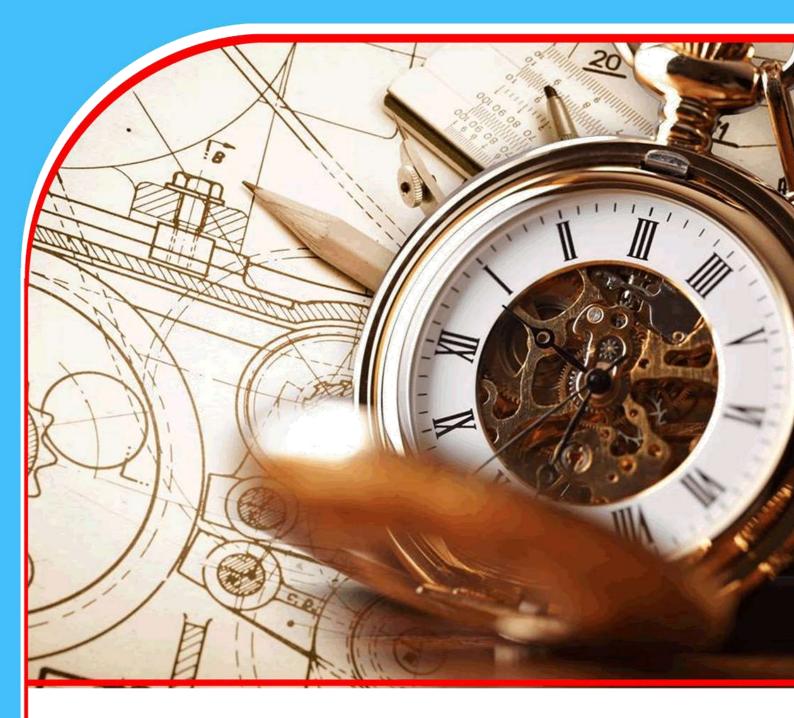
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JAPAN-KENYA RELATIONSHIP, THE HUMAN SECURITY CONCEPT AND KENYA'S BIG FOUR AGENDA

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Abstract

Purpose: This paper sought to explain the concept of human security as a pillar of Japan's foreign policy and to examine the implementation of Japan's foreign policy in its bilateral relations with Kenya specifically by provision of debt aid. In so doing, it sought to highlight Japan's contribution to Kenya in promoting human security by providing debt aid and highlight Kenya's own big four agenda that puts in place measures to enhance human security.

Methodology: The methodology used in this paper entails desk research using secondary sources of data and reviewing existing published scholarly works of various authors and ongoing research as well as employing an empirical study of Japan's relationship with Kenya. Information on the Japan-Kenya relationship has been derived from various Kenya government documents from the National Treasury and Planning Ministry.

Findings: The study shows that, indeed, Japan has been a close development partner to Kenya and has, from Kenya's independence in 1963, extended substantial foreign aid, in terms of debt, to Kenya and has contributed to promotion of human security. Second, Kenya's vision 2030 is in line with the human security concept as encapsulated in the 'Big Four agenda' and Japan has an opportunity of assisting Kenya in its implementation third, Japan's foreign policy's implementation with emphasis on the concept of Human security has had a positive impact on Kenya's economic development over the years as the debt given to Kenya has gone into undertaking projects that address human security.

Unique contribution to theory, practice and policy: The realist theory argues that states are the most important actors in the international system and that world politics is driven by competitive self-interest of these states. Interest is defined in terms of power and more specifically military capabilities. This paper's contribution to knowledge is from the review of the Japan-Kenya bilateral relations which indicates that Japan has operationalized the human security concept through extending ODA to Kenya, specifically to this study is debt aid, for projects that benefit the individual who, as an actor under the human security concept, is of significant importance. While states continue to remain the centre of focus of international relations, the concept of human security and how Japan has used it to underpin its foreign policy has generated benefits for countries such as Kenya. Policy makers of developing countries, especially in the foreign policy space, would benefit from this knowledge and pursue the beneficial aspects of human security for the benefit of their countries.

Keywords: Security, human security, foreign aid, national interests, foreign policy



1.0. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

In 1945, Japan suffered a cataclysmic defeat in the Second World War, surrendered to the allied forces after the twin bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki and entered the American occupation era. Among the efforts made to reconstruct Japan was the drawing up of a new constitution by the American generals in collaboration with the Japanese officials. The new constitution came into effect on May 3, 1947. In Article 9 of the constitution, Japan officially renounces war and aims at international peace based on justice and order. Japan renounces the right to maintain any land, sea and air forces with capacity for war as well as any other war potential and only maintains a self-defence force operating under the United Nations. Article 9 also declares that Japan gives up the right of belligerency of the state and that such belligerency will not be recognized.

Constitutionally barred from any military role in securing international peace and stability, Japan opted to make human security the focus of its foreign policy. Foreign economic assistance is its primary contribution to the peace and stability agenda of the international system. Japan recognizes that economic and social stability in developing countries are indispensable to the maintenance of world peace and stability and its economic assistance has become one of the major elements supporting world stability. One of the countries that Japan has maintained diplomatic bilateral relationship is Kenya that attained its independence in 1963. Japan has extended both financial and technical assistance to Kenya in pursuance of human security.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

With human security concept underpinning Japanese foreign policy, Japan has, since Kenya's independence in 1963, maintained bilateral diplomatic relations with the latter. What is notable is that Japan has extended and continues to extend foreign aid to Kenya in support of various sectors such as food security, education and health. The provision of debt aid to Kenya by Japan and linking this to Kenya's own vision of achieving human security have not been specifically addressed in scholarly works and this study seeks to make a contribution in this area.

2.0WHAT IS HUMAN SECURITY?

Human security as a paradigm emerged post-Cold War to explain global vulnerabilities (Waisová, 2003). The human security concept is a people-centred product of multidisciplinary research that refutes the realist view that the referent for security is the state (Waisová, 2003). Realists assume that most threats are of external origin and, even more importantly, military in nature (Ayoob, 1995). Proponents of human security argue that the proper referent for security is the individual rather than the state. Scholars from varied disciplines such as International Relations, Development studies, Strategic Studies and Human Rights have carried out research on global security and have come up with the main argument that ensuring 'freedom from want' and 'freedom from fear' for all persons is the best way to tackle the problem of global insecurity (UNDP, 1994). They sought to counter the long held narrow notion that security relates to defence of states' territorial borders from external aggression, military security, protection of state interest through foreign policy and



security from nuclear holocaust envisaged in the Mutual Assured Destruction (MAD) of the Cold War era. Human security embraces the dualism of individuality and universality, as well as the indivisibility and personal freedom, of human rights and collective rights (Dorn, 2001). Increased globalization after the Cold War, the decrease of the nuclear threat, democratization challenges in many parts of the world and the increase in human right norms provided the impetus for the epistemological debate on security and development (Nef, 1999).

The central thesis of The United Nations Development Programme's (UNDP) Human Development report of 1994, considered the milestone publication in the field of human security, is that insuring 'freedom from want' and 'freedom from fear' for all persons is the prerequisite for enduring global peace (UNDP, 1994). Human security, however, is not really a new concept having been discussed by the founders of United Nations in 1945. The then US Secretary of State, Edward R. Stettinius identified two important components of human security the first being "the security front where victory is viewed in terms of freedom from fear and second is the economic and social front where victory is in terms of freedom from want and only victory on both fronts can assure the world of enduring peace" (UNDP,1994). On the one hand, freedom from fear focuses on protecting people from violent conflicts with the main efforts are aimed at preventing conflict, resolving existing conflict and building peace (UNDP 1994).On the other hand, freedom from want is the concept that argues that threat agenda must be expanded to include hunger, disease, natural catastrophes as they kill more people than war, terrorism and genocide. Its focus goes beyond violence and lays emphasis on development and security goals (UNDP, 1994).

2.1 Threat Areas

Dr. Mahbub ul Haq, founder of the Human Development Centre drew attention to the concept in the Human Development Report of 1994 whose definition of human security regards the scope of global security as expanded to incorporate threats in seven areas identified as Economic, Food, Health, Environmental, Personal, Community and Political security (Naidu, 2002). Economic Security is the first threat area under which the proponents of the human security argue for assurance of basic income for individuals from productive and paid work or from a public safety net.

The second threat area is food security, where it is advocated that all individuals should have access to basic food. The third threat area of Health security seeks to deal with the guarantee of individuals of protection from diseases and unhealthy lifestyles. Threat area number four is Environmental security concerned with ravages of nature and man made threats in nature and deterioration of the natural environment. The fifth threat defined as personal security deals with protection of people from all forms of physical violence, including domestic violence, terrorism, crime, and exploitation and abuse of children. It identifies various threats such as threats from the state (physical torture), threats from other states (war), threats from other groups of people (ethnic tension), threats from individuals or gangs (crime, street violence), threats directed against women (rape, domestic violence), threats against children based on their vulnerability and dependence (includes physical violence and threats to self-suicide, drug use).

Community security as the sixth threat area seeks to protect people from breakdown of traditional relationships and values as these provide people with a reassuring sense of identity making protection from sectarian and ethnic violence an important factor in the human



security concept. The UNDP 1994 human development report, therefore, identifies the protection of ethnic minorities and indigenous people as a central focus in human security. The last threat area is political security which is concerned with whether states honour and respect their people's basic human rights.

3.0 JAPAN'S FOREIGN POLICY AND THE CONCEPT OF HUMAN SECURITY

After Japan's defeat in World War II in 1945, reconstruction of Japan was undertaken under the occupation of the US. Under the new constitution Japan was forbidden from maintaining any military forces with capacity for war any form of belligerency and Japan chose human security as the central tenet of its foreign policy (Cornelis, 2006). Prime Minister Mr. Tomiichi Murayama, at the special commemorative meeting of the General Assembly of the UN, echoed the concept of human security officially for the first time in October 1995, on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary of the UN. The official pronouncement made was that in addition to national security, human security was a major challenge to the UN. Murayama sought to promote his political principle of portraying Japan as a 'caring society' and the human security concept provided a 'good fit' (Suzuki, 2012). Human security, according to Murayama, embraced the concept of respect for human rights of all world citizens and protection of each person from poverty, disease, oppression and violence (Cornelis, 2006).

In 1998, Mr. Keizo Obuchi, the then Japan's foreign minister, made the official pronouncement that Japan would embrace and promote human security. The Japanese government then actively promoted the concept at the UN and started mainstreaming it in its ODA policy (Edström, 2003). Japan's In 1999, the Japanese created the Trust Fund for Human Security within the UN and in 2001; it initiated the establishment of the Commission on Human Security to redefine the concept based on the experiences of the fund.

In collaboration with Mexico, Japan also created the 'Friends of Human security', an informal network among UN members to further the objectives of human security approach through non-military means. Japan's efforts have resulted in paragraph 143 on human security in the World Summit outcome (A/RES/60/1) of 2005 and UN resolution (A/RES/64/291) 2010. UN resolution (A/RES/64/291) 2010 stresses the right of the people to live in freedom and in dignity, free from poverty and hopelessness. It recognizes that all people are entitled to live free from fear and from want and all should have equal opportunity to live their lives fully and develop their human potential. The resolution committed that the General Assembly of the UN would discuss and define human security as one of the agenda items in their meetings.

Human security was also adopted as an item for the agenda (A/66/L.55) of the 66th session of the General Assembly of the UN in 2012 indicating the high profile position the concept has taken amongst the topics discussed by the UN. Since Murayama, the concept has continued to carry favour with successive Japanese prime ministers, which explains Japan's continued commitments to human security. Indeed, in June 2013 the 5th Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD V), was attended by 250 participants including Mr. Shinzo Abe, the Prime minister, his foreign affairs minister Mr. Fumico Kishida, and Mr. Hailemariam Delasegn the then chair of the African Union (AU). At the symposium on human security on 2nd June 2013, Mr. Abe called for promotion of human security in Africa and efforts to achieve development of the whole continent. Mr. Kishida reiterated Japan's desire and intention of working with TICAD members to formulate the development agenda



for the future which they called the post 2015 development agenda which would help Japan fulfil its responsibilities for the future.

3.1 TICAD: An instrument of Japan's Human Security Agenda

Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD) was formed in 1993 with the objective of assisting in the development of Africa. TICAD focuses on three main priority areas of boosting economic growth, ensuring human security including MDGs and consolidating peace and addressing environmental and climate change issues. Under the first priority area, TICAD underscores the importance of South-South cooperation. Under the second priority area, Japan positions human security as one of its key foreign policy tenet with ODA as a key instrument of its implementation to enable it to respond to the diverse but complexly related threats effectively. These threats include poverty, environmental degradation and communicable diseases. The third priority area addresses environmental and climate change issues. Noting that Africa faces the greatest risk related to climate change, Japan promotes development of adaptation strategies to climate change and development of renewable and alternative energy with appropriate technology (Japan, 2017).

3.2 JICA: Implementing Agency for Japan's Foreign Policy and Human Security

To be able to implement the policy decisions, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) was formed in 1974. It was established as a semi-governmental organization under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) and its mandate was to administer Overseas Development Assistance (ODA). It was re-launched in 2008 as an independent administrative institution. Sadako Ogata, the then president of JICA, said at the launch of new JICA that new JICA's objective is to contribute to developing countries' socio-economic development and enhance Japan's international cooperation (JICA, 2008). Japan has, therefore, been the source of capital and provides a market for developing countries' exports.

Development assistance constitutes the largest element of Japan's contributions to the international community and it is one of Japan's foreign policy instruments since the end of the Second World War. The development assistance administered by JICA is in two categories; bilateral and multilateral assistance. Under the multilateral category, assistance is given through multilateral organizations such as UNDP and UNICEF through contributions and subscriptions while under the bilateral category, assistance is given in terms of loan aid, grant aid and technical assistance. Loan aid is the provision of capital on concessional basis. These are long term, low-cost yen financing instruments at lower interest rates compared to commercial loans. These are usually larger amounts than those allowed under grant aid and technical assistance. The funds are given for development of different sectors of the economy including, inter alia, agriculture, infrastructure and health.

ODA loans are of two types; project loans and non-project loans. Project loans account for the largest portion of ODA loans. They finance projects in the roads and power sectors, irrigation, water services and provision of sewerage facilities. They are used for procurement of goods (especially equipment) and services or for constructing civil and other related works. Project type loans also cover engineering service loans which are given for engineering services, necessary at the survey and the planning stages of projects. The services include reviewing of the feasibility studies carried out, surveying of detailed data on the sites where the projects are to be situated, reviewing project designs and preparing of bidding documents.



JICA also extends financial intermediary loans and these are extended through the recipient country's financial systems and are used to provide necessary funds to implement designated policies such as Promotion of Small and Medium scale enterprises (SMES) in agriculture, manufacturing, industries and construction of facilities to improve living standards of the poor. Under the loan type category, sector loans can be extended for materials and equipment, consulting and services required for implementation of development plans in a specific sector consisting of multiple sub-projects. This type of loan usually lead to improve policies and systems in the sector.

Under the non-project loans category, the loans are given for assisting countries seeking to improve policies and implement general systems reforms. They support implementation of national strategies or of poverty reduction strategies over longer time spans. The second type of non-project loans advanced by Japan are the commodity loans. These are loans given for stabilization of the economy and they provide settlement funds for urgent and essential imports of materials to developing countries such as industrial machinery and raw materials, fertilizers and pesticides, agricultural and other kinds of machinery. The third non-project loan type is sector program loan which is a type of counterpart funds used in simultaneously supporting development policies in prioritized sectors of developing countries.

Grant aid is the provision of funds for socio-economic development with no obligation to pay back on the part of the recipient. It is targeted at developing countries with low income levels and covers a wide spectrum of cooperation related to the future of the developing countries including construction of hospitals, bridges and other socio-economic infrastructure as well as promotion of education program, health, HIV/AIDS awareness, children's health and environmental activities that directly improve the standards of living of the targeted communities. It can be used for technical guidance and development of human resources resulting in more effective cooperation.

Japan realizes that financial assistance alone is not enough to take care of the developing countries' needs that are diverse and multifaceted. While some of the needs can be met by improving situations through financial cooperation, construction facilities and providing equipment, there is also need to pursue cooperation focused on problem-solving capacities of developing countries ensuring self-reliant and sustainable development outcomes. Hence Japan also provides technical cooperation that is defined as JICA's practical assistance to developing countries whose objective is to enable the developing countries develop problem solving capacities and achieve economic growth. Technical assistance draws on Japanese technology, know-how and experience to help nurture human resources, who in turn will promote socio-economic development in developing countries. It supports human resources development, research and development, technology dissemination and development of institutional frameworks that are essential for development of economies and societies in developing countries. It includes JICA experts being dispatched to developing countries to disseminate necessary technology and knowledge to the partner government's officials who are referred to as counterparts. The experts cooperate with the counterparts in developing and spreading technologies and institutions suited to the conditions in those countries as well as carrying awareness raising campaigns. Considering the regional characteristics, historical background and language, JICA may dispatch experts from the other developing countries other than Japan to assist in efficiently delivering services.



Other than dispatching of experts, JICA invites personnel from developing countries who have significant responsibilities in social and economic development to Japan to participate in training programs to enable them obtain knowledge and technologies needed in their home countries. Training programs are also organized in partner countries or in third countries. The third tool used in technical cooperation is provision of equipment. This is to say that equipment needed by experts for implementing effective cooperation is provided to the partner countries.

4.0 JAPAN-KENYA BILATERAL RELATIONS AND THE HUMAN SECURITY CONCEPT

Japan first opened its embassy in Kenya in 1964, one year after Kenya attained its independence and official recognition by Japan. In 1967, Kenya likewise opened an embassy in Tokyo. Kenya has since been the gateway and hub for Eastern and Central Africa and holds a special position in Japan's diplomatic relations with the region. Kenya's capital, Nairobi, is today considered the regional headquarters for Japan's major activities in the East African region and also plays host to one of the largest Japanese communities in Africa.

Kenya is the largest recipient of Japanese ODA in Africa and hosts several regional assistance projects. Japan has been Kenya's leading development partner and the former's development assistance plays a crucial role in the development of Kenya. The priority sectors that Japan has been involved in include human resource development, agriculture, economic infrastructure, health, education and development. Japanese ODA for Kenya is in form of grant aid, loan aid and technical cooperation.

Japan, in pursuit of the human security agenda has provided loan aid to Kenya for different development projects. Loans have been extended to the government as well as to the state owned enterprises (SOEs). Table 1 shows the outstanding loans given to the government of Kenya. The table 2 shows the outstanding loans extended to the SOEs and Table 3 shows the loans that have matured and are fully paid off. The tables show the spectrum of development areas where Japan has been involved in provision of loan financing in Kenya which touch on various aspects of human security. For instance, the tables show loans going towards food security such as the loan for purchase of rice when Kenya faced food shortage, construction of grain silos, irrigation projects and agricultural services. Other loans have gone towards provision of water such as the Nakuru water supply and Nairobi water supply. Other areas towards which some of the loans were channelled are those that support economic development such as those that were used for electricity generation projects, which in turn go to support industrial activity. Industrial activity supports economic growth and improvement of human security. Japan has also supported the construction of electricity transmission lines which improves electricity distribution in the country. The tables indicate that Japan has provided a total of US\$3,137 in loans to the government of Kenya as part of its foreign policy strategy underpinned by the human security paradigm.

JICA has been pivotal in assisting Kenya's development projects and JICA (2016:8) reports that "for each project undertaken, JICA focuses not only on the improvement of infrastructure and processes; but also ensures that the quality of life for the populations and cultures in the areas impacted by JICA is emphasised". Indeed Kenya is in a pivotal position to act as a hub of TICAD-aligned assistance and is leading the TICAD process as it implements various programs that have resulted from previous TICAD engagements (JICA, 2016).



Kenya has also received loans to support renewable energy such as the loan given to Kenya Electricity Generation Company (KEN GEN) for the construction of Olkaria-Lessos-Kisumu Transmission Lines. JICA (2017) reports that Kenya has been promoting geothermal development as clean, reliable and affordable energy resource for stable energy supply and Japan has shared its geothermal energy expertise and its high quality manufacture for decades under this policy (JICA, 2017). This is in support of the human security agenda area on environmental security and sustainable development.



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Table1: Outstanding Japanese	Loan Aid to Kenya
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S/No.	Date Signe d	Title	Commitment ¥ (Mn)	Commitment In US\$ Equivalent (Mn)*
1	1989	Engineering Services. Sondu/Miriu Hydropower Project	668	6.0
2	1990	Mombasa Airport Improvement Project	9,010	82.0
3	1990	Tana Basin Development Road Project II	6,523	59.4
4	1991	Financial Sector Adjustment Programme	6,942	63.2
5	1993	Export Development Loan	8,242	75.0
6	1993	Mwea Irrigation Project	572	5.2
7	1993	Horticultural Handling Project	2,016	18.4
8	2010	Mwea Irrigation project ph. 2	13,178	120.0
9	2010	Olkaria-Lessos-Kisumu Transmission Lines Construction Project	12,410	113.0
10	2012	Mombasa Port area project	27,691	252.0
11	2015	Health Sector Policy for Attainment of the Universal	4,000	36.0
12	2016	Olkaria V Geothermal Power Development Project	45,690	416.0
13	2017	Mombasa Port Area Development Project II	12,446	113.0
14	2018	Olkaria 1 Units 1,2 and 3 Geothermal Power Plant Rehabilitation Project	10,077	92.0
		TOTAL	159,465	1,451.2

Source: The National Treasury-Kenya.



*The US\$ equivalent derived by currency conversion using the rate of ¥1 to US\$0.0091 on 11th May 2019

Table 1 shows loans lent to the government of Kenya to the tune 1,451 out of the total loans given to Kenya of US\$3,137. The loans are yen denominated and have long repayment periods of up to 40 years with grace periods of 10 years. The loans are concessional in nature and have been a pivotal pillar of Japanese foreign policy.

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Table 2: Outstanding Kenya Government-Guaranteed Japanese loans to SOEs					
S/No ·	Date Signe d	Title	Borrower (SOE)	Commitment ¥ (Mn)	Commitmen t In US\$ Equivalent (Mn)*
1	1989	K.B.C. Modernisation Project	Kenya Broadcasting Corp.	16,198	147.0
2	1990	Tana Delta Irrigation Project	Tana & Athi Rivers Development Authority	16,031	146.0
3	1990	Cement Plant Rehabilitation Project.	East African Portland Cement	7,674	69.9
4	1995	Mombasa Diesel Power Generating Plant	Kenya Electricity Generating Co.	10,716	97.6
5	1997	Sondu-Miriu Hydro Power Project	Kenya Electricity Generating Co.	6,900	62.8
6	2004	Sondu-Miriu Hydro Power Project II	Kenya Electricity Generating Co.	10,554	96.1
7	2007	Sondu- Miriu Hydropower San'goro Power Station.	Kenya Electricity Generating Co.	5,620	51.2
8	2007	MombasaPortModernizationProject(KPA)	Kenya Ports Authority	26,711	243.2
9	2010	Olkaria 1 Unit 4 and 5 Geothermal Power Project	Kenya Electricity Generating Co.	29,560	269.2
		TOTAL		129,964	1,183

Table 2. Autstanding Kenya Covernment-Guaranteed Jananese Joans to SAFs

Source: The National Treasury-Kenya. *The US\$ equivalent derived by currency conversion using the rate of ¥1 to US\$0.0091 on 11th May 2019



Table 2 shows the loans lent to Kenya's State Owned Enterprises to the tune of US\$1,183 out of the total loans of US\$ 3.137 extended to Kenya. These loans, in line with the human security agenda, have been provided with the objective of enhancing Kenya's economic growth and ensuring security of the individual as contemplated under the human security paradigm.



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Table 3: Kenya Government Matured Debts from Japan					
S/N o.	Date Sign ed	Title	Borrower (SOE)	Commitme nt ¥(Mn)	Commitment In US\$ Equivalent (Mn)*
1	1978	Rural Roads Project Project	GoK	3,361	31
2	1980	Telecommunication modernization project	GoK	7,760	71
3	1982	Tana Basin Road Construction Project	GoK	6,100	56
4	1983	Purchase of Rice	GoK	792	7
5	1983	Telecommunication modernization project Phase II	GoK	3,840	35
6	1984	Commodity Loan Project I	GoK	785	7
7	1984	Engineering services Grain and Silo Construction	GoK	307	3
8	1985	Grain and Silo Construction	GoK	4,443	40
9	1986	Kilifi Bridge Construction	GoK	4,681	43
10	1987	Grater Nakuru Water Supply	GoK	4,011	36
	1987	Tana Delta Irrigation Authority	GoK	441	4
	1988	Agricultural Sector Adjustment Project	GoK	7,646	70
	1989	Nairobi Water Supply Project	GoK	3,922	36
	1989	Commodity Loan Project III	GoK	7,199	66
		TOTAL		55,288	503

Source: The National Treasury

Table 3 shows the loans lent to Kenya but have now matured. Out of the total loans of US\$3,137 given to Kenya, US\$ 503 has matured. From Table 3, it is also evident that the loans were extended for various projects that enhance human security.

5.0 KENYA'S VISION 2030 AND HUMAN SECURITY

Kenya's Vision 2030 is the long-term vision prepared to guide Kenya's development for twenty five years from 2007 up to the year 2030. Vision 2030 aims to create a globally



competitive and prosperous country with a high quality of life by 2030. Its main objective is to transform Kenya into a newly-industrializing, middle-income country providing a high quality of life to all its citizens in a clean and secure environment (Kenya, 2007). The Vision 2030 is anchored on three pillars. The three pillars are economic, social, and political governance pillars. The economic pillar aims to achieve an average GDP growth rate of 10 per cent per annum from 2012 and sustain the same till 2030. The social pillar aims to build a just and cohesive society that enjoys equitable social development in a clean and secure environment while the political pillar envisages the creation of a democratic political system that is issue-based, people-centred and, result-oriented and accountable to the public. The Vision is a product of extensive consultations with stakeholders including business leaders, top public sector officials, parliamentarians, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and the wider public, as well as international experts (Otieno & Ndung'u, 2010).

The vision is implemented through five year development plans known as Medium Term Plans (MTPs). The first MTP was implemented from 2007 to 2013, the second one from 2013 to 2017 while the third, launched in December 2017, runs from 2018 to 2022. Of interest to this study is the MTP 3 that runs from 2018 to 2022 under which the government of Kenya has come up with the 'Big Four' agenda (Kenya, 2018). The Big Four agenda is the government's strategic agenda over five years (2018-2022) whose thrust is to implement projects and policies that will accelerate economic growth and transform lives by creating jobs, enabling Kenyans to meet their basic needs, improve health standards, improve living conditions, lower cost of living and reduce poverty and inequality (Kenya, 2018a). The four pillars of the Big Four are identified as Manufacturing, Affordable housing, Universal Health coverage and Food and nutrition security.

Under the manufacturing pillar the government seeks to support value addition and raise the share of the manufacturing sector to 15% of GDP. The Government aims to continuing to support job creation by increasing the manufacturing base and supporting innovation across the entire value chain through buying of new solutions, building own solutions, or partnering with others to innovate. This will address the key requirement under the human security paradigm that speaks to economic security as the first threat area and calls for assurance of basic income for individuals from productive and paid work or from a public safety net (UNDP, 1994). This will lead to less unemployment especially of the youth in Kenya taking cognizance of the view that unemployment is a cause of problems that underpin political tensions and ethnic violence (UNDP, 1994).

The second pillar of the big four plan is the provision of affordable and decent housing for all Kenyans. Under this pillar, the Government aims to meet a constitutional right enshrined in Article 43(1) (b) of the Constitution of Kenya on the right to accessible and adequate housing. Through the affordable housing project the Government targets to support provision of at least 500,000 affordable houses to Kenyans by 2022. This will target the more than 6.4 million Kenyans who are currently living in slums due to unavailability of affordable housing and contribute to the human security by providing decent shelter for the people.

Providing universal health coverage to guarantee quality and affordable healthcare to all Kenyans is the third pillar. Over four years, from 2018-2022, the Government plans to implement policies and programmes under the Universal Health Coverage Pillar. The primary



goal of these initiatives is to increase access to quality health care and reduce medical costs incurred by Kenyans and address the third threat area of health security that seeks to deal with the guarantee of individuals of protection from diseases and unhealthy lifestyles (UNDP, 1994). This will enable Kenya to deal with diseases that many developing countries are concerned with including epidemics, such as cholera, HIV/AIDS and preventable diseases like malaria and maternal and child deaths.

The fourth pillar of the big four agenda is enhancing food and nutrition security to all Kenyans by 2022. The Government plans continue to implement measures in the agricultural sector in order to ensure food and nutrition security (Kenya, 2019). The focus is on expanding irrigation schemes, increasing access to agricultural inputs, implementing programs to support smallholder farmers, fisher folk and pastoralists to sustainably produce and market various commodities, and supporting large-scale production of staples (Kenya, 2019). The implementation of this pillar speaks to the second human security threat area of food security, where it is advocated that all individuals should have access to basic food (UNDP, 1994). The government of Kenya seeks not only to ensure that all individuals will access food but nutritious food which in turn will contribute to lessening diseases that come due to poor nutrition.

The big four agenda is basically, even without the government calling it so, a strategy to improve human security as seen in the four pillars. As discussed earlier, Japan has been involved in Kenya's development projects in support of this same agenda and remains one of Kenya's close development partner. Japan is, therefore, in a strategic position to assist Kenya achieve progress in implementing human security through the big four agenda.

6.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1 Conclusion

In perspective, Japan's policy of human security has met various degrees of success in terms of impact on Kenya's development. Japan's provision of debt to Kenya has enabled Kenya to undertake various development projects that contributed to various aspects of human security such as irrigation to support food security and generation of electricity to support economic security. Further, the government of Kenya has taken steps to improve human security through the big four agenda. The four pillars that underpin the big four plan address four different threat areas as identified in UNDP (1994). If successfully implemented, the big four plan will go a long way in improving the human security in Kenya.

6.2 Recommendation

While it is remarkable that Kenya is taking steps to improve human security, it is also to be noted that implementation of the big four plan requires large amounts of financial resources which Kenya may not have at its disposal. Further, Japan has developed and maintains bilateral diplomatic relations with Kenya and the relationship continues to be cordial. It would indeed be beneficial to Kenya to deepen the relationship with Japan and take advantage of the ODA, a foreign policy tool used by Japan, to implement the big four agenda pillars that will go a long way in enhancing human security for Kenyans. American Journal of Public Policy and Administration

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