketing problems and failed to generate sufficient incomes and adversely affected the prospects for development in the region.
- North Eastern province has the least human development score of 0.285 in the country. This poor performance can be attributed to many factors but

Figure 2.1 Human Development Index, 2005 and 2004 Comparisons



primarily the low and declined incomes in the last two years. The province is a low potential area that is often prone to insecurities due to cattle rustling, conflicts over water resources and cross-border skirmishes with neighboring countries.

- Policies and allocation of resources in Kenya have also tended to favor the high potential areas, thus leading to the marginalization of the regions that have performed poorly (see Box 2.1).

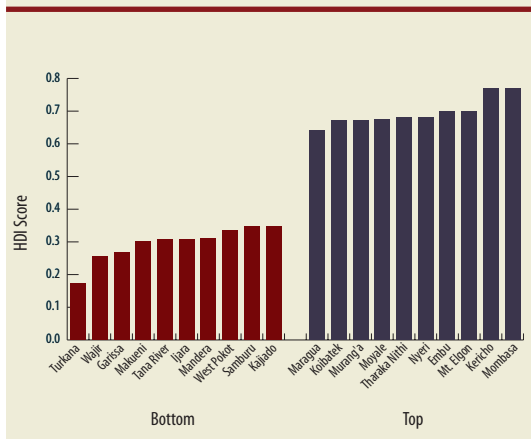
Kenyan Districts also fare quite differently in terms of achievements in human development. The top ten and bottom ten districts ranked by their performance on human development are shown in Figure 2.2:

As expected, the urban districts of Nairobi and Mombasa have the highest HDI values of 0.773 and 0.769 respectively. Kericho district has also performed well in terms of human development, meriting its place within the high potential agricultural area.

The three districts with the lowest HDIs are Turkana (0.172), Wajir (0.256) and Garissa (0.267). A closer scrutiny of the top ten and bottom ten districts reveals a number of common features.

- The districts in the high HDI category tend to be either urban centers with industrial concentrations or in the high potential areas.
- The districts in the low HDI category are mainly in the Arid and Semi-Arid Lands or in the low potential

Figure 2.2 Human Development Indices, Bottom/Top ten Districts 2005



Box 2.1 Some Striking Features on Inequality in Kenya

- Income: The 10% richest households in Kenya control more than 42% of incomes, while the poorest 10% control 0.76% of income.
- Life Expectancy: A person being born in Nyanza province can expect to live 16 less years than his fellow citizen in Central province. Life Expectancy in Meru is double that in Mombasa, 68.6 and 33.1 years respectively.
- Gender: About 93% of women in North Eastern Province have no education at all, compare to 3% in Central Province.
- Health: In Central Province, there are about 20,000 people for every doctor while in North Eastern Province there is one doctor for every 120,000 people.
- Education: Every child in Central province attends primary school compared to about one out of three children in North Eastern Province.
- Water: The proportion of households with piped water in their houses in urban areas is five times that in rural areas, about 19.2% and 3.8% respectively.

Source: Pulling Apart: Facts and Figures on Inequality in Kenya. Society for International Development (SID), 2004.

marginalized zones, that are also prone to security problems. Some of these regions have been prone to insecurities such as drought, conflicts and disasters such as floods.

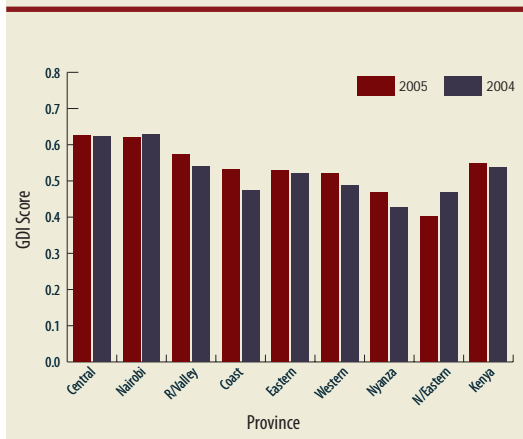
2.3 Gender and Human Development Estimates

National and provincial estimates

Kenya's Gender-related Development Index, using 2005 figures, is estimated at 0.54, higher than the estimates in the first, second and third National Human Development Reports. The increase can be explained by the improved opportunities for women since the year 2003. In particular, there is an improvement over the 2004 value of 0.538. A comparison of the estimates in the reports is given in Figure 2.3.

Gender-related development follows almost the same pattern as human development. The highest GDI in the country is 0.626 for Central. This is followed closely by Nairobi Province with a GDI of 0.620 and Rift Valley with 0.574. The lowest GDI value of 0.401 is in North Eastern Province. There is a close association of HDI and GDI values for most of the regions in the country. Whereas most provinces performed relatively better in terms of GDI in 2005 than 2004, Nairobi

Figure 2.3 Gender Development Index, 2005 and 2004 Comparisons



province stagnated. The variations are attributed to regional differences in life expectancies, education, and incomes between men and women.

Central province has the highest score, primarily due to the high equality of the income component of the index, which is supported by improved opportunities in the province. The other components contributing to this performance are the overall enrollment index, and longevity. As in the case of HDI, Nyanza Province has performed poorly while North Eastern has the worst score, perhaps due to reasons stated earlier.

Cases of Crime Against Women

While Human Security's emphasis on the individual is laudable, it requires a more radical understanding of the complexity of today's crises and the ways in which both local and international factors are shaping the particular risks that communities and especially women are facing. Most specifically, it entails recognising where and why new forms of power, control and authority are taking shape and how they are expressing themselves²⁰.

Gender-based violence in the context of contemporary conflicts has become a critical weapon of warfare. Rape, forced impregnation, sexual slavery and other forms of humiliation take on powerful political and symbolic meanings.

Cases of crime reported to the police in Kenya declined by 10.1 Percent from 83,841 in 2004 to 75,400 in 2005. Nevertheless, reported cases of rape, attempted rape, defilement/incest, and assault against women went up by 1.4 Percent from 11,867 in 2004 to 12,036 in 2005. The number of pending cases in various Magistrates' Courts increased by 29.1 Percent from 6.5 million in 2004 to 8.4 million in 2005. Cases filed and those decided upon in Magistrates' Courts increased by 34.4 and 35.2 Percent, respectively²¹.

At the same time, because of their special roles and responsibilities within the domestic economy, women in insecure parts of Kenya are inadvertently at risk from 'collateral' damage in the course of collecting water or firewood or engaging in farming or trading. There is still a major discrepancy in the ways in which women and men have access to land, credit, and other resources. These inequalities compromise the effectiveness of livelihood strategies, especially in times of crises. Survival strategies vary according to gender and generational roles and relations.

Not all women suffer equally or similarly in these contexts. For example, one of the most compromised categories of women in the face of health insecurities in Kenya is that of widows. In many parts of Kenya, culture, traditions and national legislation help reinforce certain behaviors and discriminatory practices against widows.

A key element of human security agenda rests on the notion of a renewed imperative to promote and protect human rights. The 1993 World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna as well as the UN Declaration of the "Elimination of Violence against Women" recognized the specificity of discrimination against women and gender violence and endorsed the principle that protection against these violations were important human rights issues. Thus the human security framework has the potential to be an important tool for addressing the many complex crises that affect women in communities today.

Gender Development Estimates at the Sub-national Levels

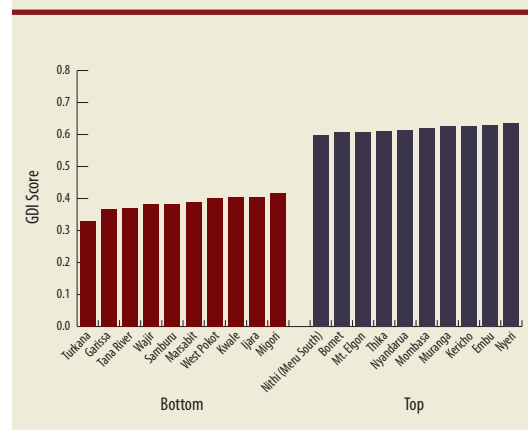
Analysis of the Gender Development Index at district levels is provided in Figure 2.4. The best performers are mainly well

endowed with rich agricultural land offering women greater latitude for high income. The worst districts are found in the North Eastern Province with fewer opportunities. Mostly, the districts which suffer forms of insecurities such as ethnic conflicts, cattle rustling (Turkana, West Pokot, Tana River, Marsabit, Samburu, Migori) are found in this category.

Gender Empowerment Measure

Another index that has been used to monitor human development from a gender perspective is the gender empowerment measure (GEM). The GEM examines to what extent men and women actively participate in economic and political life and take part in decision-making. Thus, while GDI focuses on capabilities, GEM shows how those capabilities are used to take advantage of opportunities in life.

Figure 2.4 Gender Development Index, Bottom/Top ten Districts, 2005



The gender empowerment measure (GEM) indicates the participation of women in economic, political and professional spheres using the percentage share of men and women in administrative, managerial, professional and technical positions to gauge economic participation and decision-making power. Women's political empowerment is measured by their participation in local and national elections.

Women's participation

Women's participation in decision making at the household and national levels has been found to be an important ingredient in development. Although women's participation is increasing, it remains far below that of men²². Women groups represent the primary decision-making outlets for women in Kenya and the potential for community-driven development. Registered women groups increased by 1.6 Percent from 133,135 in 2004 to 135,294 in 2005. Contributions by the groups increased from Kshs 531.6 million to Kshs 538.4 million in 2005. Support to the groups from the Government increased from Kshs 46 million in 2004 to Kshs 48.1 million in 2005²³.

Women membership in Parliament is still considerably lower than that of men. Women's presence in other elective positions such as local authority offices is also still low, compared to that of men. In all local authority posts, men's representation is remarkably higher than that of their female counterparts, thus reinforcing the low position that women occupy in representative, decision-making and redistributive offices in the country²⁴.

Gender disparities in Kenya still manifest themselves in the form of differential access to decent income opportunities, longer working hours and positions. Moreover, it may be observed that:

- Women are particularly disadvantaged, with their labour usually confined to long working hours while at the same time underpaid.
- Women have continued to have responsibility for domestic work and childcare, suggesting that they need policies to support them in their dual responsibilities. Such issues as childcare facilities, accessible schooling, maternity leave and health insurance feature more highly on their list of priorities than they do for men. These issues are critical to “levelling the playing field”, as well as ensuring the welfare of children.

Sustained efforts have to be made, on the one hand, to retain women within the educational sector and, on the other, to promote their participation in more technical subjects that equip them better for the marketplace. In addition, vocational training can ensure the continuous upgrading of skills to reflect changing skill requirements on the labour market. There needs to be a more systematic extension of the training provided by governments and employers, and of technical training schemes supported by multi-lateral donors, with particular focus on enhancing the opportunities of women.

2.4 Human Poverty Estimates

Human poverty reduction is the most important issue confronting the international community today. The poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) adopted at the Joint Meeting of and the World Bank in 1999, followed by Millennium Summit of 2000 at which the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were adopted to attest this fact. In Kenya, the Government is implementing Investment Programme for Economic Recovery Strategy (IP-ERS), a refinement of PRSP.

Kenya has committed itself to the achievement of the MDGs by the year 2015. With the assistance of development partners, the government has put in place frameworks and initiatives such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth creation and Employment, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), and UN-based frameworks in collaboration with various spheres of development. These frameworks, in part, are aimed at the attainment of the MDGs.

National Human Poverty Estimates

The Human Poverty Index for Kenya in 2005 is 37%, having increased marginally from 36.7% in 2004. The HPI value for Kenya is lower than the income poverty level of 56%. This means that the incidence of income poverty in the country is higher than human poverty.

Despite rapid economic growth in the last two years, human poverty appears to deepen. This can be attributed to the growing structural inequalities in the HPI components (access to health, water, doctors, and nutritional status of children) :

Health

The right to health contains both freedoms and entitlements. The freedoms include the right to control one's body, including reproductive health, and the right to be free from interference, such as freedom from torture and non-consensual medical treatment. The entitlements include a system of health care and protection that is available, accessible, acceptable, and of good quality. Thus, the right to health

Box 2.2 Is increasing Growth also Increasing Poverty and Inequality in Kenya?

The increasing poverty trend in Kenya calls for newer sets of strategies that address poverty and inequalities and that create opportunities for those who need them thus ensuring the sustainability. The process goes beyond attaining economic growth.

It must comprise good governance, active participation of the population in the socio-economic and political life, equitable distribution of resources and benefits, and the establishment of efficient institutions.

implies that functioning public health and health care facilities, goods and services are available in sufficient quantity within a State. It also means that they are accessible to everyone without discrimination. Accessibility has a number of dimensions, including physical, information and economic accessibility. Thus, 'information accessibility' includes the right to seek, receive and impart information concerning health issues, subject to the right to have personal health data treated with confidentiality. 'Economic accessibility' means that health facilities, goods and services must be affordable for all. Further, all health facilities, goods and services must be acceptable (i.e. respectful of medical ethics and culturally appropriate, and of good quality).

According to international human rights law, the generic right to health encompasses a number of more specific health rights including: the right to maternal, child and reproductive health; the right to healthy natural and workplace environments; the right to prevention, treatment and control of diseases; and the right to health facilities, goods and services.

Health facilities in Kenya increased by 3.0 percent from 4,767 in 2004 to 4,912 in 2005. The number of medical personnel increased by 4.2 percent from 63,227 in 2004 to 65,914 in 2005. Full immunisation coverage improved from a national average of 59.0 percent in 2004 to 65.0 percent in 2005 with North Eastern Province registering less than 50.0 Percent coverage. Malaria remains the leading cause of morbidity accounting for over one third of all reported cases of illnesses in 2005²⁵.

Health Insurance

The National Hospital Insurance Fund (NHIF) resources, receipts, benefits and contributions net of benefits in Kenya have taken a twist in the last five financial years. Whereas contributions from members have been rising, total benefits accrued has been declining for the past two years²⁶.

Even though the decline has been attributed to stringent measures to curb inflated rebates by registered health facilities, these declines might also reflect growing inaccessibility of Kenyans to the insurance benefits.

The right to health is not to be understood as the right to be healthy. The State cannot provide protection against every possible cause of ill health. It is the right to the enjoyment of a variety of facilities, goods, services and conditions necessary for the realisation of the highest attainable standard of health. The right includes both health care and the underlying determinants of health, including access to potable water, adequate and safe food, adequate sanitation and housing, healthy occupational and environmental conditions, and access to health-related information and education.

Ill health causes and contributes to poverty by destroying livelihoods, reducing worker productivity, lowering educational achievement and limiting opportunities.

Box 2.3 Social and Cultural Rights

"Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality."

Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Paris 1948, art. 22.

Because poverty may lead to diminished access to medical care, increased exposure to environmental risks, and malnutrition, ill health is also often a consequence of poverty. Accordingly, ill health is both a cause and a consequence of poverty: sick people are more likely to become poor and the poor are more vulnerable to disease and disability.

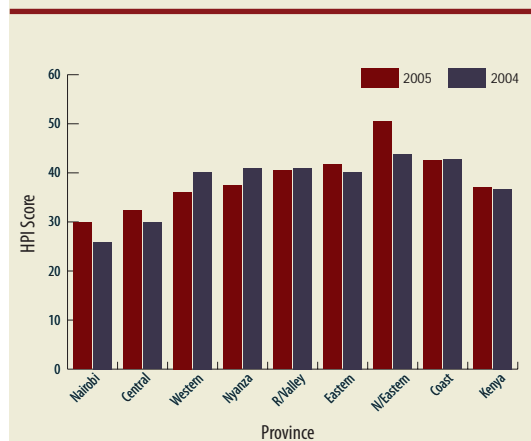
Access to Qualified Doctors

There are wide regional disparities in the key health access indicators in Kenya²⁷. Whereas Central province has a total 190 doctors and a doctor-patient ratio of 1:20,715, North Eastern Province has only 9 doctors with a ratio of 1:120,823. In terms of health institutions, Nairobi, followed by Rift Valley Province, has the least population per health facility while North Eastern province has the highest. In North Eastern Province, there are about 14,000 persons per health facility compared to about Nairobi's 5000. Security considerations might explain these skewed distributions of health access, but in a whole they might also reflect weaknesses in governance structures that tend to perpetuate marginalisation.

Trends in the Nutritional Status of Children

Kenya's nutritional status of children under five years has improved only slightly at the national level in the last five years. At the provincial level, Nairobi and Nyanza provinces have shown remarkable declines in stunting, and underweight indicators when compared with previous surveys. Coast and North Eastern provinces have had the least performance over time²⁸. Overall, about 19.1 Percent of the children under age five are estimated to be under weight. About 30.6 Percent and 4.8 percent are thought to be stunted and wasted respectively. Urban children are less likely to be underweight (13 percent) than rural children (21 percent). Children whose mothers have no education have the highest levels of being underweight (11 percent). Wealth (i.e. GDP) is also negatively correlated with proportion of children who are underweight.

Figure 2.5 Kenya HPI by Province, 2005 and 2004 Comparisons



Access to Safe Drinking Water

Wide disparities in access to safe drinking water remain. It is estimated that only 53% of the households in Kenya walk for less than 15 minutes to fetch water. Only 7.6 % of households having access to piped water.

Estimates of human poverty at sub-regional levels

The human poverty estimates for Kenya's provinces are shown in Figure 2.5. The region with the least human poverty is Nairobi (29.9%) followed by Central Province where 32.3% of the total population is affected. The rest are Western Province (36.1%), Nyanza (37.4%), Rift Valley 40.5% and Coast 42.5%. North Eastern Province has the highest human poverty of 50.5%. Compared to the year 2004, human poverty has increased marginally in all the provinces except Nyanza, Western and Coast. The biggest increase has been experienced in North Eastern Province. The increase in human poverty in North Eastern Province is attributed to decline in livelihood opportunities, occasioned by severe drought that decimated huge stocks of livestock and increased incidence of insecurity.

The best performing districts are found in the agricultural high potential areas while the worst performers are found in the low potential areas that are also prone of insecurities.

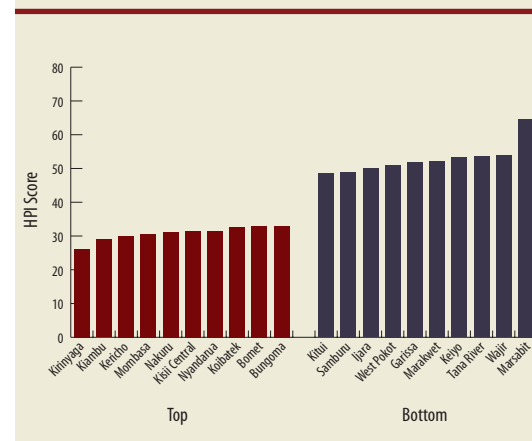
2.5 Human Security and Human Development Oriented Strategy

Human development results can be increased by improving human security conditions in all parts of Kenya to encourage investment in processing activities and complementary services. This will open up many parts of the country for industrial activities with the attendant welfare benefits. Reduction of uncertainty will also pave the way in consideration for long term investment including implementation of industrial projects with long payback but strong upstream and downstream linkages that are crucial for general improvement in human welfare.

In spite of the above achievements in the human development scores, Kenya continues to face a number of constraints:

- Insecurity remains a major impediment to investment in Kenya. The direct loss to industry due to crime is large (i.e. 4% of annual sales revenue) in addition to burdensome indirect cost of contracting security services estimated at about 2.7 percent of sales. With increasing insecurity, most enterprises in Kenya have inevitably to invest in private security services. Crime and insecurity

Figure 2.6 Kenya Human Poverty Indices, Top/Bottom ten Districts 2005



Because poverty may lead to diminished access to medical care, increased exposure to environmental risks, and malnutrition, ill health is also often a consequence of poverty.

Box 2.4 Rights to Health

"Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control."

Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Paris 1948, art. 25.

also negatively affect the image of Kenya in the international investment community.

- Corruption is one of most significant barriers to development in Kenya. Some of the worst offenders include the taxation authority, the health inspectorate, municipal authorities, Constituency Development Fund (CDF) and utility companies.
- Degraded infrastructure - roads, rail and ports - cause firms to incur significant costs in trucking, vehicle repair,

product delays and returns and bribery. Consequently, most Kenyans report dissatisfaction with the transport infrastructure system, and cannot access health facilities and services easily.

- There are no systematic ways of dealing with economic enterprises, neither is there a conducive legal environment for their operation. These enterprises remain largely insecure in their activities.
- A poor-sensitive development strategy is necessary, which mitigates risks to the poor insecurity areas, creates gainful employment and is sensitive to income distribution²⁹. Good governance that promotes social and political participation of the poor is indispensable in such areas. The above measures should be complimented by subtle and regional specific measures, in order to secure the basic needs of the impoverished, including education and primary health care. Safety net programs, such as food-for-work programs that are adopted, should be final and residual measures.
- It is important to strengthen informal or traditional insurance mechanisms or socially embedded safety net



mechanisms at the household and community levels. Inter generational transmission of poverty can be prevented by combining multiple policies such as asset formation, social protection and enlargement of opportunities for children of most vulnerable families.

Overarching Issues

The objective of human security is to safeguard the vital core of all human lives from critical pervasive threats. Institutions that undertake to protect human security will not be able to promote every aspect of human well being³⁰. This means that all actors, whether institutional, corporate or individual, must ascertain that their actions do not foreseeably or unintentionally, threaten human security.

- Genuine efforts must be made to eradicate in Kenya. With increasing growth employment, new ways need to be found to empower workers to maintain stable and sufficient income. Women in the workforce would require additional support in order to strengthen their efforts to struggle and survive.
- The distribution of national resources by targeting regions that have consistently remained at the bottom of human development scores. New avenues for human development in Kenya will be fostered through such targeting. Even though the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) provides a new avenue for redistribution of such resources, corruption has remained a major hindrance to quality services such as infrastructure and health services.
- The current inadequate state of Kenya's infrastructure acts as a major disincentive to potential investors and threatens the realization of the goal of higher economic growth and improved quality of life. The availability of infrastructure and its efficient operation are major determinants to the economic security, cost of production, quality and timeliness of response to product and service demands.

Box 2.5 Expanding Opportunities for Human Development

There is impressive scope for expanding human security by expanding opportunities for entrepreneurship and the quality of employment in small-scale industries. The major constraints are the present restrictions on the small industries, on the one hand, and the inadequacy of public services on the other. Most Local Authorities lack basic infrastructure for industries and do not have suitable zones that could enable them serve as incubators for small industries and enterprises. Thus, the industries lack visibility and cannot foster a sustainable linkage with medium and large industries. The existing industrial development strategy tends to over-emphasize export sectors while at the same time ignoring developing a local industrial base to serve the needs of the local population.

Source: KHDR 04: Linking Industrialisation and Human Development

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24. See details in Society for International Development (2004). Pulling Apart: Facts and Figures on Inequality in Kenya. P.41
25. Kenya, Republic of (2006). Economic Survey 2006. Government Printers. Pp.2,
26. Kenya, Republic of (2006). Economic Survey 2006. Government Printers. Pp.47,
27. See details in Society for International Development (2004). Pulling Apart: Facts and Figures on Inequality in Kenya. P.21.
28. Kenya Demographic and Health Survey, 2003. p.167.
29. The concept of "poor-sensitive development" includes a "pro-poor growth strategy" but its meaning is wider. Specifically it refers to economic growth which contributes to poverty reduction (or a growth strategy that creates employment for the poor to earn better compensation, without improving or deteriorating the level of income distribution).
30. Pandit Nirmala, Human Security, Entrepreneurship and Development. Mimeo, Nav Maharashtra Community Foundation, Pune

Initiatives in Response to Human Security

3.1 Overview

Human security and human development are closely interrelated. Human security is a prerequisite for human development. This is evidenced by the fact that human development cannot, for example, thrive in a state of turmoil. Human security provides an environment in which people can meaningfully engage in endeavours that improve their livelihoods. It also provides some degree of guarantee that the efforts invested therein will endure over time. In Kenya, interventions aimed at fostering human security and enhancing human development are anchored in policies, legislations and legal frameworks, programmatic interventions, institutional arrangements and reforms. To a large extent, state policies since independence have been seeking economic development without explicitly prioritising human security and human development as known today. Since the concept of human security may not have informed the discourse on policy development around the world until recently, this chapter demonstrates that efforts to reduce poverty, vulnerabilities and social inequalities; to improve capabilities; to ensure environmental sustainability; and to enhance good governance through open political freedoms, although advanced in piecemeal policies, are geared towards improving human security and enhancing human development. Some highlights of successes and challenges are observed noting in particular the policy and institutional gaps that have persisted in the country over the years, immensely contributing to the slow pace in attaining human security and human development.

3.2 Tracing the Development of Human Security and Human Development

General assessment of policy

Successive Governments in Kenya have attempted to address issues of human security and human development in various ways. Although the concepts are not expressly reflected in development policies, plans and legislations, they are to some extent implied therein. Methodologies, policy and programme regimes adopted by successive governments since independence have been different and diverse, mostly affected by external factors such as the donor community, emerging threats (disease, natural disasters and political instabilities), globalization and markets. The country's main policy concerns have been poverty alleviation, laying more emphasis on rural areas where poverty is endemic, unemployment, income disparities, and deficits in rights are glaring.

The early days of Independence

Immediately after independence, the new Government adopted a paradigm of development shaped through the concept of African Socialism³¹, whose main objective included: political equality; social justice; human dignity including freedom of conscience; freedom from want, disease, and exploitations; equal opportunities; and high and growing per capital incomes, equitably distributed. The economic performance during the period immediately after independence was impressive, and virtually every indicator of performance was well above average. However, a closer review of the

Sessional paper that steered development during the period indicates that education, health, property rights, social security, freedom and political participation, equality and non-discrimination were envisioned from a purely economic perspective. Economic development was seen to be the ultimate goal and not as a means to development.

However, the setbacks in the policies that were seemingly progressive in terms of steering economic growth were experienced in later years. These included inter alia problems of regional inequalities, increased urban population, landlessness, political suppression, personal insecurity. (See Box 3.1).

Box 3.1 Provincial Balance and Social Inertia

One of our problems is to decide how much priority we should give in investing in less developed provinces. To make the economy as a whole grow as fast as possible, development money should be invested where it will yield the largest increase in net output. This approach will certainly favor the development of areas having abundant natural resources, good land and rainfall, transport and power facilities and, people receptive to and active in development. A million pounds invested in one area may raise net output by £20,000 while in another may yield an increase of £100,000. This is a clear case in which investment in the second area is the wise decision because the country is £80,000 per annum better off by so doing and is therefore in a position to aid the first area by making grants or subsidized loans.

The purpose of development is not to develop an area, but improve and make better off the people of the area. If an area is deficient in resources, this can best be done by-

- Investing in the education and training of the people in the area or elsewhere;
- Investing in the health of the people; and
- Encouraging some of the people to move to areas richer in resources; and of course
- Developing those limited resources that are economic.

With education and training and some capital, some people of a province can make the best of limited resources. If the potential for expansion is small, medical services, education and training will qualify the people to find employment elsewhere.

Today some provinces and districts that have genuine economic potential remain underdeveloped simply because the people will not accept new ways and the necessary discipline of planned and coordinated development. In these areas a concerted and prolonged effort to overcome prejudices and suspicious (sic) is needed before development can take place. Such efforts must be clearly organised and planned, and implemented through Government and Party Machinery.

Source: African Socialism and its Application to Planning in Kenya, 1965 (Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1965)

Without doubt the current regional inequalities are historically based on skewed policies and inequitable resource allocations. While resources were invested in high potential areas at the beginning, it is almost apparent that Kenya has borne a greater burden in the latter years trying to respond to overwhelming underdevelopment in some of these historically disadvantaged provinces.

State policies since independence have been seeking economic development without explicitly prioritising human security and human development as known today

Policy Shifts in Later Years

Structural adjustment phase

The structural adjustment programmes of 1990s had far reaching effects on to the economy and the fortunes that Kenya had captured in the early periods. The SAPs involved the liberalization of trade, privatization of public enterprises and reforms in the civil service, which entailed the retrenchment of public employees, and reduction in Government expenditure. This led to imposition of user fees on social amenities such as education and health and of subsidies and price controls, which fundamentally diminished the level of access to essential services by the poor and vulnerable groups³². The response through the Social Dimension of Development Programmes however lacked the framework for long-term planning to reduce unemployment and poverty. The direct result of this change was the incapacity of Kenya as a country to experience any upward trend in human development.

The National Poverty Eradication Plan (NPEP)

Kenya's National Poverty Eradication Plan (1997 – 2001) aimed to reduce both rural and urban poverty by 50% by 2015 and strengthen the capabilities of poor people to access income and better manage their available resources for collective advancement. The Government formed the Poverty Eradication Commission to implement the plan in collaboration with community-based organizations supported by multi-lateral and bi-lateral donors. Despite good intentions, no significant achievements have been realized – poverty for example has increased and in turn, insecurity has accompanied this phenomenon.

Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, (PRSP)

The PRSP was largely a response to meet donor conditionality for accessing the PRGF credit window. It entailed broad-based consultation at both national and district levels, including the poor themselves. While NPEP was embedded in long-term vision, the PRSP sought to implement the NPEP in a series of three-year rolling plans while putting budgetary allocation on specific aspects of its implementation. In the PRSP, agriculture, small-scale industries and off-farm rural activities were given priority. Like many other policy processes, the need for resource allocation through constant budgetary support remains a challenge. Further, political will to have resources concentrated on programmes that target the poorest and most vulnerable of the society is fundamental. While the twin objective of PRSP is economic growth and poverty reduction, it should not seek to improve incomes in general but focus on how much the income of the poor will increase. In support of this point, the 2005 Global Human Development Report reminds us that pro-poor growth shortens the time horizon for halving poverty. Underlining the case for Kenya, it indicates that "If Kenya were to achieve a 1% per capita growth rate on current distribution patterns, it would not half poverty until 2030. However, doubling the share of the poor in the future growth even at the 1% per capita growth rate would enable the country to halve poverty by 2013, meeting the MDG target. In other words, pro-poor growth would reduce the time horizon for halving poverty by 17 years"³³.

Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERSWEC) (2003-2007)

The ERSWEC presents a multifaceted strategy to meet economic growth, equity and poverty reduction, and governance objectives. To spur economic growth, the ERSWEC commits to strengthening the macroeconomic framework,

assuming a responsible fiscal stance, and providing a conducive environment for private sector investment in the productive sectors and, specifically, in infrastructure development and maintenance. To reduce poverty, ERSWEC focuses on universal primary education, improved access to basic health, development of traditionally overlooked arid and semi-arid areas, and upgrading the living conditions for the urban poor. To enhance governance, ERSWEC proposes a far reaching reform of the judiciary, strengthening of rule of law and security, and implementing reforms in public administration systems that are critical to improving Government's transparency and accountability.

The NARC Government's policy agenda has been that of economic recovery and wealth creation. The policy has been formulated taking into account existing policy documents, particularly the PRSP. This Strategy identifies key policy actions necessary to spur the recovery of the Kenyan economy and is based on four pillars that include: creating a stable macro-economic framework, strengthening institutions of governance, investing in the human capital of the poor and rehabilitating and expanding physical infrastructure. All Government ministries and departments are called upon to ensure effective service delivery to the Kenyan public using the ERSWEC. Development partners are also aligning and harmonizing their development assistance along the priorities identified in ERSWEC. While steps have been taken so far by the Government geared towards achieving the ERSWEC objectives, there are significant implementation challenges and constraints.

3.3 Addressing Human Security and Human Development

Dealing with fear-based insecurity

As outlined in chapter 1, fear-based insecurity has taken various forms in Kenya. These include inter alia: community-based insecurity; individual based insecurity; insecurity in urban areas; insecurity in rural areas; the refugee challenge and political insecurity. Various strategies have been formulated and committees established at both national and sub-national levels to address these challenges.

Promoting Community Security

Community security implies that people's sense of identity with particular communities based on family, religion, ethnicity, race, organization, gender and others are assured through deliberate policy structures and responses that their security to belong to their respective communities will not be interfered with. It means, for instance, that cases of female circumcision and early marriages that threaten human security of young girls and women are reduced; factors contributing to increase of refugee situations and internally displaced persons are suppressed; and that necessary infrastructure for regional equity are put in place to reduce levels of community discontent and dissatisfaction.

Addressing ethnic/clan-based clashes in Kenya

One of the ugly marks ever left on the face of Kenya are the ethnic clashes that rocked the country in the 1990s. Human security and therefore human development was totally undermined at the peak of calls for both political and constitutional reforms. Politicians and elites exploited the ethnic vein for their own interests especially in districts like Nakuru, Narok, Molo, Kericho, Nandi, Uasin Gishu, Trans Nzoia, Bungoma, Mt Elgon, Kwale, and Kilifi among others. Many people were displaced from their lands and a cycle of human rights abuses were manifested. This further escalated the poverty levels in the area. While there have been

Pro-poor growth would reduce the time horizon for halving poverty

many ad hoc attempts to address the situation, perhaps the most comprehensive response to date has been the 1998 Presidential Judicial Commission of Inquiry formed to investigate into Tribal (ethnic) Clashes in Kenya, focusing on the

Box 3.2 Ethnic Clashes in Kenya

As part of the state efforts to contain the violence, in September 1993, two years after the violence began, President Moi invoked the Preservation of Public Security Act and declared Molo, Elburgon, Londiani and Burnt Forest areas "Security Zones".

This had numerous implications including a ban on possession of all kinds of weapons, ban on livestock movement during the night and a ban publication of information on conflict without state permission. Opposition MPs, journalists and human rights activists were subsequently prevented from visiting the said areas. This action was made at a time when a number of opposition politicians were making frequent visits to these areas for the sole purpose of giving material assistance (clothes, food, etc.) to the affected people. The Government never kept secret its distaste for these kinds of visits, which is why cynics perceived the state action as largely meant to prevent opposition elements from gaining political mileage out of the situation.

The President also made a number of tours to clash torn areas. Most of these were characterized by attacks on the political opposition for being behind the clashes. During one such tour in March 1992, he declared war against "rumour peddlers" whom he accused of fanning the animosities and directed police to round up and charge such kind of people. He stopped short of declaring a ban on all political rallies. (W.R. 27.3.92: 11, 12).

On a number of occasions, the provincial administration, following a presidential directive, organized meetings between the elders of the affected ethnic groups in attempts at achieving peace and reconciliation.

Source: W.Oyugi, Conflict in Kenya: A Periodic Phenomenon, 2002, <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/CAFRAD/UNPAN008267.pdf>

Box 3.3 Judicial Commission on Tribal Clashes

An excerpt of the Attorney General of Kenya, Hon. Amos Wako's Speech, Amicus Curie at the Judicial Commission of Inquiry into Tribal Clashes in Kenya, 1998.

"...the tribal clashes or ethnic clashes that have intermittently bedeviled this nation since 1991 have been a sad chapter in the history of our beloved Republic; they have resulted in considerable loss of lives, injury to persons and destruction of property; they have caused fear, suspicion, mistrust and insecurity among the general population in the Republic; they have inhibited the progress towards social cohesion and the integration of our society; they have been detrimental to public peace, national tranquility, law and order, human rights and the rule of law which are the cornerstone of economic and social development. Despite efforts including insecurity operations in the past, there has been sadly, evidence of persistence and recurrence of ethnic and tribal clashes in various parts of the country.

It is with the foregoing in mind that H.E. The President formed the opinion that it is in the public interest to get to the bottom of the matter so as the aspirations of the people of Kenya who wish to see a permanent end to ethnic or tribal clashes can be realised thereby enabling Kenya to move into the next millennium as one nation with one destiny – a united, dynamic vibrant and prosperous nation.

Source: Report of the Judicial Commission Appointed to Inquire into Tribal Clashes in Kenya, July 1999.

causes of violence, the actions of the police and the level of preparedness and efficacy of law enforcement agencies to prevent and manage such violence.

The Commission was to recommend further investigation or prosecution of perpetrators of the occurrence, as required, as well as ways to better avert and control future inter-ethnic attacks³⁴.

The Judicial Commission made various recommendations aimed at promoting human security that included among others arrest and prosecution of any person who whips tribal sentiments; issuance of land titles and respect and protection of private rights over land; de-linking the police force from provincial administration; prosecution of the identified culprits; Government to take deliberate steps to open up historically marginalized regions (North Eastern Province) for economic and social development to ensure that communities feel they belong to Kenya; improve infrastructure in some regions and provide basic services in these areas³⁵. Sadly, the implementation of recommendations was not expeditiously executed casting doubts in the eyes of the people on the commitment of the government to deal with issues of security and to enhance development in the affected areas.

Peace-building strategy to promote community security

Kenya has attempted various strategies that now seek to promote peace and resolve conflicts within its borders and hence enhance development. In some parts of the country, for instance, North Eastern and Rift Valley provinces, calm and peace have become elusive. This has been coupled with increasing levels of poverty among the communities living in these areas. In the last three years, inter-clan and community conflicts that assume the nature of violence have escalated to unprecedented levels and need urgent interventions. Proliferation of firearms and ammunition, limited resources both within and across border countries, poor infrastructure, and political instability in some of the neighbouring countries – Somalia, Northern Uganda, Southern Sudan and Ethiopia are some of the factors that contribute greatly to community insecurity in these areas. It is worth noting that successive Kenyan Governments have not demonstrated adequate commitment to address the North Eastern problem from a proactive approach thus the costly burden of dealing with manifestations of underlying human security and human development issues.

The following are some of the peace building strategies that Government and other stakeholders have initiated to promote community security and enhance the process of human development:

National Steering Committee on Conflict Management & Peace Building (NSC)

The NSC was established in 2001 and became fully operational in 2003. It is a national body whose mandate is to alleviate conflict and foster peace and stimulate development. NSC draws membership from Government departments responsible for security, civil society organisations (CSOs), UN bodies, regional organizations and the donor community. The Secretariat of the NSC is mandated to oversee and coordinate activities in four major areas namely: peace building and conflict management, operationalisation of Conflict Early Warning and Response activities, Community Policing Initiatives, and Reduction of Illicit Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALWs) in the country.

The establishment of the NSC underscores the fact that personal and community security is everyone's responsibility

and is not a domain of Governments. Its structure reflects an inclusive approach exemplified by its endeavour to build linkages with District Security Committees (DSC) and District Peace Committees (DPC) at the grassroots.

DPC was an initiative of civil society at the time when peace was proving difficult in most vulnerable areas in Kenya. The DPC which later gained support from Government, was supposed to be the grassroots linkage for the National Steering Committee on Conflict Management and Community Safety/National Focal Point. The composition of the DPC is drawn from traditional community leaders (seers, opinion leaders, elders, women, religious leaders, CBOs, warriors, private sector, CBOs, Provincial Administration, professionals etc. The DPC structure has the smallest unit being the sub-location, which has 10 members (5 elders, 3 women and 2 youth). The role of the DPC in promoting human security is anchored on traditional mechanisms of conflict resolution. Its tasks include curbing cattle rustling between neighbouring communities, coordinating the trans-boundary conflicts resolution efforts, forming Rapid Response Units and punishing perpetrators of conflicts. (See Box 3.4.)

The Kenya National Focal Point (KNFP)

The Kenya National Focal Point was established in 2002 under various regional instruments and protocols put in place to control the proliferation of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALWs). The founding instruments include: Nairobi Declaration of Proliferation of Illicit

Small Arms and Light Weapons in the Great Lakes and the Horn of Africa; the Bamako Declaration on the African Common Position on the Proliferation, Circulation and Trafficking of Small Arms and Light Weapons in the Great Lakes and the Horn of Africa; and the African Conference on Implementing the UN Programme of Action on Small Arms and Light Weapons. KNFP works on three main areas: Coordination, interaction with other NFPs, conduction of research, dissemination of information and capacity building with regard to SALWs; Peace building and Conflict Management; and Promotion of Community Policing in society.

KNFP's achievements over time include: organization of peace conferences in North Eastern Province and North Rift (areas with persistent community insecurity); trained District Commissioners on conflict management and peace building; trained senior law enforcement officers on community policing and strategic planning; destruction of over 10,000 SALWs; commission pilot projects on community policing in Kibera, Ruai (both in Nairobi) and Isiolo. Joint efforts by Government, CSOs and the donor community have been harnessed towards reducing conflict along country-border regions. In addition development of a policy on conflict resolution and peace building is underway. Community-based programmes supported by both Government and donor community are currently being used to promote peace. For instance, the Community Initiative Facilitation and Assistance organization (CIFA) in northern Kenya, with assistance from pact has began playing a key role in cross-border peace building initiatives.

Responding to the challenge of refugee situation

According to the Refugee Consortium of Kenya, a non-Governmental organization based in Kenya, Kenya hosts approximately 250,000 refugee from war-torn neighbouring countries including Somalia, Sudan, Ethiopia and countries in the Great Lakes region.

In a bid to regulate the number of refugees entering into the country, the Government implements a refugee

encampment policy. This policy provides that, once refugees have gone through the status determination procedures, they are obliged to reside in a camp while awaiting a durable solution. However, for a myriad of reasons (including insecurity in the camps, health problems and maladjustment to camp life), many refugees defy this requirement and make their way to urban areas. It is estimated that 30-50,000 refugees/asylum seekers live illegally in urban areas³⁶. Kenya believes that the pursuit of the objective of socio-economic development can best be served if there is peace and stability in neighbouring countries and beyond. For this reason, Kenya is now in the process of developing a refugee law. At the same time, the country has through IGAD, remained at the forefront, in negotiation for peace and political stability in the neighbouring countries of Sudan and Somalia.

Box 3.4 The Wajir Peace Development Committee

The Wajir Peace Development Committee was established in 1992 as a response to escalating clan conflict and general insecurity in Wajir District. The idea of a pacifying body was mooted at a wedding ceremony. Whereas the clans were busy fighting and in some cases could not see eye to eye, curiously, in weddings, all clans were apparently represented and were busy making merry. As result peace builders saw an opportunity to talk peace...

Due to a severe drought in 1992, most of pastoralists' families were rendered helpless and had little or no access to essential services. The local communities lost over seventy percent of cattle and thirty percent of camels. Violence became the order of the day. Deaths followed violent incidents between the Ogaden and Degodia clans over alleged land encroachment. In some incidents near Lagbogol, over 20 people lost their lives. Homes were destroyed and livestock taken. Members of the security forces were killed. Refugees and weapons were shifted across the border from conflict-ridden Ethiopia and Somalia. Thieves went on rampage. There were hijackings, looting and arson, rape, murder. At Wagalla, a small trading centre outside Wajir town, two herders from Degodia clan were killed. Women from that clan refused to sell or buy food items from women of the Ajuuran clan, and would not allow them entry to the market. Generally tension heightened.

With the help of the provincial administration and police, women leaders and professional leaders from all the clans met and formed a Joint Committee of all the clans to act as a vigilante body to forestall the violence. Thereafter the peace initiatives took a brisk momentum. Infrastructure support was provided with the help of the donor community. Public meetings and discussions involved a full range of community leaders. A new, more consultative atmosphere prevailed. Workshops delved into the roots of conflict, and how it related to actual economic conditions facing the people of the region. Within five years the group had touched almost everyone's heart in the region and beyond, especially for its use of community resources and constant dialogue as tools for conflict resolution and peace building.

The Wajir peace initiative's main success has been its ability to revive basic Somali traditional methods of conflict resolution used in pre-colonial times to encourage the equitable sharing and access to the region's limited resources. Another notable achievement has been the ability to harness energies and resources (that would have otherwise been used in conflict) for development. The initiative has also promoted the use of traditional early warning systems to forestall conflicts in the region. Most importantly, the organisation has been able to export to other districts of the region and Kenya as a whole. Where peace initiative has managed to create and sustain vertical and horizontal integration strategically necessary for implementing long-term peace building.

Source: CEMIRIDE: Rationalisation of Conflict in Northern Kenya Series

Box 3.5 Conflict Prevention

Efforts to prevent and mitigate violent conflicts involving pastoralists in the North Rift and North Eastern regions of Kenya need to address each of the factors contributing to conflict ... The development of actions to tackle each cause of conflict is difficult because these problems are rooted in the peoples' cultures. However, serious attempts to address these problems can contribute immensely to conflict resolution if they are recognized as such by the communities involved.

A good start could be made by taking measures directly aimed at conflict prevention such as developing mediation and conflict prevention capacities of the communities involved. In addition, establishing projects in support of pastoralists need to strategically invest in awareness raising (early warning for early action), training and indigenous peace building processes. Displaced groups must be rehabilitated and re-oriented into mainstream society by aiding them with alternative livelihoods e.g. promotion of eco-tourism, small-scale business enterprise, basketry and provision of social amenities such as schools, health facilities and water.

Primary responsibility for developing and implementing the programmes and measures outlined above must rest with the Kenyan Government, local, national and international stakeholders. International community also has a responsibility to do what it can to assist manage the problem of insecurity, conflicts and the ensuing displacements. There are many windows and entry points to reduce the pressures generating conflict and to promote sustainable prevention and enhancement of the pastoralists' communities' resilience.

Source: ITDG-EA, Conflict in Northern Kenya, 2003

Personal Insecurity and Reducing Victimization

Security from fear of bodily harm and physical violence is considered the most vital of human security. Physical torture, war, clashes, street crime and violence, rape, child abuse, are some of the insecurity situations that touch on the person. Threats from fear of personal insecurity could be committed by various actors including the state, employer, spouse and street muggers among others.

Violent crime and insecurity have come to be part of a set of social themes reflecting Kenya as a developing country. Many Kenyans are constantly disturbed about crime trends. For example, 52 percent of all Nairobi residents constantly worry about crime and a significant proportion of people (25 percent) in Nairobi believe there is very little they can do to help reduce crime in the city³⁷. In Nairobi alone, a victimization survey undertaken in 2001 shows that 37% of all Nairobi residents had been victims of robbery and 22% victims of theft at least once during the year before the survey. A further 18% had been physically assaulted during the same year. The Survey goes on to state that if the trends continue, one in every four women will be a victim of physical, economic and emotional abuse and a further one in every four women a victim of sexual harassment, whilst a little over one in ten women will be sexually abused³⁸.

At the national level, Kenya's security scores have been dwindling over time. Whereas there have been fluctuations in the levels of crime with the highest total number of crimes being reported in 2002, and the lowest in 2004, the total number of crimes reported have however remained high in the range of 70,000-80,000. The table 3.1 gives the overall picture of crime in Kenya. The above data on crime is not up to date and it is anticipated that the actual numbers of crimes committed are likely to be more than those reported. Reporting rates to the police are considered as low as 25% because victims do not believe that the police can assist them in dealing with the matter³⁹. In response to the esca-

Box 3.6 Functions of the Police

The Kenya Police has a responsibility to:

- Maintain law and order;
- Preserve peace;
- Protect life and property;
- Prevent and detect crime;
- Apprehend offenders; and
- Enforce all laws and regulations with which it is charged.

lating crimes threatening personal security in particular, the Government and other non-state actors have put in place mechanisms aimed at addressing the situation. While many other interventions may have been undertaken in the past, the subsequent section only highlights the most recent and important examples.

Police Reforms

The Kenya Police service is established under provisions of an Act of Parliament known as the Police Act, Chapter 84 of the Laws of Kenya. The Force is headed by the Commissioner of Police who is appointed by the President under the provisions of section 108 of the Constitution of Kenya. The Police Act provides for the functions, organization and discipline of the Kenya Police service and the Kenya Police Reserve, and for matters incidental thereto.

One of the major problems affecting the police force is lack of sufficient personnel. Noteworthy, the police force is spread thinly on the ground. At the moment the ratio of police officers to citizens is 1:850. According to observers, the small numbers of police officers make them unavailable when they are required to provide safety and security services.⁴⁰ In addition, according to the survey conducted by KIPPRA, other problems affecting the police include: officers within the force engaging in criminal activities, ill-equipped personnel, inadequate training, weak regulatory frameworks, complicated crimes, corrupt criminal justice system and political interference.

It is against this background that the Government of Kenya appointed a taskforce on police reform in 2004 with the key objective of reviewing the strategic plans for the Kenya administration police service and recommending police and institutional reforms for policing services in Kenya. According to the Report of the National Task Force on Police Reforms, crime is a major factor that defines the investment climate and enabling environment for private business to thrive and hence economic growth. In addition, the ERS underscores the fact that efficient law enforcement significantly contributes to economic development and improvement of the quality of life. Indeed, in the past, poor governance, insecurity and breakdown of the rule of law discouraged local and foreign investors, which consequently increased the cost of living.

In carrying out reforms, the Task Force recommended wide reforms that included policy, legislative and institutional frameworks (invest in crime management, introduce community policing, strengthen disaster management by the police, improve police image, develop accountability mechanisms, review human resource development and capacity building and put information and communication infrastructure in place). Some of these recommendations are already being implemented across the country.

Indeed, the absence of strong institutional mechanisms for holding the police accountable to the people and to the rule of law must receive particular emphasis. Under the current

Security from fear of bodily harm and physical violence is considered the most vital of human security

Table 3.1 Annual crime statistics of 2001 – 2005 as reported to the police

Cases Reported to the Police	Year				
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Murder (including attempt)	1,688	1,661	1,395	1,411	1,260
Manslaughter	8	3	5	22	22
Rape (including attempt)	1,987	2,005	2,308	2,908	2,867
Assault	12,611	12,689	13,401	15,715	13,708
Other offences against the person	3,020	3,006	3,516	4,221	3,538
Robbery and allied offences	9,180	8,504	8,711	7,863	5,811
Break-ins	10,363	8,338	9,037	9,150	7,902
Theft of stock	2,327	2,087	2,291	2,659	2,238
General stealing	8,919	8,340	9,916	11,392	11,480
Theft of Motor Vehicle	960	1,043	803	758	568
Theft of M/Vehicle parts	753	587	708	655	466
Theft from M/Vehicles	558	420	339	326	247
Theft of bicycles	565	448	623	616	527
Theft by servant	2,757	2,371	2,957	2,761	2,666
Dangerous drugs	5,300	4,467	4,742	5,940	6,398
Handling stolen property	347	299	299	301	314
Corruption	23	76	50	200	89
Causing death by dangerous driving	301	298	295	210	225
Other offences against property	3,073	3,363	3,753	4,011	3,663
All other penal code offences	10,612	10,418	12,131	12,131	11,421
TOTAL	75,352	70,423	77,340	83,841	75,400

Source: GOK Economic survey 2006.

law, formal mechanisms for holding the Kenyan police accountable do not extend beyond the office of the President. The result of this legal arrangement has been that, in practice, the police have been vulnerable to interference by powerful individuals outside of formal mechanisms of accountability and the regular chain of command, such as politicians and wealthy business people. These powerful individuals have been able to use the police for their own political and personal agenda, often in direct contravention of the interests of the Kenyan people. Dependence “for their own career advancement and well being on politicians”, has made the police acquiescent to politicians, bureaucrats and their friends even when orders have been in contravention of the law or clearly in the interests of some and unfair to others.

Community policing: A breakthrough in the wider reforms or yet another false start?

As a way of enhancing human security, more particularly, personal and community security, the Government of Kenya, the civil society and the donor community made it possible to implement the concept of community policing in the country. This was one of the key recommendations of the Task Force on Police Reforms. A new training curriculum on community-based policing for the Kenya Police has therefore been developed. The concept of community policing constitutes an organizational strategy that facilitates the Police and Community partnership with all members networking together to solve problems of crime disorder, anti-social behaviour, safety and the need to improve the quality of life for everyone and foster human development. The underlying philosophy is that people deserve and have a right to a real say in policing in exchange for their involvement, contribution and support.

Despite different models of community policing around the world, in Kenya, the ideal is that the ‘police work in an accountable and proactive partnership with the community; the community thereby is participating in its own policing and the two work together in mobilizing resources to solve problems affecting public safety and security over a long term, rather than police alone reacting on an ad hoc and short term basis to insecurity incidences as they occur.

The Kenya police efforts in community policing are hinged on five fundamentals: change in police perceptions hence re-orientation of service, building partnerships, emphasis on home-grown problem-solving mechanism, community empowerment and finally promotion of accountability.

Box 3.7 Public-Private Partnership in Security Provision

The Ford Foundation under its programme on Philanthropy for Social Change opened new lines of work on economic, social and cultural rights and deepened its focus on human security through support for “community policing” and reform. The Foundation’s investment in community policing was implemented by the Nairobi Central Business District Association (NCBDA) in partnership with Kenya Police. It had significant impacts on current thinking on how to address urban insecurity in Kenya. Indeed, public-private partnerships for police reform are possible, and are indeed, an encouraged practice in many parts of the world. The private sector has skills and resources that could contribute to improving professionalism of the Kenya police.

Source: GoK, Kenya Country Report to the Second World Urban Forum (13-17 Septe, 2004) Barcelona, Spain, Ministry of Lands and Housing August 2004.

The successful implementation of this programme needs more than a policy framework. Political goodwill is in addition required from both the Government and the traditional police officers. Further, suspicion of the intentions of community policing programme by some few conservative leaders and even part of the public is likely to stagnate the full scale implementation of the programme. There is therefore need to review legislation that has shaped the culture of the police force since independence to incorporate the new concept and values of policing. Without a formal systematic framework to enable long-term operation of the programme it may be an exercise in futility. Further, the challenge facing community-based policing programme in Kenya is also the lack of regulatory frameworks in form of legislation. Adequate budgetary allocation should form the basis of sustainability of the programme coupled with establishment of accountability mechanisms.

The growth of private security

Kenya has experienced tremendous growth in security services offered by private companies. Their services are available to individuals and corporations on contract bases. Their role is seen as that of supplementing the police in security provision, maintaining peace and security, combating crime, and reporting incidence of crime to the police. However, the industry has not been streamlined into policy to ensure that its services are fully utilized to the full and in the most accountable manner.

Private security has remained to be a service on hire. Statistics show that 82% of firms have invested in private security measures such as fences, alarms and vehicles. These firms spend an average of KShs 100,000 (US \$ 1,300) per month on security, or 2.7% of their sales revenue⁴¹. The cost of security for the poor is high and therefore limits their access to private security. Studies show that the more a person spends on security services the safer they feel.

Akin to private security, some residents in urban estates such as Nairobi have established neighbourhood watch systems and/ or security committees. For example, owing to the high cost of hiring private security services, 55% of the households reported that they have opted for neighbourhood security initiatives which include vigilante groups and youth patrols. Most initiatives began in the year 2000 while quite a number mushroomed in 2003⁴². It is however not yet established whether such initiatives are effective in the absence of a policy structure to regulate them. There have been cases of confrontation between police officers and the vigilante groups especially in informal settlements of Kibera and Mathare. The case may be different where security associations are in gated estates.

Further, corporate bodies including Nakumatt supermarket and Adopt-a-Light have also played fundamental roles in providing security in some of the major towns in the country such as Nairobi. Adopt-a-Light in partnership with the City Council of Nairobi has been very instrumental in crime prevention through comprehensive street lighting. This has targeted informal settlements areas including Kibera and some parts of Mathare.

Safer cities programme

Safer Nairobi Initiative is a programme that was started in 2000 as a partnership project between the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT), the Ministry of Local Government and the City Council of Nairobi.

The initiative is based on a new approach by local Governments all over the world to develop wider responsi-

Box 3.8 Private Security Provider's Comment

Private security is one of the fastest growing industries in Kenya. Its rapid expansion is undoubtedly due to the untamed runaway insecurity in the country. Of great concern to us as Kenyans and as security providers, is the uncontrolled proliferation of private security firms in the country. This inevitably contributes to the deteriorating security. We can choose to blame the rampant insecurity on a weak regulatory framework for security providers as has been the case in some media reports. Along with the concern that there is no adequate law to regulate the private security firms, the Government has also failed to enforce laws such as the minimum wage and statutory conformity. Consequently we have to rely on a code of conduct developed by the Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA). There are gaping holes in the registration process for private security firms, which have led to mushrooming of unregulated and standardised informal security firms.

Source: Kenya National Commission on Human Rights, Nguzo za Haki, Issue No. 4, September 2005.

bility for citywide, coordinated, comprehensive, and community based crime prevention. It seeks to shift emphasis from reactive crime repression that deploys most resources towards responding after the crime is committed, towards proactive crime prevention aimed at preventing crime from occurring⁴³. The participation of Kenya police in this programme has been rather peripheral and there is an urgent need to bring the police on board. There are also efforts aimed at fostering security through improved environmental design. Crime Prevention through Environmental Design is an approach to crime prevention that takes into account the relationship between the physical environment and the users of the environment. It is based on a theory that proper design and effective use of the built environment can lead to a reduction in the incidences and fear of crime and an improvement of the quality of life.

Terror threats: A living reality

Kenya has suffered twice in the past years from terrorist attacks. In 1998, over 200 lives were lost when the American embassy in Nairobi was bombed. In 2002, while an Israeli airliner was unsuccessfully fired upon with ground-to-air missiles, an SUV exploded in front of a hotel in Mombasa, killing three Israeli tourists and ten Kenyans. This is one of the most recent global threats to human security in Kenya. World Governments are yet to come up with strategies on how best to combat terrorism. War against terror is one of the global responses to fighting terrorism. This has not been an easy quest. Kenya has tourism as one of its main economic mainstay. With threats from terror travel advisories on Kenya have been issued by states including the United Kingdom and the United States. This has on several occasions affected the tourism industry and consequently the economy, which in turn, has had adverse impacts on the overall development of Kenya.

The Government of Kenya has in the recent past published the Suppression of Terrorism Bill (2003) to be formulated into law. However, this bill received a lot of criticism because, it was argued, it bordered on human rights violations. While opposed to terrorism, the civil society movements did not agree with the content of the Bill and rose up in one voice to campaign against it and it therefore never saw the light of day. Nevertheless, negotiations are underway to ensure that in the fight against terrorism, basic human rights principles are upheld and safeguarded.

Further, in response to the terrorism attacks, the Kenyan Government established Anti-terrorism Police Unit within

the police force in various parts of the country. In addition, tourists Police Units to ensure the safety of tourists were also formed. Further efforts have been geared towards developing the capacities of the Kenyan personnel including among others: the Armed Forces, National Security Intelligence Service and Kenya Ports Authority. Indeed, developing the necessary infrastructure for counter-terrorism still remains a challenge for Kenya.

Therefore, more concerted efforts and strategies need to be put in place if recurrence of terrorism attacks is to be averted in Kenya. The strategies, inter alia, call for both international and regional collaborations in the fight against terrorism coupled with appropriate and effective legal, policy and institutional frameworks that are adoptive and responsive to the needs of the diverse actors and interest groups. Further, the strategies must also endeavour to address the fears of various interest groups particularly in relation to the safeguarding of their fundamental rights and freedoms.

Addressing gender-based security

Trends have indicated a tremendous increase in gender-based insecurity and violence against children in the country. This trend has had significant social, psychological and broadly economic impacts hence compromising human development. The financial resources channeled towards addressing incidences of gender violence often strain the country's economy and in particular the community's already strained resources. This is in terms of the financial resources spent in paying hospital bills, the judicial process among others. In addition victims of gender violence seldom engage in meaningful initiatives that improve their wellbeing. Further, gender-based insecurity often results into psychological trauma, paranoia and fear to the victims. This reduces their chances of contributing development processes.

Between the years 1999 and 2002, reported cases of violence against women and children experienced a constant increment. For instance, cases of violence against women increased by 9%, rape by 14.4% and incest by 15.8% and battering by 8.2% between the years 2002 and 2003⁴⁴. A further increase was experienced in 2005. According to the GoK Economic Survey (2006) violence against women went up from 11,867 to 12,036, indicating an increase of 1.4% incidents. According to the report, most women who reported violence were battered by their spouses. However, many of the cases according to the survey went unreported. Rape, attempted rape, incest, defilement, and assault were noted as the common offences committed against women.

Addressing issues of gender insecurity require broad interventions. In a bid to check the rising cases of violence against women, the Government posted specially trained officers to Nairobi's Kilimani police station to effectively deal with such cases. Gender desks have also been established in every district police stations to encourage victims to report the cases. The government has also established specialized units within the police service that seek to pro-

Box 3.9 Improved Urban Design and Environment

Preventing crime through better environmental design has been an approach that many cities have adopted. The objective is to make crime more difficult to commit, to improve the quality of the living environment of city dwellers and to enhance security of people, in particular women and children in all places. This may be on streets, in public places, in public transport, highways, in slums, open markets and parks. Specific tools, such as safety audits, have been developed to analyse the deficiencies of urban environment and identify corrective measures. In order to improve urban design and environment through out Nairobi, the CCN is committed to:

- Integrate safety as a key consideration in all urban development and renewal projects including slums upgrading and to develop guidelines for that purpose.
- Make safety audit in areas (estates, markets, streets, bus terminus etc) perceived as most insecure and or strategic through out Nairobi, in order to identify and implement, ten of them, corrective measures from urban design perspective (lighting, road names, access roads, maintenance etc)
- Name all streets and encourage the stakeholders to undertake systematic labelling of all their residential and commercial buildings. This will ensure quick access to crime areas by the police.
- Remove all illegal structures, which have the potential to harbour criminals.
- Protect pedestrian walkways through proper enforcement of by-laws to prevent their irregular use.
- Inform the public on the danger of development in risk-land-zones.
- Continue with ITS efforts of improving safety and security throughout the city in partnership with private sector, private security providers and other stakeholders.
- Design bus stops along transport routes to enhance the safety of the commuters. In addition, provide adequate lighting to existing bus stops in the city where incidences of crime are high.

Source: City Council of Nairobi, Citywide Nairobi Residents' Convention, 2004

mote human security. A good case in point is the creation of the Spider Squad within the Kenya Police. Apart from promoting gender equality within the system, the Squad has been in the forefront in averting rape incidents around the country. However, these efforts are not anchored on any sound policy and legal frameworks and could be changed at will anytime. The enhancement of these strategies through formal legal instruments, budget allocation, capacity building and provision of necessary infrastructure will be a major milestone in the promotion and protection of human security for women.

Further, other actors within the civil society have put up spirited efforts aimed at curbing gender-based violence. For instance the International Federation of Women Lawyers-Kenya Chapter FIDA(K) was established in Kenya in 1985 to provide legal aid services for women, to monitor human rights abuses against women and to analyze the status of women in law and development. In addition, CREAM, COVAW, the Kenya Human Rights Commission, Nairobi Women hospital among others have also been very instru-

Table 3.2 Reported cases of rape and attempted rape, assault and battering (2002-2005)

Gender-related Development Index					
Offence	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Rape and attempted rape	933	984	1,126	1,126	1,451
Defilement/incest	1,094	1,021	1,182	1,182	1,416
Assault and battering	6,648	7,896	8,544	8,544	9,169
Total	8,635	9,901	10,852	10,852	12,036

Source: GOK Economic Survey 2006

mental in starting initiatives aimed at averting and ameliorating rape and other forms of gender based violence in the country. The efforts have largely been rights based.

According to observers, gender-based violence is also related to levels of economic security of the people. The report by Society for International Development: "Pulling Apart: Facts and Figures on inequality in Kenya," shows that Nyanza Province has the highest levels of poverty and this contributes to high levels of gender-based violence in this part of the country⁴⁵. Therefore, macro-intervention strategies that include building capacities of vulnerable groups are required. For example, the promotion of girl-child education in rural areas, campaigns against early marriages and female circumcision, increasing economic and political opportunities for women are some of the strategies that have been adopted and need more diversification and resource input. Human development assumes the development of both men and women for the common good of society. Constant assurance that there will be no gender-based discrimination in allocation of resources and rewards must be the bedrock of human security and human development in Kenya.

The establishment of the National Commission on Gender and Development (established under an Act of Parliament) is a timely intervention. The Commission is meant to advise Government and assist in engendering all programmes and policies, in a bid to enhance efficiency in utilization of resources for sustainable development and to promote the rights of women. The Commission is yet to embark on its work because of limitation of resources.

In Kenya, Sexual offences are still classified as offences against morality, which creates the risk of de-emphasizing the seriousness of the crimes and their concomitant harmful effects on the survivors. The enactment of these laws were prior to the growth and recognition of the human rights instruments, such as the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women, committed to protecting and advancing the rights of women⁴⁶. As a response to the inadequacy of current legislations in addressing crimes against women, efforts are underway to enact a law on sexual offences. Debates on the bill have been finalized and the bill passed into law. This marks a fundamental step towards dealing with gender-based violence and insecurity.

In view of the increasing trends of gender based insecurity, concerted efforts need to be geared towards coordinating the initiatives by different stakeholders if optimum benefits have to be yielded from them. Further, the need for effective and well structured engagement frameworks for all the stakeholders involved will be necessary to ensure that the efforts of the different stakeholders are optimally harnessed.

Political security: Meaningful public participation

The Human Development Report, 2003, highlights the fact that political freedom, participation and human development have goals that are mutually reinforcing. They constitute important pillars for good governance without which human development cannot be attained. Democratic pluralism provides the means through which these goals are achieved⁴⁷. It creates opportunities through which the citizenry can participate in making decisions on development destiny. Effective participation by the citizenry demands that the state guarantees the right of access to information; freedom of association of citizens and civil society; freedom of movement; freedom of the press; right to participate in political processes without discrimination; equal and equitable representation of the most vulnerable groups including the

minorities, women, children and persons with disabilities in all political and decision making processes.

Indeed, Kenya's political transformation since independence has been gaining high scores. The scores are embedded on the re-introduction of multiparty democracy in 1991 following constitutional amendments that greatly expanded the country's political space creating room and opportunity for open engagement of citizens in human development debates. The civil societies have played very central roles in the expansion of political freedoms and space. Since the era of single party system, the civil societies have been on the forefront in lobbying for multi-party democracy. Other efforts have been geared towards enhancing access to information to enable the citizens engage meaningfully in policy and decision making processes and advocating for new constitutional dispensation.

The expanded political space and freedoms were further epitomized by the NARC Government itself that was a collectivity of individuals, organizations and various interest groups that were opposed to the KANU regime. According to analysts, trends during the KANU era were characterized by limited political space coupled with dictatorship exemplified by arbitrariness in application of law; instances of detention; curtailed freedoms such as the freedom of association, of the press and freedom of movement; among others.

Referendum

The agitation for a new constitution that started over 15 years ago has also shaped the political landscape of Kenya. The Constitution of Kenya Review Commission (CKRC) established through an Act of Parliament facilitated the process. The process greatly widened the level of participation of Kenyans in political processes of the country. This was essentially

Box 3.10 Re-introduction of Multiparty Democracy

Multipartyism resuscitated growth and activities of civil society organisations. From early 1992, socio-economic groups such as NGOs, CBOs and self-help groups were formed. The space that was initially dominated by the state became an arena of multiple interactions. CBOs expanded activities into all sectors of the economy. The numbers of NGOs increased steadily in the 1990s; whereas there were less than ten registered NGOs in 1992, the number increased to over 2300 by the end of 2002.

Source: UNDP, 2003

exemplified by the extensive civic education that targeted even the most marginalized, the extensive debates of the outputs of the draft at the National Constitutional Conference at Bomas of Kenya and the referendum. The results of the referendum fundamentally demonstrated the level of political consciousness and political freedoms that Kenya had attained over time. By resoundingly rejecting the Proposed Draft Constitution, Kenyans demonstrated discontent and dissatisfaction not so much about the content of the Proposed Draft Constitution but the process through which politicians had pulled it. According to observers, such gains among others that have been achieved over time need to be safeguarded if a significant degree of human development is to be realized.

Role of the media

Freedom of the press is crucial in any democracy. Growing democracies in Africa, Kenya included, have the challenge of ensuring that the public accesses information affecting its destiny through a free press. It is the media that shapes the thinking of the public towards a certain direction. In the

Gender-based violence is also related to levels of economic security of the people

human development realm, the media has a critical role to play as it carries the image of a country within and beyond borders. Thus, media responsibility in nation building and growth of democracy cannot be de-emphasized.

Kenya has made gains: from the age of media suppression during the single party state to media freedom in the multi-party era. Today Kenya has over 20 registered media houses (print, radio and television). However, as it has been argued, the media and government are strange bedfellows. Governments always reflect the media as enemies of the state and unnecessary alarmists threatening both human and state security. While in certain extremes the allegations may have substance, caution should be taken not to scuttle the role of the media to report on government accountability and enhance public access to information for effective participation in human security and human development processes. From a general perspective, Kenya has made progress in a bid to achieve media freedom. However, specific incidences that happened in the recent past not only instilled fear in the people of Kenya but also watered down many gains that had been acquired over time. The attack on the Standard Media Group, in Nairobi by armed and hooded people was a direct attack on human security. It was made worse when the Government admitted that it had indeed carried out the raid. Situations like these tend to undermine institutions of governance and good order. The responsibility of Government to protect its citizens from threats of fear by instilling confidence that their homes will not be raided by the state, that their property cannot be seized with no apparent justification, that they will have recourse to the rule of law in the event of victimization, that security personnel should be trusted, cannot be compromised. The media on the other hand must remain responsible to the public at large. Legal, policy and institutional frameworks to guarantee media freedom and access to information by the wider public need to be put in place. Currently, debate and support for a freedom of information legislation is gaining ground. There is also a Media Bill that has been proposed for debate in parliament and final legislation. According to observers, if passed into law, it will guarantee press freedom while at the same time provide the required checks and balances for the media.

Guarantee of citizenship rights

Kenya is a country with people from diverse ethnic and racial backgrounds. As observed elsewhere in this chapter, ethnic politics have extensively shaped the political landscape of Kenya. Evidently, the country's political will is often manipulated to serve ethnic interests or favor certain aspects of competing ethnic interests. Representation of minority communities and other vulnerable groups including persons with disabilities and the marginalized has been a great challenge for the country.

It is worth noting that, people cannot participate effectively in political processes if their citizenship status is not well defined. Denationalization processes and failure to grant citizenship status to certain minority groups in Kenya has in the past had serious ramifications. As long as the Galjeels are not given national identification cards and the Nubians are treated as second-class citizens, they will always feel politically insecure in their own country. Historical injustices that have denied full participation of these communities in political process must therefore be fully addressed through policy and institutional mechanisms to guarantee their meaningful engagement in the agendas of the country.

Institutional changes to enhance political security/rights

Kenya has made commendable efforts by putting in place institutions that promote human rights, political freedoms

and improved governance. The Kenya National Commission on Human Rights (KNCHR) established under an Act of Parliament in 2002 is mandated as 'the chief Government agency to protect and promote human rights in Kenya.' Its accomplishment within the short period since establishment has been commendable especially on matters of public interest including: Government accountability and governance, personal security and police reforms, freedom of the press and access to information among others.

The National Commission on Gender Equality also established under an Act of parliament in 2003 is focused on mainstreaming gender in national development. The establishment of the National Commission on Gender Equality, and the elevation of the Women's Bureau to a Department within the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services are expected to go a long way in addressing gender imbalances in the Country. At the policy level, Sessional Paper Number 5 of 2005 on Gender Equality provides for the establishment of gender divisions in the public service. It is therefore anticipated that political representation of all including effective women participation will be enhanced.

Another institution that is closely linked to political freedom is the Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission (KACC). This was established to fight deep rooted corruption that had transcended major government institutions. Apart from challenges highlighted, efforts to guarantee political freedom and security in Kenya are encouraging. The value and respect of the rule of law must always be given high stakes on matters of governance, human security and human development. The responsibility of any Government, including that of Kenya, is to ensure that the public has faith and confidence in institutions regardless of their political, social and economic affiliations and status.

Dealing with want-based insecurity

Most people in developing countries are seeking liberation from the continuing threat from hunger, disease and poverty. Persistent state of want exposes people to other forms of insecurities. Freedom from wants implies that people are able to achieve economic, health, food, social, environmental securities among others. This has had fundamental impacts on human security and human development in the country.

Food insecurity and responses

Currently, over 2 million Kenyans are suffering from starvation. In response to the situation, last year the President declared the famine facing the North Eastern Province and other ASAL areas a national disaster. It is noteworthy that food insecurity in Kenya is not a new phenomenon. While the situation is brought by continuous environmental degradation, poor policies have largely contributed to the problem. The Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation 2003 – 2007 sets out targets on Government's commitment to achieving food security in the country. The strategy focuses on achieving self-sufficiency in staple food, achieving food security, equitable distribution of food, enhanced consumption of nutritious food as well as provision of nutrition education. Although the objective of the Government is to achieve self-sufficiency in food, enhancing access to food by the majority of the citizens should be the focus.

Endless efforts over time?

Since independence the Government has endeavoured to develop policies that seek to promote the food security situation in the country. Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1965 did not

expressly mention food security but observed that the Government had obligation to ensure equal opportunities to all citizens, eliminate exploitation and discrimination, and provide needed social services such as education, medical care and social security. The paper emphasized the need to ensure land remains productive and not idle. In 1980 and 1981 the Government developed two policies: The National Livestock Development Policy and the National Food Policy respectively. The contribution of the livestock industry in “the production of sufficient animal proteins to ensure adequate nutrition for our people...” was acknowledged including increasing income generating capacities and opportunities. The food policy’s main objective was to “ensure that adequate supply of nutritionally balanced foods is available in all parts of the country at all times.” The objectives were to be achieved through: increasing food production in all areas of the country; emphasizing drought resistant crops; establishment of a food commodity monitoring and reporting systems; accumulation of a multi-commodity strategic food reserve; development of the country’s irrigation and drainage potential; improvement of the marketing, processing and distribution of food; and liberalization of marketing including importation of food⁴⁸.

The introduction of food-for-work programme for the rural poor and other programmes targeting assistance to identified vulnerable groups through Sessional Paper No 2 of 1994 was and is still innovative. The policy has been praised as a step in the right direction towards achieving food security in the country. Nevertheless, Agricultural sector in the country is currently governed by over 131 pieces of legislation. These myriad legislations are a recipe for confusion, conflict, mismanagement and increased costs to farmers. The Government of Kenya in its Strategy for Revitalizing Agriculture (2004-2014) seeks to harmonize legislation and policies and develop a more flexible regulatory framework that will give farmers more returns.

It is clear that many policy statements ranging from ensuring equal opportunities, providing social security, land subdivision, food-for-work have failed to meet the expectations of both policy makers themselves and the public at large. While objectives are clearly stated, the policies do not usually state how implementation will take place but are left to the discretion of respective ministries and departments. Lack of public participation in the policy formulation has also resulted in the non-realization of these objectives and the resultant policies more often do not respond to the felt needs of the citizens. In addition, the invisible hand of donors in policy processes is also a manifest weakness. The pegging of policy content and process on aid by the donor community has often times cost political will to bring about the desired change.

Crucial to enhancing food security, traditional systems of food production ought to be encouraged especially for rural subsistence. However, over the years, other food crops e.g. maize have replaced traditional crops like sorghum and millet. With rapid environmental degradation and threats from pests and diseases, the monopoly of maize is no longer tenable. Other factors such as seed technology and market forces threaten the survival of the remaining subsistence farming. Those adversely affected by the commercialized seed technology are usually the poor. Kenya has not developed a seed policy to respond to these emerging issues. The development of a seed policy should take into consideration issues that promote seed saving and seed exchange among local communities.

Responding to food insecurity in ASAL areas

The highest levels of food poverty in Kenya are concentrated in the Arid and Semi-Arid areas – Turkana, Isiolo, Samburu,

Tana River, Makuweni, Marsabit, Mandera, Wajir, Kilifi and Kitui districts. Persistent droughts in these areas have worsened the food security situation. The Kenya Food Security Steering Group (KFSSG) is a national multi-stakeholder forum that is responsible for coordinating relief food distribution as a form of intervention in these areas. The role played by civil society, private sector and the international community has been critical in enabling the country respond to the famine disaster. This was well demonstrated during the recent drought that adversely affected Eastern and North Eastern provinces of Kenya.

According to Early Warning System Network (FEWS-NET) the Government’s response to food emergency situation is usually inadequate. Under the Office of the President, the Government has established the Arid Resource Management Programme (ALRMP), which monitors the food security situation in the arid areas. In collaboration with other actors, they provide early warnings of food shortages in the country. The National Disaster Committee, in response, is charged with distribution of relief food. However, the efforts so far need to be boosted by putting in place long-term strategies to avert the ever-increasing food insecurity in the country. Seed aid has also been one of the strategies adopted by the Government and development actors as a coping mechanism for drought stricken areas. But the challenge of identifying target beneficiaries and supplying adequate quality and quantity is glaring. Sustainability of the seed aid intervention requires diversification and widening of the regional scope.

Further, the Government has through the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) undertaken a school-feeding programme for primary schools in the ASALs to supplement dietary needs over the years. During a recent drought, the Government also extended the programme to secondary schools that were hard hit by the situation. This intervention has ensured that pupils and students remain in school and increase enrollment for those who have attained the school-going age. In order to adequately respond to the problems afflicting ASALs a draft policy for the ASALs’ development has been prepared by the ALRMP but is yet to be finalized. The necessary political goodwill is required to ensure the finalization and approval of the policy framework.

Addressing the housing dilemma

Successive governments have over the years put in place interventions aimed at ensuring the realization of adequate housing to the citizens. Immediately after independence, the Government’s policy on housing recognized the need for sufficient housing and directed the provision of adequate shelter and a healthy environment at the lowest possible cost to the maximum number of people⁴⁹. Clearance of informal settlements and mobilization of resources for housing development through aided self-help co-operative efforts was emphasized. Despite these efforts the demand for housing far outstrips supply. High rates of urbanization, increasing poverty and escalation of housing costs have made the provision of housing, infrastructure and community facilities one of the daunting challenges in the socio-economic development of the country⁵⁰.

Kenya has nonetheless put in place a number of interventions to arrest the housing insecurity. After the International Year of the Homeless in 1987, the National Shelter Strategy for the Year 2000 was formulated to advocate for change in housing policy. Under the new approach the Government sought to only play a facilitative role to enable other actors to invest in shelter. The development of a housing policy became core in this process in order to have Kenya together

with the international community implement the Habitat Agenda and the National Plan of Action on Shelter and Human Settlement 2020.

Notably, Sessional Paper No. 3 on National Housing Policy for Kenya of 2004 recognizes the linkages between adequate housing and dignity, security and privacy of persons; poverty reduction through employment creation, improved health and increased productivity. The policy seeks to arrest the deteriorating housing conditions countrywide and bridge the shortfall in housing sector arising from ever increasing demands from the population. The focus by Government has been to provide 150,000 housing units in urban areas and improve 300,000 units in rural areas every year. The Policy is to ensure that the houses cater for all in terms of affordability, habitability and accessibility.

National Housing Corporation (NHC)

NHC is the Government lead agency in the realization of adequate housing in Kenya. It is established under an Act of Parliament and its objectives include the development of decent and affordable housing, facilitating rural housing and mobilizing local and international capital for housing development. While the houses built by NHC were meant to cater for both low and medium income earners, the low-income beneficiaries have been displaced by the middle class as a result of high rental prices. NHC output since its establishment has not been able to meet the rising demands for housing in Kenya. The lack of sufficient funding since the Government ceased to provide funds in 1990s has plagued the Corporation into recurrent inability to effectively execute its objectives. In 1994, under the Public Enterprise Reform Programme, NHC was categorized as a strategic parastatal that needed to be restructured and retained under public ownership. This however, has not been able to lift the scales of performance of the Corporation.

Mathare 4A housing programme

Previous attempts to enhance housing development and hence avert housing insecurity in Kenya have also been facilitated by other actors in partnership with the Government. The Mathare 4A Programme is one of the recent examples. (See Box 3.11)

This was an upgrading programme, funded by German aid, aimed at improving housing conditions without unduly increasing rents and displacing tenants. The programme also sought to encourage tenants to become homeowners. Further, it set out to substantially improve infrastructure services. It was to be implemented in two phases. The first and pilot phase started in May 1992 and was completed in September 1996 at a cost of Kshs 122 million. It succeeded in building 1500 rooms using stabilized soil blocks for walls, and provided 1700 households (11,000 people) with potable water, sanitation, roads and footpaths, streetlights, and garbage collection facilities. A second and main phase, covering the remaining 4300 households at a cost of Kshs 420 million, started in March 1997 and was due for completion in December 2001, but due to various problems, including political interference, it remains uncompleted⁵¹.

Kenya slum upgrading programme (KENSUP)

In January 2003, the then Ministry for Roads, Public Works and Housing signed an Agreement with UN-HABITAT aimed at upgrading informal settlements in Nairobi and Kisumu. An Inter-Agency Technical Committee and a Joint Project Team were established. Also established was the Slum Upgrading and Low Cost Housing Infrastructure Trust Fund. By the time of establishment the Government made a com-

mitment deposit of Kshs 500 million. Both the Government and donors will use the Fund as a depository for all the monies for the project. The objective of the programme is to ensure that residents in informal settlements access quality and affordable housing. More particularly, KENSUP involves the construction of 14 blocks of flats and 770 housing units in Kibera and also ensure the provision of basic services such as water, sanitation, infrastructure etc It is expected that if the programme is well implemented to the end people's living standards will greatly improve. However, skepticism abounds regarding the project. Some doubt the genuineness of the Government, others feel that they will lose land tenure rights without sufficient compensation, while the very poor fear they will be unable to afford the eventual houses and will be overrun by the middle class. Another issue relates to the political exploitation of the project that may be a recipe for violent insecurity.

Resource allocation

Previously, development institutions including Government, NGOs, developing partners, provided very marginal or diminishing resources to the housing sector in Kenya. Housing had been considered as consumption good and low priority investment compared to other development programmes such as agriculture, education and the manufacturing industry⁵². Banks and financial institutions have over time been reluctant to give loans for housing development. However, this situation has gradually been reversing in the recent past. Indeed, private companies have gone full scale into real property business. Banks and other financial institutions are now facilitating the building of housing units for sale. But the drawback with pure commercial approach to housing programme is that the most vulnerable and poor will still be left in a position of perpetual insecurity and want. This is as a result of the housing units being subjected to market forces. Thus, making housing affordability to the low-income groups almost impossible. In addressing the question of housing affordability and adequacy for the poor, the interventions by the Government and donor community must respond significantly to the unique needs and priorities of the poor. Thus, the continuous commitment on KENSUP by all stakeholders and support of the Trust Fund as demonstrated by stakeholders will bring about desired change on a wider scale as far as the realization of housing security is concerned.

Evictions and questions of tenure

The ever-recurring policy gap in the housing sector in Kenya has substantially exacerbated cases of forced evictions. Forced eviction represents a violation of the right to access to housing in Kenya. It entails the permanent or temporary removal against the will of the individual, families or communities from homes or land, which they occupy without the provision of, and access to, appropriate forms of legal or other protection. It is worth noting that, a spate of forced evictions have been increasingly occurring in both urban areas (Nairobi more particularly in informal settlements) and rural areas (Mau forests). The consequence of forced eviction is that it makes people more vulnerable to violation of other rights resulting into an increased human insecurity, hence undermining human development. In response to public outcry against the massive evictions that have been taking place in the country in the recent past, the Government constituted an inter-ministerial committee to explore avenues of developing policy on evictions. The output of committee is still being awaited. Further, there have been increasing efforts by various stakeholders aimed at coming up with basic principles to guide the evictions process. The stakeholders include the central Government, the local Government, local authorities, civil society organizations

and the donor community. Noteworthy, a human rights and evictions training workshop was held in Naivasha in March 2006 with the objective of coming up with the fundamental principles that would inform the development of eviction guidelines

Health Security: Any hope for Kenya?

There have been myriad initiatives that have been taken by successive governments to improve health care in Kenya over the years. At independence, the Government declared its commitment to eradicate 'poverty, ignorance and disease' and between 1965 and 1989 it financed health services from public revenue in line with its policy of free medical care. However, following the introduction of SAPs in 1989, the policy was reversed and user charges for health in public health facilities were introduced. This policy situation has reduced access to health facilities especially for the poor in the recent past. Access to health care has long been considered as pivotal in helping people acquire core capabilities that in turn, permit them to emancipate themselves from poverty and insecurity. The poor are less likely to report health problems compared to the non-poor and are less likely to seek treatment in the event of ill health. A health policy framework that focuses on Primary Health Care (PHC) has been part of Kenya's efforts aimed at enhancing her people's right of access to health care. The main focus has been on curative services, preventive and promotive services, health personnel and drugs and pharmaceutical supplies among others. Further, the establishment of the Kenya Medical Supplies Agency (KMSA) by the Ministry of Health is one of the reform strategies aimed at improving the availability of medical supplies to all Kenyans. In addition, tax waivers and exemption programmes whose aim is to improve access to health care services by the poor were recently initiated. The Ministry of health also gave a directive to all public hospitals to exempt children under 5 years from paying any medical fees. These efforts by the Kenyan Government though commendable; they still are not adequate in meeting the health needs of the poor Kenyan citizens. Certainly, budgetary allocation by the Government in the health sector has been increasing over time. According to the Public Expenditure Review (PER), health expenditure as a share of the total budget has been rising gradually although it remains at about half of the intended target of 15% as agreed during the Abuja Declaration⁵³. The need to employ more medical personnel is on the rise.

Statistics have indicated that the country is currently suffering from an acute shortage in health personnel. A trend

Box 3.11 Mathare 4A Project

Tenants in Mathare 4A have benefited from it by acquiring greater security of tenure, better living conditions and a much improved and healthier environment. There were some complaints, however, with respect to the quality of construction, perhaps due to the unfamiliarity of the materials used. The ownership patterns have also changed, from 8% of structure owners and 92% tenants in 1995, to 20% owned by landlords and 80% by former tenants in 2000. The new houses are being offered to tenants on a rental basis, including some subsidy of the capital cost. Yet, tenants do complain that rents have increased, sometimes without their consultation. On the other hand, the cost of water has gone down.

And, where they have lost some social capital, some have gained in human capital through the training offered by the programme, and the better health services and living environment; 43% of the residents reported lower incidence of disease. On the whole, therefore, the impact on livelihoods assets has been mixed, with some increasing and others diminishing.

But essentially, residents were pleased. Overall they felt the changes were positive. In the case of the structure owners, however, the losses have been much greater. In fact, they feel that the land should have been allocated to them rather than to the AHT, and that they received insufficient compensation.

Source: DFID: Integrated Urban Housing Development: Experiences from Kenya and India, 2004

often occasioned by little attention being accorded to the marginalized areas. The table below shows the access to health services per province. According to National Health Insurance Fund statistics, only 1.8 million Kenyans were members of the health insurance scheme. The membership spreads benefits to 12 million beneficiaries. NHIF has over the years only been concentrating on in-patient care despite the greater demand for outpatient services. The scheme also covers only persons in formal employment as opposed to informal sector.

Interventions on HIV/AIDS and Malaria

The threats from HIV/AIDS (for details see chapter 5) are increasingly exerting pressure on the already constrained resources. In conjunction with other actors, the international community and financial institutions like UNDP, UNICEF, World Bank, EU, the civil societies working in the area of HIV/AIDS, human rights institutions, Faith-Based Organizations and the Private Sector have come up in arms to fight the epidemic and give support to persons infected or affected by HIV/AIDS. Kenya has also committed itself to the

The poor are less likely to report health problems compared to the non-poor and are less likely to seek treatment in the event of ill health

Table 3.3 Health Access per Province

Province	Access to Qualified Doctors		Place of Delivery			Population per health facility
	Total Number of Doctors	Doctor/patient ratio	Public & private health facilities	Home	Others	
Nairobi	-	-	77.9	21.5	0.5	5,331
Central	190	1:20,715	66.9	31.9	1.1	7,742
Coast	39	1:51,155	31.2	67.4	0.8	5,883
Eastern	147	1:33,446	37.7	60.8	1.4	5,760
N. Eastern	9	1:120,823	7.7	91.9	0	13,551
Nyanza	165	1:28,569	36.2	62.2	0.9	8,819
Rift Valley	197	1:36,481	35.9	63.0	0.7	5,788
Western	83	1:39,554	28.4	70.6	0.6	10,834

Source: Economic Survey 2004, District Development Plans (2002-2008), 2003 Kenya Demographic Survey

Box 3.12 Health: provision of basic health services

The primary objective of the health sector reform process is to enhance accessibility and affordability of quality basic health services for all Kenyans with special emphasis on the poor and vulnerable. Formidable challenges in the sector make the achievement of this objective an uphill task. These include the emergence and re-emergence of some diseases such as HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and drug-resistant malaria, which have increased the disease burden, and the increasing poverty levels. This has led to an overburdened health sector, ever-increasing costs of essential inputs for medical supplies as well as human resources, and a decreased capacity to financially contribute to the cost of health care by the majority of Kenyans. As in education, the labour and skill-intensive nature of health services leads to most of the resources going to wages and leaving very little for non-wage recurrent expenditures and capital inputs.

In order to face these challenges the Ministry of Health aims to achieve the following reforms and targets:

Revisit the financing of the health sector. The objective is to reduce the unaffordable level of out-of-pocket expenditures by the poor and vulnerable and to protect them from financially catastrophic expenditures for health care services. The Government is committed to the introduction of a social health insurance scheme, to achieve the objective of making health affordable. The strategy envisages a phased approach to ultimately achieve national coverage in the medium term.

Focus is investments on interventions that will in particular benefit the poor and vulnerable. The Ministry of Health will step up the efforts to increase the immunization coverage to 85 percent, reduce the children under five years' mortality rate to around 100/1,000 by 2008, reduce the maternal mortality rate from 590/100,000 to 560/100,000 by 2005, reduce the HIV prevalence rate by 10 percent, increase the accessibility and availability of essential drugs, reduce the mortality rate for malaria by 10 percent annually, increase the cure rate for tuberculosis, and improve health service delivery for the underprivileged rural and urban slums. In order to achieve this, the ministry will re-allocate resources towards promotive, preventive and basic health services and enlist additional capacity through partnerships with civil society, faith based, and private sector organizations.

Improve cross-sectoral cooperation for health promotion and public health, especially to achieve public health standards that are currently not realized for the poor. In view of the importance and critical roles that other sectors play in achieving better health outcomes, the ministry will strengthen its ties and collaborations across sectors in the areas of water and sanitation, reproductive health, gender, HIV/AIDS, nutrition, school health, road safety and tobacco control.

Increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the combined investments of GoK and its partners. In order to achieve synergy and reduce inefficiencies related to independent and fragmented efforts, the Ministry of Health will further pursue the modalities that allow a programmatic approach by all partners involved. These include a jointly agreed National Health Sector Strategic Plan, a jointly agreed and supported monitoring and evaluation framework, mechanisms for annual health sector program reviews, a jointly agreed and supported medium term expenditure framework, and an annual sectoral public expenditure review to evaluate the effectiveness of actual expenditures against the objectives of the health sector program.

Increase total Government spending on health from the current 5.6 percent as a share of total public expenditure to 12 percent over the time period of this investment program. Such an increase in the investments in human capital may seem ambitious, but past public spending per capita on health in Kenya has significantly lagged behind as compared to global and regional experiences. In addition, the challenges described and the commitment of the Government to make significant progress towards the Millennium Development Goals justifies such an increase.

Source: IMF, Kenya: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, 2005

provision of ARVs to HIV/AIDS patients at significantly reduced costs. Further, the HIV/AIDS Prevention Bill is under-way. If passed into law, the bill will be a major milestone in the health sector for the country as a whole. The bill aims to arrest the spread of HIV/AIDS and to further provide legal protection and guarantees to those infested and affected by it. In a bid to increase awareness on the dangers of the scourge, Information, Education and Communication materials (IEC) and well-sponsored adverts have widely been used. Indeed, a participatory approach by all stakeholders not only for HIV/AIDS but also in other communicable diseases has been critical in addressing health issues.

Intervention for Malaria prevention are basically the prevention strategies, which include use of Insecticide Treated Nets (ITNS), the intermittent preventive treatment and educating communities on importance of prompt access to effective treatment.

Employment and social security

Like all other thematic areas discussed, the immediate independent Government of Kenya embarked on developing its human resources. Job creation to reduce unemployment and improve livelihood was its objective. Successive Governments have also not reneged on this obligation. However, Gimode observes that after the implementation of the SAPs there was unprecedented socio-economic dislocation in the country. Manifestations of this dislocation included rising poverty, unemployment and the attendant wave of criminal violence and insecurity in the country as a whole and especially in Nairobi⁵⁴. Further, the economic liber-

alization meant nurturing 'capital at the expense of humanity'. The resistance on this donor-driven policy was met by aid freeze. The impact on human labour was the requirement to cut back any employment in the civil service and the teaching field thus leaving many university graduates unemployed. The negative results of retrenchment scheme affecting those in public corporation and the civil service have been enormous.

The Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation, 2003-2007, notes that at least 2 million Kenyans are not gainfully employed. It recognizes the fact that low labour force productivity is the result of low literacy levels and skills as well as the poor state of industrial relations and conditions in work places. Accordingly, these are the areas that the NARC Government is committed to deal with. As soon as the current Government came into office a pledge to create 500,000 jobs every year was made. The policy document seeks to promote acquisition of skills, harmonious industrial relations and ensure healthy working conditions for workers. Also echoed in the policy is to put in place mechanisms to provide for old age, disability, and development of social assistance programmes designed to ameliorate distress especially on the poor. Although there are statistics indicating employment creation, there are no visible outcomes from those numbers.

The case for the informal sector

In Kenya the informal sector continues to absorb a large proportion of the unemployed who cannot find employment opportunities within the formal sector. However, the sector does not guarantee long-term employment and security,

partly due to the uncertainty in access to markets and clients. The situation has further been aggravated by continued escalation of unemployment phenomenon in the country and the deteriorating economic performance. The sector is dominated by small-scale economic activities largely of self-employed individuals. Most enterprises are owned and run by individuals but some employ a few people. Firm size is limited by lack of access to capital, poor management, intense competition and inadequate marketing strategies. Manufacturing enterprises in particular experience low productivity and income due to poor technologies and ineffective management systems. Thus small firms rarely graduate into medium or large enterprises⁵⁵.

It is worth noting that, it was not until 1986 when Sessional Paper No 1 on "Renewed Growth for Economic Development" highlighted the sector's potential as well as changing its image from employer of last resort to vibrant wellspring of technological capacity and aggressive entrepreneurship. The paper called for review of local authorities' by-laws and other regulations governing MSE activities for the purpose of creating a healthy legal and regulatory environment. The paper also called for direct assistance to the sector. This led to the publication of a Government paper entitled "A Strategy for Small Enterprises Development in Kenya: Towards the Year 2000", which focused on the constraints the sector was experiencing. The constraints were broadly classified as (a) the enabling environment, (b) investment and finance, and (c) promotional programmes and enterprise culture. The paper formed a basis for designing fairly focused policies on the sector, which were refined in the Sessional Paper No.2 of 1992 on "Small Enterprises and Jua Kali Sector in Kenya". A thorough assessment of the policies strategies and programmes contained in the policy paper was carried out in 1994 that identified various constraints and proposed appropriate interventions⁵⁶. The aspect of social security in Kenya is captured under the National Social Security Fund (NSSF) and the National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF) and targets employed persons only. It is only recently that NSSF started accommodating those in the informal sector. However, these laws are under review and it is expected that necessary changes will be made to widen the scope.

Environmental security and human development

Environmental insecurity is a threat to human development. Fundamentally, sustainable utilization of the environment is for the good of the generation born and yet to be born. Trends in the past have indicated that the poor with a limited resource base are not able to withstand environmental risks and disasters. Noteworthy, droughts and other calamities of nature affect the poor more than others since they have limited "fall back" options. Poor environmental management aggravates instances of food insecurity in the country due to the impact that it has on the weather patterns. Since 1972, every stakeholder has been playing his/her role in ensuring the realization of a clean and healthy environment. It is for this reason that in 1999 Kenya enacted the National Environmental and Management Act. Section 3 of the Act provides that every person in Kenya is entitled to a clean and healthy environment and has the duty to enhance the realization of the entitlement. In addition, the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, 2001-2004 identified conditions of unhealthy environment as proximate determinants of poverty. It states that prevalence of poverty forces people to engage in unsuitable farming practices, excessive use of wood fuel and unsafe sewerage disposal; thus increasing the levels of vulnerability to pollution. The Economic Recovery Strategy Paper has gone further to highlight measures that include developing a comprehensive afforestation programme; putting in place a national policy on anti-pollu-

tion; introduction into schools a curriculum on environmental education; and developing a policy on recycling. These efforts are aimed at fostering environmental security and thereby enhancing human development.

Urban environmental insecurity

Most urban areas in Kenya are characterized by moulds of garbage and polluted rivers. Domestic use of detergents, food, plastics and other goods increasingly generated a lot of wastes that now characterize most of the urban areas. The role of local authorities in urban environmental management though crucial, has over the years registered minimal efforts. Indicatively, only token programmes have been undertaken in urban environmental management by the local authorities. Noteworthy, of the 174 local authorities, only 32 have some form of sewage collection and disposal infrastructure, which were developed between 1972 and 2002. Two local authorities have mechanical sewage treatment works, while 30 have lagoons. The maintenance levels vary from one local authority to the other. Lack of enabling policies in the sector, has been identified as a gap in implementing waste management activities. EMCA 1999 provides for management of environment in relation to waste management⁵⁷.

Combating Desertification

Desertification is a major environmental and socio-economic problem, affecting over 80% of Kenya. About 10 million people who reside in these areas suffer from widespread and acute poverty and other adverse effects of drought. For example, while 56% of Kenya's population lives below the poverty line, in the dry lands it is about 80%. The resources of the dry lands also continue to be under increasing pressure due to high and increasing population growth compared to the rest of the country as a result of immigrations and natural growth. Very high population pressure in the high potential areas is leading to increased demand for land in the dry lands⁵⁸.

Box 3.13 Targets for the Economic Recovery strategy

The Ministry's targets articulated in the Investment Program for the Economic Recovery Strategy (IP-ERS) are i) implementing the National Environment Action Plan (NEAP) and Environmental Management and Coordination Act (1999); ii) increase forest cover by 10%; iii) natural resources inventory and valuation; iv) implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) and MDG targets; and v) participate in the Lake Victoria Environmental Management Project.

Source: Environment Donor Statement for the 2005 Consultative Group

Box 3.14 Urban Environment

In the absence of a clear urban environmental policy, development partners, NGOs, and community-based organizations have embarked on initiatives to combat environmental degradation and pollution. These include innovative technical, social and community-based responses to provision of water and sanitation services, disposal of waste, prevention of industrial and urban energy pollution, and measures to protect public health and reduce hazards. The Government's role in the promoting the local Agenda 21, including innovative schemes for community-based natural resource management is crucial. Well-managed cities and towns can help reduce greenhouse gases, protect the ozone layer, manage fresh water resources, and conserve forests and marine environments.

Kenya ratified the Convention to Combat Desertification in 1997. Further, NEMA has developed a national action programme to combat desertification to improve on resource management in these areas. In addition, there is already a draft policy on arid and semi-arid lands in Kenya that if passed will go along way into responding to adverse effects of desertification. However, funding for the programme remains a challenge. NEMA proposed an Anti-Desertification Community Fund that was later approved by cabinet.

3.4 Addressing Want-based Insecurity through Enhancing the Right to Education

Education is one of the fundamental strategies that emancipate people from insecurity of wants, enhancing their capabilities to engage in activities that enhance their livelihoods and emancipates from poverty. Kenya has put in place legislation and programmes that promote education. The Poverty Reduction Strategic Paper (PRSP) 2001-2003 specifically notes that “education plays an important role in human development through the process of empowering people to improve their wellbeing and participate actively in nation building”. The Economic Recovery Strategy paper also emphasizes this point.

The Government, in partnership with other stakeholders has developed a Master Plan on Education and Training (MPET) (1997-2010) with the purpose of providing policy direction in preparing the Country for the goal of industrialization by 2020. The report covered aspects such as: development of curricula geared at high quality education that is relevant to economic needs; efficient teacher development and deployment, resource mobilization and allocation, governance and management, improving efficiency and effectiveness, increasing equity in participation and reduction of cost to parents without necessarily increasing budgetary allocations from the exchequer. All these recommendations are expected to enhance different aspects of the access to education in Kenya.

The Sessional Paper number 1 of 2005, entitled, “ Meeting the Challenges of Education, Training and Research in Kenya in the 21st Century,” is the overarching document for all key education activities to be operationalized through Kenya. The Education Sector Support Programme also advances similar issues.

Universal free primary education

Section 7 of the Children’s Act, (2002), provides that ‘every child shall be entitled to education the provision of which

Box 3.15 Emerging and Cross-cutting Issues

Poverty, coupled with unsustainable livelihoods, put undue pressure on natural resources. This accentuates the vicious cycle of high population growth rate, poverty and environmental degradation. The elusive peace and security in the neighbouring countries, results in an influx of refugees whose three camps in fragile ecosystem areas in the arid and semi-arid areas of North Eastern Kenya, impact negatively on the environment and the societies affected.

Civil strife and resource use conflicts such as those related to sand harvesting in Machakos and mining in Taita Taveta districts adversely affect the environment. Terrorism is an emerging phenomenon with potential significant impacts on the environment.

The environmental impacts of disasters like flooding in Budalangi Division of Busia District are enormous. The declaration of HIV Aids as a national disaster recognizes it also as a major challenge in environmental conservation. Global fiscal policies like liberalization of the economies retarded efforts and reversed gains in some environmental conservation initiatives. The ongoing processes of gender mainstreaming at all levels of social strata is a welcome response since women are stakeholders in environmental management.

Trans-boundary and regional initiatives for the conservation of shared resources straddling international borders need to be pursued. Strategies must also be established to tackle environmental challenges posed by the spread of invasive and exotic species. And lastly, the application of biotechnology needs to be approached with care to avoid unmitigated environmental impacts of genetically modified organisms (GMOs).

Source: NEMA: State of the Environment Report, 2003

shall be the responsibility of the Government and parents. Further ‘every child shall be entitled to free basic education which shall be compulsory in accordance with Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child.’

Kenya launched the Free Primary Education (FPE) programme in 2003 as a strategy for achieving Universal Primary/Basic Education (UPE/UBE) by 2005. This is part of the process seeking to attain Education for All (EFA) goals by 2015. The role of Development Partners has been critical in this programme. Among the key partners supporting this program include: The World Bank, Department for International Development (DFID), USAID, the Swedish International Development Agency (Sida), the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the Japanese International Cooperation Agency (JICA), the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and the World Food Programme (WFP). Their assistance is mainly towards provision of text-

Table 3.4 Primary School Enrolment by Class and Gender, 2001 - 2005

Class	2001		2002		2003		2004		2005	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Standard 1	482.1	456.8	488.8	469.4	679.0	632.7	679.0	606.2	620.4	585.8
Standard 2	447.7	426.3	434.6	416.1	526.4	492.0	588.3	551.1	575.8	551.6
Standard 3	423.6	404.8	415.0	397.4	490.8	454.4	493.9	459.8	549.2	517.5
Standard 4	392.6	390.6	408.9	400.2	475.7	446.9	477.7	445.7	493.7	469.9
Standard 5	366.5	364.5	369.3	371.8	436.0	418.8	444.0	402.5	449.1	410.8
Standard 6	327.5	333.6	338.3	353.3	400.9	392.3	418.8	399.9	429.3	413.6
Standard 7	307.3	321.1	328.3	336.2	383.2	378.9	412.6	404.9	443.0	430.0
Standard 8	255.1	241.4	290.3	244.5	282.4	269.1	334.0	309.1	342.1	309.6
Total	3,002.5	2,939.1	3,073.9	2,988.8	3,674.4	3,485.1	3,815.5	3,579.3	3,902.7	3,688.8
Grand Total	5,941.6		6,062.7		7,159.5		7,394.8		7,591.5	

Source: Economic Survey, 2006

Box 3.16 Vulnerable Cases

In special needs education, the Government will enhance support to persons with disabilities to help them become self-reliant and contribute to national development. Some of the sub-sector issues to be addressed include the need for a clear national strategy and updated data on disabilities, support to specialized training and provision of equipment as well as instructional materials for the special education programs in mainstream and special schools and units.

The Government will further ensure that the Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) has the capacity to offer pre and in-service training courses in special needs education.

The Government will adopt new staffing norms for primary schools based on one teacher per 45 pupils in urban and high potential areas and targeting a minimum of 15 pupils in ASAL areas. In addition to setting these class sizes, as alternative modes of curriculum delivery such multi-grade will be introduced to cater for smaller classes (with low enrolments). In line with the new policy of target setting, the Government will examine ways and means of linking teacher promotions to performance.

Source: GoK, Kenya Education Sector Support Programme, July 2005

books and institutional materials, infrastructure development and rehabilitation of classrooms and toilets, as well as the provision of food to pupils under the school-feeding programme. Budgetary allocation for education is relatively large; it is 19% of the national budget and 40.56% of the recurrent budget. In the year 2005/06 the budgetary allocation was Kshs 91.92 billion compared to Kshs 84.70 billion in the year 2004/05. The allocation for 2006/7 was KShs. 98.99 billion, which is 18 % of the total budget.

Table 3.4 presents primary school enrollment by class and gender for the last five years. Free primary education implemented by the government in 2003 increased enrollment from 6 million in 2002 to 7.6 million in 2005. enrollment in primary schools rose by 2.7 Percent from 7.4 million in 2004 to 7.6 million in 2005. Further, the Government has continued to support non-formal education schools, especially those that cater for children in urban slums with a total of 143 centers/schools having received grants under the Free Primary Education Programme.

The Other Side of FPE

As indicated in table 3.4 above, trends indicate an overwhelming increment of enrollment in school in both boys and girls following the introduction of free primary education. With a donor-dependend programme like FPE combined with overwhelming challenges the question of sustainability comes begging.

Reaching the vulnerable with education

Mechanisms have also been put in place by the Government targeting children in marginalized areas (ASALs and urban informal settlement) and those with disabilities (See Box 3.16. Currently, there is a law on disabilities and a policy on special education for children with disabilities is being developed aimed at enhancing their access to education. This is aimed at enhancing their capabilities to engage into meaningful development activities that can improve their livelihoods.

It is noteworthy that the introduction of the Admissions Quotas in 1985 was to ensure secondary schools in each district reserves 85% of places to pupils from within the district and 15% to pupils from the rest of the country. This has been reviewed to 60% and 40% respectively. This has the objective of securing chances for children from marginalized com-

munities. The Bursary Scheme implemented by the Ministry of Education also addresses the question of equal access to education by particularly targeting children from poor families. The budget for the bursary scheme has been increasing over the years. For example, the amount increased from Kshs 548 million in 2001/2002 to Kshs 770 million in 2002/2003. The funds are also decentralized to the constituency level to ensure it reaches the targeted beneficiaries countrywide.

3.5 Devolved Funds

This concept was evolved to give the Kenyan community particularly at the grass root-levels opportunity to develop their respective constituencies in accordance with their assessed priorities. Various stakeholders including the civil societies, the private sector and to a certain extent the Government have put in place mechanisms aimed empowering the communities to be able to monitor the utilization of funds and hold the duty bearers accountable. The mechanisms include among others facilitating access to information relating to the devolved funds, awareness creation and sensitization.

Constituency Development Fund (CDF)

The Constituency Development Fund (CDF) was established through an Act of Parliament. CDF is an annual budgetary allocation by the local beneficiaries themselves. The aspect of community driven approach to development circumvents the traditional bureaucracies that sometimes hamper services delivery at local levels.

There is an apparent consensus among stakeholders across the board that CDF has been instrumental in providing services at local levels where for many years no development programmes had been undertaken. The building of schools and provision of school equipment; building of health centers; provision of tap water, water tanks and dams; rural roads; electricity, are just a few of such projects.

The decision as to how much a constituency is entitled is stipulated in the Act. The Act also provides that 75% of the amount shall be disbursed equally to all the 210 constituencies and the remaining 25% shall be disbursed on the basis of population and the poverty index. A total of Kshs. 1,260,000,000 (US\$16.4 million) was released to the constituencies during the 2003/04 financial year and was fully disbursed to the 210 constituencies in accordance with the provisions of the Act. Each constituency received Kshs. 6 million. However, a number of challenges may be said to face CDF. First, issues of transparency and accountability in the utilization of these funds have remained a major concern. There have been loud public allegations of mismanagement of the Funds by Constituency Committee members in the majority of the constituencies. Second, priority setting is an emerging concern. It has been alleged that, in most instances, the target beneficiaries are not meaningfully involved in the setting of priorities or identification of the projects that they will want initiated in their constituencies. This has often resulted to initiatives that do not address the real and felt needs of the communities.

Local Authorities Transfer Funds (LATF)

LATF is another decentralized mechanism for channeling development funds to the local levels. This fund is also established through an Act of parliament and is to be spent on development projects at the Ward level. LATF entails a transfer of 5% of national income tax to local authorities to supplement the financing of services and facilities which local authorities are required to provide under the Local Government Act (Cap. 265). Out of the money sum, there is

The target beneficiaries on CDF are not meaningfully involved in the setting of priorities or identification of the projects that they will want initiated in their constituencies

Box 3.17 The CDF concept

In essence, the CDF provides individuals at the grassroots with the opportunity to make expenditure choices that maximize their welfare in line with their needs and preferences. To the extent that the local population is better informed about their priorities, the choices made can be expected to be more aligned to their problems and circumstances.

Source: Research Concept; M.S. Kimenyi, Efficiency and Efficacy of Kenya's Constituency Development Fund: Theory and Practice, August 2005, RePEC, <http://repec.org/>

a Government directive that 20% of LATF be spent on core poverty programmes. Local Authority Service Delivery Action Plan (LASDAP) is argued to have a poverty focus in line with the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and other relevant laws and policies, with priority areas in health, education, infrastructure and upgrading of informal settlements⁵⁹. During the 2006/7 budget, LATF was raised from KShs. 5.6 billion to KShs. 7.5 Billion representing a 34% increase. However, the mechanism like other decentralized funds had its own challenges. The issues of transparency and accountability on the utilization of the funds have remained core. In addition, analysts are of the opinion that, the beneficiaries are not adequately and meaningfully represented in decision making processes regarding the development projects to be executed.

3.6 Conclusions

Human security and human development are interrelated and mutually reinforcing phenomena. Efforts aimed at fostering security often enhance human development. This relationship is not always fully appreciated by stakeholders. Considerable mileage has been covered by governments and some stakeholders in addressing human security issues and enhancing human development. Such efforts are anchored on policies; legal, legislative and institutional frameworks and programme interventions. Although the concepts of human security and human development are increasingly being viewed in a broader sense, the efforts have not been without challenges, including inadequate budgetary allocations as well as lack of both the necessary political will to facilitate implementation and effective coordination of the initiatives of various stakeholders.

Box 3.18 A Nutritionist perspective

We have never received any CDF support for this hospital. We hear about many dispensaries being built to enhance access to health care by the local people. But the problem is that the dispensaries are built but there is no human resource to serve/sustain the centres. Those who built the centres do not assess the situation to understand that Government is constrained and cannot provide personnel immediately. So you have many buildings in villages that do not serve anyone.

Source: An Interview with District Hospital Nutritionist on CDF, March 2006

End notes

31. Sessional Paper No.1 of 1965
32. UNDP, Kenya Human Development Report, 2001 at p76
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4

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB

Special cases of Human Security

4.1 Introduction

Despite Kenya's recent gains in reversing the trend in its incidence and prevalence, HIV/AIDS still presents a major challenge in the country, threatening sustained progress in human development. HIV/AIDS remains a serious concern, as patients can remain asymptomatic for many years, masking the reality that the virus could be spreading rapidly but silently across the country, and there is still no vaccine and no easily affordable treatment for it. It is urgent that effective prevention and changes in behaviour and attitudes be adopted to combat HIV/AIDS and mitigate its effects. Such actions are key to consolidating recent gains in reversing the country's prevalence rates from 13.9 percent to the current level of 6.7 percent.

Nevertheless there is hope. Greater understanding of the dynamics of the epidemic and more accurate analysis of the impacts will lead to better informed decisions and policies. This message of hope is reinforced by the will of persons infected and living with AIDS to come out in the open and to step up the campaign and fight back to lead fulfilling lives.

The determinants of the epidemic cannot exclusively be explained by individual risk-taking behaviour. The related causal factors include poverty and deprivation as well as the social and economic alienation suffered by a large segment of the population. The brunt of poverty at the household level is immense, since this is where the impact of low resources, inadequate social services, limited access to balanced food-stuffs and lack of opportunities combine to create a disabling environment of poverty, which undermines the coping capacity and development prospects of vulnerable groups.

Disease and limited access to health care characterize the situation of the socially excluded, who are more vulnerable to the impact of an epidemic that requires additional resources and health care, yet strikes all people alike. The disproportionate impact of HIV/AIDS on those who are the most economically productive household members, such as men and women aged 18-49, increases the burden of HIV/AIDS on the young and old, who are themselves in need of care. Moreover, the epidemic reduces the time available to women to engage in economically productive activities,

thus constituting a new powerful threat to gender equality. A growing number of the poor households depend for their livelihood on the modest income of the pensioners and the unpaid labour of the very young.

HIV/AIDS may lead to stigmatization, discrimination and isolation of patients from traditionally supporting social networks in their community. The secrecy surrounding HIV/AIDS in many communities compounds efforts to deal with the infection in individuals and as an epidemic within the community. The poorest households are the hardest hit. In extreme cases, people take risks with their lives in the struggle to make a living and to provide for their families. Rural women in poor communities lack both the information and the power to insist on safe sexual practices with their partners, further exposing them to risks and denying them the choice of the life they prefer.

Box 4.1 Human Development Approach to HIV/AIDS

Human development approach to HIV/AIDS helps to focus the analysis and policy recommendations on people rather than on the virus – a prerequisite for mobilizing effective action to reverse the epidemic. The value-added for analyzing HIV/AIDS through the human development lens is that it lends itself to a more inclusive and people-centered approach to addressing the impact of the epidemic and promoting effective action. The approach can provide:

- A more comprehensive analysis of the far-reaching socio-economic impacts of HIV/AIDS at individual household, community, sectoral and national levels;
- A policy-relevant analysis of the deeper social, cultural, economic and political factors that are driving the spread for the epidemic, looking beyond the primary causes of infection;
- A useful vehicle for assessing a country's response to HIV/AIDS thus far, looking squarely at achievements, constraints and levels of political commitment;
- An analytical framework placing individual behaviour in a structural context, addressing the linkages between individual attitudes and behaviour, social values and norms, and societal systems and structures.

*NHDR Occasional Paper 4, on HIV/AIDS and Human Development
Thematic Guidance Note*

The disproportionate impact of HIV/AIDS on the most economically productive household members increases the burden on the young and old, who are themselves in need

Table 4.1 Demographic Indicators 1963-2005

	1963	1979	1984	1989	1992	1993	1994	1996	2000	2003	2005
Population (millions)	8.9	15.3	18.4	21.4	24.6	25.3	26.1	27.4	30.1	33.1	35.1
Fertility rate	6.8	7.9	7.7	5.3	5.4	5.4	4.9	4.7	4.9	4.9	4.6
Crude death rate/1000	20.0	14.0	13.0	12.0	12.0	10.0	12.0	13.3	13.7	14	11.9
Crude birth rate/1000	50.0	52.0	50.0	46.3	46.0	46.0	40	38	42	42.0	39.7
Life Expectancy at birth (yrs)	44.0	54.0	62	60	54	54	53	50	49	49	53
Infant Mortality rate/1000	120	104.0	64.4	71.2	86.2	86.7	87.3	94.2	82.0	80.7	65.5
Under-5 mortality rate/1000	156	-	88.1	98.0	122.5	123.1	123.8	136.6	116.2	114.9	90.5
									(115)		
Adult HIV prevalence%	-	-	-	3.1	4.7	5.3	6.7	8.5	13.4	6.7	

Source: Government of Kenya, 1998 & 2004, World Development Indicators Database, August 2005.

By the 1990s, Kenya witnessed the emergence of other diseases and other threats to human development, evidenced by an upturn in childhood mortality levels and decline in life expectancy. The period coincides with the time when the impact of HIV/AIDS rose in prevalence from the first diagnosis in 1984. By 2000, life expectancy at birth had declined to 49.0 years whereas infant and child mortality were estimated to be 82.0 and 115 per 1000 live births respectively. By 2003, an estimated 192,795 deaths were attributed to HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB, with HIV/AIDS and TB accounting for 77.8% and 22% respectively (UNAIDS 2004). Table 4.1 shows demographic indicators since Kenya got its independence. The contribution of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis (TB) to the deteriorating demographic conditions is clear in Table 4.1. The high number of deaths that could be attributed to AIDS-related diseases, Malaria and Tuberculosis and morbidity, makes them a real threat to human survival and human development.

HIV/AIDS prevalence, deaths and orphans

Available data indicate that about one million Kenyan adults aged 15- 49 are living with HIV/AIDS. Within this age bracket, more than half i.e. 505,692 are females while 399,952 are males. The majority of those infected live in rural areas. An estimated 115,000 children aged between 0-4 years live with the AIDS virus. There are about 96,000 HIV/AIDS cases among the older age group of 50 years and above. Figure 4.1 shows Kenya's HIV prevalence rates since the first case was diagnosed in 1984. The prevalence rose continuously from less than one percent in 1984 to a peak of 13.9 percent in 1999. Since then, HIV prevalence has declined to 6.7% in 2002 and then staying largely unchanged in 2003. It is estimated that 1.2 million people in Kenya were HIV positive (2005), approximately 7% of the population (UNAIDS, 2004). The declining prevalence rates have been attributed to increased deaths due to HIV/AIDS, increased funding and direct involvement of the Government in initiatives aimed at reducing the spread of HIV/AIDS. Some of the Government initiatives include; widespread distribution of free condoms and enhanced intervention such as the ARV programme, which has become relatively affordable and accessible, Voluntary Counseling and Testing (VCT), Prevention of Mother to Child Transmissions (PMTCT) and community sensitization about HIV and AIDS leading to change in behavior. Behavior change has been effective as a result of open communication within household members and also through mass media and advertisements that caution

Figure 4.1 Adult HIV/AIDS Prevalence in Kenya

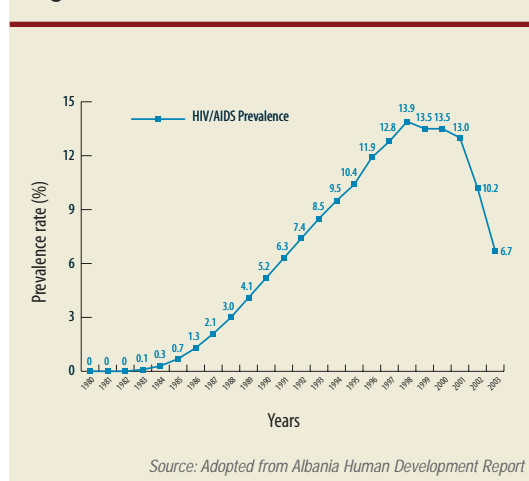


Table 4.2 Adult HIV Prevalence by Province (Percent, 2004)

Province	Number HIV+	Male %	Female %	Total %
Nairobi	159,000	7.1	10.9	9.0
Central	124,000	2.3	8.9	5.6
Coast	84,000	4.8	6.6	5.7
Eastern	90,000	1.4	5.9	3.7
North Eastern	17,000	2.1	4.0	3.0
Nyanza	292,000	10.2	16.0	13.1
Rift Valley	207,000	3.5	6.6	5.0
Western	85,000	3.6	5.4	4.5
National	1,057,000	4.3	8.3	6.4

Source: Government of Kenya, 1998 & 2004, World Development Indicators Database, August 2005.

Table 4.3 Number of Orphans by Type (2004)

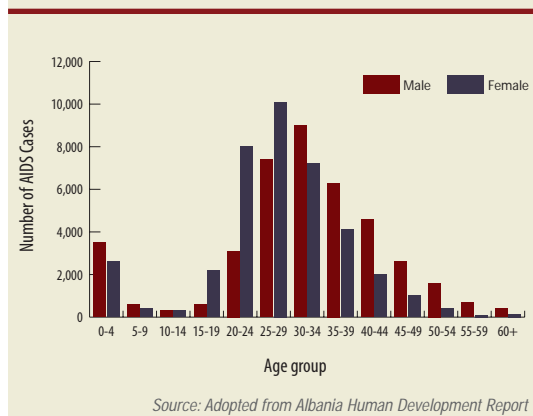
Type	Number
Maternal Orphans	952,022
AIDS	494,381
Non-AIDS	457,641
Paternal Orphans	1,148,381
AIDS	458,339
Non-AIDS	690,004
Dual Orphans	856,650
AIDS	648,692
Non-AIDS	207,958
Total Orphans	1,243,716
All AIDS Orphans	1,044,000

Source: NACC 2005

against sex before marriage and share information that AIDS is real and not a myth.

HIV infection rate is highest among those in age group, 15 – 49 years, which comprise 84 percent of all the population infected in Kenya. As the epidemic continues to ravage the most productive age group, it stands to have far-reaching socio-economic and political impacts in the country. Shown in figure 4.2 is the age-sex distribution of reported AIDS cases since 1986. Reported cases vary with age with the highest number of reported cases in the age range 20-44. The pattern of reported cases indicates prevalence is highest among females below 30 years and among males above 30 years of age. HIV/AIDS affects males and females disproportionately; the prevalence among the various regions of Kenya indicates that females are at greater risk compared to males. HIV prevalence among females is estimated at 8.3 percent compared to the prevalence rate among males estimated at 4.3 percent (Table 4.2). Regional differences in HIV prevalence are significant with Nyanza Province having recorded the highest prevalence at 13.1 percent in 2004. Similarly, the number of HIV infected persons shows the same pattern. Although the direction of causation between HIV/AIDS and poverty are not clear, the HIV prevalence levels tends to mirror poverty levels. Regions of high poverty levels have higher HIV prevalence levels, pointing to likely effect of HIV/AIDS on human capabilities and human development in the most affected regions. Accordingly, poverty statistics also rank Nyanza province as the poorest region in Kenya (See Annex 2). In 2004 there were an estimated 1.2 million orphans (both AIDS and non-AIDS) in Kenya (see Table 4.3) and about

Figure: 4.2 Age-Sex distribution of reported AIDS cases (1986-2000)



three quarters of them (over 900,000) had at least lost a parent due to HIV/AIDS. The cumulative number of deaths due to AIDS was 1,188,150, with about 142,000 deaths in 2004.

Malaria: Incidence and related deaths

In Kenya, malaria remains the leading cause of morbidity and mortality, accounting for about 5 percent of deaths and over 30 percent of morbidity (about 6 million outpatient cases). If untreated, malaria may have a fatality rate of up to 50 percent. Malaria transmission in Kenya is largely dependent on altitude and rainfall, with regions at altitudes of between 1770-2500m subject to very unstable malaria transmission and often resulting in epidemics in those regions. These are mostly lowlands and swampy areas (for example coastal areas and the lake Victoria basin). Although the "Highland⁶⁰" malaria is not as common as the lowland, malaria's effects on the highland areas of Kenya (Western highland districts of Kisii, Kericho, Eldoret, Nyamira among others) is sporadic yet devastating.

TB: Incidence and related deaths

The cumulative number of people living with active TB in Kenya is estimated to have reached 200,000 by 2005. However, only 50 percent of the estimated cases had been picked up by the TB Control Programme, hence raising fears that more people could be living with TB than the actually estimated. It is further estimated that over 70,000 people could have died of TB by 2005. Nonetheless, measuring TB mortality and morbidity is complicated due to the direct impact of HIV/AIDS co-infection on TB incidence. The high HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB prevalence and incidence will continue to exert pressure on Kenya's development agenda in particular and her human development endeavor in general.

4.2 Looking at HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB as a Threat to Human Security

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB - which affect the health and wealth of individuals, communities and the nation - have grown into pandemics posing very severe threats to societies and humanity at large. HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB threaten a country's population and people's way of life posing a major constraint to socio-economic and political development hence raising significant human security concerns. HIV/AIDS pandemic has left individuals vulnerable to attack by other opportunistic diseases; once infected with HIV/AIDS, the individual become vulnerable to attack from TB, Malaria and other diseases owing to the reduced body immune systems. In general, their threat to human survival has become real and can be observed from falling life

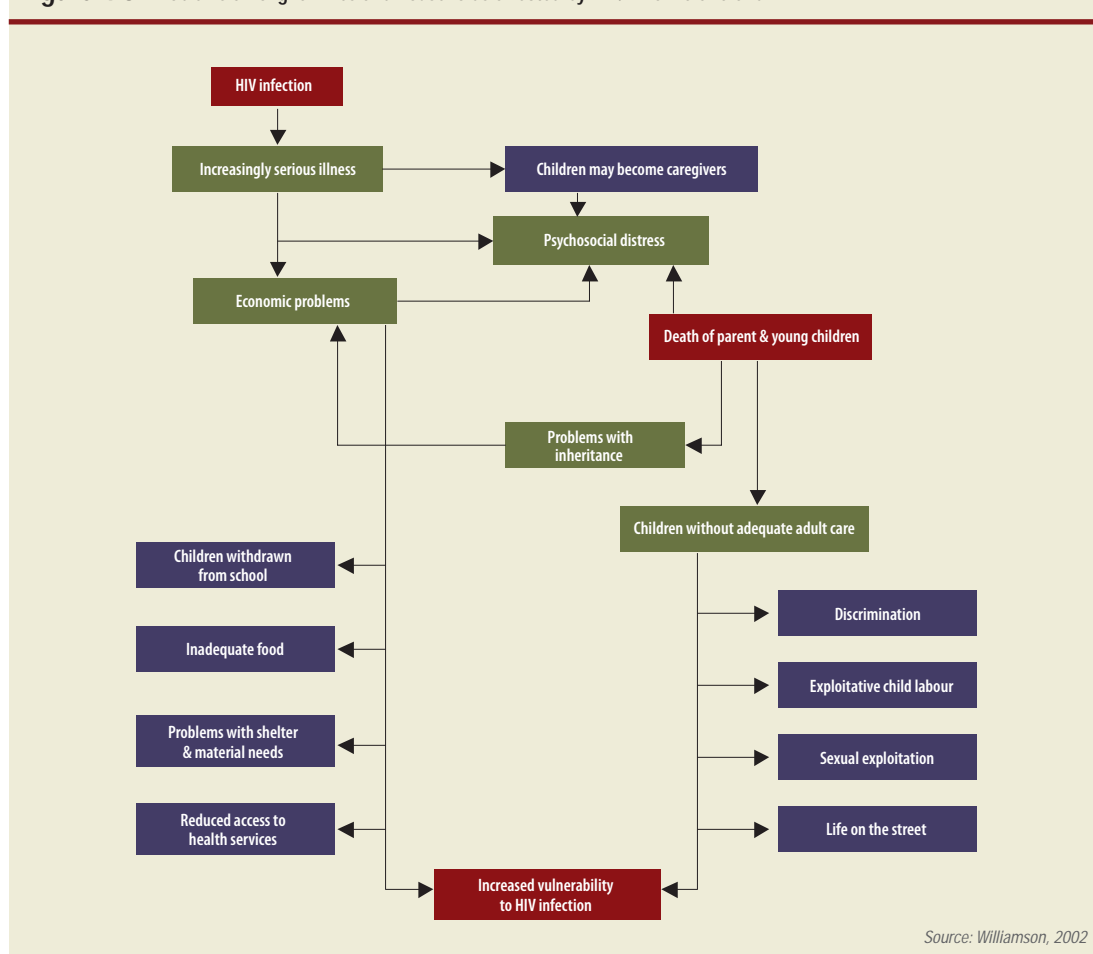
expectancy in the 1990s and increasing infant and under five mortality rates (see table 5.1). The fact that HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB reduce access to resources and basic necessities of life makes them a real threat to human security.

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB erode societies and peoples capabilities to realize anticipated development since these diseases divert resources towards emergency health care provision, away from capacity building and growth opportunities. HIV/AIDS creates destitution when bread winners and incomes are lost, and destroys the most productive members of society. The downward spiral on personal/household security starts with the bread-winner falling ill, generating increased spending on health care, falling productivity and demanding more time for health care provision. As more members of the family fall ill, relatives' support is sought, more money is borrowed thereby creating indebtedness, productive assets are sold and children withdrawn from school and families break up. The future of many, especially young orphans is made uncertain and the widows and widowers exposed to lonely lives devoid of love. The elderly have to take up new roles in old age, caring for orphaned grandchildren whose parents have died young. HIV/AIDS causes significant social disruption. The disease burden of malaria is obstinately high despite decades of work to reduce it, and the emergence of drug resistant strains makes controlling infectious diseases such as malaria and TB a moving target.

Besides the social security threats, HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB are also a threat to economic security. There are diverse threats to all economic agents, household/individual, firms and the state, and the overall functioning of the entire economy. For developing nations suffering these pandemics, it has meant that the gap between them and those that do not suffer has widened. For instance in the case of malaria, countries with high rates of malaria transmission have historically had lower annual growth rates than countries without malaria. Economists estimate that Malaria causes a "growth penalty" of about 1.3 percent per year in some African countries⁶¹. For HIV/AIDS, a World Bank study suggests that with an adulthood prevalence of 10%, growth in national income may fall by about one third⁶². And with infection levels higher than 20%, studies have shown that a country's GDP can decrease by 1 percent per year⁶³.

Poor health caused by HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB results in massive problems in food production and food security. The effect on labour supply reduces the productive use of available land. Illness and death amongst agricultural communities creates losses in skills and threatens the ability of societies to be self-sufficient. Furthermore resources that should have been targeted for investment in agriculture are diverted to expenditures on HIV/AIDS treatment and funeral services⁶⁴.

The pandemics also cause communal, national and international security concerns, affecting the uniformed forces' ability to offer adequate protection as communities, nations and the world in general become unstable. An analysis, for example, of the South Africa's Institute of Strategic Studies⁶⁵ has warned that with the spread of HIV/AIDS unchecked amongst African armies, many of these countries will not be able to play a role in peacekeeping operations. Moreover, the military and peace keeping forces have been found to violate those they are supposed to protect, especially refugees, women and children exposing themselves and their victims to extremely high risks of HIV/AIDS infections. At the same time sexual violence, is commonly used as a weapon of war, making women more susceptible to infections. In general, HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB erode a nation's capability to defend itself against internal and external conflicts by lowering the capacity of the police force, armed forces and even civil servants in providing protection.

Figure 4.3 Problems among families and households affected by HIV/AIDS Malaria and TB

Less resources are made available for general health care as more resources are channeled to HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB intervention programmes

4.3 HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB: A Source of Human Insecurity

Over the past years, consensus has grown among researchers that HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB pose serious threats to human development. As nations build momentum to treat those already infected, prevent new infections and care for the affected, more information is still needed to assess the likely impact of these diseases on human development, in particular their impact on human security. Security is defined broadly to encompass the social, economic and political well-being of society. In this sense, the report analyses the economic, social and political dimensions of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB on human development within the framework provided by the NHDR Occasional Paper 4 and detailed in Box 4.2

4.4 HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB and Economic Insecurity

Insecurity to the social sectors

The health sector

While the impact of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB to the health system relate to budgetary, institutional and human resource pressure, the magnitude of the impact depends on the nature of policy response to the pandemics as threats to human development. The need to provide care and treatment to the infected and efforts designed to prevent new infections has generated huge financial requirements to the health sector. The limited amount of resources

spent on HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB intervention programmes constrain the quality and the range of social services provided including education, adequate health care, law and order, water and sanitation, which are often seen as the basic rights and essentials for human development. The implication is less resources are made available for general health care as more resources are channeled to HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB intervention programmes, which in turn increases people's vulnerability to other diseases. Currently, the fight against HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB is consuming about 13 percent of all Government and Non-Government (including donor, civil society organizations and private sector) resource allocation to the Health sector. Since these resources are still below the actual health sector resource requirements, the Government continues to experience immense pressure to increase resource allocations to match its efforts in fighting the pandemics. The impact of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB on human resource development and the quality of health further aggravates human development gains.

The health sector faces increased mortality and morbidity among the infected staff hence reducing the ability of the public sector to maintain the right number of expertise needed to respond to the epidemics and other healthcare concerns. There is likely to be an increase in the number of health care professionals who are being infected by HIV/AIDS (NASCOP, 2005) and with the rising demand for health services, there are serious staff shortages in most health institutions. The shortage of staff further affects the quality of health care and the implementation of other intervention programmes, such as the implementation of

antiretroviral programmes in Kenya. The country currently faces shortages of clinicians to carry out the required health checks for the enrollment on the programme, hence lower enrollment and treatment rates. Hospitals have been hit further following the increased hospitalization of HIV/AIDS patients. It has been argued that the shortages of beds and the increased workload, following the increased hospitalization, forces admissions at the later stages of illness, which further reduces survival chances. HIV/AIDS constrains the health facilities, increases people's vulnerability to infectious diseases, thereby worsening human development indicators. By 1992, it was estimated that HIV/AIDS patients occupied 15 percent of beds in Kenyan hospitals. This rose to 50 percent by 2000 in line with the increasing HIV/AIDS prevalence⁶⁶.

The impact of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB on the workforce and the constrained health care facilities increases vulnerability to attack by other diseases and lowers the accessibility of quality healthcare. Such vulnerability can also spring from the increasing budgetary pressure imposed by the need to respond to the epidemic and the associated threats to the provision of adequate human necessities.

The education sector

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB are causing profound stress on Kenya's educational system, an important sector to national development in particular and human development in general. HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB erode the demand for and supply of education in regions of the country with high prevalence and incidence. They reduce school enrollment as more students get infected and the numbers of orphans increase.

They also result in high levels of absenteeism among the affected students and those that have to fend for their families or take care of sick relatives. Some affected families have withdrawn students from school due to lack of school fees, which often occurs when the family member is receiving treatment. In general, the pandemics impact on education funding as more resources are channeled to providing health care and with the demise of those responsible for paying school fee. It has also been established that malaria not only interrupts schooling but also has negative effects on the cognitive development of children, which means that malaria has a long-term effect on accumulation of human capital, an essential ingredient to human development⁶⁷.

The number of teachers infected with the HIV has also been increasing, leading to increased absenteeism from workplace and higher pupil to teacher ratios. The effect on the quality of teaching following the death of key education officials and head teachers often falls. Although national statistics indicate improved enrollments and transition rates at all levels of education, especially following the implementation of Free Primary Education (FPE), HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB continue to pose significant threat to educational access. The ability of the country to meet enrollment targets and the recommended teacher ratios are likely to be difficult with HIV/AIDS epidemic.

Insecurity to the economic sectors

Agriculture

The threat of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB to household food production and security depend on the extent to which the epidemics have impacted on agricultural production. Annual crop income for the non-affected household is likely to be higher. Households affected by HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB are likely to reduce use of farm area; use less fertilizers/manure and pest control; and divert farm labour to take care of the

Box 4.2 Impact of HIV/AIDS on Human Development

"The impact of HIV/AIDS is unique because it kills adults in the most productive period of their lives, depriving families, communities, and nations of their most productive people. Adding to an already heavy disease burden in poor countries, the HIV/AIDS epidemic is deepening poverty, reversing human development, worsening gender inequality, eroding the capacity of Government to provide essential services, reducing labour productivity, and hampering pro-poor growth."

HIV/AIDS reverses gains in building basic human capabilities, and denies people opportunities for living long, healthy, creative and productive lives. The epidemic impoverishes families, places burdens on families and communities to care for the sick and dying, results in social exclusion and affects people's psychological well-being. Women and girls are particularly vulnerable to the epidemic and its impacts, and bear the burden of caring for families affected by HIV/AIDS.

The long-term human development impact is felt in all sectors of public and private life. The epidemic strains national and local budgets, deprives sectors such as education and health of skilled workers as a result of illness and death, and inhibits the capacity of various sectors to sustain previous levels of productivity and services. While the long-term consequences may not yet be visible in some countries, the dynamics of the spread of the epidemic can be indicative of the potential magnitude of its impact.

Applying the human development approach to HIV/AIDS helps to focus the analysis and policy recommendations on people rather than on the virus – a prerequisite for mobilizing effective action to reverse the epidemic. The value-added for analyzing HIV/AIDS through the human development lens is that it lends itself to a more inclusive and people-centered approach to addressing the impact of the epidemic and promoting effective action. The approach can provide:

- A more comprehensive analysis of the far-reaching socio-economic impacts of HIV/AIDS at individual household, community, sectoral and national levels;
- A policy-relevant analysis of the deeper social, cultural, economic and political factors that are driving the spread of the epidemic, looking beyond the primary causes of infection;
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- An analytical framework placing individual behaviour in a structural context, addressing the linkages between individual attitudes and behaviour, social values and norms, and societal systems and structures.

*NHDR Occasional Paper 4, on
HIV/AIDS and Human Development Thematic Guidance Note*

sick thus affecting farm production. In most cases, the affected households can leave their land fallow or have smaller land under crop in comparison with the non-affected households. Fewer affected households, compared to non-affected, are likely to use fertilizers and have pest control applications in agricultural production since most of their income is spent on providing medical care. Malaria has also been found to affect peasant households through its effect on household labour, crop substitution and in changing planting patterns⁶⁸.

HIV/AIDS affected households are forced to plant traditional crops that are less labour intensive but cannot generate enough produce to last the household up to the next harvesting period, creating additional source of insecurity.

Under such a scenario, hunger becomes a real threat as people become vulnerable to poverty. Since agriculture is the mainstay of the country's economy accounting for approxi-

mately one third of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), about 70 percent of the export earnings⁶⁹ and employing more than two thirds of the labour force, any threat to agricultural production then poses a significant threat to the national economy and therefore to human development.

Businesses and markets

The threat of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB to the private sector (formal and informal) can be summarized as 1) reduced productivity, 2) increased labour costs, 3) the diversion of productive resources and 4) skill depletion that directly impinge profitability. Labour productivity declines as the skills of large proportions of the labour force who become outdated and the skilled young workers die, causing firms to lose critical human resources. The increased absenteeism and increased worker turn over due to sickness further affects firms' productivity. The Federation of Kenya Employers (FKE) summarizes the impact of HIV/AIDS on the enterprises as follows; loss of human capital, especially skilled and high-level professionals; 1) loss of productive capacity due to HIV/AIDS related absenteeism; 2) high staff turnover; 3) high training and replacement costs; 4) high employee healthcare costs; and 5) high social security and employee welfare costs.

A survey carried out in Kenya found out that absenteeism arising from HIV/AIDS accounted for about 54.3% of total HIV/AIDS related costs to firms (NAS COP, 2005). Besides, labour costs to firms have often increased due to the increased sickness benefits and recruitment and training (26.3% of the costs, NAS COP, 2005). A study on African countries has estimated that the combined impact of HIV/AIDS related absenteeism, productivity losses, health care expenditures and recruitment and training expenses could cut profits by between 6 percent and 8 percent. A study on the impact on Kenyan firms reported that the annual costs associated with sickness and reduced productivity as a result of HIV/AIDS averaged US\$ 45 per employee, or 3 percent of company profits. HIV/AIDS and Malaria have also been found to reduce the market demand for firm's products and services. Affected households, especially those that are poor, have had to reduce their spending on necessities, such as food, as they try to cope with the impact of these diseases. The net effect is reduced firm profitability, hence reduced contribution to national growth and deteriorated development process. Lower profits in the private sector reduce firms' ability to offer gainful employment, lowering the ability of those employed to meet their basic livelihood needs.

Overall economic insecurity

Besides the sectoral stress highlighted above, HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB affect the macro economy as they lead to productivity losses, investment losses and reduced labour supply. Absenteeism and ill health arising from diseases result in reduced average output per worker. The declining output per worker impacts negatively on the national output making nations more vulnerable to poverty. Diseases affecting the working population such as HIV/AIDS, have had profound negative effect on levels of productivity in any country. A study on the economic impact of HIV/AIDS, established that HIV/AIDS has resulted in a 7.5 percent productivity loss within the private sector. Various studies have also indicated that increased investment in malaria control reduces absenteeism, leading to increased output, implying productivity increases with reduced absenteeism. HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB exert pressure on the supply of skilled labour that is highly needed in most developing nations like Kenya. Through increased morbidity and mortality, they have impacted negatively on population growth (demographic effects) and human capital. A side from their negative

effects on labour supply, these diseases erode human capacity and the expansion of critical skills. In most cases, skilled personnel are lost through death or even when labour time and work schedules are disrupted. HIV/AIDS and Malaria have the potential of lowering the levels of investment in countries with the highest prevalence and incidence. Households affected by HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB are often forced to stop saving or dis-save to finance health care and even funeral expenses. This reduces the ability of nations to accumulate adequate savings to finance investment at any given time. As already shown, HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB increase overall labour costs and reduce firms profits hence limiting the ability of countries to attract industries that depend on low-cost labour and makes investments in businesses less desirable. HIV/AIDS and Malaria lowers foreign direct investments and tourist activity. WHO argues that these diseases retard economic development by reducing access to international flow of knowledge and technology as companies may be reluctant to send representatives to the affected regions.

Through these effects HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB have been found to exert negative pressure on GDP in particular and human development in general. An ILO study found significant impact of the disease in most African countries. It indicates that the rate of income growth in most African countries, with the highest HIV prevalence, was reduced by about 1.1 percent.

The study indicates that most researchers have ignored the significant costs involved in replacing workers and the cumulative impact of HIV/AIDS on networks, organizations and institutions, thereby undermining the outcome of their research. The ILO study therefore argues that by factoring the impact on networks, organizations and institutions, the impact of HIV/AIDS on economic growth will be substantial. While, underscoring its methodological limitations, a study by researchers at KIPPRA⁷⁰, indicates that HIV/AIDS is likely to reduce Kenya's Gross Domestic Product by 0.5 percent mainly through its effect on labour productivity and loss of earnings. Through their impact on economic growth, these diseases exacerbate poverty and make nations less able to provide the basic social needs which negatively impact on people's economic security.

4.5 HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB and Social Insecurity

Demographic, individual and household insecurity

Demographic insecurity

The demographic impact of the disease has been exacerbated by the nature of HIV/AIDS infection, which creates a suitable condition for other opportunistic infections to thrive. With high HIV/AIDS prevalence rates in the 1990s, Kenya experienced the re-emergence of other diseases previously under control. Subsequently, people have become more vulnerable to attack from other diseases, with the accompanying deleterious effect on the country's demographic status. The major observed demographic impact of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB are mainly their effect on life expectancy, childhood mortality and the population size. It is however expected that the consequences would be less severe with the reduction in HIV prevalence rates. Although HIV/AIDS will not lead to negative population growth and an absolute decrease in numbers⁷¹ (See Figure 4.3), it will however continue to impact on future population outcomes- in the absence of HIV/AIDS, the population of Kenya was expected to grow to 42.7 million in 2010, 48.6 million in 2015, and to 67.7 million in 2030. Due to HIV/AIDS, the population outcome is estimated to be 40.2 million in 2010, 45.4 million in 2015, 51.0 million in 2020 and 63.0 million in 2030.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, the diseases erode progress made in the recent past towards extending life expectancy. According to Avert (2006), the life expectancy in sub Saharan Africa is now 47 years compared to the expected 62 years in the absence of HIV/AIDS. In less than 10 years time, some countries in Southern Africa are likely to experience falling life expectancy to about 30 years, levels not recorded since end of the 19th century. The reduction of life expectancy in Kenya due to HIV/AIDS is estimated at 15 years (Lee, 1999). It appears from census data that the average life expectancy at birth in Kenya declined from 61.9 years in mid-1980s to 56.6 years in mid-1990s- a loss of 5 years. This declined further to 49 years between 2000 and 2003. As HIV prevalence rates are declining, life expectancy is expected to increase to about 71 years by 2030⁷².

Individual and household insecurity

The threat of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB on households can be traced through their effect on income generating capacity of individuals. Most studies have shown that HIV/AIDS and Malaria generate significant hardships to the affected households. The burdens have been found to spring from work time lost by the sick person, care giving time spent by other active family members, productivity losses, treatment costs and even premature mortality/death related burdens. HIV/AIDS is an important reference point to understanding the nature of these burdens. In most cases, HIV/AIDS patient are adults aged between 15-49 years who form the bulk of the working age. If an adult member of a household becomes sick then the household loses the persons' income and incur extra costs to access health care in addition to the funeral related expenses when the person dies.

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB have a multiplier effect on the family. One sick person not only drops out of work but also causes family members to cut down on work time to care for the sick person. Households of AIDS patients spend significant portions of their income on medical care. For example, WHO estimates that 5 percent of household expenditures of small-scale farmers in Kenya is spent on the treatment of Malaria. In such cases, a household with an HIV/AIDS case undergoes serious income strain, becoming more vulnerable to poverty. The ability of such households to afford basic needs for secure livelihoods, clothes, food, education, comfortable shelter, health care among others, is compromised. In most societies, households have had to reduce their food production and other income generating activities because of HIV/AIDS. On the other hand, healthy households may benefit from increased employment opportunities and higher

wages as a result of decreased labour supply due to HIV/AIDS deaths. However, no study has tested this hypothesis.

Besides the threat to household income generating capacity HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB threaten the social health of a household. With the death of young parents, the household is reduced to impoverished elderly people and children, characterized by limited decision-making power, access to resources, knowledge, education, and other basic needs. When households are not able to provide for the orphaned children, their vulnerability is increased. This not only reduces their access to adequate nutrition but also basic care, housing and clothing. Additionally, the illness or death of one or more members of the household can affect each of the livelihood assets, resulting in a reduction in the ability of the household to adjust to future shocks.

Insecurity to community and social systems

The social threat of HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB on community and social systems may be associated with reduced social networks, falling socio-economic outcomes, increased vulnerability of households and increased intergenerational poverty transfers. While most of the cases provided here below are predominantly on HIV/AIDS, such outcomes are also expected in regions with high incidence of Malaria and TB.

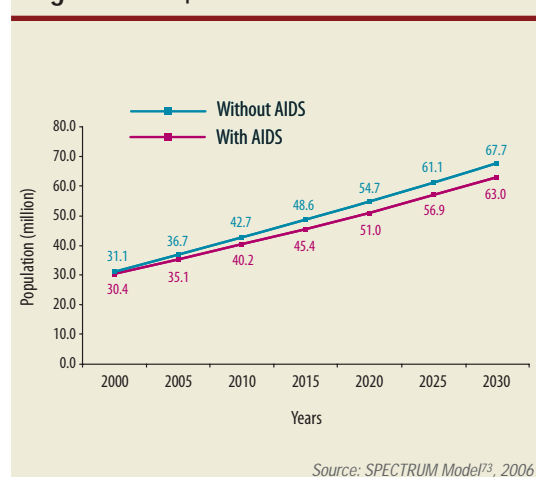
Like a pebble dropped in a pool, HIV/AIDS sends ripples to the edges of society, affecting first the family, then the community, and ultimately the entire nation (UNAIDS, 2006). By affecting the middle-aged population, it destroys the very fabric of society, thus disrupting the existing formal and informal structures of societies. A high proportion of households infected and/or affected by diseases, overburden and disrupt traditional/informal safety mechanisms to effectively care for the elderly and orphaned children. Most affected are extended families and next-of-kin, who have to take up socio-economic responsibilities, previously held by the terminally sick or dead members of the household. In the event of loss of parents, HIV/AIDS leads to increase in the number of orphans, children headed households, and female/ elderly headed households. Further, orphans often live in unprotected, insecure environments, which expose them to immense fear and frequent abuse. Physiologically, HIV/AIDS contributes to stress, self and external stigmatization, neglect, abuse, social isolation and discrimination. The effects are worsened especially when the children are separated from siblings and when they do not have access to development support.

The illness and death of household members can disrupt household's links to their extended family and the larger community. In areas where cultural practices limit women's participation in formal organizations outside the home, the death of a male breadwinner can significantly impair the household's capacity to access community resources including family support. In some communities, upon the death of a husband, the wife is deprived of her access to land and the husband's accumulated resources by the extended family. Specific social linkages affected by the disease include: relationships with extended family members; linkages to formal and informal community organizations/social support groups; community labour sharing for agricultural production, housework, child care; extended family and/or community willingness to foster orphaned children; and community willingness to support basic needs including education and health requirements of orphaned children.

The pandemic leads to increased demand on community social support and self help organizations owing to family/community disintegration and breakdown in socialization and cultural transmissions and norms. Societies are

A household with a HIV/AIDS case undergoes serious income strain, becoming more vulnerable to poverty

Figure 4.3 Population 2000-2030



already witnessing the increased dependence caused by death and illness of the most productive age group of society. Caregivers have increased roles to care for other adults who can no longer provide support to households. According to ILO (2004), like other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Kenya's dependence rate was estimated at 10 percent by 2005. Other social effects are transmitted through loss of economic power and its direct implications on deepening poverty. Taking care of the sick not only causes an emotional stress but also strains household resources thus pushing households to greater socio-economic vulnerability. The disease threatens the ability of affected workers to work effectively, and leads to additional health care expenses besides loss of income due to increased funeral costs.

While poverty accelerates its spread, the pandemic increases poverty levels for households and families with infected or affected people. Families deplete their savings to either provide health care for sick or cover funeral costs. This significantly increases the poverty incidence among households or increases their vulnerability to poverty, especially when the head of household dies. It is estimated that in Kenya, 170 million working days are lost each year due to Malaria related illness, leading to increases in poverty⁷⁴.

Further, the diseases have exacerbated the gender disparities in many societies today. In most cases, women bear the brunt and are more vulnerable as they have to care for the sick and terminally ill besides maintaining heavy workloads including provision for and feeding the households. This is made worse when women are illiterate and have lower socio-economic status to even support the impoverished communities. In some societies, socio-cultural practices such as wife inheritance affect women further particularly when such factors as poverty, tradition and social pressure erode their ability to either use "safe-sex" and/or choose partners. Increased burden of care giving and reduced opportunities

for employment increase social inequalities manifested through distortions in production systems and wealth concentration. The net effect is a community that is overburdened and cannot fend for itself socially and economically.

4.6 HIV/AIDS, Malaria and TB and Political Insecurity

HIV/AIDS, TB and Malaria go beyond being a health and humanitarian tragedy to pose threats to national and international security and stability. The impacts of the trio on structures and systems that uphold the security, stability and viability of states are diverse. In many developing countries but more so in Africa, HIV/AIDS alone has seriously dented not only the health and education systems, economic development and growth, small and micro enterprises, family and societal structures, but also policing, military capabilities, political authority and stability of nations. In the words of the former US Secretary of State Colin Powell in May 2001 when visiting Africa, "There is no war causing more death and destruction, there is no war on the face of the earth right now that is more serious, that is more grave, than the war against HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa."⁷⁵

Men and women in uniform in Africa (i.e., the police, army, peacekeepers etc.) are known to have HIV/AIDS infection rates two to five times higher than the civilian populations both in their countries and wherever they are deployed (UNAIDS 1998, p.2; Altman 2003; Schneider and Moodie 2002). Amongst returning Nigerian soldiers from peacekeeping missions in Liberia and Sierra Leone, HIV/AIDS infection rates were 11% compared to the national adult rate of 5% (UNAIDS 1998, p.5). Thus peacekeepers act as vectors for HIV/AIDS and spread the virus not only amongst themselves and among the populations wherever they are deployed, but also back in their countries of residence when they return. This has the potential to deter efforts at peace keeping for countries would be reluctant to send their soldiers for con-



flict resolution and thus undermine peace. The major causes of the higher prevalence rates amongst the forces include mobility, frequent casual sex, especially with sex workers, peer pressure, alcohol and drugs (Elbe 2003). In some countries such as Zambia, HIV/AIDS related illnesses are major killers of the military and the police forces. Warring armies and peacekeepers in the continent's numerous trouble spots are thus spreading the pandemic. Added to this the impact of Malaria and TB, epidemics whose devastating impact have been made more severe by the HIV/AIDS erosion of bodily immunity that make people more vulnerable to attacks by other diseases, the susceptibility of already weakened states is made more vulnerable to extremists and terrorists who seek to corrupt and/or coerce the states into providing converts, cover or cooperation⁷⁶. These threats that the forces face also decrease their ability and capacity to cope effectively with their roles in resolving internal, continental and international conflicts in addition to performing peacekeeping duties.

Militaries that have been seriously weakened create some void, nationally and internationally that thugs, gangs, terrorists' formations and guerrilla groups are only too proud to fill. Military experiences from Nigeria to Congo show that high rates of HIV/AIDS infections affect military readiness⁷⁷ and can entice risk-taking behavior among the military, which believe they have already been sentenced to death. Discipline, control and command within such troops diminish with human insecurity, leading to threats that such troops can gang up against their own due to the feeling of hopelessness.

The weakness in the security systems also undermines the international system's ability to end conflicts and prevent them from spreading in a number of ways. First, due to the very high rates of infections in the military, returning peacekeepers pose the threat of spreading the disease much faster when they return home even in regions that were previously unaffected or with low infection rates. Second, the accusations of HIV/AIDS spreading by peacekeeping forces made their presence unwelcome amongst peoples they are meant to lend a helping hand to. For example, the hope that Nigeria would help keep the peace amongst its neighbors turned sour when its own peacekeepers became a threat to the people through spreading HIV/AIDS to those they were meant to help. The disease also weakens cohesion in the military.

The war in the DRC has shown that military authorities will choose to fight continually, plunder and gain short-term enrichments instead of striving to achieve peace. Analysts from the region, for example, are reporting that concerns for the return of exceedingly infected troops is one of the reasons why the Rwandan Government is not in a hurry to end the war in the DRC. It is better to keep them out there in war than have them return and escalate the spread of the disease amongst the civilian population. The emerging real threat being observed today is that the African peacekeeping force and Africa's ability to maintain its own security is being lost.

The threat to the already devastated national and international security institutions is likely to deepen with the creation of new generation of criminals. It is argued that in South Africa alone, HIV/AIDS has already orphaned over 13 million children thereby creating the potential future social unrests. By 2010 the number is poised to triple to 42 million. In Sierra Leone, HIV/AIDS orphaned children is nearly five times that caused by the civil war. In many Sub-Saharan countries, a lost generation is emerging – those who have no roots, are uneducated and unnurtured (mainly young people). This generation forms a pool of potential candidates

for crime and terrorism that may throw the region into a deeper security quagmire.

Despite the relative political calm that Kenya has enjoyed since independence in 1963, internal conflicts have erupted and the common risks in a war situation pertain exposing people and especially women to higher risks of HIV/AIDS infections. The increasing number of orphans, majority of whom are uneducated, know no homes but streets form a pool of potential recruits into such rug-tag militia like the now infamous "Mungiki" that pose risks to society in various ways. The street children phenomenon is a fundamental problem faced by many towns in Kenya today. Evidence from Sierra Leone show that high numbers of orphans increase the risk of crime.

The low number of officers in the Kenya Police makes it difficult to respond to the always expanding policing needs. In Kenya, 75 percent of all police deaths in 1999 were attributed to HIV/AIDS. The potential for increased crime may arise because of reduced police ability to enforce law and because people already infected with HIV/AIDS are less deterred by the consequences of breaking the law given their shorted life spans (Elbe 2003, p.49). Governments that have already borne the brunt of the trio, i.e., HIV/AIDS, malaria and TB, cannot afford further deterioration in their judicial structures. This can create havens for criminals, guerrillas and even terrorists to take advantage of the worsening security situation.

Political insecurity can also be exacerbated by weak or poor leadership over HIV/AIDS. Tensions would arise if a given group feels disproportionately treated for HIV/AIDS or even marginalized over care provided.

In the mid-1990s in Uganda, for instance, a minister of defense was alleged to have made a suggestion that the most likely potential trigger of a military coup was perception amongst soldiers that the Government was doing little to combat HIV/AIDS (Elbe 2003, p.50). One specialist observed that, "the uneven distribution of essential HIV/AIDS treatment based on social, ethnic or political criteria could put unmanageable pressures on social and political structures, threatening the stability of regimes and countries throughout southern Africa." (Cheek 2001).

The threat of HIV/AIDS is particularly grave in the military. The disease is decreasing the effectiveness of militaries in Africa in four distinct areas: resources, personnel, morale, and military-civilian relations.⁷⁸ Special concerns have been exhibited over the high levels of command in militaries, whose deaths allow less skilled and less trained soldiers to take over their positions. Morale in the military will be low as soldiers watch their colleagues die slow painful deaths. Witnessing such events alone may lead to risk-taking or inappropriate behavior, as some soldiers will believe that they will suffer the same fate. In addition they may be less likely to attend to their wounded colleagues for fear of contracting the disease. All of these areas have the potential to undermine a country's military capability and prevent it from performing its essential duties. Eventually a reduced military capability could increase a country's vulnerability to external aggression or its susceptibility to internal militia groups arising from the belief by the aggressors that the forces could no longer put up a spirited defense. On the contrary, however, high prevalence rates in the military could impede expansionist military plans in warlike states.

The loss in political security impacts other spheres of human development. It has been found to exert negative pressure on the extent of economic activities and people's general livelihoods. The consequence is reduced human development as the threat to people's safety becomes real.

4.7 The Spectrum Software

Spectrum is a software package developed by the Futures Group International for population projections. The package is based on a system of integrated policy models. The integration is based on Demproj, which uses the cohort component method to carry out population projections that support many of the calculations in the other components. The program offers a variety of input options i.e. making use of model and interpolation/duplication procedures to save entering data or every period.

Data requirements

Base population distributed by age and sex

- Sex ratio at birth
- Model life table patterns
- Current and projected expectation of life at birth by sex
- Current and projected total fertility rates
- Current and projected fertility pattern

Within the Spectrum there is also the AIM model for projecting the impact of HIV/AIDS including the demographic impact. The data required for projecting the demographic impact of HIV/AIDS are the start year of the epidemic, adult HIV prevalence, HIV incubation period, and age distribution of HIV prevalence.

Fertility estimation.

The procedures used to project fertility in World Bank population projections have been applied in the fertility projections for the human development report. The procedures provide a clear rationale for future trends. In the World Bank procedures, past trends are examined in total fertility rate (TFR) and used in the definition of future trends. TFRs are used because they are readily available and are also easily understood. These procedures have been developed based on regression analysis to estimate relationships between current rate of decline in fertility, rate of decline in the past five years and a number of socio-economic indicators.

The results have been translated into a number of rules to be applied in projecting future fertility rates. Different variants of fertility decline (slow, medium and high) are defined based on the distribution of observed fertility decline rates. Hence, the procedure attempts to provide results that are consistent with current trends and also feasible in the future.

Mortality estimations

To project future mortality levels, procedures developed for the World Bank were used. The rate of change in the immediately preceding period is used to predict the subsequent rate. The procedure involves calculating rates of change for and separately projecting male and female life expectancy and then selecting appropriate model life tables. Using the available information on life expectancies, the rate of change in life expectancies was estimated from the annual increments to life expectancies estimated by the World Bank.

End notes

60. An ambiguous term describing devastating malaria incidences in the Kenyan highlands where it is not prevalent or endemic
61. Role Back Malaria 2001-2010.
62. World Bank
63. Ulf 2000
64. See Symposium Report (2005)
65. See <http://www.crisisgroup.org/home/index.cfm>
66. Nyaga et al 2004
67. Sachs et al (2000)
68. Hammer 1993; Wang'ombe and Mwabu 1993; and Mc Carthy et al 1999
69. Excluding refined petroleum
70. Mauren Were and Nancy Nafula, 2003.
71. Forecasts based on the SPECTRUM model
72. Forecasts based on the SPECTRUM model
73. See Annex for the explanations
74. KDHS, 2003.
75. United States Institute of Peace (2001), "AIDS and Violent Conflict in Africa, Special Report No. 75, October. <http://www.usip.org/pubs/specialreports/sr75.html>
76. Schneider and Moodie 2002.
77. The potential loss of experience, skills and training capacity in the men and women in uniform can seriously affect military readiness.
78. Elizabeth, H.W. (2004), AIDS in Africa: A Security Threat? M.A. in Law and Diplomacy, The Fletcher School, Tufts University.

Chronic Poverty and Insecurity

5.1 Introduction

The chains that link economic, social, cultural and other factors in producing poverty need to be broken. Nearly one in every two people in the country lives below the poverty threshold. Poverty goes beyond lack of income, constituting a basic insecurity. Poverty is characterized by (i) insufficient resources for meeting essential needs (ii) difficulties in accessing basic infrastructural services such as water, roads or electricity. It results in moral deprivations, loss of esteem, loosening of family ties, a weakening sense of solidarity, ethnic biases and social distrust, exclusion and discrimination.

Insecurity and conflict predispose people to poverty, and are more likely to arise in the midst of poverty. Poverty is often manifested through denial of basic rights, lack of both protection against abuses and access to legitimate essential legal services. Poor health, illiteracy, hunger, malnutrition and under-nourishment, poor clothing, unwashed bodies, run down housing, lack of a home, social isolation and exclusion, begging, lack of access to clean water, and exclusion from essential services such as primary schooling or basic health care, limited access to productive assets, risks of economic exploitation and exposure to vulnerabilities in basic capabilities are poverty's characteristic companions.

If poverty is regarded as a social construct, a connection is found among the groups that suffer entitlement failures, confinement to certain types of housing, certain (unfavourable) types of economy and low life expectancy. Deficient education aggravates poverty and contributes to disempowerment. As insecurity rises, the mechanisms of social protection for the poor prove insufficient. Long-term vulnerability creates deeper insecurity.

Social norms regarding community and family life are often disrupted by poverty aggravated by conflict and insecurity. As they move from place to place, refugees and internally displaced women and children are unable to rebuild their protective mechanisms and continue to face this violence, further exposing them to threats such as HIV. Moreover, women and children uprooted from their families in the periphery borders of the country are vulnerable to sexual violence during and after conflict. Facing extreme poverty and not enough food, many refugees and internally displaced persons often find themselves in a situation that forces them to barter sexual services in exchange for food and other necessities in order to survive.

In exploring the poverty and insecurity nexus, a number of critical questions may be asked, essentially focusing on the following: Will the poor and their families have enough to eat? Will they lose their jobs or livelihoods? Will their streets and neighbourhoods be safe from crime? Will they be tortured by a repressive state? Will they become victims of violence because of their gender? Will their religion or ethnic origin be targeted for persecution? In the final analysis, the human security for the powerless is a child that did not die, a disease that did not spread, a job that was not lost, an ethnic tension that did not flare into violence⁷⁹, and so forth. The relationship between human well-being and chronic poverty is demonstrated in Table 5.1.

5.2 Meaning of Chronic Poverty

A number of expressions have been used to identify those who experience poverty most intensely, including: the ultra poor, extreme poor, hardcore poor, destitute, poorest of the poor, and declining poor. There is also a broad agreement that poverty occurs when someone experiences a fundamental deprivation as in the lack of some basic necessity or necessities essential for human well-being. Intuitively, most people think they can recognize poverty in hunger, malnutrition, poor clothing, unwashed bodies, run down housing, (or no home at all), begging, lack of access to clean water, primary schooling, basic health care services and so on. The way poverty is conceptualized is inherently about value preferences that vary between individuals, organizations and societies (CPRC, 2005).

Until the 1990s, poverty was considered mainly in material terms as low income or low levels of material wealth. More recently, vulnerability and multidimensional deprivation, especially of basic capabilities such as health and education, have been emphasized as key aspects of poverty. Indeed chronic poverty is rarely the result of a single factor. Instead, a combination of, and interactions between, material poverty, extreme capability deprivation and vulnerability often characterizes the chronically poor. (Global Chronic Poverty 2004 – 2005). Angelina's story, narrated in Box 5.1, illustrates that there are currently a wide range of people experiencing chronic poverty – people who remain poor for much or all their lives, many of whom will pass on their poverty to their children, and all too often die easily preventable deaths. Chronically poor people have little access to productive assets and low capabilities in terms of different types of poverty, expressing the idea of poverty that persists (Box 5.1). An effective response requires a better understanding of what it means to be chronically poor and better analysis of the characteristics and underlying

Insecurity and conflict predispose people to poverty, and are more likely to arise in the midst of poverty

Box 5.1 Anjelina's Poverty Story

Anjelina Nyawade Madara is a widow married to a poor family in Minya Village in 1942. Her home is situated within the environs of Amoyo Market in South Sakwa location of Nyangoma Division, Bondo District. Sitting next to the plastered grave of her late Husband Madara, she told of how she and her fellow aging co wife, also a widow, have experience dire poverty over decades and which their children have inherited. The two are taken care of by the latter's daughter, also poor. They hardly get more than a calabash of porridge as the day's meal, unless a good Samaritan remembers them with an additional meal. According to Anjelina, young people migrate to urban areas in search of white collar jobs and thereby depriving the rural village of labour force to fight hunger and poverty. Others disappear into the nearby Lake Victoria to carry out fishing and hardly return home. She defines her poverty situation as a 'state of unending idleness due to lack of energy to do productive activities'.

Amoyo market center next to Anjelina's home has worn out semi-permanent buildings. The falling structures are occupied by mainly women who are widowed due to HIV/AIDS. Such women are discriminated upon by community just as they are stigmatized and isolated. The widows do not mix freely with their relatives for a number of cultural beliefs. "Gichako wuothwa ni. Wuodh dwar manyakachieng' - They have began the journey like ours, the journey of perpetual want," Anjelina says of the women. The women have joined her in Chronic poverty.

Table 5.1 Requirements for human flourishing and their relation to chronic poverty

Requirements	Relationship to Chronic Poverty
Bodily well-being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preventable and premature death deprives a person of all capabilities and functionings for the lost years. Chronic ill health and terminal illness, especially of the main breadwinner of a household, are closely associated with chronic poverty. Poor people frequently cite ill health as a cause and consequence of chronic poverty. Disability correlates with chronic poverty.
Material well-being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Income/consumption poverty is the most commonly used indicator of chronic poverty. Asset measurements have been proposed recently.
Mental development (and mental health)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low levels of human capital (education, knowledge, skills) are commonly reported as a factor trapping people in poverty.
Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mental health problems are significantly associated with homelessness and extreme poverty. Chronic poverty is closely associated with low paid, irregular and insecure work. Work related ill health (injuries, lung disease) are causes of chronic poverty.
Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regions and countries experiencing violent conflict have high levels of chronic poverty. Physical insecurity raises the probability of chronic poverty. Lack of access to basic social security encourages risk averse behaviours that lower productivity – these can become poverty traps.
Social relations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low levels of social capital/social networks are seen as an asset condition predisposing households to chronic poverty. Social relations, in terms of social exclusion and adverse incorporation, are viewed by many as fundamental causes of chronic poverty.
Spiritual well-being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Although rarely explored in literature on chronic poverty, anecdotally, chronically poor people explain their circumstances through reference to the spiritual e.g. "will of God", witchcraft etc.
Empowerment and political freedom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Disempowerment and lack of rights/abuse of rights are often argued to be key causes of chronic poverty.
Respect for other species	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In some cases environmental degradation is identified as a factor contributing to chronic poverty.

Source: Adopted from David Hume 2005, citing Ranis, Stewart and Samman (2005:4)

ing social processes that result in sustained and intractable poverty (Global Chronic Poverty 2004 – 05). Kenya lacks that kind of analysis for chronic poverty. However, the interventions designed to provide some form of safety net for various groups in response to various forms of external shocks. The permanency with which this happens definitely confirms the spatial poverty chronicity in the country. An example is the ASAL program that began with a few districts in Northern Kenya but has now extended to over 22 districts.

5.3 Disaggregating Chronic Poverty and Low Income

The concept of low income poverty is to express the idea that, whatever the minimum level of consumption (or another welfare indicator), there exists 'the poor' whose consumption is below the minimum, poverty line. The official poverty line in Kenya is based on the last Welfare Monitoring Survey (WMS) which was carried out in 1997. The poverty line was calculated on the basis of mean rural and urban costs for both food and basic goods. In much of the current literature the 1997 poverty line is cited (KShs 1,239 per capita per month in rural areas calculated on the basis of basic food and non-food needs). However, this is problematic in terms of an analysis of recent and current social protection interventions, and does not take account of significant inflation since 1997.

The shortfall below the poverty line is referred to in order to decide the severity of poverty, capturing the fact that the poor are not equally poor: some people are slightly below the poverty line while others are far below it. Chronic Poverty on the other hand captures the fact that some of the poor are poor for a short time while others are poor for long periods – the chronically poor. Chronic Poverty is therefore a longitudinal concept referring to persistence in poverty (Yaqub 2003:1 – 2). The problems inherent in using income poverty are that information about chronic poverty is left out which makes it inappropriate for public policy and debate.

Although specific data on chronic poverty is not available in Kenya, there is a general trend in the broad dimensions of poor and vulnerable populations in Kenya, which indicates chronic poverty.

5.4 Who are the Chronically Poor?

The chronically poor are not a homogeneous group. Chronic poverty clearly affects people in many different situations. In specific contexts there are different sets of factors associated with chronic poverty, and causes of chronic poverty vary from region to region, household to household and person to person. The chronically poor are not simply a list of vulnerable groups, but people who commonly experience several forms of disadvantage and discrimination at the

same time (Global Chronic Poverty 2004 – 05). It is useful to draw a distinction between the people who move into and out of poverty, often as a result of seasonal or random shocks and the inter-generationally poor, who tend to live on the margins of the national economy in the most chronically insecure districts and benefit least from the current development policy. People in chronic poverty typically depend on what they can produce on their small holding or what they can earn from casual labour – often too little to cover basic needs. Other people especially vulnerable to chronic poverty include: those who are old or disabled; people marginalized or discriminated against because of their religion, caste or ethnic group; migrants and people in remote rural areas or urban slums; widows, orphans and people in female-headed households.

Chronic poverty is not just about having a low income. Typically, it involves multidimensional deprivation – being poorly nourished, having access only to dirty drinking water, not being literate, having no access to health services, being socially isolated, often economically exploited and frequently invisible to policy makers. (Chronic Poverty update July 2005). In Kenya, the PRSP report (September 2001) states that the poor tend to be clustered into certain social categories such as:

- The landless
- People with disabilities
- Female-headed households
- Households headed by people without formal education
- Pastoralists in drought prone ASAL districts
- Unskilled and semi-skilled casual laborers
- AIDS orphans
- Street children and beggars
- Subsistence farmers
- Urban slum dwellers and
- Unemployed youth

The above categories of poor people are the same people who suffer chronic poverty for lack of social safety nets. This means that those of them who are found in those parts of Kenya that experience human insecurity as in chronic food insecurity, physical insecurity and structural violence are by far the most chronically poor.

5.5 The Poverty Dimension

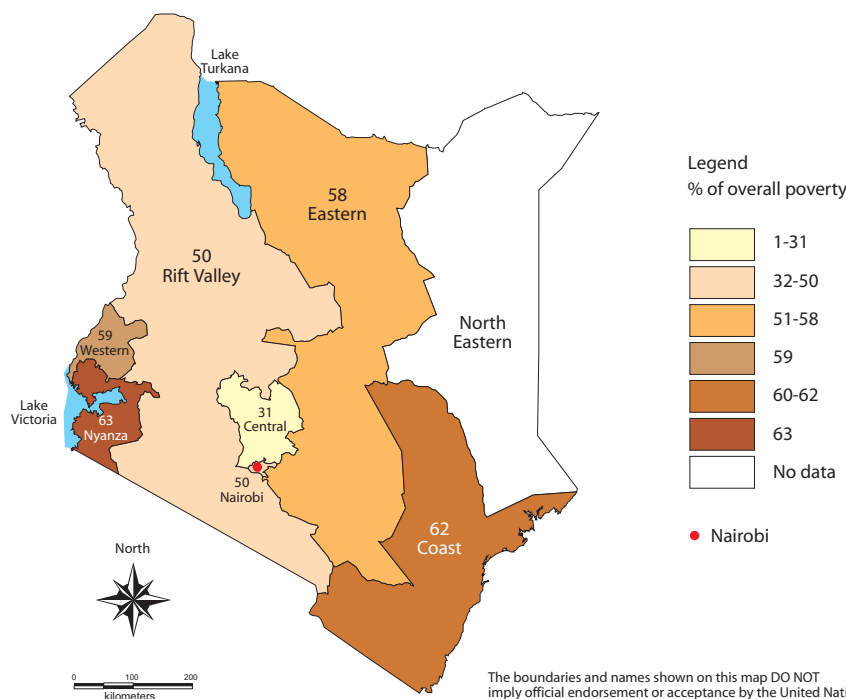
In Kenya, the hotspots of poverty incidence are not concentrated in any one region but are dispersed within provinces - Eastern, Coast, Nyanza and Western. According to a government publication entitled "Geographic Dimensions of Well-being", thirty four districts in Kenya have at least one location⁸⁰ with more than 70 percent poverty incidence. That report indicates that the poor are concentrated within Nyamira, Central Kisii and Gucha Districts of Nyanza Province; Vihiga, Butere-Mumia and Kakamega Districts in Western Kenya; Embu, Meru South, and Machakos Districts in Eastern Province; and a few pockets around Mombasa⁸¹.

Three quarters of the poor live in rural areas while the majority of the urban poor live in the slums and peri-urban settlements⁸². Although the 1994 Welfare Monitoring Survey indicated the North Eastern Province had the highest concentration of poor people, with a poverty incidence of 59 percent followed by the Eastern Province with 57 percent and Coast Province with 55 percent, more recent results suggest that Nyanza currently has the highest levels with 63 percent of its population living in poverty. This is followed by Coast Province with a prevalence of 62 percent. In least from national development plans, the urban slum settlements like Kibera in Nairobi and all other Provinces with the exception of Central Province, more than 50 percent of the population lives in poverty. In the urban areas, Kisumu town is accorded the highest poverty prevalence of 63 percent, followed by Nairobi with 50 percent.

5.6 Chronic Poverty and Human Insecurity Traps

Chronic poverty is usually a factor in human insecurity. Distinguished from transitory poverty by its duration – the chronically poor are identified not so much by income in a year as by low variation in income over a period of several years. They are the inter-generational poor, who tend to live on the margins of the national economy. This is often as a result of human security threats embedded in seasonal or random shocks including violent conflict, market failure, famine, drought etc. In Kenya, the most chronically insecure

Map 5.1 Kenya: Incidences of Poverty by Province



districts that benefit least from national development plans, the urban slum settlements like Kibera in Nairobi and remote rural areas that experience violent conflicts, environmental degradation, chronic food insecurity, chronic diseases and landlessness are more prone to chronic poverty and human insecurity. This situation is aggravated by factors that are likely to increase vulnerability and in certain contexts generate grievance. The varying geographical features and inherent social, economic and cultural patterns in Kenya dictate and characterize human incapability resulting in varying vulnerabilities within which human insecurity and chronic poverty breeds. Some of the situations are described below.

Internally displaced and forgotten

Violent conflict destroys personal as well as social and physical infrastructure, with long term effects on health, education and livelihoods status of countries, households and individuals. Those who have had to flee from their homes due to persecution or violent conflict – and sometimes many times over many years are often already members of marginalized group and often find themselves in situations of vulnerability.

In Kenya internal displacement due to violent conflict has led many into desolation and vulnerability. Many families were displaced from their ancestral lands during the politically instigated ethnic clashes in coast, Western, Nyanza and Rift valley provinces. Quite a number of these people did not manage to resettle back to their original farms. Some families were temporarily resettled in pieces as small as quarter of an acre over ten years ago where they still remain stigmatized and discriminated upon by the host community.

The sizes of these families have grown, meaning that the piece of land can no longer suffice for their needs. Ten or more years down the line those who were babies are now in their teenage, those who were in their teenage are now adults probably married with children. Because of loss of livelihood, they are over a long period of time exposed to chronic illnesses including AIDS, deprivation that has only pushed them to chronic poverty.

The pastoral areas

These areas largely comprise the arid and semi-arid zones of North Rift region, parts of Eastern and North Eastern Provinces of Kenya. These arid and semi-arid lands are inhabited by people who practice a nomadic lifestyle, often having cross border interactions with members of their communities living in the neighbouring countries.

Their human insecurity is influenced by their cultural activities, emotive political transitions in the neighbouring countries with spillover effects and a history of economic marginalization. These areas suffer protracted violent conflicts, chronic food insecurity and threats from diseases.

Agro-pastoral areas

These areas comprise the South and North Rift Valley region and parts of Nyanza and Coast Provinces. Communities who inhabit these areas practice agro-pastoralism in the semi-arid zones, which are vulnerable to harsh and variable climatic conditions. Their insecurity is also influenced by the differences in the social, cultural and economic practices of farmers with the pastoralist neighbours. In turn, land and tenure rights have been used to fuel ethnic clashes causing displacement of persons, squatter settlement problems and rampant human wildlife conflict. Most ranches and national parks in the country are found in this environment.

Urban slum dwellers and squatters

This category comprises of communities with complex social strata and economic disparity. Persons in this category are faced with urban crime, landlord and tenant conflicts, and squalid conditions of slum life. They are frequently victims of job cuts due to industrial and labour chaos. Similar situations are faced by squatters. These conditions portend a threat to their immediate security and are often involved in mass actions on national issues that commonly generate into violence.

Cross border areas

These areas are found in the Karamoja cluster (Ethiopia – Uganda – Sudan - Kenya border), Somali cluster (Ethiopia - Somalia - Kenya border) and Lake Victoria fishing community (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda). In these areas, the political boundaries are imaginary phenomena and do not concretely exist. Communities share resources and interact closely with family neighbours across the border, with no reference to the diplomatic protocols or administrative regulations. Human insecurity, often involving conflicts over scarce natural resources and indiscriminate use of small arms, transcend the national borders. In areas inhabited by pastoralists, mobility has generated claims of international encroachments into neighbouring countries leading to cross border conflicts.

5.7 From Physical Insecurity to Chronic Poverty and Human Insecurity

As explained in Box 5.2, human security has two aspects related to safety and protection. These two aspects of Human Security make human insecurity extremely complex and entwined in chronic threats and external shocks in which a number of factors interact with one another. Looking at Human insecurity in northern Kenya for instance, micro level violent conflicts around pasture and water issues

Box 5.2 The Concept of Security (UN HDHR 1994)

The concept of security has for too long been interpreted narrowly: as security of territory from external aggression, or as protection of national interests in foreign policy [...]. The developing nations having won their independence only recently were sensitive to any real or perceived threats to fragile national identities. Forgotten were the legitimate concerns of ordinary people who sought security in their daily lives. For many of ordinary people, security symbolized protection from threats of disease, hunger, unemployment, crime, social conflict, political repression, and environmental hazards. For most people, a feeling of insecurity arises more from worries about daily life than from the dread of cataclysmic world event. Will they and their families have enough to eat? Will they lose their jobs? Will their streets and neighborhoods be safe from crime? Will they be tortured by a repressive state? Will they become a victim of violence because of their gender? Will their religion or ethnic origin target them for persecution? In the final analysis human security is a child that did not die, a disease that did not spread, a job that was not cut, an ethnic tension that did not explode into violence, a dissident who was not silenced. Human security is not a concern with weapons – it is a concern with human life and dignity. Human security therefore means freedom from want and fear.

Conclusively therefore, human security can be said to have two aspects, first, safety from such chronic threats as disease and repression. And second, it means protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life.

have become entwined with the food insecurity and famine. The analytical challenge in identifying insecurity issues is to attempt to isolate individual risk factors such as chronic poverty than understanding the types of configurations and patterns that are more or less likely to lead to general insecurity and poverty. It also means there is unlikely to be any single interventions to address human insecurity. Ecological, social, political and economic factors precipitate human insecure environments that contribute to chronic poverty. The nature of this link is explored in the examination of the following factors that predispose chronic poverty and human insecurity in Kenya.

Factors predisposing Kenyans to chronic poverty and human insecurity

These factors also relate closely to chronic poverty and insecurity traps and have ecological characteristics. They are aggravated by poor infrastructure, weak institutions and political isolation. They include the following:

(a) Natural resource use conflicts

It is evident that scarce natural resources, worsening environmental conditions and increased populations have resulted in stiffer competition for land, pasture and water. Pastoral communities have continued to experience devastating hardships, resulting in competitions for scarce water and pasture resources, which often degenerate into violent clashes among the communities, within the country and across national borders.

(b) Politically instigated ethnic clashes

First experienced in the advent of multiparty democratic elections in 1991, politically instigated ethnic violence remains the most infamous source of insecurity in Kenya. Attributed to political incitement, the politicians have used militia youth groups such as Kamjesh in Nairobi, Baghdad boys in Kisumu, Chinkoror in Kisii, Congo by force in Mombasa, KANU youth wingers and Mungiki to carry out violent attacks on opposing communities – a culture which does not augur well with the promotion of peace and security.

(c) Cattle rustling/raids

Traditionally, pastoral communities raided each other and sedentary communities for livestock to replenish herds depleted by severe droughts, disease, raiding or other calamities. Raids were also orchestrated to expand grazing space, raise bride price and to a lesser extent to demonstrate heroism among warriors. In the past, elders often sanctioned such raids, blessing the raiders before they set off. However, in recent times, inter-communal rustling has become more frequent and severe, degenerating into a militarised activity with no precedence in the history of the cattle rustling. Today's incidents of cattle rustling are driven by hatred, political instigations, unscrupulous commercial activities, general crime, and availability of firearms. The planning and execution of such raids are done in flagrant disregard and disrespect for human rights. The extent and viciousness of the clashes have puzzled even the elders in the affected communities due to consequent devastation in terms of senseless loss of human lives, rape, burning of pastures and settlements, abductions, forced marriages and revenge. Consequently women, children and the elderly have become exposed to vulnerabilities precipitated by these conflicts. These raids have overwhelmed the security operations, eroded traditional conflict management mechanisms and adversely impacted pastoral mobility and environmental resources. This level of cattle rustling is more pronounced amongst

the pastoralists communities found in Eastern, North Eastern and Rift Valley provinces in Kenya.

(d) Land conflicts

Inadequacies in provisions on ownership, control and usage of land within the constitution and other Acts of Parliament have precipitated conflicts. In addition, lack of grassroots understanding and acceptance of rights of citizens to own and settle permanently in their ancestral places of origin have heightened tensions that have resulted in personal and community insecurity in Kenya. Following from these reasons, land ownership has been an emotive issue in Kenya and has been a sensitive issue of politics in the country. Although the problem is evident in high density, settled areas such as Trans Nzoia district, the situation is worst in pastoralist areas where poorly defined tenure rights have instigated friction among the communities there. Land related conflicts have also arisen due to eviction of squatter populations by large land track owners of absentee landlords. De-gazettement of forest reserves originally intended for environmental and wildlife conservation, often driven by political motives, has resulted in displacement of people. This sparked land disputes, which often degenerate into conflict. Land based insecurity also arises from ownership disputes from allocation contests and rights to the land or ownership. Such conflicts have taken place for example in parts of Rift Valley and Western Provinces.

(e) Human/wildlife conflicts

Most of the communities severely hit by insecurity due to human/wildlife conflicts surround national parks and game reserves. The communities are concerned with how much of their district land was set aside as a national park by the colonial government without their consultation and consent. Over the years since colonial government, population growth has caused immense pressure on the land available for affected communities. For example 62% of the Taita Taveta district's 1,965,600 hectares was shoved off for the national parks, from which the people claim they derive no benefits. In the meantime, agricultural production in the district has continued to shrink over the last 10 years mainly due to destruction of crops by wildlife, especially elephants whose population in the Tsavo ecosystem is estimated to exceed 10,000. Elephants have literally killed all forms of agriculture in much of the district. Often the displaced and affected people are inadequately compensated for losses caused by wildlife destruction.

(f) Industrial and institutional disputes

Since the pre-independence era, Kenyan labour relations have been prone to conflict. During colonialism, trade unions engaged in industrial action to improve workers rights and call for the release of detainees who championed the struggle for political freedom. Today, strike actions still take place and have often escalated to outbreaks of violence between law enforcement agencies and the striking workers. These have resulted in the destruction of property and in severe cases the loss of life and the rape of female strikers.

(g) Urban crime

The capability of urban communities in Kenya to function in an environment free of public security threats depends on their enjoyment of freedom from fear. Such capability hinges on personal security. Sustained crime and violence systematically creates fear and reduces trust between community members. Fear increases urban fragmentation resulting in fortification of neighbourhoods where the poor and the marginalized are excluded. The causes of crime are linked to

The analytical challenge in identifying insecurity issues is to attempt to isolate individual risk factors such as chronic poverty than understanding the types of configurations and patterns that are more or less likely to lead to general insecurity and poverty

institutional weaknesses in the public and private sectors such as the police and courts. At other times, informal institutions like Civil Society Organisations and group networks have incited violence.

(i) Public security deterioration

The resultant low morale in the police force, low professionalism, inadequate allocation of required resources, and endemic corruption has resulted in public security deterioration. The PRSP report indicates that Kenya's public security system has deteriorated in the last two decades to the point where the government was unable to guarantee its citizens personal security, and that of their property. The state security sector is crucial to creating an enabling environment for human security, private sector-led growth and human development. The failure of the sector to deal effectively with the pervasive governance issues, the existence of unacceptably high level of crime and personal insecurity as well as delays in determination of cases in court have all served to increase mistrust and insecurity.

5.8 Chronic Poverty Predisposes People to Insecurity

The chronic poor and hungry are more likely to fall into conflict over scarce vital resources, such as watering holes and arable land. Chronic poverty worsens conflict situations and human insecurity in already conflict ridden areas, and, lack of development tends to increase the risk of conflict. The link between development (interpreted to mean diminishing poverty) and human security, should anchor prominently in policy discourse for conflict resolution⁸³.

At the individual level, poor people frequently face higher risks from factors/incidences such as domestic violence, crime, sickness and unemployment. Poor women suffer high and increasing risks of dying from pregnancy and childbirth. Under-resourced community and national institutions render citizens unable to respond effectively to social and national problems. Poverty increases the risks of insecurity through multiple paths. The poor sub-national regions within a country are more likely to have weak governance institutions, making it easier for the would-be rebels to grab land and other vital scarce resources. This provokes population migrations and displacement that result in conflicts between social groups. Without productive alternatives, young people may turn to violence for material gain, or feel a sense of hopelessness, despair and rage. Poor farmers who lack basic infrastructure and access to agricultural markets may become desperate and result to unfavourable alternatives. Many slums could harbour or be controlled by gangs of drug

traffickers and traders, who create vicious cycle of insecurity and poverty. The lack of economically viable options other than criminal activity creates the seedbed of instability and increases the potential for violence.

Viewed through the lens of human insecurity, pockets of chronic insecurity in Kenya are characterized by a combination of acute poverty, vulnerability to drought, poor infrastructure and basic social services delivery, limited marketing opportunities, natural resource scarcity and degradation. The result of these has been increased competition for the already limited scarce resources leading to destitution particularly of pastoralist households. More to the point, in the North and North Eastern parts of the country, lack of enhancements to pastoralism has made livestock raiding a key livelihood strategy institutionalizing chronic and violent conflict as part of the daily life.

Human insecurity in northern Kenya has often manifested itself in overt conflict with direct costs, such as deaths, disablement and displacements. However, the indirect costs of human insecurity such as large long-term political, economic and social costs for societies over and above the direct consequences of overt conflict, are far reaching too. Conflict results in deepening poverty due to high dependency ratios caused by increased proportion of the old, orphans, widowed women and disabled in the population. More deaths in clash areas of North Rift Valley and North Eastern Provinces result from disrupted medical services, chronic diseases, destroyed rural life than from direct battlefields. The World Bank estimates that conflict in Africa causes a loss of upto 2 percent in annual economic growth across the continent (DFID, 2001:11). Stewart and Fitzgerald (2000) in a global analysis of conflict affected countries found similar patterns of macro economic effects including a fall in GDP per capita, food production and exports, a fall in gross investment, government revenue and expenditure. Even though there has been no large-scale war in Kenya, endemic cattle raids in northern part of the country and widespread clashes over land in coast and western part of the country have a great impact on government revenue and expenditure. These have negatively impacted on food production in the affected areas and led to an increased reliance on food relief.

There is a need to focus more on sustaining people's livelihoods, as well as health and education services. In many instances, more deaths are caused by the collapse of the delivery systems for economic and essential services than those that are caused directly by conflicts. Human Insecurity in Kenya could be eliminated when the issue of the lack of development, chronic poverty and inequalities, are recognized as major sources of insecurity and conflicts and are addressed with appropriate policies. Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation for Kenya states that poverty threats to human security often spring from economic disempowerment, sometimes characterized by a lack of productive and remunerative work or the absence of publicly financed safety nets. The unemployment and low wages reflect in poverty in both rural and urban areas of Kenya. Despite reasonable school completion rates, it is widely decried that many graduates fail to secure meaningful employment due to lack of opportunities or inappropriate skills for gainful engagement in industry. There are about 2 million unemployed persons, mostly the young and unskilled⁸⁴. These unemployment figures understate the real scale of the crisis since many of those working are underemployed, often operating under very poor working conditions at the workplace. The high level of unemployment not only has a direct impact on poverty levels but also breeds social problems such as crime and insecurity. Recent reforms, including liberalization of the econ-

BOX 5.3 A perception of risks within pastoralist households in northern Kenya

Concern	Mean ranking
Human sickness	0.642
Animal sickness/death	0.615
Not enough food for people	0.559
High prices for thing you buy	0.553
Not enough pasture	0.476
Low prices for animals	0.467
No buyers for animals	0.374
Not enough water for animals	0.329
Insecurity/violence	0.312
Animal loss due to theft/raiding	0.308
Crops fail	0.207

(Doss, et al; 2004)

omy and retrenchment in the public service have worsened the problem. The chronically poor who don't enjoy any public funded social safety net rely on family and community support which have increasingly become over-stretched. Diminishing opportunities imply worsening incomes necessary for meeting the basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing, education and medical services. These essentials cut across the clusters of insecurity as conceived in the 1994 Global Human Development Report.

Economic insecurity is more severe with the chronic poor living in internal displacements in different parts of the country and those living in informal settlements within the urban centers. Kenya has unknown number of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) whose livelihoods are continuously threatened and who live under squalid living conditions occasioned by ethnic tensions. Some continually suffer multiple displacements due to recurrent tribal and clan feuds and cannot engage in any meaningful economic undertaking.

Kenya has no systematic and publicly financed social safety nets to mitigate economic insecurity and provide adequate response to the needs of the chronically poor. Social protection is addressed through diverse sectoral interventions, to which access is highly variable among different population groups across the country. This reflects a historical and geographical trend in service provision and interventions to a range of specific sub-groups of the chronically poor. More recently the government has attempted to address some of the more immediate inequities, through its focus on Core Poverty Programmes and expanding interventions in historically and politically marginal ASAL areas and urban slums. The government has also promoted interventions to address emerging human insecurity and chronic poverty problems associated with HIV/AIDS, and decentralized funds to support local level development initiatives. In addition a range of major policy initiatives in education, conflict management and peace-building, health and nutrition, HIV/AIDS, labour and social security are at various stages of development and negotiation. These interventions are however, far from representing an integrated national response to the problems of chronic poverty, deteriorating human development indicators and continuing inequality in Kenya due to existing political exclusion of the poor.

5.9 Development Catalyzes Human Security

The issues of development and human security are intimately intertwined, promoting the connections between chronic poverty reductions, physical security, a sense of predictability in each individual's life and the psychological conditions for engaging in productive activities. Conflicts often arise and take hold in areas with poor governance, ethnic tensions and structural inequities – all issues falling within the development agenda. Chronic Poverty reduction endeavors are crucial for reducing human insecurity and violent conflicts if policy makers are to link peace, human security and development intricately. Appropriate strategies need to be found to deal with a range of problems: natural resource conflicts, humanitarian crisis involving drought, poverty, HIV/AIDS, operations of non-state actors, drugs or illicit trade.

Chronic Poverty is intrinsically an important issue, but more broadly, it is the lack of development of a society as a whole that determines the propensity to human insecurity. The way the links between development and human insecurity operate are as follows: (i) first, human security is an important objective of development and chronic poverty eradication including freedom from economic, health and political insecurities that are important dimen-

Box 5.4 Tasks for the Government and NGOs engaged in poverty reduction initiatives

- Information and access to markets
- Subsidies and technological development
- Step up water facilities
- Expansion of health services
- Infrastructure
- Training extension services
- Security – traditional conflict resolution and restorative justice
- Family planning
- Prohibitive laws – inheritance of land by women

Results from PPAs for Kenya, 2001

sions of individual well-being; (ii) the lack of security, notably violent conflicts reduce the rate of economic growth and worsens people's entitlements, and, (iii) the level and patterns of development affect the propensity for insecurity and conflict. The issue of economic security is closely linked with chronic poverty. Chronic poverty predisposes human insecurity, but human insecurity in turn helps perpetuate chronic poverty. There is therefore a circular relationship between the two and policies designed to deal with the problem should address the twin imperatives for human security and development simultaneously through integrated policies and programmes in support of conflict prevention, conflict management and peace building.

5.10 Harnessing Peace Dividend from Conflict Sensitive Development Efforts

Under development and diminishing resources are major causes of protracted violent conflict as they undermine the resilience of poor communities. Peace building and development are interdependent yet indivisible. Integrating peace building into the process of social and economic development is essential to achieve conflict sensitive and sustainable development. Human security approach to peace building is the primacy of conflict resolution; this means that development initiatives must take into account the peoples perceptions about human security and work to improve their relationships by promoting constant interaction and harmonious coexistence among conflicting groups. If the groups do not achieve peace, then the development projects will not be sustainable and conflicts will persist. There are many development initiatives that collapsed or stalled in the northern Kenya simply because they did not take a conflict sensitive approach. Development programmes could target the enhancement of institutions, better management of natural resources and structures that foster inter-districts and/or inter-communities' interaction and fostering reconciliation.

Much can be done through the budget process to tackle poverty and insecurity to bring development. Social protection transfers to the elderly, orphans and vulnerable children and disabled people, not only enables people to survive, but also allows them to access entitlements in health-care and education. These social services can play an important role in reducing vulnerability and providing opportunities for long-term economic, social and human development. Economic empowerment would be vital in bringing peace dividend to the marginalized people through development. For example, better access to good quality education in remote regions makes those communities more likely to find decent jobs and contribute to economic growth. Tackling their exclusion can in the long run save public expenditure, for example, by averting violent conflict and preventing the spread of HIV and AIDS through programmes that deal with stigma and discrimination.

Under development and diminishing resources are major causes of protracted violent conflict as they undermine the resilience of poor communities

5.11 Re-examining Perceptions of Chronic Poverty and Insecurity

What policy implications might be gleaned from the fact that chronic poverty and human insecurity are more likely to harm human development? "Measuring and Monitoring Poverty, The Case of Kenya", (Kabubo-Maria, et al; 2004) urges on urgent need to develop structures that will enable or allow communities to fully participate in the planning, implementation and monitoring of poverty programmes and projects. Taking the caveat into account, the overall message here is the need to take peoples perception of chronic poverty and human insecurity into policy formulation and implementation. More generally, the challenge of chronic poverty and insecurity calls for a pragmatic and open-minded approach including interventions to foster communities' perceptions of what the government and NGOs should do to reduce chronic poverty. For example, while ranking their risks, communities in northern Kenya identified health insecurity otherwise mentioned as human sickness as the leading household concern which precipitate chronic poverty and insecurity and needs policy level intervention. This was followed by economic insecurity seen in animal sickness/death, not enough food for people, high prices for things bought and low prices of animals. Environmental insecurity and community insecurity followed. These were seen respectively, in not having enough water/pasture/crops failure and in insecurity/violence/raiding. According to PPAs for Kenya 1996, 2001, there are peoples perceptions of poverty and their immediate concerns for policy; the causes of poverty and coping strategies adopted by the poor that can be addressed in policies to eradicate poverty and insecurity.

The perceived causes of poverty are;

- Low agricultural productivity and poor marketing
- Insecurity
- Unemployment and low wages
- Bad governance
- Landlessness
- Poor physical infrastructures
- High cost of basic social services
- Bad weather

The above findings indicate that poor people have a high exposure to uninsured risk and that in the absence of some form of protection, a shock like violent conflict can result in people descending into a cycle of chronic poverty - or dynamic poverty trap - from which there is no escape and perpetuates human insecurity. Uninsured risk means that individuals can fall into chronic poverty as the result of a shock. But taken together, some of the decisions poor people

take to cope with poverty hold back the growth that can reduce poverty. PPAs for Kenya 2001 identifies some of these as negative strategies and include, thuggery, petty theft especially on farms, prostitution, child labour, street families and children, corruption, drug abuse, suicide, illicit brewing and drunkenness. On the one hand, some of the coping strategies are positive and may not substantially jeopardise long term poverty reduction and include growth of slums, cheap cloths, non formal schools, harambee self help spirit, begging and borrowing, bursaries, merry-go-round, petty business hawking and kiosks, seasonal adjustments, food credit facilities, family planning. These are indeed entry points to enhance poverty eradication strategies that are popular with the poor people. But in the absence of a conclusive policy to address them and given the human impact of chronic poverty and insecurity, the case for human development remains. Box 5.4 summarizes the perceptions of Kenyan communities regarding what the Government and NGOs should do to reduce poverty. The summary is based on results from PPAs for Kenya, 2001.

5.12 Conclusion

There is limited empirical research which examines the nature of the relationship between chronic poverty and human insecurity in Kenya. Theoretical and empirical accounts have tended to treat the poor generically as an undifferentiated category. Most of the literature on poverty has focused largely on descriptive accounts outlining the impact of insecurity on poverty. For instance, the Kenya PRSP 2001 – 2004 mentions insecurity as having been identified by some communities as a principle cause of their poverty. Thus, human development policies need to be better attuned to the links between the two, in order to respond to the challenges of growing threats to human security. However, in Kenya, insecurity is manifested through banditry, hijacking, livestock raiding and theft, robbery and looting, physical injury and mutilation, rape and murder. The immediate consequence has been destruction of material property, such as shelter, clothing, livestock, food sources and capital, which could have been avoided through development.

End notes

79. Mahbub ul Hac

80. A location is one of the smallest administrative units in Kenya.

81. Geographic Dimensions of well - being

82. Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (Kenya 2003 – 2007)

83. Professor Frances Stewart.

84. Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation

6

Renewing Partnerships

An Agenda for Addressing Human Security and Human Development in Kenya

6.1 Introduction

In line with MDG 8, partnerships are essential in providing sustainable solutions to a host of human security and development challenges – ranging from increasing access to education and health care, food security, conflict prevention and support for human rights and good governance. In this regard, Mr. Kofi Annan (the outgoing UN Secretary General) has observed, “Governments today understand that they can not do it all, that a society’s goals can only be realized through the cooperation and partnership of a broad range of actors, including the private sector, civil society and other groups”. Effective collaboration requires willingness and commitment from all sides of the partnerships. This must be based on planning together, clearly defining roles and responsibilities, and sharing decision-making.

Partnerships that are effective and well coordinated are essential to address human security and human development concerns. Therefore efforts aimed at responding to and designing appropriate partnerships to deal with identified security concerns underscore a good understanding of the breadth and depth of the human security paradigm. They also need to address a wide range of issues related to the inter-relationships that facilitate and energize the formulation of credible potential strategies and policy proposals. While appreciating that the notion of security has shifted from state to human focus, one must not replace state security with human security but recognise that the are complementary.

Human security addresses the dual goal of freedom from want which is accompanied by guarantees of access to secure jobs, healthcare, social welfare, education, and so forth, and the freedom from fear that springs from the respect for human rights, containment of the spread of conflicts and displacements etc. Addressing human security requires a two-pronged approach, involving: (a) protection - which includes institutional set-up, responding adequately to early warning signals, providing for basic needs, protecting people in conflict situations, off-setting consequences of insecurity threats when these occur, and (b) empowerment - which requires delivering development, guaranteeing freedom, community building initiatives, participation and inclusion in policies and decisions, among others. Further, efforts to deal with these issues should pay special attention to the interconnectedness between human security, human development, human rights and conflict prevention, focusing on causes and consequences to prioritize holistic strategies, including balancing between short and long-term goals, as well as integrating multi-sectoral and multi-level interventions.

The potential roles and responsibilities of actors need to be organized to respond to both the vertical and horizontal levels of human insecurity and take into account the capacity of actors (both organizational and human resource) to deal with the various circumstances of insecurity. On the vertical plane, the five identifiable levels of human insecurity include: individual, community, national, regional and international or global contexts, with each of these requiring different interventions and varied potential actors. The lack of empowerment at the individual level would not permit participation in community decision-making. Equally, national policies that do not involve community participation risk failures in proper design or implementation and ownership.

Further, national insecurities could often spread into the neighbouring regions or countries and ultimately become global insecurity. The horizontal dimension recognizes the interconnectedness of the various components of insecurity which need to be addressed simultaneously. For example, poor water management can lead to resource driven insecurity and conflict, which in turn can perpetuate poverty, lead to inequitable distribution of resources, migration, and the spread of diseases, and so forth. Equally, poverty can be transmitted inter-generationally, while migration and displacement of people are indicators of human insecurity and create risks to human development. As a result, dealing with each level requires recognition, capacities and resources for solving the problems as they occur, while accepting that addressing insecurity requires inclusion, participation and empowerment at all the levels.

It is important that the manifestations of insecurities are squarely positioned at the centre of partnership arrangements with due recognition of the comparative advantages of collaborating partners and their divergent interests. The following are some of the common insecurity manifestations.

Human insecurity: The internal context

(a) *Economic insecurity* experienced at the individual level through unemployment or underemployment, wage gaps and arrears. At the state level, this insecurity is experienced through economic crimes and corruption that have been rampant in Kenya.

(b) *Poverty* that is characterized by increasing pressure on families and a growing income gap between the rich and poor, men and women, rural and urban areas and among the minorities. This has had a very significant impact on the standard of living for the 56 percent of Kenyans living below poverty line.

(c) *Deficits in social service provisions, including:*

- *Education:* Although the Government has implemented a policy of free primary education, deficits in the education sector remain springing from insufficient expenditures for the sector, the need to tailor curricular to the modern needs of industry, and the falling prestige of higher education.
- *Healthcare:* Healthcare systems have suffered from decline in access, quality, expenditures, lack of adequate medicines and revival of old diseases such as tuberculosis, as well as the new threats such as HIV/AIDS.
- *Social welfare:* Budgetary constraints have put a strain on the social welfare system and services including equity and the provision of adequate safety nets for the increasingly vulnerable society.
- *Political freedoms:* While political space has widened, there still remains problems in finding balances within the democratic pluralism, power sharing, maintaining stability and guaranteeing rights and freedoms for the population and the press. Quality and fairness of reforms are plagued with difficulties such as lack of transparency, corruption, lack of capacity to impose impartial rule of law. Although vocal civil societies, the media and NGOs are providing avenues for greater expansion of freedoms, they face obstacles along the way to political freedom.

Partnerships that are effective and well coordinated are essential to address human security and human development concerns

d) Changing social structures:

- *Gender:* Women are often denied rights and access to assets and property despite their crucial role in the survival of families.
- *Youth:* Lack of opportunities and general disillusionment among the youth has often manifested in crime and drug abuse in the society.
- *Drugs:* Drug consumption has been on the increase in the country with serious social and health consequences.
- *Crime:* Rising crime has manifested through violence in households, criminality in business and politics, at times trafficking of drug substances, prostitution and trafficking of people.

Human insecurity: The regional context

Many of Kenya's neighbours are either in conflict or in a post conflict situation. As a result, Kenya hosts a large number of refugees, which can often introduce insecurities into the country. The proliferation of small arms that cross borders into Kenya fuel fears and insecurities in Kenya. Cross border conflicts have pushed people deeper down the vicious cycle of violence and poverty. Inequities and marginalization of the poor in terms of land and asset distribution, and of access to and quality of basic social services pose growing threats to social stability and social order, often acting as triggers for crime and civil strife.

6.2 Strategy: Defining New Partnership Arrangements

In the prevailing circumstances, defining new partnership arrangements is a prerequisite for addressing the challenge of human insecurity. Kenya has faced many human security concerns related to economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political domains and as a result has attempted to address in various ways. This range of human security threats suggest that new models of governance and partnerships may be necessary for solutions today. To address this wide range of concerns requires inclusive and meaningful participation of various stakeholders in an acceptable arrangement, recognizing that human security is the responsibility of all. The arrangements must take into account the comparative advantages of the actors to optimize the collective efforts. The partnerships must also be well coordinated with very clear engagement frameworks which accommodate all stakeholders. The stakeholders must be continuously involved in prioritizing and decision making related to human security concerns. Effective partnerships will therefore require capacity building of all actors concerned to enable them to engage meaningfully.

(a) *Individuals, communities and civil societies* to know and advocate for their rights.

(b) *National governments and states* to have a strategic vision, to prioritize actions to protect people and empower citizens, and to cultivate partnerships among the various actors and at all levels.

(c) *Regional bodies* to mitigate against and regulate conflicts and provide frameworks of mutual cooperation and conflict resolution, regional and political integration and a common platform on insecurity.

(d) *The international community* to provide best practices, technical and financial and policy support

(e) *The international system* to ensure a stable and empowering global environment.

Beneath this broad categorization of partnerships lies a differential geometry of myriad actors that are variously empowered. There are those that are institutionalized through legal instruments; those operating at the traditional domain of recognition, those that are activists; and

those others that are extremely informal. To be effective, inclusive engagement of various types of actors is essential. Equally, in order to succeed, the partnership efforts must design strategies to identify causes and consequences of human insecurities; collect and analyze data of quantitative and qualitative elements to generate reliable information, measure and monitor trends; design policy choices for short, medium and long-term strategic needs; institutionalize appropriate coordination mechanisms between sectors as well as issues common to all partners. There is also a need to provide resources and make proper financing arrangements, including appropriate prioritization within the budget process.

6.3 The Challenges of Delivering Human Security**Assuring economic security:
Predictable employment and income**

At least 2 million Kenyans are not gainfully employed⁸⁵. The economic consequences of unemployment on the nation's production of goods and services, or Gross Domestic Product, are significant. From a human development point of view, idle human resources represent a loss of goods and services and, a loss of real income. It threatens the stability of the family as an economic and social unit. Without income or with a loss of income, the head of the family cannot play his or her appropriate role, the family needs and wants are not fulfilled and family relationships suffer as a consequence. Human relations outside the family are also seriously affected by unemployment. An unemployed person loses self-respect, pride and self-confidence and influence among colleagues and, may be rejected by working companions. In the end, the unemployed may become a socially disabled person and a source of insecurity. Unemployment and lack of livelihood contributes to instability and crime, weakening situation of economic security in Kenya. Income gaps have widened between regions, gender groups, rural and urban areas and ethnic groups.

The key actors in this sector include the many players within the Small and Micro Enterprises, the public sector, the formal private sector and the civil society. Most of the partners outside the public sector operate in an unpredictable, uncondusive policy environment and cumbersome procedures. In addition, these actors face insecurity and operate with degraded infrastructure all of which act as significant disincentives to run their operations profitably to enable expansion of employment opportunities or the creation of larger space for employment generation. These require rectification. The weak social safety mechanisms aggravate the suffering of the unemployed.

New partnership arrangements would call for institutional streamlining, improved environment for public sector led growth and greater empowerment of the small enterprises to thrive.

Addressing the challenge of poverty

Currently, nearly one in every two people in Kenya lives below poverty threshold, the number having risen from 44.7 percent of the population in 1992 to 52 percent in 1997 and 56 percent in 2002. The challenges facing the country in its efforts to reduce poverty are enormous and include improving economic governance, addressing unequal opportunities in the means of production, health, water and education. Despite the initiatives pursued by the government to address poverty, efforts are still far from sufficient. Poverty has persisted. The reduction of poverty should be viewed as a long-term objective to be met though sustained and consistent actions. In 1995, governments agreed at the World

Summit for Social Development that each country should set time bound goals and targets for reducing extreme poverty and should implement national plans to achieve them. In 1996, the donor community agreed to focus their development cooperation around seven international development targets (IDTs), the first of which was to half the proportion of people living in extreme poverty between 1990 and 2015. Through the Millennium Declaration of September 2000, 147 Heads of State and government, and 191 nations, Kenya included, committed themselves to meeting a similar set of development goals (MDGs), including that of reducing poverty by the target date of 2015.

Currently many stakeholders are involved in addressing the issues of poverty. However, the results have been less than satisfactory. The Government continues to be at the forefront in articulating policy such as the NPEP, the PRSP and ERSWEC, availing public resources and financing core poverty programmes through the budget process. Additionally, the government has continued to initiate programmatic interventions and legal and legislative frameworks aimed at addressing the poverty challenge. However, the success of poverty reduction efforts is only partly dependent on what the government can do. For this reason, other actors, such as civil society organizations, community groups, the private sector and the micro-finance institutions have a part to play. The Civil Society Organizations including Non Governmental Organizations and ordinary citizens have a very crucial role to play in contributing to poverty alleviation and reduction initiatives. This contribution is recognized in Kenya's National Poverty Eradication Plan for the period 1999-2015.

The plan has three action components: (a) the Charter for Social Integration which indicates clearly that citizens and communities have certain rights and responsibilities that they can use to provide an enabling environment for pro-poor policies (b) the focus of social inclusion as a charter to be followed by citizens, policy makers and public servants, and (c) a component that deals with use of social mobilization and the delivery of basic social services as a framework on the basis of which partnerships can be established between the government, private and voluntary sectors. Policymakers who include Members of Parliament are expected to strengthen links with the civil society organizations and the private sector. Policy makers should regularly review laws relevant to the advancement of the poor and assure resources that target poverty interventions across the country are supported. Without, the contribution of external actors, most poverty eradication efforts would come to a standstill. The development partners have directed a sizeable proportion of their assistance to poverty reduction programmes and assisted countries to inject poverty concerns into policy dialogue and recommendations. They have also supported capacity development for benchmarking and monitoring poverty, implementing participatory processes and provided policy advice and technical assistance for pro-poor policy reforms.

Key efforts in the new partnership agenda would include strengthening the private sector, reforming the informal sector, including land reform for the poor to access credit and leverage assets, improving rural infrastructure to spur agricultural development and ancillary services. In the new partnership arrangement the bilateral and multilateral development partners are seen as key role players in channeling their assistance to poverty reduction initiatives and assisting the government in articulating workable policy alternatives. The public sector will need to provide resources for infrastructure and social development projects at the local levels to meet the needs of specific regions and groups and encourage resource allocation on the basis of geographical

equity to fight poverty. It should formulate policies that promote broad based labour absorbing growth for the benefit of the poor. The most effective and innovative programmes in the country are operated by non-governmental organizations in the fields such as education, health and sustainable development. Identifying worthy projects and providing incentives to mobilize skills and resources at the local level will be crucial to combating poverty in most destitute parts of the country. Emphasis should be placed on education, health, infrastructure and energy. It is important to recruit local partners and local authorities in these targeted development efforts. The projects that are successful would probably be scaled up with greater participation by the national government and evidence of what works would catalyze national consensus in the fight against poverty. The private sector and the civil society continue to show willingness to shift from a paradigm of resistance towards engaging in dialogue and promoting constructive solutions and should be encouraged to invest and partner in development engineering.

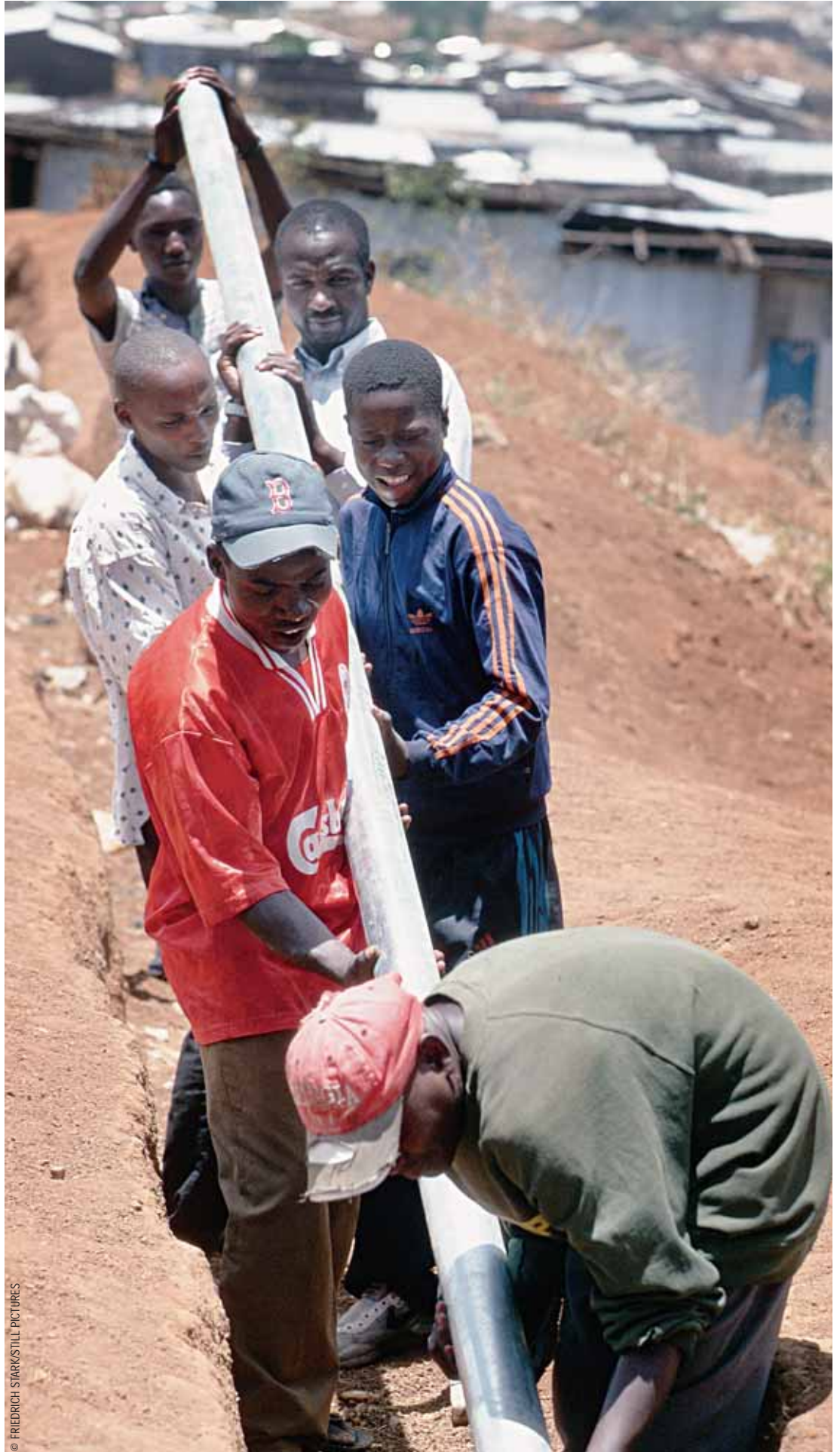
Sustaining gains in the social service arena

Controlling communicable diseases

Containing diseases such as Malaria, TB and HIV/AIDS is clearly in the interests of all. The high prevalence of HIV/AIDS in Kenya has had its toll on labour productivity and production. The national HIV prevalence is estimated at 7 percent⁸⁶. The National AIDS Control Council also estimates that there are more than 3 million currently infected with HIV/AIDS; and more than 2 million have so far died of AIDS-related complications⁸⁷. Over 60% of those infected live in rural areas where the socio-economic conditions are worsening due to poverty and unemployment. It is estimated that many more persons living with HIV/AIDS stay at home, unable to access health care and stressing the households' ability to cope. Despite the high level of awareness on HIV/AIDS (99 percent among men and 98 percent among women), there is no corresponding change in sexual practices: men and women continue to indulge in risky sexual behaviour; sex abstinence among the youth is still low; there is strong resistance for condoms use; access to anti-retroviral drugs is limited, and there are no adequate policies, strategies and resources to counter the increasing number of HIV/AIDS orphans. In addition, access to health services by Kenyans remains very low. Amidst the HIV/AIDS scourge, doctor per patient ratio range from 1:20,000 (Central Province) to 1:120,000 (North Eastern Province); population per health facility range between 5,300 (Nairobi Province) and 13,500 (North Eastern Province).

Many tasks involved in the arena of controlling communicable diseases cannot be accomplished without building strong partnerships and collaboration with many actors. The new partnerships should emphasize (a) health protection and disease prevention (b) health policy and coordination, and (c) enhancement of health service delivery. The actors involved in the sector include public health care providers and national health professionals; private and voluntary sectors; local and international NGOs; the Corporate sector; key players in the surveillance and control; WHO and other bilateral and multilateral international organizations and other partners dealing in the area of communicable diseases; personnel specialized in strategic communication; the state agencies and the central Government that provides resource and the budget needs; regional and local authorities for planning and implementing joint projects including cooperation between health, social and other relevant authorities; patients associations; actors in the third sector institutions (civil society); the universities and other actors who contribute special knowledge and resources.

Good coordination system and regular sharing of information and joint planning would add value to the partnerships



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Greater freedom from communicable diseases has been shown to be directly related to reducing poverty and improving educational outcomes. Hence, actors in these sectors need to collaborate if efforts to control communicable diseases are to be successful. It is also important to know the institutional determinants for effective public health service delivery for reducing people's exposure to these diseases. These services require a high level of coordination between a wide range of actors – both public and private. Some key questions are important in the design of collaborative partnerships: What are the key obstacles to more effective public health service delivery for communicable disease control? How can communities be more closely engaged in assuring and monitoring these services? How can the work of front-line workers be more effectively coordinated on the ground, and better supported from the national apex level? How have coordination mechanisms been managed so far, and which have successfully controlled communicable diseases?

In addition to answers to these questions, there is need to establish national early warning and response systems on health threats to assure better control and strengthen the capacity of institutions involved; review and refine the surveillance systems and update the legislations dealing with infectious diseases and improve the laboratory functions within the health institutions. It will also be necessary to assess and redefine the roles and responsibilities of different key actors in the field of surveillance and control and establish an efficient feedback system. Good coordination system and regular sharing of information and joint planning would add value to the partnerships. Building capacities for rapid health assessment, monitoring and management of infectious diseases and the provision of psychological health, information systems and public information campaigns will be necessary for success of the efforts.

Reducing child mortality

Infant and child mortality declined rapidly in Kenya as a result of the global initiatives to improve child health between the 1970s and the 1990s. Since then, there has been a decline in the level of child immunization; a key indicator of child health, and children aged 12-23 months receiving full vaccination against preventable diseases fell from 65% in 1998 to 60% in 2003. Infant and under five mortality rates are worsening mainly due to malaria, acute respiratory infections, diarrhoea and malnutrition among others. Infant mortality rate increased from about 60 per 1000 in 1990 to 74 in 1998 and 77 in 2003. A number of challenges remain in reduction of child mortality, among them: a lack of critical mass of the human resource with skills needed to manage childhood illnesses; inadequate supplies that continue to affect sustainable quality health-care, compounded by the mal-distribution and poor access to health services, insufficient resources and poor performance of the health care system; limited understanding of the causes of mortality within first month of childbirth. New partnerships would include the Government in partnership with development partners, the Ministry of Health, health service providers in the public and private sectors, corporate drug manufacturers and distributors with accountable practice and corporate responsibility.

Improving maternal health

Maternal mortality per 100,000 was 670 in 1990, 590 in 1998 and 414 in 2003. Currently, maternal mortality is getting worse. Approximately 14,700 women of reproductive age die each year due to pregnancy-related complications; while between 294,000 and 441,000 suffer from disabilities caused by complications during pregnancy and childbirth. The challenges in achieving this millennium goal include:

change in provider attitudes to encourage women to deliver in health facilities and to ensure sustainable availability of required supplies and equipment; creation of national policy framework and identification of specific programs to enable accessibility of reproductive services by young people. Like in the child health delivery sector, partnerships in this arena includes the Government in partnership with development partners, the Ministry of Health, health service providers in the public and private sectors, corporate drug manufacturers and distributors with accountable practice and corporate responsibility and the civil societies.

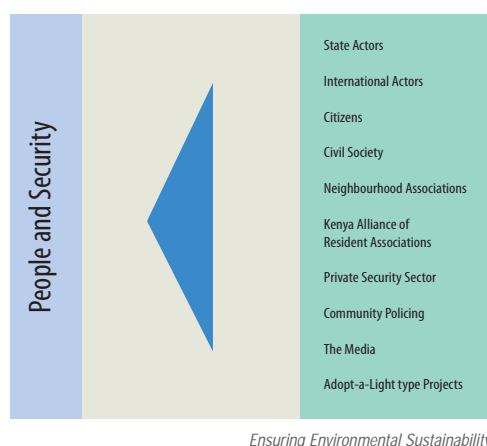
Assuring food security

Since independence, Kenya's development policies have sought to promote food security in the country. However, the food situation in Kenya remains precarious, always threatened by the vagaries of the weather, posing one of the most persistent of forms of human insecurity and a breach of the most basic human rights. Poor policies have largely contributed to the problem. The most recent Government's commitment to achieving food security in the country is set out in the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation 2003 – 2007. Although the objective of the Government is to achieve self-sufficiency, enhancing access to food by the majority of the citizens remains a challenge. Access to land remains a key problem, compounded by soil erosion, inequality in and insecurity of land tenure, pressure generated by urbanization, extractive activities like mining and population growth. Personal and community security issues also have direct impacts on food security, ranging from conflict to thefts. Among the significant factors that are responsible for food insecurity include: climate; remoteness; poor road networks; unequal distribution of food; contested access to land; soil erosion; lack of appropriate production technology or storage capacities; poor organization of the community; or fluctuating prices. These issues need to be considered in designing new partnerships to tackle food insecurity.

A myriad of actors have a stake in this area: the government institutions, community-based organizations, non-governmental organizations, research institutions as well as bilateral and multilateral organizations, and inter-governmental organizations such as the World Food Programme and FAO. There is also a need to strengthen processes for collective empowerment and to increase the capacity for collective action and to provide supportive frameworks for individual empowerment, in particular for women's empowerment. Politicians and policy makers have a responsibility in this, particularly in safeguarding and guaranteeing responsible management of national strategic food reserves. There is consensus on the need for new partnerships between all stakeholders to overcome food insecurity. It includes demands on the state, but also clarifying roles of other stakeholders and assigning them clear responsibilities. The objective of food security could be an overarching objective that facilitates the striking of a new social contract, redefining the roles of various stakeholders in the pursuit of food security and social justice in its entitlements. There is also a growing consensus on the need to strengthen local organizations – cooperatives, poor farmers groups, women groups, community organizations, and non-governmental organizations – in strategies to achieve food security.

Guaranteeing personal and community security

Kenya's human security scores have been declining over past years with violent crime and insecurity becoming more pronounced in the country. Conflicts and other forms of personal and community strife and insecurities inflict extensive suffering on people, destroying essential infrastructure and

Figure 6.1 Players and Initiatives in the Security Terrain

ecosystems, sparking migration and displacements of people, and hampering economic growth and development. This has been particularly intense in parts of Rift Valley and North-Eastern Provinces of Kenya. In recent years, the communities have come to recognize that dealing with insecurities require a comprehensive approach in which all the parties must be engaged in the important efforts to promote and consolidate peace and security and reduce vulnerability to threats and adversities. That means ensuring security and security-sector reform, promoting good governance, and in the broadest sense, demonstrating that peace brings results – observable improvements in people’s standards of living, in their sense of opportunity, and in the way their societies function. However, when efforts to consolidate peace or create stability are weak or are not sustained, the situation relapses back to insecurity. To circumvent this, all actors should remain engaged to promote convergence of effort and improve coherence, bridging the gap between security and development activities.

Because human security is a public good that belongs to all and cannot be exclusive, it entails a responsibility for the state to provide the primary guarantees that people will not fall below an acceptable threshold. It also include corresponding duty among people to remain engaged, emphasizing a view of increasing role of the citizens, private security providers, the civil society, Neighbourhood Associations, the Alliance of Resident Associations, Community policing, among others, in reducing human insecurities at the local and national levels. Innovative and sustainable initiatives such as the street lighting project of Adopt-a-light, Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design by the City Council of Nairobi, safety audits and other interventions could greatly be instrumental in removing vulnerability to insecurity.

As a way of enhancing human security, in particular, personal and community security, the government of Kenya, civil society and donor community have started to implement the concept of community policing in the country. This concept constitutes an organizational strategy that facilitates the Police and Community partnership with all members networking together to solve problems of crime, disorder, anti-social behaviour, promotion of safety and the need to improve the quality of life for everyone. In addition, Kenya has experienced tremendous growth in security services offered by private companies. The private security services are available to individuals and corporations on contract bases. However, the industry has not been streamlined into policy to ensure that its services are fully utilized in the most accountable manner. The new partnership must therefore endeavour to mobilize the government to put in place legal and policy frameworks with the aim of ensuring that the

community policing initiative is defined in law and the roles and responsibilities of the different actors clearly articulated. This effort should also aim to ensure streamlining of private security provision into law. This will hasten regularization and optimal utilization of security agencies and thereby enhance security in the country.

The government as a key partner will be required to provide legal, policy and institutional frameworks and adequate budgetary allocations to ensure that these initiatives thrive and foster sustainability. Other actors including the civil societies, the private sector and the communities must complement the efforts of government by engaging meaningfully in efforts to foster security.

Again, early in 2003, the Kenyan Government launched the Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector Reform programme (GJLOS) covering the years 2003-2008. The Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs leads the process in close coordination with other government institutions. The GJLOS reform programme has seven key result areas: Ethics, Integrity and Anti-Corruption; Democracy, Human rights and Rule of Law; Justice, Law and Order; Public Safety and Security; Constitutional Development; Legal Services; and Leadership and Management Development. GJLOS is the closest Kenya has come to instituting an integrated sector wide approach on security concerns. Nineteen development partners are supporting the GJLOS through a basket funding and direct contributions. All donors, including the non-basket members, are coordinated through an activity matrix, which is regularly reviewed and updated. Common reporting in GJLOS is structured around six-monthly reviews undertaken by an independent team of experts. The GJLOS model presents a possible framework where sector wide approach, multi-agency inter-governmental coordination can be provided. The model presents a developmental approach to problem solving that recognizes systemic inter-dependencies that cut across sectors. It provides a partnership framework upon which a cross section of actors can engage including the government, private sector, civil societies and international development partners in fostering human security and enhancing development.

Ensuring environmental sustainability

The protection and conservation of a healthy environment is the bedrock on which all development efforts ultimately depend, including the achievement of the objective of increased security. Environment is an important element of most efforts to reduce poverty and encompasses issues, many of which are intimately linked to direct reliance of poorest people on ecosystem goods and services such as clean water, soil conservation and sustainable supply of marine and forest products for consumption or income generation. Many of the poor people living in rural areas depend on natural resources for their livelihood. To ensure successful environmental sustainability, it is necessary to address the fundamental poverty-environment linkages (such as illegal logging, illegal cultivation or illegal fishing). When the environment is degraded, economic growth is jeopardized. Failure to address environmental issues plays an important role in provoking conflicts and therefore undermining the security agenda.

Despite the indisputable importance of environmental services, the state of environmental management in Kenya remains inadequate. The increased demands from a growing population and business community have resulted in over-usage of natural resources, resulting in a serious threat to environmental sustainability. Moulds of garbage characterize the urban areas while pollution of rivers remains unabated. Major challenges for the environment include: illegal encroachment, cultivation and excision of forests;

Success in environmental management will depend on the integration of environmental considerations in all major national sectoral policies, plans and decision-making processes

charcoal burning; logging and harvesting of timber; frequent fire outbreaks; pollution and poor waste management; destruction of water catchments and emerging desertification. Although there are a number of organizations that are traditionally responsible for environmental management such as the Local Authorities and Ministry of Labour, many local authorities lack capacity in urban environmental management. For example, of the 174 local authorities, only 32 have some basic forms of sewage collection and disposal infrastructure.

The enactment of the Environmental Management and Coordination Act (2000) has provided the framework under which the National Environmental Management Authority (NEMA) would formally address environmental issues (including industrial pollution). Nevertheless, both the traditionally mandated institutions and NEMA lack the capacity to monitor and enforce environmental standards. Environmental standards are enforced piecemeal and focus only on selected areas. Success in environmental management will depend on realigning the stakeholders, offering incentives for environmentally responsible behaviour and the integration of environmental considerations in all major national sectoral policies, plans and decision-making processes. For these efforts to be successful, participation of a wide range of key stakeholders in the government and private sector and the civil society that play essential roles in the use of natural resources, the indigenous peoples and local communities who experience significant impacts of erratic and changing weather patterns and other consequences of environmental destruction, is vital in policy dialogue and the design, implementation and evaluation of strategies, programmes and projects. The bilateral and multilateral development community will continue to be critical partners in offering assistance to environmental concerns.

Ensuring housing security

Housing security remains a critical problem in Kenya. Sessional Paper No. 3 on National Housing Policy for Kenya of 2004 recognizes the linkages between adequate housing and dignity, security and privacy of persons; poverty reduction through employment creation, improved health and increased productivity. Housing security in Kenya is also linked to unresolved land tenure, leading to evictions in many places. Various stakeholders have over the years put in place initiatives aimed at addressing the housing challenge. However, the housing problem particularly in the urban areas still persists. The challenge is greatly aggravated by rapid urbanization coupled with marginal investment of resources to address the housing problem and lack of effective policies and legislations aimed at promoting the development of housing in Kenya. The urban poor are the most affected by the housing problem. This is due to lack of investment geared towards development of low cost housing that is affordable to the poor. The housing problem in most urban areas is met mainly by the proliferation of informal settlements that seldom have access to essential basic services and infrastructure thereby leading to life and health threatening living environment that is insecure and unsafe. Trends have indicated that, various actors including the private sector, the international development partners, the public sector and the civil societies have geared efforts aimed at addressing the housing challenge in Kenya. The efforts are epitomized by the initiatives such as the Nairobi Informal Settlement Coordination Committee, Kenya Slum Upgrading Programme (KENSUP), joint ministry of housing and Kenya Private Sector Alliance (KEPSA) multi-stakeholder forum which are aimed at enhancing access to housing by the poor through the provision of low-cost housing. The civil societies working in the rights and appropriate technology realms are



building the capacities of the communities. Key stakeholders in the private sector, the government and the international community support the low-cost housing technologies aimed at promoting low-cost affordable housing for the poor. The international development community including the Swedish International Agency (SIDA), Cities Alliance, UNDP, World Bank, GTZ and the UN-HABITAT is continuously funding initiatives aimed at promoting housing development in the urban sector. The private sector on the other hand has been mobilizing and is currently investing in housing development for middle and high income groups and it is slowly beginning to pay attention to low income housing.

The new partnerships will therefore require the development of effective engagement frameworks that accommodate the priorities of the diverse actors if any meaningful participation and sustainability are to be achieved. Involvement of communities will also be fundamental if housing initiatives are to address their felt needs including affordability. This will require continuous consultation of communities and involvement in decision-making particularly in initiatives such as KENSUP among others. Further, the initiatives will need to be well co-ordinated to maximize the efforts of all the actors. This must be coupled with clear definition of roles and responsibilities of various actors basing on their comparative advantages. In view of this, the private sector will provide the needed finances for housing development particularly to private developers through mortgages and loans; the government will make budgetary allocations aimed at providing conducive legal and policy frameworks to facilitate housing development including access to land and affordable infrastructure; the civil society will mobilize and build the capacities of communities to be able to effectively engage in housing development and the donor community provide complimentary financial and technical support for housing.

Expanding political space

Kenya's political transformation since independence reached a landmark with the re-introduction of multiparty democracy in 1991 following constitutional amendments that greatly expanded the country's political space and created room and opportunity for open engagement of citizens in human development debates. Even though these processes elevated political security, recent experiences suggest they were not irreversible. Though NARC government epitomized the expanded political space and political freedoms, some of the dictatorial tendencies witnessed during the past political era threaten to creep back within the current regime.

These achievements should be insulated from any political manipulation by entrenching them in law and strengthening and rationalizing key oversight institutions. In particular, the civil society in Kenya should continue to play an active role in the promotion of human rights, democracy, and good governance. Kenyan civil society actors are particularly anxious about the establishment of a new constitutional framework and are concerned at the lack of progress in this process. The "watchdog" function with respect to transparency and accountability remains essential and contributes to keeping government and citizens alert on the necessary reforms. The operational framework for civil society - organisations as well as media - has improved since 2002, but the need for continued awareness and strengthened capacity remains. Individuals, families, community groups, international foundations, transnational corporations, the communication media and many others help mold civil society. Hundreds of non-governmental organizations operating in Kenya monitor human rights, organize humanitarian aid and promote the interests of such groups as women, the disabled or indigenous

people. New organizations emerge each year, often sprouting up spontaneously in response to felt needs for human security and forming new alliances for change.

These organizations can powerfully influence government policy, as many women's organizations and environmental groups have demonstrated. The new partnerships will therefore require the active role of the private sector in influencing the political destiny of the country. On the other hand the civil societies must endeavour to shift their focus from the resistance role to engaging into meaningful discussions that will contribute to the political and economic development of the country. The new partnerships will further require the active and continuous building of the capacities of the communities to be able to effectively engage in charting the political destiny of the country. The media must continuously play its informative role.

End notes

- 85. Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation, 2003-2007
- 86. Kenya Demographic Health Survey 2003
- 87. MDG 2005 Status Report

Delivering Human Security

The Kenya We Want

7.1 Introduction

The view of human security as conceived in the 1994 Human Development Report and discussed in Chapter one of this report, suggests that it could form a basis for the adoption, protection and mainstreaming of human rights in the country's structures, systems and institutions. The country's expectations with regard to human security issues have been expressed in many ways. The early synthesis of the aspirations of the preferred Kenya's future was captured and enshrined in the national anthem, that emphasized social cohesiveness, security and freedom, service delivery and equitable development sharing. The constitution enshrined various rights and freedoms of the citizens, while the Sessional Papers such as the Sessional Paper Number 10 of 1965, sought to deal with poverty, ignorance and diseases.

Box 7.1 Kenyan National Anthem

O God of all creation Bless this our land and nation
Justice be our shield and defender
May we dwell in unity Peace and liberty
Plenty be found within our borders.
Let one and all arise
With hearts both strong and true
Service be our earnest endeavour
And our homeland of Kenya
Heritage of splendour
Firm may we stand to defend.
Let all with one accord In common bond united
Build this our nation together
And the glory of Kenya
The fruit of our labour
Fill every heart with thanksgiving.

The mechanisms for the delivery of Kenyans' expectations were articulated in the country's five-year Development Plans, with each plan expounding the short-to-medium-term aspirations. Most of these were heavily anchored on the traditional economic theory that the growth in general incomes

Box 7.2 Some Burning Human Insecurity Concerns

A feeling of insecurity by people will invariably arise from worries such as:

- Will they lose their jobs?
- Will their streets and neighbourhoods be safe and secure from crime?
- Will they have enough to eat?
- Will they afford their medical care in case of illness?
- Will they become victims of violence or discrimination because of their gender, income status, tribe, or age?
- Will they be tortured by a repressive regime?
- Will they fall seriously ill?
- Will they receive the right standard of medical care?
- Will they be evicted from their residences or their houses demolished?
- Is their income secured in old age?
- Will they be victims of motorized and non-motorized vehicular traffic?

would through the trickle down effect address the pertinent needs of even the most vulnerable in the society. But as time proved, this remained elusive.

The country also subscribes to the NEPAD collective vision of the future of Africa. The aspirations espoused in the NEPAD vision emphasize a future free of political conflict, tyranny, hunger and poverty, a commitment to observe the norms of good governance in critical areas of peace and security, democratic rule, enabling environment for private, local and foreign entrepreneurs and a focus on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. The challenge still lies in how to deliver to Kenyans a country free from threats of fears and wants.

7.2 Human Insecurity Concerns

Box 7.2 contains a summary of some of the burning human insecurity concerns in Kenya.

7.3 Responding to Kenyans' Human Security Concerns

It is evident from the discussions in the preceding chapters that Kenyans are exposed to a number of human security threats. Whereas as a nation we have in the past adopted policies and plans aimed at addressing some of the human insecurities in the country, much remains to be done to achieve this goal. A recent report of the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) Kenya country assessment confirms this position. In order to rid the country of the observable human insecurities all Kenyans must strive to ensure the following:

A nation that is prosperous and enshrines economic justice and fair distribution of wealth.

Kenya should be a country that is productive and has a highly skilled work force that is both innovative and hard working. The country must adopt state of the art technology, with a vibrant private sector and a public sector that facilitates investment. The country must pursue policies that do not disrupt economic activities of her people as well as those of external investors.

Kenyans should be assured of equal opportunities to employment and guaranteed a decent income that ensures them a dignified life. The country has to institutionalize income protection mechanisms, among them minimum wage, wage indexation and progressive taxation. The country needs to embrace efforts to rid itself of dependency on foreign aid, gearing itself to mobilize increased local resources to finance public expenditure and aggressively pursue export of high value products and services. Many small and medium enterprises should progressively graduate to formal status, become significant contributors to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and employ a significant part of the Kenyan population as an avenue to address economic security.

The country should strive to gain competitive edge within the region and beyond by significantly lowering the cost of doing business and maintaining state of the art infrastructure. The country should institutionalize mechanisms that ensure participation of all Kenyans in economic development, regardless of income status, gender or ethnicity. The

country needs to pursue policies that ensure lesser inequalities in income distribution and that land is fairly distributed and optimally utilized.

A healthy and skilled society that is guaranteed the right to adequate food and incomes

Kenyan citizens must be assured access to food as a basic human right. Never again should the country suffer human loss as a result of famine. Further, the state should empower Kenyans to produce food from domestic resources. Concerted efforts to ensure the prices of basic food items are affordable must be pursued.

The country should eliminate threats to achieving food security such as the low incomes (low purchasing power), poor distribution system, conflicts which disrupt farming activities and access to supplies, water scarcity, weak disaster monitoring systems and natural hazards.

Equally as a nation, the country should have a resolve to pursue an education system that equips Kenyans with relevant skills for the domestic as well as the global labour market. There is a focus to match skills with labour market requirements. The country guarantees all Kenyans access to universal primary and secondary education. The nation offers opportunities to primary and secondary school graduates to pursue further professional and/or technical training at tertiary institutions and is continually expanding the capacity of the institutions offering higher education.

As more Kenyans enter the old age retirement bracket and recognizing those with various disabilities and the chronically poor, the country should seek to insulate them from income insecurity by providing appropriate social safety nets. The country's social security system is reformed to cover more Kenyans. The country prides itself of running an efficient social security system that guarantees a decent life for the majority of its citizens either in retirement or those experiencing one form of disability or another.

In addition, the country should have a robust health insurance scheme that reaches out to over 50 percent of its population. The strategy should aim at protecting the people from disease infections through risk reduction measures, ensure good nutrition for its citizens, guarantee hygienic sanitation, access to safe drinking water, and so forth. The country should develop the capacity to deal with major and preventable disease outbreaks and through research and other initiatives, continually seek alternatives that will bring down the prices of curative medicines. Further, all Kenyans are assured a dignified life with access to decent shelter.

A cohesive, transparent and accountable citizenry that is assured personal safety

Kenyans should be able to go about their daily life and pursue their business activities without worries that they will be attacked, evicted from their residences, or their assets taken away forcibly. The state security agencies are well trained and equipped to deal with acts that disrupt peace. The coun-



try prides itself of competent security agencies that exercise restraint and respect human rights in maintaining peace, law and order. We must be a nation of a dignified and caring society that upholds high moral values, respect for family and human life. Cases of domestic violence, drug abuse, ethnic rivalry, torture etc are relegated to history. The country must invest in an efficient judicial/arbitration system that deals expeditiously with all criminal or civil litigations, anchored on a judicial system that is readily accessible to all Kenyans irrespective of status, ethnicity, origin, religion or gender.

A country that pursues environmental sustainability

In pursuit of economic development, the country ensures that it uses its natural resources in a sustainable manner so as to bequeath a healthy natural environment heritage to the future generations. The country constantly monitors activities that are likely to degrade the environment, including levels of emission of harmful substances into the environment and sanction those responsible and demand immediate corrective action.

The citizens also aspire to see a country where corruption has ceased to be a way of life for many Kenyans, with greater accountability, among the governed and the governing. The country embraces automation in many areas in a bid to curtail opportunities for engaging in corrupt practices. The freedom of communication and media is entrenched. There should also be certainty of apprehension, prosecution and conviction for those who participate, cover or abet corruption.

A country that pursues development cooperation that does not jeopardize the livelihoods of its citizens

The country consciously and deliberately pursues international trade as a better alternative to international aid. The country gains respect in the international markets for offering high quality goods and services. In addition, Kenyans trade with partners that observe principles of fair trade, and steer clear of transactions that will disrupt the livelihoods of Kenyans. In doing so, the country seeks to protect the weak players among the citizenry who become exposed by certain trade arrangements.

7.4 The Broad Delivery Principles

To ensure focus, discipline, consistency, wide participation and success in the delivery human security to Kenyans, as a nation we must be bound and guided by some broad principles. Below we provide the broad principles that should govern the delivery of the Human Security. As a Nation we must:

Adopt and adapt a culture of continuous learning

The environment and circumstances in which Kenyans operate are continuously changing and this demands that we constantly revise our policies to reflect the changes. To this end, all Kenyans, and in particular the leaders must adopt a culture of reading widely and more importantly we must be quick to grasp new ideas. We must value knowledge, encourage investment in books and journals and be vigilant to prod and test ideas before we embark on their implementation. We should also endeavor to learn from progressive traditional practices that have served us well in the past. The nation must learn from the mistakes others made and not waste resources on what is likely to fail or has not worked elsewhere. Kenyans must therefore make it a habit of finding out how others dealt with the challenges that we encounter. These could be challenges like food insecurity, health insecurity etc. Then we must send able men and women to those countries that have walked similar paths before and succeeded to study those countries.

Build confidence and trust in each other

Individually and collectively Kenyans must operate in a manner that will nurture trust and confidence. For instance, the three arms of Government, namely the judiciary, the executive and parliament must strictly adhere to the principle of separation of powers as stipulated in the Constitution of Kenya. The key concern is not only that each arm must be independent of each other, but in addition must be equipped with effective structures for checks and balances. Any decisions taken by these governance institutions must in the eyes of the people be in the interest of the majority and not narrow selfish interest. Leaders must always stand with the people as they fight bad governance, abuse of human rights, corruption and other malpractices, and this will certainly swing the people to the leaders' side to support activities geared towards actualizing the vision.

Professional Associations, membership based organizations, corporate entities, and CSOs must build trust among each other by exercising transparency and accountability in all their transactions.

Transparency will be achieved if as a country we ensure that there is free flow of information and where public information and institutions are directly accessible to the people who need them. Institutions, public and private must desist from abetting deception and prohibiting disclosure of otherwise public information. In addition, as a country we must protect whistleblowers. We must provide mechanisms for citizens to hold their institutions, especially those in public service, to account. This could be achieved by establishing independent regulators, office of the ombudsman and citizens' charters, among others.

Insist on leadership by people of high integrity

Within the national and devolved Governments, community, schools, health institutions, business entities, churches, CSOs etc we must insist on able leadership, that is dedicated and of the highest integrity. Only then will such institutions be able to rally the people to support what has to be done so that Kenya can guarantee human security to all.

The leadership must be bold enough to challenge each other when they err, yet humble enough to be responsive to the needs of the people.

We must place the right people in positions of authority such as members of parliament, judges and magistrates, ministers and top public servants. We must collectively say NO to leaders with a tainted past record.

Box 7.3 Adherence to the basic principles is critical for success

The future is full of promises as it is fraught with uncertainty. The industrial society is giving way to one based on knowledge. The new divide in the world will be between those with knowledge and those without. We must learn and be part of the knowledge-based world. However, we stand a better chance of not failing if we abide by the basic principles that have helped us progress; social cohesion through sharing of progress, equal opportunities for all, and meritocracy, with the best man or woman for the job, especially as leaders in Government.

*By Lee Kuan Yew,
Former Prime Minister of Singapore*

Embrace technology and innovation in all sectors

There is no doubt that technology advancement will shape the future of the world, Kenya included. Whether it is bio-engineering, computers, communication or other automated systems, we must move fast to adopt and adapt these technologies to enhance our social and economic well being. We must interact and learn from our neighbours by sending Kenyans to the foreign countries, especially the developed ones, on Government scholarships to study how these countries have succeeded.

We must build the confidence of the youth to take up positions of responsibilities by equipping them with the relevant skills and providing them with opportunities to exercise their talents and skills.

Solemnize the social contract (Between Citizens and the State)

The social contract namely the constitution, a set of laws and charters remains the fundamental bind that consists of the rules imposing basic duties, assigning rights and distributing the benefits of political, social, and economic cooperation, unanimously agreed to by the people in the state. Thus when governments are formed and laws are made the social contract comes into existence. Society has a keen interest to ensure the protection, promotion and preservation of human rights because they impact on social, economic and political stability. These in turn impact on nationhood and on human development. For a government to uphold these rights it is essential to have institutional arrangements that are accountable to the governed.

To deliver the desired vision on human security therefore entails identifying gaps in the legal and institutional frameworks and fixing them to safeguard the social contract. An overriding concern is that Legal frameworks should be fair and enforced impartially.

All to strive for efficiency and effectiveness

Efforts of all men and women and institutions, both private and public must not be in vain. We must plan well and remain steadfast in the implementation of our programmes to ensure that all our efforts always yield the desired results (effectiveness) and at the least cost possible (efficiency). We have to be different to compete effectively and this requires that we do things better and cheaper than our neighbours. People in positions of authority, especially in the public sector must be put on performance contracts that are grounded on the goal of enhancing effectiveness and efficiency. We must set and strictly enforce programme/project, time and cost standards for all activities, whether it is in infrastructure development and maintenance or public service delivery. This requires that as a nation we put in place good programmes, audit mechanisms and mechanisms for rewarding success and penalizing failure.

Decision makers must consult but take the “correct” decisions and move on where consensus is elusive

Public officers in decision-making positions must encourage and facilitate participation of all citizens in public policy formulation and development programmes. Consultations must be strictly through representative institutions that are of high integrity. However, leaders must desist from pursuing populist policies but rather opt for correct policies that have been tested. Leaders must be practical and not idealistic. Where criticism and advice from whatever quarters is inconclusive, leaders must learn to ignore such criticism and advice and move on. Nevertheless, leaders must do their homework well to ensure that they always have the facts to justify their decisions, however unpopular.

Pursue fairness but carefully not to kill the goose that lays the golden eggs

Kenyans and in particular leaders, must in developing policies recognize that resource endowments and capabilities vary among geographical regions, sectors, institutions and individuals.

Inevitably therefore within the society, there will be disparities in income levels and the general well-being of citizens. In such circumstances countries are faced with two choices, that is, distribution and wealth creation. On one hand distribution of income reduces inequalities and on the other hand wealth creation reduces dependency. Governments must therefore pursue re-distributive policies that will ensure all Kenyans have access to a dignified life. However, care must be exercised to ensure that redistribution efforts do not scuttle the growth opportunities (wealth creation opportunities) for thriving regions, sectors, individuals and institutions. It therefore follows that the government should as much as possible pursue policies that are fair, where the able sectors of the country support the weaker and vulnerable ones without necessarily hurting the able ones.

Box 7.4 Summary of the Human Security Picture of Tomorrow

In summary of the human security picture of tomorrow will entail:

First, safety from chronic threats, such as, hunger, diseases, war etc. For example:

- A child or mother that did not die
- A disease that did not spread
- An ethnic tension that did not escalate
- A member of society who did not go hungry
- An individual who was not without a home
- A child who did not miss space in school

Second, protection from sudden disruption of life pattern, whether at work, at home or in the community. For example:

- A job that was not lost
- An income that was not looted
- A service (e.g. energy or water supply) that was not disrupted

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Appendix i: Kenya Human Development Index (HDI), 2005

Province/ District	Life Expect MICs	Life Expect Index	Adult Literacy Rate	Adult Literacy Index	Prim. Sch. Enrol 2005	Sec. Sch. Enrol 2005	Tert. Enrol. Rate 2005	Over. Enrol. Rate	Over. Enrol. Index	Educ. Attain. Index	Annual Per capita Income	GDP Per PPP	GDP Index Capita	HDI 2005
Kenya	56.6	0.527	68.7	0.687	97.80	25.00	3.80	72.9	0.729	0.701	35,480	1,034	0.154	0.532
Nairobi	57.0	0.533	82.2	0.822	63.0	20.3	5.1	48.2	0.482	0.709	138,560	4,038	0.650	0.773
Central	64.2	0.653	82.8	0.828	103.3	42.2	5.1	81.6	0.816	0.824	36,616	1,067	0.156	0.637
Kiambu	56.3	0.522	85.4	0.854	91.3	45.0	4.4	74.4	0.744	0.817	41,949	1,222	0.185	0.633
Kirinyaga	62.8	0.630	79.1	0.791	102.9	39.4	3.3	80.5	0.805	0.796	26,588	775	0.111	0.596
Murang'a	63.1	0.635	82.6	0.826	101.3	49.6	5.9	82.5	0.825	0.826	40,928	1,193	0.180	0.670
Nyandarua	63.7	0.645	82.6	0.826	110.1	25.0	5.2	81.1	0.811	0.821	25,965	757	0.108	0.606
Nyeri	63.9	0.648	84.4	0.844	102.9	50.4	5.1	83.7	0.837	0.842	41,642	1,213	0.184	0.682
Maragua	63.7	0.645	82.1	0.821	106.8	43.6	5.4	84.4	0.844	0.829	32,890	958	0.142	0.642
Thika	55.6	0.510	83.3	0.833	107.5	42.6	5.8	84.6	0.846	0.837	41,287	1,203	0.182	0.633
Coast	55.1	0.502	60.6	0.606	90.4	19.3	2.9	66.2	0.662	0.624	55,682	1,623	0.194	0.518
Kilifi	53.6	0.477	50.3	0.503	95.0	16.4	2.9	68.5	0.685	0.564	21,814	636	0.088	0.439
Kwale	53.0	0.467	38.9	0.389	93.8	18.4	2.5	68.2	0.682	0.487	15,275	445	0.057	0.358
Lamu	56.0	0.517	73.2	0.732	99.4	24.9	2.6	73.9	0.739	0.734	36,283	1,057	0.158	0.582
Mombasa	53.3	0.472	88.9	0.889	73.3	23.2	3.7	55.9	0.559	0.779	132,075	3,848	0.619	0.769
T-Taveta	57.9	0.548	80.8	0.808	104.0	31.9	4.8	79.1	0.791	0.802	26,660	777	0.112	0.571
Tana River	53.8	0.480	42.9	0.429	62.8	10.2	2.1	45.1	0.451	0.436	11,681	340	0.040	0.307
Malindi	54.3	0.488	48.9	0.489	104.3	10.2	2.0	72.8	0.728	0.569	62,480	1,821	0.284	0.597
Eastern	61.5	0.608	62.0	0.620	115.2	29.6	3.8	85.8	0.858	0.700	17,086	498	0.127	0.531
Embu	66.3	0.688	80.6	0.806	128.6	45.0	4.1	99.3	0.993	0.868	29,216	851	0.175	0.698
Mbeere	63.0	0.633	64.2	0.642	126.7	33.7	3.1	94.7	0.947	0.744	39,739	1,158	0.038	0.638
Meru N	60.8	0.597	60.3	0.603	122.2	49.3	3.5	96.36	0.963	0.723	11,401	332	0.408	0.438
Moyale	56.3	0.522	54.9	0.549	102.1	25.6	2.5	75.9	0.759	0.619	88,296	2,573	0.064	0.674
Mwingi	60.7	0.595	61.6	0.616	142.2	21.7	3.1	101.6	1.016	0.749	16,676	486	0.145	0.501
Isiolo	57.6	0.543	79.6	0.796	85.8	11.1	4.0	60.8	0.608	0.733	33,575	978	0.145	0.580
Kitui	57.1	0.535	69.9	0.699	132.3	26.8	5.3	96.5	0.965	0.788	10,699	312	0.035	0.430
Machakos	59.0	0.567	63.9	0.639	129.2	39.6	5.1	98.2	0.982	0.753	7,623	222	0.020	0.380
Marsabit	60.7	0.595	17.4	0.174	54.6	7.1	2.6	38.7	0.387	0.245	28,556	832	0.074	0.411
Meru C	64.7	0.662	70	0.700	132.3	14.0	3.5	92.7	0.927	0.776	16,837	491	0.065	0.533
Makueni	57.2	0.537	51.8	0.518	54.6	38.7	4.4	48.0	0.480	0.505	8,440	246	0.024	0.302
T. Nithi	52.6	0.460	66.5	0.665	164.3	13.8	4.4	114.1	1.141	0.824	66,570	1,940	0.304	0.681
Nithi	64.6	0.660	65.4	0.654	122.2	58.6	4.2	99.0	0.990	0.766	34,284	999	0.148	0.633
N/Eastern	61.9	0.615	62.1	0.621	27.6	5.0	1.3	20.0	0.200	0.480	6,787	198	0.017	0.285
Garissa	59.4	0.573	62.5	0.625	23.5	4.8	1.2	17.2	0.172	0.474	6,557	191	0.015	0.267
Mandera	61.0	0.600	67.2	0.672	39.5	5.6	1.6	28.1	0.281	0.542	7,110	207	0.018	0.310
Wajir	61.8	0.613	59.4	0.594	23.9	4.6	1.1	17.4	0.174	0.454	5,827	170	0.012	0.256
Ijara	61.2	0.603	59.1	0.591	23.5	4.8	1.1	17.2	0.172	0.451	8,524	248	0.025	0.307

Appendix i: Kenya Human Development Index (HDI), 2005 (cont...)

Province/ District	Life Expect MICs	Life Expect Index	Adult Literacy Rate	Adult Literacy Index	Prim. Sch. Enrol 2005	Sec. Sch. Enrol 2005	Tert. Enrol. Rate 2005	Over. Enrol. Rate	Over. Enrol. Index	Educ. Attain. Index	Annual Per capita Income	GDP Per PPP	GDP Index Capita	HDI 2005
Nyanza	44.8	0.330	71.1	0.711	128.9	29.3	3.6	95.0	0.950	0.791	21,987	641	0.094	0.468
Bondo	41.1	0.268	76.7	0.767	152.8	31.2	3.9	111.5	1.115	0.883	22,928	668	0.094	0.483
Suba	39.3	0.238	68.3	0.683	120.6	16.8	2.8	85.7	0.857	0.741	33,272	970	0.144	0.479
Nyando	40.3	0.255	82.2	0.822	112.6	31.7	5.1	84.8	0.848	0.831	23,305	679	0.096	0.463
Rachuonyo	41.9	0.282	72.5	0.725	129.0	31.9	3.6	95.8	0.958	0.803	17,119	499	0.066	0.418
Kuria	52.6	0.460	61.4	0.614	142.5	22.6	1.7	102.0	1.020	0.749	33,848	986	0.146	0.559
Gucha	56.8	0.530	66.8	0.668	105.8	39.7	4.1	82.5	0.825	0.720	16,831	490	0.064	0.471
Kisii C	55.2	0.503	67.7	0.677	105.6	41.9	4.6	83.1	0.831	0.728	22,740	663	0.093	0.508
Kisumu	40.5	0.258	83.8	0.838	133.9	28.4	5.5	98.1	0.981	0.886	45,541	1,327	0.203	0.580
Siaya	40.0	0.250	69.7	0.697	133.8	22.5	5.0	96.3	0.963	0.786	12,893	376	0.046	0.361
Homa Bay	38.3	0.222	69.4	0.694	198.1	25.5	2.6	140.1	1.401	0.930	18,539	540	0.073	0.452
Migori	40.3	0.255	70.8	0.708	136.8	22.9	0.0	98.2	0.982	0.799	15,063	439	0.056	0.390
Nyamira	63.2	0.637	64.1	0.641	75.5	36.7	4.9	61.4	0.614	0.632	14,293	416	0.052	0.453
R/Valley	62.7	0.628	60.7	0.607	112.7	26.2	3.6	83.1	0.831	0.682	27,586	804	0.120	0.528
Kajiado	66.2	0.687	48.6	0.486	81.3	20.7	2.4	60.5	0.605	0.526	7,836	228	0.021	0.348
Kericho	58.6	0.560	77.6	0.776	122.6	26.7	4.7	90.0	0.900	0.817	97,778	2,849	0.454	0.768
Laikipia	64.9	0.665	83.7	0.837	99.3	34.3	4.6	76.6	0.766	0.813	21,824	636	0.089	0.585
Nakuru	55.6	0.510	82.2	0.822	112.6	32.3	3.9	84.9	0.849	0.831	37,692	1,040	0.155	0.610
Nandi	60.2	0.587	80.8	0.808	148.0	27.2	4.8	107.1	1.071	0.896	20,181	588	0.081	0.575
Narok	63.5	0.642	48.7	0.487	90.6	16.3	3.3	65.5	0.655	0.543	24,185	705	0.100	0.502
T. Mara	58.9	0.565	53.9	0.539	103.6	12.3	3.1	73.0	0.730	0.603	43,788	1,276	0.194	0.582
Keiyo	66.2	0.687	51	0.510	140.3	50.5	3.1	109.1	1.091	0.704	36,647	1,068	0.160	0.630
Koibatek	66.0	0.683	59.5	0.595	127.6	33.5	3.5	95.3	0.953	0.714	47,278	1,378	0.211	0.670
Bomet	66.1	0.685	71.1	0.711	174.2	27.4	4.1	124.7	1.247	0.890	23,563	687	0.097	0.628
Baringo	61.6	0.610	80.2	0.802	102.2	27.5	4.8	76.6	0.766	0.790	23,947	698	0.099	0.572
Marakwet	65.6	0.677	56.8	0.568	132.5	34.9	4.0	99.0	0.990	0.709	34,032	992	0.147	0.618
Samburu	60.7	0.595	21.9	0.219	73.4	13.6	2.2	53.2	0.532	0.323	15,385	448	0.093	0.347
T-Nzoia	60.2	0.587	68.4	0.684	134.2	23.6	4.4	96.8	0.968	0.779	17,310	504	0.067	0.513
Turkana	56.9	0.532	28.4	0.284	37.8	4.4	1.5	26.6	0.266	0.278	5,865	171	0.012	0.172
U-Gishu	60.6	0.593	82.5	0.825	117.7	31.0	3.5	87.9	0.879	0.843	18,829	549	0.074	0.549
W-Pokot	58.3	0.555	42.3	0.423	97.2	15.6	3.7	67.7	0.697	0.514	9,926	289	0.031	0.334
Buret	60.6	0.593	55.4	0.554	132.2	39.2	4.2	100.1	1.001	0.703	19,762	576	0.079	0.510
Western	52.8	0.463	67.94	0.679	141.7	27.7	4.6	103.1	1.031	0.797	19,114	557	0.104	0.516
Bungoma	57.9	0.548	75.7	0.757	138.4	31.7	5.2	102.0	1.020	0.845	13,327	388	0.048	0.485
Busia	43.8	0.313	64.3	0.643	135.4	25.1	4.4	98.1	0.981	0.756	16,984	495	0.065	0.412
Mt. Elgon	61.0	0.600	63.1	0.631	142.6	24.8	3.9	102.8	1.028	0.763	62,161	1,811	0.283	0.698
Lugari	60.7	0.595	64.8	0.648	134.9	25.3	4.6	97.8	0.978	0.758	34,469	1,004	0.149	0.609
Teso	50.4	0.423	61.5	0.615	146.0	24.6	4.8	105.0	1.050	0.760	25,523	744	0.106	0.509
Vihiga	55.9	0.515	68.7	0.687	127.9	37.7	5.2	96.8	0.968	0.781	17,179	501	0.066	0.489
B/ Mumias	48.5	0.392	69.1	0.691	182.1	22.0	4.2	128.4	1.284	0.889	10,273	299	0.033	0.410
Kakamega	53.3	0.472	76.3	0.763	126.4	30.6	4.5	93.7	0.937	0.821	20,687	603	0.083	0.515

Appendix i: Kenya Gender-Related Development Index (GDI), 2005

Province	L. Expect.		L.E. Index		Adult Ed.		Ad. Lit. Ind.		Ov'l Enrol.		En. Index		Ed. Index		EDEAI	EDLEI	EDEAI	GDI 2005
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F				
Nairobi	54.1	59.8	0.527	0.538	84.0	81.2	0.84	0.812	46.6	58.4	0.466	0.584	0.715	0.736	0.726	0.532	0.622	0.627
Central	60.4	68	0.632	0.675	86.5	81.9	0.865	0.819	96.8	78.6	0.968	0.786	0.899	0.808	0.849	0.654	0.400	0.634
Kiambu	53.4	59.2	0.515	0.528	88.2	84.2	0.882	0.842	92.0	66.0	0.920	0.66	0.995	0.781	0.831	0.522	0.423	0.592
Kirinyaga	58.3	67.3	0.597	0.663	83.6	74.9	0.836	0.749	110.6	63.1	1.106	0.631	0.926	0.71	0.800	0.629	0.347	0.592
Muranga	59.1	67.1	0.61	0.66	85.5	82.1	0.855	0.821	83.6	91.7	0.836	0.917	0.849	0.853	0.851	0.636	0.417	0.635
Nyandarua	59.5	67.9	0.617	0.673	89.4	87.7	0.894	0.877	87.1	92.2	0.871	0.922	0.886	0.892	0.889	0.645	0.342	0.626
Nyeri	60.2	67.7	0.628	0.67	85.7	84.4	0.857	0.844	95.9	82.1	0.959	0.821	0.891	0.836	0.861	0.649	0.421	0.644
Maragua	60.2	58.1	0.628	0.51	84.8	78.5	0.848	0.785	98.3	83.1	0.983	0.831	0.893	0.8	0.841	0.560	0.382	0.594
Thika	53.0	67.3	0.508	0.663	85.7	81.3	0.857	0.813	94.8	87.3	0.948	0.873	0.887	0.833	0.859	0.578	0.421	0.619
Coast	52	58.3	0.492	0.513	72.1	55.7	0.721	0.557	94.2	52.4	0.942	0.524	0.795	0.546	0.645	0.502	0.471	0.539
Kilifi	50.7	56.5	0.47	0.483	67.0	38.1	0.67	0.381	100.0	52.6	1.000	0.526	0.780	0.429	0.543	0.477	0.312	0.444
Kwale	51.7	54.2	0.487	0.445	46.5	39.7	0.465	0.397	94.7	56.8	0.947	0.568	0.626	0.454	0.522	0.464	0.253	0.413
Lamu	54.9	57	0.54	0.492	76.2	70.5	0.762	0.705	99.8	62.9	0.998	0.629	0.841	0.68	0.752	0.515	0.400	0.556
Mombasa	52.7	53.9	0.503	0.44	95.4	83.8	0.954	0.838	81.5	40.4	0.815	0.404	0.908	0.693	0.792	0.471	0.616	0.626
T.Taveta	54.4	61.3	0.532	0.563	88.7	83.8	0.887	0.838	90.6	81.9	0.906	0.819	0.893	0.832	0.861	0.547	0.348	0.585
Tana River	52.6	55	0.502	0.458	46.1	40.1	0.461	0.401	66.7	34	0.667	0.34	0.530	0.381	0.441	0.478	0.209	0.376
Malindi	52.2	56.4	0.495	0.482	51.2	46.8	0.512	0.468	122.1	42.4	1.221	0.424	0.748	0.453	0.560	0.488	0.489	0.512
Eastern	57.6	65.5	0.585	0.633	68.8	64.7	0.688	0.647	131.0	57.8	1.310	0.578	0.895	0.624	0.726	0.61	0.273	0.537
Embu	60.7	71.9	0.637	0.74	81.1	80.1	0.811	0.801	146.8	68.6	1.468	0.686	1.030	0.763	0.871	0.687	0.363	0.640
Mbeere	59.2	66.8	0.612	0.655	66.2	61.9	0.662	0.619	145.8	62.3	1.458	0.623	0.927	0.62	0.733	0.634	0.414	0.594
Meru N.	58.4	63.3	0.598	0.597	62	58.7	0.62	0.587	143.8	63.4	1.438	0.634	0.893	0.603	0.712	0.597	0.205	0.505
Moyale	55.7	56.9	0.553	0.49	58.9	55.3	0.589	0.553	116.8	50.3	1.168	0.503	0.782	0.536	0.631	0.518	0.548	0.566
Mwingi	55.7	65.7	0.553	0.637	63.5	60.6	0.635	0.606	181.5	45.8	1.815	0.458	1.028	0.557	0.703	0.596	0.267	0.522
Isiolo	54.3	60.9	0.53	0.557	95.5	68.8	0.955	0.688	91.9	44.6	0.919	0.446	0.943	0.607	0.737	0.543	0.387	0.556
Kitui	53	61.1	0.508	0.56	74.6	66.4	0.746	0.664	134.7	79.5	1.347	0.795	0.946	0.708	0.801	0.535	0.193	0.509
Machakos	55.1	62.8	0.543	0.588	61.5	65.9	0.615	0.659	144.1	70.2	1.441	0.702	0.890	0.673	0.762	0.566	0.137	0.488
Marsabit	57.4	64	0.582	0.608	23.4	12.7	0.234	0.127	61.2	25.7	0.612	0.257	0.360	0.17	0.230	0.595	0.360	0.395
Meru C.	61.8	67.6	0.655	0.668	71.8	68.4	0.718	0.684	144.8	64.3	1.448	0.643	0.961	0.67	0.786	0.662	0.271	0.573
Makueni	53.9	60.4	0.523	0.548	71.7	68.3	0.717	0.683	25.9	73.2	0.259	0.732	0.564	0.699	0.628	0.536	0.152	0.439
Tharaka	48.9	56.2	0.44	0.478	69.4	66.2	0.694	0.662	192.9	65.4	1.929	0.654	1.106	0.659	0.811	0.46	0.500	0.590
Nithi	61.7	67.5	0.653	0.667	68.1	65.3	0.681	0.653	147.6	63.2	1.476	0.632	0.946	0.646	0.760	0.66	0.390	0.603
N/Eastern	62.2	61.5	0.662	0.567	76.9	51.3	0.769	0.513	27.8	16.6	0.278	0.166	0.605	0.397	0.484	0.612	0.121	0.406
Garissa	60	58.7	0.625	0.52	76.3	43.9	0.763	0.439	26.8	11.3	0.268	0.113	0.598	0.33	0.429	0.569	0.115	0.371
Mandera	61.4	60.5	0.648	0.55	79.3	57.9	0.793	0.579	41.4	21.6	0.414	0.216	0.667	0.458	0.546	0.596	0.128	0.423
Wajir	61.3	62.3	0.647	0.58	69.2	50.7	0.692	0.507	28.2	10.4	0.282	0.104	0.555	0.373	0.452	0.614	0.095	0.387
Ijara	59.2	63.1	0.612	0.593	63.9	58.8	0.639	0.588	17.6	20.5	0.176	0.205	0.485	0.46	0.473	0.603	0.156	0.410
Nyanza	41.7	48	0.32	0.342	76.2	66.4	0.762	0.664	141.6	68.2	1.416	0.682	0.980	0.67	0.786	0.331	0.311	0.476
Bondo	38.3	43.9	0.263	0.273	78.9	74.1	0.789	0.741	169.8	77.5	1.698	0.775	1.092	0.752	0.879	0.269	0.319	0.489
Suba	36.5	42	0.233	0.242	72.7	67.3	0.727	0.673	128.5	63.7	1.285	0.637	0.913	0.661	0.760	0.238	0.382	0.460

Appendix i: Kenya Gender-Related Development Index (GDI), 2005 (cont...)

Province	L. Expect.		L.E. Index		Adult Ed.		Ad. Lit. Ind.		Ov'l Enrol.		En. Index		Ed. Index		EDEAI	EDLEI	EDEAI	GDI 2005
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F				
Nyando	37.7	42.9	0.253	0.257	85.5	78.8	0.855	0.788	114.0	71.7	1.140	0.717	0.950	0.764	0.847	0.255	0.323	0.474
Rachuonyo	39.4	44.4	0.282	0.282	75.1	71.5	0.751	0.715	128.8	82.1	1.288	0.821	0.930	0.75	0.824	0.282	0.267	0.458
Kuria	49.8	55.4	0.455	0.465	63.3	58.9	0.633	0.589	174.8	53.2	1.748	0.532	1.005	0.57	0.717	0.46	0.385	0.521
Gucha	52.4	61.3	0.498	0.563	69.4	62.7	0.694	0.627	114.9	63.4	1.149	0.634	0.846	0.629	0.715	0.531	0.267	0.504
Kisii C.	50.5	60	0.467	0.542	73.6	62.7	0.736	0.627	106.3	72.5	1.063	0.725	0.845	0.66	0.734	0.504	0.317	0.519
Kisumu	37.8	43.2	0.255	0.262	67.3	60.9	0.673	0.609	133.0	84.2	1.330	0.842	0.892	0.687	0.771	0.258	0.435	0.488
Siaya	36.9	43	0.24	0.258	88.7	79.3	0.887	0.793	142.0	72.8	1.420	0.728	1.065	0.771	0.880	0.25	0.197	0.442
H. Bay	35.9	40.7	0.223	0.22	75.3	65.6	0.753	0.656	246.2	68.5	2.462	0.685	1.323	0.666	0.864	0.222	0.283	0.456
Migori	37.8	42.8	0.255	0.255	72.7	68.9	0.727	0.689	164.0	55.3	1.640	0.553	1.031	0.644	0.781	0.255	0.247	0.428
Nyamira	59.2	67.2	0.612	0.662	66.7	61.8	0.667	0.618	59.0	71.6	0.590	0.716	0.641	0.651	0.646	0.637	0.238	0.507
R/Valley	59.1	66.4	0.61	0.648	76.6	69.1	0.766	0.691	126.2	57.4	1.2627	0.574	0.931	0.652	0.768	0.628	0.354	0.583
Kajiado	60.3	67.1	0.63	0.66	52.6	45.1	0.526	0.451	92.6	40.6	0.926	0.406	0.659	0.436	0.525	0.645	0.144	0.438
Kericho	54.8	62.5	0.538	0.583	82.6	72.2	0.826	0.722	132.1	67.1	1.321	0.671	0.991	0.705	0.824	0.56	0.531	0.638
Laikipia	61.6	68.1	0.652	0.677	76.4	66.4	0.764	0.664	97.4	68.8	0.974	0.688	0.834	0.672	0.772	0.66	0.047	0.493
Nakuru	52.9	58.2	0.507	0.512	88.5	78.3	0.885	0.783	116.1	69.8	1.161	0.698	0.977	0.755	0.851	0.509	0.382	0.581
Nandi	56.6	63.7	0.568	0.603	84.2	80.5	0.842	0.805	158.0	80.4	1.580	0.804	1.088	0.805	0.924	0.585	0.299	0.603
Narok	59.5	67.6	0.617	0.668	82.8	78.9	0.828	0.789	94.4	51.4	0.944	0.514	0.867	0.697	0.773	0.641	0.297	0.571
Trans Mara	59.7	58.2	0.62	0.512	55.8	50.2	0.558	0.502	113.8	50.5	1.138	0.505	0.751	0.503	0.599	0.559	0.431	0.530
Keiyo	62.8	69.6	0.672	0.702	53	49.1	0.53	0.491	189.3	46.9	1.893	0.469	0.984	0.484	0.643	0.687	0.337	0.556
Koibatek	63	69	0.675	0.692	62.7	57.9	0.627	0.579	143.3	66.1	1.433	0.661	0.896	0.606	0.722	0.683	0.389	0.598
Bomet	62.2	70.1	0.662	0.71	74.2	67.7	0.742	0.677	205.6	73.2	2.056	0.732	1.180	0.695	0.866	0.686	0.303	0.618
Baringo	58.3	64.9	0.597	0.623	82.9	77.4	0.829	0.774	125.7	42.4	1.257	0.424	0.972	0.657	0.780	0.61	0.320	0.570
Marakwet	63.2	68	0.678	0.675	58.8	52.8	0.588	0.528	169.4	48.1	1.694	0.481	0.957	0.512	0.662	0.677	0.389	0.576
Samburu	58	63.4	0.592	0.598	28.3	15.3	0.283	0.153	67.1	51.2	0.671	0.512	0.412	0.273	0.325	0.595	0.251	0.390
T.Nzoia	57.1	63.3	0.577	0.597	74.5	62.9	0.745	0.629	147.2	68.6	1.472	0.686	0.987	0.648	0.780	0.587	0.276	0.548
Turkana	54.8	59.1	0.538	0.527	41.5	47.7	0.415	0.477	16.2	43.7	0.162	0.437	0.331	0.464	0.386	0.532	0.096	0.338
U.Gishu	57.6	63.6	0.585	0.602	85.9	81.3	0.859	0.813	127.3	65.9	1.273	0.659	0.997	0.762	0.864	0.593	0.291	0.583
W. Pokot	55.4	61.3	0.548	0.563	49.7	35.5	0.497	0.355	112.0	43.8	1.120	0.438	0.705	0.383	0.491	0.556	0.183	0.410
Buret	57.8	63.3	0.588	0.597	58.4	53.8	0.584	0.538	170.0	48.7	1.700	0.487	0.956	0.521	0.676	0.592	0.299	0.522
Western	49.8	55.8	0.455	0.472	80.2	69.7	0.802	0.697	157.1	71.8	1.571	0.718	1.058	0.704	0.835	0.464	0.291	0.530
Bungoma	54.3	61.5	0.53	0.567	78.9	72.6	0.789	0.726	152.1	73.3	1.521	0.733	1.033	0.728	0.847	0.549	0.231	0.542
Busia	41	46.6	0.308	0.318	69.9	59.3	0.699	0.593	155.3	62.9	1.553	0.629	0.984	0.605	0.736	0.314	0.271	0.440
Mt. Elgon	56.5	65.4	0.567	0.632	66.5	62.1	0.665	0.621	160.8	68.3	1.608	0.683	0.979	0.642	0.770	0.598	0.490	0.619
Lugari	57.4	64	0.582	0.608	68.2	64.3	0.682	0.643	139.9	77.6	1.399	0.776	0.921	0.687	0.781	0.595	0.390	0.589
Teso	48.8	52	0.438	0.408	63.2	69.4	0.632	0.694	165.9	68.5	1.659	0.685	0.974	0.691	0.802	0.422	0.340	0.521
Vihiga	53.2	58.7	0.512	0.52	86.6	73.9	0.866	0.739	142.9	68.7	1.429	0.687	1.054	0.722	0.843	0.516	0.273	0.544
Butere	45.3	51.6	0.38	0.402	72.8	68.4	0.728	0.684	213.0	75.9	2.130	0.759	1.195	0.709	0.874	0.391	0.187	0.484
Kakamega	50.1	56.6	0.46	0.485	83.8	70.3	0.838	0.703	129.2	77.3	1.292	0.773	0.989	0.726	0.830	0.473	0.305	0.536
Kenya	52.8	60.4	0.505	0.548	77.7	70.2	0.777	0.702	101.6	58.7	1.016	0.587	0.741	0.664	0.745	0.526	0.396	0.556

Appendix i: Kenya Human Poverty Index (HPI), 2005

District/ Province	Underweight children Below 5 years (%)	Adult Illiteracy (%)	Without access to Safe drinking water	% Not expected To survive beyond 40	% With poor access To qualified doctor	HPI 2005
Nairobi	6.3	17.6	6.1	40	54	29.9
Central	14.6	17.2	55.4	31	46	31.3
Kiambu	13.1	14.6	29.2	21	34	21.3
Kirinyaga	12.4	20.9	65.5	30	31	30.4
Muranga	19.5	17.4	75.8	29	41	34.4
Nyandarua	19.2	17.4	54.6	31	48	33.0
Nyeri	12.3	15.6	36.8	33	63	30.5
Maragua	12.9	17.9	64.0	36	52	35.2
Thika	12.8	16.7	62.0	36	51	34.5
Coast	25.4	39.4	43.7	34	69	43.0
Kilifi	28.9	49.7	35.1	41	65	44.9
Kwale	26.2	61.1	33.9	25	45	45.8
Lamu	22.3	26.8	37.6	41	94	41.9
Mombasa	12.4	11.1	16.2	41	49	30.6
Taita Tavetta	24.7	19.2	44.2	25	77	35.9
Tana River	34.9	57.1	73.6	34	77	53.5
Malindi	27.8	51.1	65.0	34	74	48.7
Eastern	21.4	38.0	55.7	33	65	41.7
Embu	23.6	19.4	53.2	36	45	34.4
Mbeere	19.8	35.8	55.0	31	74	40.5
Meru North	18.9	39.7	42.0	32	54	37.0
Moyale	21.1	45.1	45.0	37	69	42.8
Mwingi	24.5	38.4	49.0	31	64	39.4
Isiolo	19.1	20.4	55.0	31	85	39.8
Kitui	29.4	30.1	86.2	21	87	48.5
Machakos	24.0	36.1	62.1	34	81	44.2
Marsabit	24.9	82.6	83.9	27	75	64.7
Meru Central	21.9	30.0	42.0	35	52	34.9
Makueni	16.9	48.2	58.0	34	55	42.7
Tharaka Nithi	15.7	33.5	48.0	36	51	35.9
Nithi (Meru South)	17.9	34.6	45.0	37	54	37.1
N/Eastern	33.7	38.0	38.6	29	88	43.1
Garissa	29.9	37.5	6.2	28	89	36.6
Mandera	36.2	32.8	36.0	33	89	42.3
Wajir	35.7	40.6	96.0	29	89	54.6
Ijara	32.9	40.9	16.0	25	86	38.7
Nyanza	15.6	28.9	58.2	31	66	37.6
Bondo	18.1	23.3	53.0	36	73	38.6

Appendix i: Kenya Human Poverty Index (HPI), 2005 (cont...)

District/ Province	Underweight children Below 5 years (%)	Adult Illiteracy (%)	Without access to Safe drinking water	% Not expected To survive beyond 40	% With poor access To qualified doctor	HPI 2005
Suba	17.5	31.7	64.0	36	75	41.8
Nyando	18.0	17.8	62.0	33	61	36.4
Rachuonyo	18.3	27.5	60.0	34	64	38.2
Kuria	14.3	38.6	58.0	34	70	40.8
Gucha (S.Kisii)	11.7	33.2	61.0	36	53	37.4
Kisii Central	10.9	32.3	57.1	25	52	33.5
Kisumu	14.8	16.2	54.6	30	65	34.4
Siaya	18.6	30.3	36.9	25	64	32.9
Homa Bay	18.2	30.6	63.0	30	76	40.5
Migori	16.5	29.2	62.0	25	72	38.1
Nyamira	10.8	35.9	67.0	25	66	38.5
R/Valley	24.8	39.3	44.0	30	68	41.0
Baringo	29.2	51.4	68.7	28	55	45.9
Kajiado	27.9	22.4	32.9	37	69	36.1
Kericho	13.9	16.3	64.6	36	45	34.2
Laikipia	20.8	17.8	52.7	28	84	38.6
Nakuru	21.7	19.2	45.9	27	52	31.1
Nandi	22.1	51.3	40.1	26	61	41.9
Narok	23.2	46.1	52.5	31	71	43.3
Samburu	37.2	49.0	32.6	34	75	44.9
Trans Nzoia	21.0	40.5	41.4	26	54	36.2
Turkana	34.2	28.9	59.0	30	75	42.3
Uasin Gishu	18.3	19.8	26.3	26	73	30.5
West Pokot	27.9	43.2	19.0	37	86	41.8
Bomet	19.4	78.1	62.0	31	65	59.2
Buret	23.6	31.6	62.0	31	67	40.1
Keiyo	22.3	71.6	32.0	22	74	53.3
Koibatek	23.2	17.5	31.0	30	71	32.7
Marakwet	27.3	57.7	22.0	30	75	45.9
Trans Mara	19.4	44.6	47.0	24	68	40.1
Western	19.0	32.1	37.1	34	66	36.1
Bungoma	18.7	24.5	34.0	36	56	33.0
Busia	18.7	35.7	45.6	32	61	36.4
Kakamega	18.5	36.9	37.3	36	72	38.8
Lugari/Malava	16.6	35.2	32.0	36	68	36.7
Mt Elgon	19.6	38.5	38.0	34	72	39.0
Teso	22.9	31.3	35.0	28	77	36.3
Vihiga	17.9	30.9	34.0	31	61	33.4
Butere/Mumias	21.8	23.7	41.0	36	59	35.0
Kenya	20.0	31.3	42.3	33	65	36.2

Appendix ii: Technical Notes

Technical Note 1: Human Development Index (HDI)

The Human Development Index (HDI) was calculated as an average of four indices:

- Life Expectancy Index (LEI)
- Adult Literacy Index (ALI)
- Combined gross enrolment index (CGEI)
- Adjusted real GDP per capita (PPP\$) index (APPI)

a) Life Expectancy Index (LEI)

Life expectancy index was calculated using life expectancy at birth and the minimum and maximum values set. The UNDP formula provided in the GHDR was used. $LEI = (\text{Life expectancy at birth} - \text{minimum value}) / (\text{Maximum value} - \text{minimum value})$.

The set maximum and minimum values are 85 years and 25 years, respectively.

For Kenya:

$$LEI = (56.6 - 25) / (85 - 25) = 0.527$$

b) Adult Literacy Index (ALI)

The adult literacy index was calculated using adult literacy rate and the set minimum and maximum values specified with the following formula: $ALI = (\text{Adult literacy rate} - \text{minimum value}) / (\text{Maximum value} - \text{minimum value})$. The set maximum value is 100 and the minimum value is 0.

For Kenya:

$$ALI = (68.7 - 0) / 100 - 0 = 0.687$$

c) Combined Gross Enrolment Index (CGEI)

The combined gross enrolment index was calculated from enrolment ratios for primary, secondary and tertiary education. Enrolment ratios were obtained by dividing the number of people enrolled in each education category by the number of people within the required age group. The required age group for primary education is 6-12 years, for secondary 13-17 years and for tertiary 18-22 years. The combined gross enrolment ratio (CGER) was calculated as a ratio of overall enrolment in primary, secondary and tertiary education.

The $CGEI = (\text{CGER} - \text{Minimum value}) / (\text{Maximum value} - \text{minimum value})$.

Where the maximum value is 100 and the minimum value is 0.

For Kenya:

$$CGER = \text{Total enrolment} / \text{Total Population} = 72.9$$

$$CGEI = (72.9 - 0) / 100 - 0 = 0.729$$

d) Adjusted Real GDP Per Capita (PPP\$) Index (APPI)

This was calculated by using the following UNDP formula: $APPI = [\text{Log}(\text{Discounted maximum value}) - (\text{minimum value})]$

Where: Minimum value is \$100 and maximum value is \$40,000.

Discounted maximum = US\$ 6,154 (PPP)

Real GDP = GDP in 2002 prices

Real GDP per capita = Real GDP/Population

GDP = Gross Domestic Product

For Kenya:

$$APPI = [\text{Log}(1,034) - \text{Log}(100)] / [\text{Log}(6,154) - \text{Log}(100)] = 0.487$$

HDI was thus calculated as an average of LEI, Educational Attainment Index and APPI.

$$HDI = (LEI + EAI + APPI) / 3$$

Where: $EAI = [(2 * ALI) + CGEI] / 3$

For Kenya:

HDI value of 0.532 is the weighted aggregate of the values computed for the districts HDI.

Technical Note 2: The Human Poverty Index (HPI)

The human poverty index was computed with the following variables:

Percentage of people not expected to survive at age 40 (PNS)

Percentage of adults who are illiterate (PAI)

Percentage of people without access to safe water (PSW)

Percentage of people without access to health services (PHS)

Percentage of severely and moderately underweight children under 5 years (PUC)

Percentage of people not expected to survive at age 40.

This is a calculated ratio of the number of people 0-10 years old in 1959 to the number of people 40-50 years old in 1999. The number of people not expected to survive at age 40 has been estimated by subtracting the number of 0-4 year olds in 1959 from the number of people 40-44 years old in 1996. The number of people 40-44 years old has been obtained from the 1999 census. The number of people 0-4 years old in 1959 has been estimated using a compound growth rates.

PSW, PHS and PUC were averaged to obtain one variable, LS, representing living standards:

$$LS = (\text{PSW} + \text{PHS} + \text{PUC}) / 3$$

$$HPI - 1 = [(1/3)(\text{PNS} + \text{PAI} + \text{LS})] / 3 = 37.0$$

For Kenya:

PNS = 33%

PAI = 30.9%

PSW = 48.4%

PHS = 65%

PUC = 19.3%

$$LS = (48.4 + 65 + 19.3) / 3 = 44.23$$

$$HPI = [1/3(33 + 30.93 + 44.23)] / 3 = 37.0$$

$$EDLEI = 1 / [\text{Female population share} / \text{Female LEI} + (\text{Male population share} / \text{male LEI})]$$

Technical Note 3: The Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

In calculating the GDI, the same variables as discussed in HDI above are used for women's data.

- Equally Distributed Life Expectancy Index (EDLEI)
- Equally Distributed Educational Attainment Index (EDEAI)
- Equally Distributed Income Index (EDII)

a) The Equally Distributed Life Expectancy Index Life Expectancy Index (EDLEI)

In computing the gender-related LEI, we used different maximums and minimums for men and women as specified in the UNDP report. The maximum and minimum values for women are 87.5 and 27.5, respectively and those for men are 82.5 and 22.5, respectively.

Using the UNDP formula, the EDLEI is calculated as follows:

$$EDLEI = 1 / [\text{Female population share} / \text{Female LEI} + (\text{Male population share} / \text{male LEI})]$$

Life expectancy at birth

Women = 60.4

Men = 52.8

Life Expectancy Index

$$\text{Women} = (60.4 - 27.5) / 60 = 0.548$$

$$\text{Men} = (52.8 - 22.5) / 60 = 0.505$$

$$EDLEI = [(51.5 * 0.548 - 1) + (48.5 * 0.505)] / 1 = 0.526$$

b) The Equally Distributed Education Attainment Index (EDEAI)

This is computed using the UNDP formula:

$$EDEAI = 1 / [\text{Female population share} / \text{Female EAI} + (\text{Male population share} / \text{male EAI})]$$

Appendix ii: Technical Notes (cont...)

Adult Literacy Rate

Women = 70.2
Men = 77.6

Adult Literacy Index

Women = $(70.2-0)/100 = 0.702$
Men = $(77.6-0)/100 = 0.776$

Combined Gross Enrolment Ratio (Percent)

Women = 58.7
Men = 87.1

Combined Gross Enrolment Index (Percent)

Women = 0.587
Men = 0.871

Education Attainment Index

EAI = $2/3$ (adult literacy index) +
 $1/3$ (combined enrolment rate)

Women = $2/3 (0.702) + 1/3 (0.587) = 0.664$
Men = $2/3 (0.776) + 1/3 (0.871) = 0.808$
EDEAI = $(51.5 \cdot 0.664 - 1) +$
 $(48.5 \cdot 0.808) = 0.727$

c) The Equally Distributed Income Index (EDII)

This was calculated as follows:

EDII = $1/[(\text{Female population share}/\text{Adjusted for women}) + (\text{Male population share}/\text{Adjusted for income for males})]$

Where:

Adjusted income for women = $[\text{Log}(\text{GDP per capita for women}) - \text{Log}(\text{GDP per capita maximum})]/[\text{Log}(\text{GDP per capita maximum}) - \text{Log}(\text{GDP per capita minimum})]$

Adjusted income for men = $[\text{Log}(\text{GDP per capita for men}) - \text{Log}(\text{minimum GDP per capita})]/[\text{Log}(\text{GDP per capita maximum}) - \text{Log}(\text{GDP per capita minimum})]$

GDP per capita for women = Women's share of the wage bill * Total GDP / Number of women
GDP per capita for men = Men's share of the wage bill * Total GDP / Number of men

Women's share of the wage bill = $[(Rf \cdot Ef)/(Rf \cdot Ef + Em)]$

Where:

Rf = Ratio of women's income to men's income

Ef = Women's share of the economically active population
Em = Men's share of the economically active population

For Kenya:

Population
Total = 32,970,225
Women = 16,978,390
Men = 15,991,835

Percentage share of population
Women = 51.5
Men = 48.5

Percentage share of the economically active population

Women = 46.1
Men = 44.7

Ratio of women's non-agricultural wage to men's non-agricultural wage (wt/wm) = 0.88

GDP per capita: \$1,034 (PPP US\$) Total GDP =
 $\$1,034 \cdot 32,970,225 = 34,091,212,650$

Share of women (St) = 0.475

Women total GDP = $0.475 \cdot 34,091,212,650$
= 16,193,326,009

Men total GDP = $34,091,212,650 -$
 $16,193,326,009 = 17,897,886,641$

Per capita women GDP = $16,193,326,009$
 $/16,978,390 = 953.76$

Per capita men GDP =
 $17,897,886,641/15,991,835 = 1119.19$

Adjusted income for women = $\text{Log}[(953.76) - \text{log}(100)]/[\text{log} 40,000 - \text{log}(100)] = 0.377$

Adjusted income for men = $\text{Log}[(1119.19) - \text{log}(100)]/[\text{log} 40,000 - \text{log}(100)] = 0.402$

EDII = $[(0.377 \cdot 0.402)] - 1 = 0.389$

Gender-related Index

GDI = $1/3(0.526 + 0.727 + 0.389) = 0.547$

Technical Note 4:

The gender empowerment measure

This involved four indices:

- Index of parliamentary representation by women
- Index of administrative and managerial positions by women
- Index of professional and technical positions
- Index of men's and women's incomes

a) Index of Parliamentary Representation (IPR)

This was calculated as follows:

$IPR = [Sf/Pf + (Sm/Pm)] \cdot it/50$

Where:

Sf = Women's share of population

Sm = Men's share of population

Pf = Percentage share of parliamentary representation by women.

Pm = Percentage share of parliamentary representation by men.

b) Index of Administrative and Managerial Positions (IAMP)

$IAMP = [(Sf/Af) + (Sm/Am)] \cdot it/50$

Where:

Af = women's percentage share of administrative and managerial positions.

Am = Men's percentage share of administrative and managerial positions.

c) Index of Professional and Technical Positions (IPTP)

$IPTP = [Sf/Tf + (Sm/Tm)] \cdot it/50$

Where:

Tf = Women's percentage share of professional and technical positions.

Tm = Men's percentage share of professional and technical positions.

The combined Index for administrative and managerial, and professional and technical positions (CIAPP).

This was calculated as the average of B and C above.

$CIAPP = (IAMP + IPTP)/2$

d) Equally Distributed Income Index (EDII)

This was calculated the same way as 3C above.

GEM

GEM was computed as follows:

$GEM = (IAMP + CIAMPPP + IPR)/3$

Appendix iii: Data Sources

This report has utilized data from sources of different quality. It is thus important to explain how the information was collected, its quality and underlying concepts used in collecting the data. Such review helps the user and reader to better understand and interpret the data.

Data for the HDR were mainly generated from three sources: administrative records, population and housing censuses, and sample surveys. Some of this information was in published form while most was unpublished. While the published information was largely in its finalized form, most of the unpublished data were raw in the sense that they were undergoing further analysis in preparation for publication. Such raw data are likely to change, albeit slightly, after further validation and are therefore provisional. These data sources are reviewed below with a view to judging quality and limitation of usage, especially in making spatial and temporal comparisons.

Administrative records

Administrative records mainly generated school enrollment data from the Ministry of Education for the HDR. The main weakness is incompleteness in primary and secondary school data, where only enrollment data on public schools is complete. The enrollment data for private schools is either incomplete or totally missing. The shifting of data collection responsibility from the Ministry to the Teachers Service Commission is the main cause of this weakness; the latter has failed to effectively collect data from private schools. Aggregated data on tertiary training were available from the Ministry of Education. Data from household surveys were also used.

Sample surveys

Most of the HDR data are derived from sample surveys conducted by Central Bureau of Statistics. The main surveys generating the data are the 1994 Welfare Monitoring Survey (WMSII), the 1997 WMSIII, the 1998 Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS), the 1998/99 Integrated Labour Force Survey and the 2000 Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey (MICS).

The main limitation in the data is the aggregation level. The survey results are reasonable at national and provincial levels of aggregation. However, the precision of the estimates declines when we attempt to disaggregate the results to district level. This is mainly due because sample size is reduced as we move from the province to focus on the district as the domain of study. This becomes more acute where there are high non-responses.

The other limitation is omission of the rural areas of North Eastern Province and three other ASAL districts of Marsabit, Turkana, Samburu and Isiolo. The surveys cover only the urban clusters in these districts. Of the above listed rural components of such areas by use of special sampling methods for such "floating populations". Therefore, results from these districts should be indicated as representing the urban, i.e. North Eastern (urban). The urban results become more unreliable as we go down to the districts and individual towns. For example, only one cluster was covered in Isiolo town during the 2000 MICS. All seven responding households had tapped water. So generalizing this observation to the district or the whole town is very misleading. To overcome this problem, figures from these regions were adjusted by a computed ratio of urban to rural for the respective provinces.

Population and housing censuses

Data from the censuses are more reliable since they emanate from complete coverage. In particular, they are the only sources of benchmark data for estimating and projecting demographic indicators such as life expectancy at birth, mortality and fertility.

Annual publications

Use was made of published data contained in the two annual publications of Statistical Abstract and Economic Survey. The figures are reliable but limited to national aggregates. The other caution is that the current year figures are always provisional and hence subject to change in the subsequent editions.

Comparability and trends

Constructing a trend using data from different surveys can be problematic, especially when there are differences in survey methodology in terms of coverage, data collection methods and questionnaire content. Also, spatial comparability of the results is limited if data were from different sources.

Data Needs

The analysis in this report has utilized data from sources of different quality. Data for the HDR were mainly generated from Central Bureau of Statistics. Some of this information was in published form while others were unpublished. Much of the raw data used such as enrollment, are likely to change drastically from one year to another. Data on GDP has also been subject of great variation in recent years, perhaps due to shift in base year and method of construction. The manner in which data for Kenya Human Development Report is accessed creates limitation of usage, especially in making spatial and temporal comparisons. This underlines a need for capacity building support for the generation of timely quality and reliable data for policy guidance.

Appendix iv: Definition of Concepts and Statistical Terms

This section attempts to explain the main concepts and unfamiliar terms in-built in the data contained in the HDR.

GDP (Gross Domestic Product)

The total output of goods and services for final use produced by an economy, by both residents and non-residents, regardless of the allocation to domestic and foreign claims. It does not include deductions for depreciation of physical or depletion and degradation of natural resources.

GDP index

One of the three indices on which the human development index is built. It is based on GDP per capita (PPP US\$). For details on how the index is calculated see technical note 1.

Gender-related Development Index (GDI)

A composite index measuring average achievement in the three basic dimensions captured in the human development index – a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living of living – adjusted to account for inequalities between men and women. For details on how the index is calculated see technical note 1.

Human Development Index (HDI)

A composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development – a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living. For details on how the index is calculated see technical note 1.

Household: House is the unit of enumeration that is used in all household-based sample surveys and population censuses. It is defined as a person or a group of persons residing in the same compound, answerable to the same head and pooling and sharing resources for common provisions such as food and house rent.

Household Income: Household income covers all receipts that accrued to the household or its individual members. It is the sum of primary (consisting of income from paid and self employment); property income (consisting of imputed rents of owner-occupied dwellings, interest received and paid, dividends received, and net rents and royalties received for the use of buildings, land, copyrights and patents); current transfers (consisting of social security benefits, pensions and life insurance annuity benefits, alimony etc.); and other benefits received by all the members of the household.

Household Expenditure: Household expenditure may be split into consumption and non-consumption expenditure. The household expenditure data contained in the HDR report refer to consumption expenditure which includes only goods and services that are acquired or purchased for household use. Consumption expenditures are further split to cash purchases and imputed expenditures. The latter include value of goods and services produced and consumed by the household during the reference period such as consumption from own business stocks or from own agricultural production, imputed rent value of owner-occupied housing and gross rental value of free employer-provided housing occupied by the household. The former covers actual expenses met by the household in paying for consumption goods and services.

Institutions: 'Institutions' are used here in the narrow sense to refer to bodies that support industrial technology, such as education and training, standards, metrology, technical extension, R&D, long-term credit, technology and export information and so on. They may be government run, started by the government but run autonomously, or started and managed by industry associations or private interests. Many are set up on non-market terms, at least initially, in response to perceived gaps in the market provision of inputs. The catalytic role of government in launching many institutions is acknowledged, as is the fact that such interventions are often highly selective and geared to the objectives of industrial policy.

Life Expectancy Index: One of the three indices on which the human development index is built. For details on how the index is calculated see technical note 1.

PPP (Purchasing Power Parity): A rate of exchange that accounts for price differences across countries, allowing international comparisons of real output and incomes. At the PPP US\$ rate (as used in this Report), PPP US\$ 1 has the same purchasing power in the domestic economy as \$1 has in the United States.

Unemployment and unemployment rate: Unemployed persons generally include those who reported during the reference survey period that they were without work, were both available for work and seeking work. The unemployment rate is the percentage of unemployed to the total labour force, where labour force is the sum of employed and unemployed.

Appendix v: APRM Pillars of African Vision

The APRM self-assessment report for Kenya identified two principal pillars for the attainment of the preferred vision for Kenya. These are: (i) democracy and political governance and (ii) economic governance and management. Under each of these pillars there are a number of objectives and recognized challenges that stand in the way of their successful achievement. A summary of these is as follows:

PILLARS :

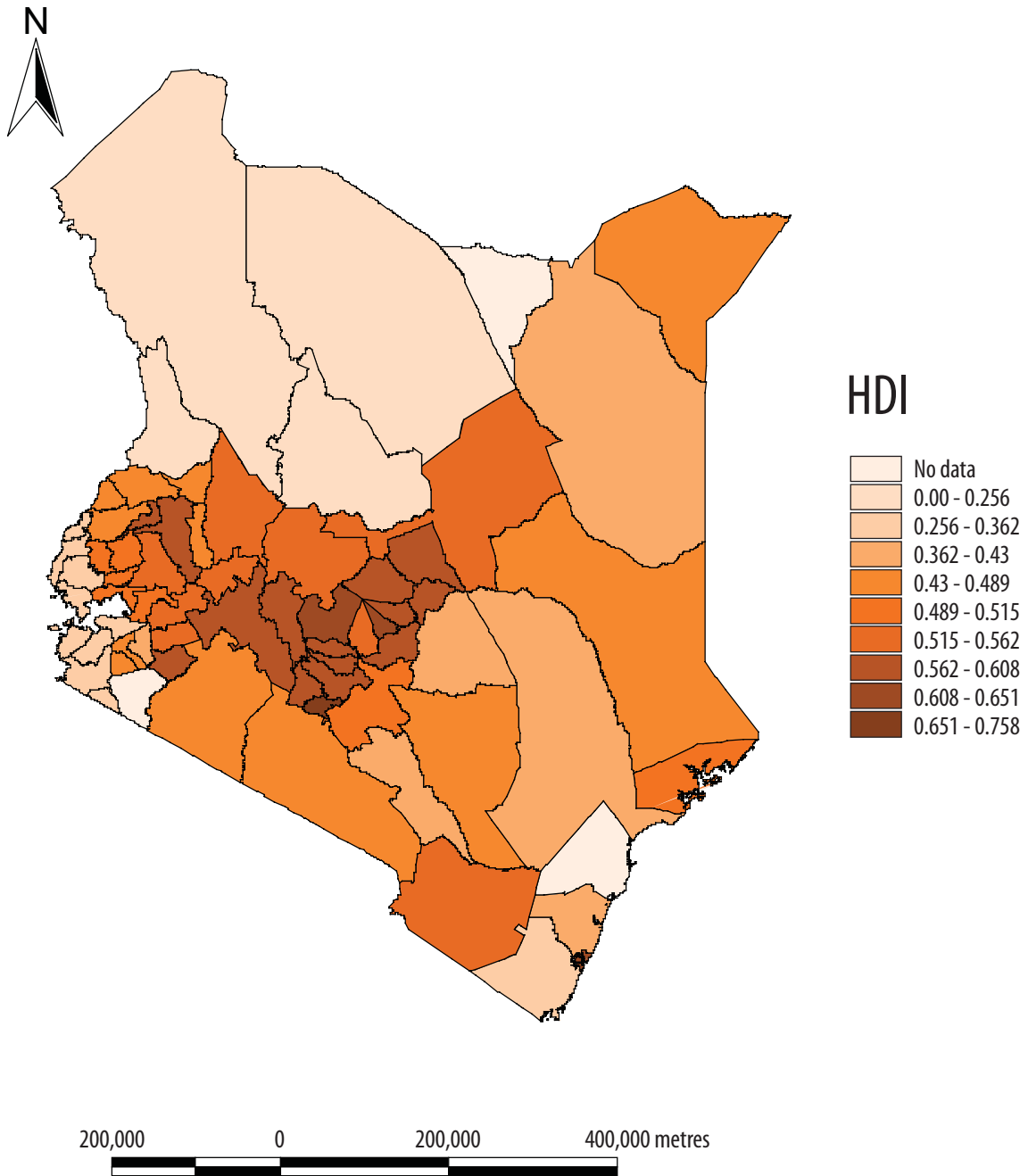
PILLAR 1: Democracy and Political Governance

Determinants of pillar achievement	1	<u>Prevention and reduction of intra and inter state conflicts</u>
	2	<u>Constitutional democracy, opportunities for choice, rule of law, citizen rights and constitutional supremacy</u>
	3	<u>Promotion and protection of economic, social and cultural rights and civic and political rights</u>
	4	<u>Separation of powers: independence of the Judiciary and an effective Legislature</u>
	5	<u>Accountability, Efficiency and Effective Civil Servants and other Public Office Holders</u>
	6	<u>Fighting Corruption</u>
	7	<u>Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Women</u>
	8	<u>Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Children and Young Persons</u>
	9	<u>Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Vulnerable Groups, Including Refugees, Internally Displaced Persons and Disabled.</u>

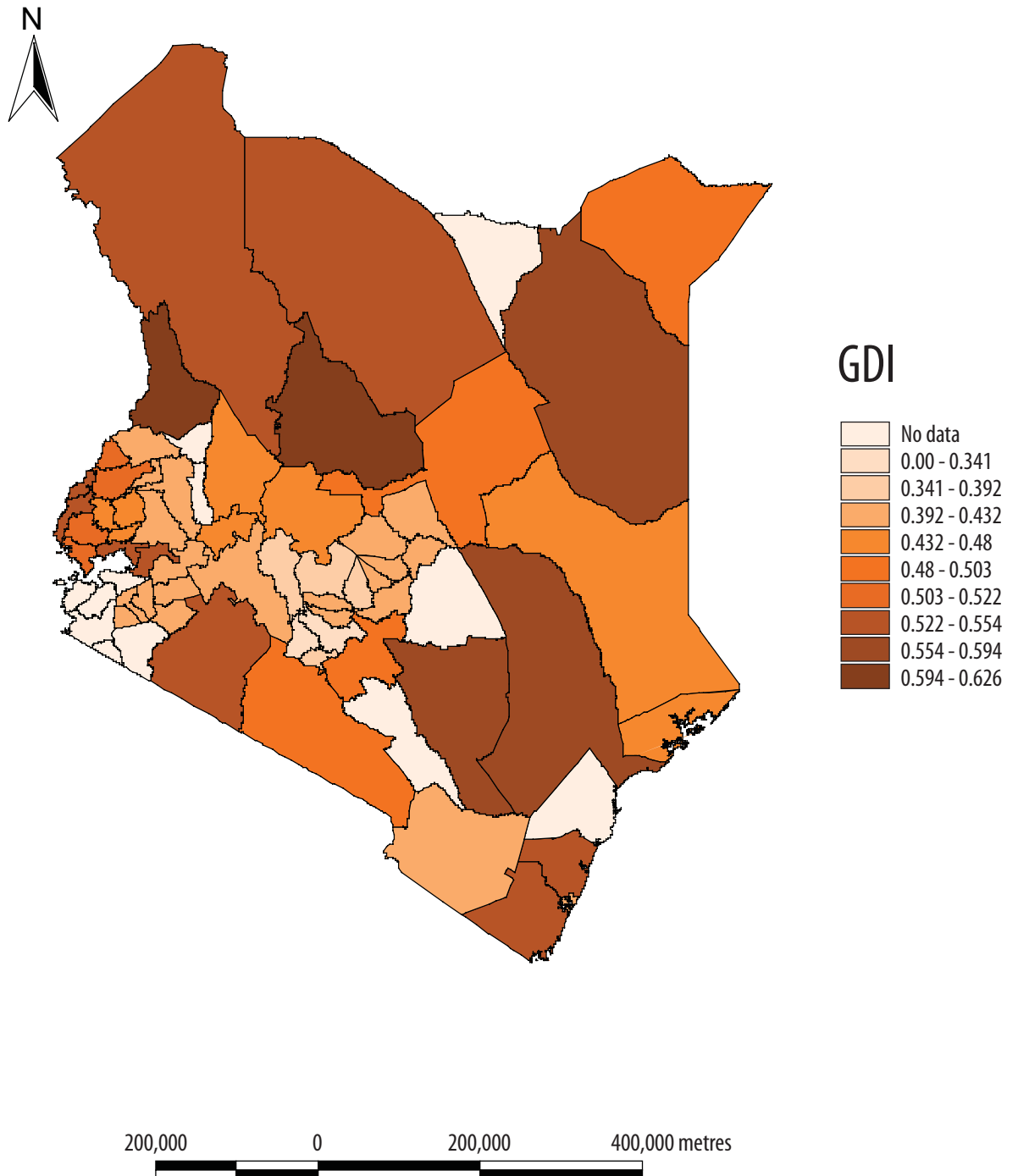
PILLAR 2:

Determinants of pillar achievement	1	<u>Promotion of Macro-economic Policies that Support Sustainable Development</u>
	2	<u>Implement Sound, Transparent and Predictable Government Economic Policies</u>
	3	<u>Promote Sound Public Financial Management</u>
	4	<u>Fight Corruption and Money Laundering</u>
	5	<u>Accelerate Regional, Integration by Participating in the Harmonisation of Monetary, Trade and Investment Policies.</u>

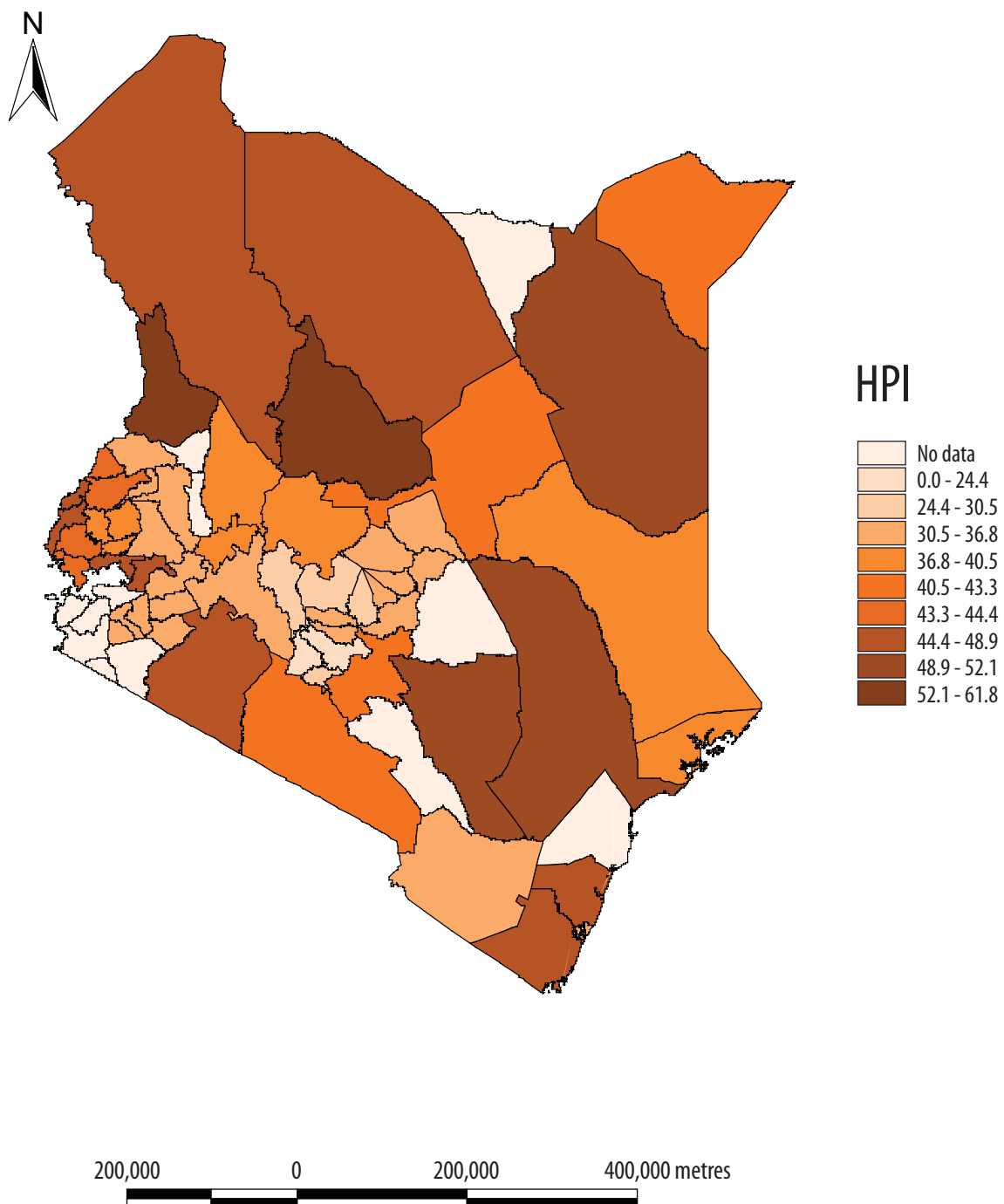
Appendix vi: GIS Maps Human Development Index



Appendix vi: GIS Maps Gender-Related Development Index



Appendix vi: GIS Maps Human Poverty Index



Appendix vii: Tables

Malaria and TB Incidence

Province	Malaria				TB			
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2000	2001	2002	2003
Nairobi	84,225	17,567	7,626	12,796	6,323	1,338	2,783	1,269
Central	557,748	573,691	478,512	408,014	2,268	2,727	3,879	1,636
Coast	1242,179	245,589	346,846	168,065	3,433	1,636	834	445
Eastern	1102,982	782,749	972,131	861,455	2,571	2,869	5,152	5,778
N/Eastern	52,788	32,889	2,525		121	58	0	
Nyanza	714,068	626,395	667,886	680,245	3,615	3,492	5,226	4,575
R/valley	806,520	741,323	533,059	703,914	2,546	3,261	2,043	2,272
Western	58,046	242,728	310,770	204,050	159	713	921	726
National	4,618,556	3,262,931	3,319,399	3,038,539	21,036	16,094	20,838	16,701

Source: Statistical Abstract, Various Issues

National HIV Estimates (2004)

	Prevalence	Number HIV+
Adults 15-49		
Total (Range)	6.4% (5.7%-6.4%)	1,057,000 (941,000 – 1,057,000)
Male	4.3%	360,000
Female	8.3%	696,000
Urban	9.7%	421,000
Rural	5.2%	636,000
Adults 50+		96,000
Children 0 – 14		117,000
Total		1,270,000

Source: NACC 2005

Malaria prevalence by district, 1994

District	Malaria prevalence	District	Malaria prevalence
Nairobi	10.3	Kisii	20.6
Kiambu	5.5	Kisumu	20.6
Kirinyaga	11.8	Siaya	28.2
Muranga	6.4	Homa bay	22.4
Nyandarua	3.6	Migori	16.1
Nyeri	2.9	Nyamira	27.5
Kilifi	13.0	Kajiado	9.6
Kwale	13.7	Kericho	6.3
Lamu	16.9	Laikipia	6.3
Mombasa	10.8	Nakuru	6.7
Taita-Taveta	10.4	Nandi	19.1
Tana River	11.6	Narok	17.2
Embu	13.3	Bomet	3.2
Isiolo	11.7	Baringo	7.8
Kitui	11.3	Elgeyo-Marakwet	5.2
Machakos	10.9	Samburu	9.0
Marsabit	3.4	Trans-Nzoia	23.3
Meru	10.7	Turkana	17.4
Makueni	11.7	Uasin-Gishu	12.7
Tharaka Nithi	12.8	West Pokot	8.0
Garissa	3.4	Bungoma	13.2
Mandera	4.9	Busia	21.5
Wajir	4.7	Kakamega	23.2
		Vihiga	29.9

Source: Nafula 2002

Appendix vii: Tables

HIV prevalence, number infected, and AIDS deaths among adults by district

Province	District	Urban HIV+	Rural HIV+	Total HIV+	Prevalence	AIDS deaths
Central	Kiambu	1,447	28,228	29,675	6.4%	2,943
Central	Kirinyaga	1,633	10,855	12,488	4.4%	1,238
Central	Maragua	409	8,554	8,963	4.2%	889
Central	Muranga	996	7,493	8,488	4.4%	842
Central	Nyandarua	1,285	15,399	16,684	6.4%	1,654
Central	Nyeri	3,116	12,988	16,105	4.5%	1,597
Central	Thika	15,829	9,866	25,695	6.1%	2,548
Coast	Kilifi	2,327	5,004	7,331	2.5%	727
Coast	Kwale	2,666	5,026	7,692	3.0%	763
Coast	Lamu	536	612	1,148	2.9%	114
Coast	Malindi	2,381	5,403	7,784	5.0%	772
Coast	Mombasa	60,248	-	60,248	12.3%	5,975
Coast	Taita-Taveta	1,395	2,776	4,171	3.1%	414
Coast	Tana River	146	2,282	2,429	2.5%	241
Eastern	Embu	2,286	5,519	7,806	4.1%	774
Eastern	Isiolo	1,090	1,215	2,305	4.1%	229
Eastern	Kitui	930	6,945	7,874	3.4%	781
Eastern	Machakos	4,400	13,505	17,905	4.3%	1,776
Eastern	Makueni	739	10,140	10,879	3.3%	1,079
Eastern	Marsabit	172	1,375	1,548	3.0%	153
Eastern	Mbeere	80	3,642	3,723	3.5%	369
Eastern	Meru Central	3,897	10,689	14,585	4.0%	1,446
Eastern	Meru North	474	12,896	13,370	3.6%	1,326
Eastern	Meru South	398	3,308	3,707	3.7%	368
Eastern	Moyale	238	468	706	2.8%	70
Eastern	Mwingi	628	4,632	5,260	3.9%	522
Eastern	Nithi	-	1,631	1,631	3.5%	162
Eastern	Tharaka	-	-	-	0.0%	-
Nairobi	Nairobi	168,667	-	168,667	9.6%	16,726
North Eastern	Garissa	1,066	4,482	5,547	2.9%	550
North Eastern	Mandera	615	3,916	4,531	3.0%	449
North Eastern	Wajir	389	6,859	7,248	3.1%	719
Nyanza	Bondo	1,962	10,192	12,155	13.7%	1,205
Nyanza	Gucha	724	7,887	8,611	4.0%	854
Nyanza	Homa Bay	7,134	34,006	41,140	24.4%	4,080
Nyanza	Kisii Central	2,356	11,463	13,819	4.2%	1,370
Nyanza	Kisii North	1,199	8,465	9,664	4.1%	958
Nyanza	Kisumu	27,280	12,268	39,548	18.4%	3,922
Nyanza	Kuria	893	2,923	3,816	4.4%	378
Nyanza	Migori	11,538	33,021	44,559	14.4%	4,419
Nyanza	Nyando	2,243	13,318	15,561	0.0%	1,543
Nyanza	Rachuonyo	1,829	21,825	23,654	13.2%	2,346
Nyanza	Siaya	2,907	19,681	22,588	13.5%	2,240
Nyanza	Suba	1,791	21,610	23,400	24.4%	2,320
Rift Valley	Baringo	587	6,607	7,194	3.7%	713
Rift Valley	Bomet	82	6,735	6,817	3.0%	676
Rift Valley	Buret	52	3,124	3,177	3.0%	315
Rift Valley	Kajiado	1,864	5,171	7,035	2.8%	698
Rift Valley	Keiyo	190	3,915	4,104	3.7%	407
Rift Valley	Kericho	3,674	8,159	11,833	3.8%	1,173
Rift Valley	Koibatek	781	3,209	3,989	3.7%	396
Rift Valley	Laikipia	6,490	8,881	15,370	7.7%	1,524
Rift Valley	Marakwet	-	2,577	2,577	2.5%	256
Rift Valley	Nakuru	28,295	29,688	57,983	8.0%	5,750
Rift Valley	Nandi	774	7,416	8,190	2.6%	812
Rift Valley	Narok	638	3,772	4,410	2.8%	437
Rift Valley	Samburu	1,546	4,185	5,731	8.3%	568
Rift Valley	Trans Mara	147	2,485	2,632	3.6%	261
Rift Valley	Trans Nzoia	3,101	7,121	10,223	3.2%	1,014
Rift Valley	Turkana	2,881	9,057	11,938	4.4%	1,184
Rift Valley	Uasin Gishu	11,742	8,836	20,578	5.5%	2,041
Rift Valley	West Pokot	200	5,300	5,500	3.6%	545
Western	Bungoma	2,086	38,564	40,650	6.2%	4,031
Western	Busia	2,158	8,621	10,779	7.4%	1,069
Western	Butere/Mumias	4,140	14,009	18,149	7.3%	1,800
Western	Kakamega	3,754	12,700	16,454	7.3%	1,632
Western	Lugari	525	7,239	7,764	6.9%	770
Western	Mt. Elgon	104	2,525	2,629	2.7%	261
Western	Teso	1,192	7,774	8,966	6.7%	889

Appendix vii: Tables

Out-patient malaria morbidity by province (1992-2003).

Province	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Nairobi	76,638	88,235	70,497	-	52,891	61,225	100,489	54,066	84,225	17,567	7,626	12,796
Central	53,408	487,936	490,681	511,228	515,665	577,000	540,041	603,620	557,748	573,691	478,512	408,014
Coast	499,104	713,889	650,721	560,504	587,344	504,822	577,089	609,637	1,242,179	245,589	346,846	168,065
Eastern	994,802	1,279,970	122,991	1,146,311	1,084,040	967,756	1,168,398	1,036,905	1,102,982	782,749	972,131	861,455
N/Eastn	827,195	71,861	22,359	82,295	53,048	46,033	34,554	45,974	52,788	32,889	2,525	
Nyanza	1,248,163	844,928	901,522	873,558	862,219	745,425	753,232	869,606	714,068	626,395	667,886	680,245
R.Valley	1,070,979	1,065,822	1,198,166	990,471	92,782	716,328	945,030	877,117	806,520	741,323	533,059	703,914
Western	1,234,187	645,010	52,635	502,892	529,033	454,161	404,818	412,599	58,046	242,728	310,770	204,050
National	6,004,476	5,197,651	3,509,572	4,667,289	3,777,022	4,072,750	4,523,651	4,509,524	4,618,556	3,262,931	3,319,399	3,038,539

Source: Statistical Abstract, Various Issues

Insecurity: Crimes Reported to Kenya Police by Type (1987 – 2005).

Year	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Murder	1,001	981	902	999	1,071	1,536	1,517	1,603	1,565	1,167	1,642	1,637	1,625	1,807	1,688	1,661	1,395	1,411	1,260
Rape	420	465	500	515	543	590	589	650	758	1,224	1,050	1,329	1,465	1,675	1,987	2,005	2,308	2,908	2,867
Asssault											10,288	10,847	11,891	13,035	12,611	12,689	13,401	15,715	13,708
Offence Against Person	1,502	1,407	1,493	1,468	400	274	1363	326	357	2,213	2,601	2,920	3,173	3,563	3,020	3,006	3,516	4,221	3,538
Robberies	5,751	5,833	5,697	6,842	7,406	10,197	9,242	8,804	8,571	5,904	7,465	8,303	8,612	8,925	9,180	8,504	8,711	7,863	5,811
Breaking	14,415	15,539	14,920	15,231	15,421	18,445	16,867	16,067	12,952	11,204	12,619	11,382	9,940	10,712	10,363	8,338	9,037	9,150	7,902
Dangerous Drugs											3,722	5,171	5,912	5,481	5,300	4,467	4,742	5,940	6,398
Other Penal Codes	10,051	9,230	14,632	16,909	20,055	20,400	16,651	17,540	15,893	10,510	9,581	9,418	10,415	11,320	10,612	10,418	12,131	12,722	11,421