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 - Two main conceptions
 - Selected reports
2. Contemporary situation in East Africa
 - Demarcation of region
 - Situation in region after the end of the Cold War (in general)
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I declare in lieu of oath that I wrote this thesis myself. All information derived from the work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.

Olomouc, 2007

.....
Signature

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List of abbreviations

ABHS	Advisory Board on Human Security
ASEAN	Association of South East Asian Nations
AU	African Union
BICC	Bonn International Center for Conversion
CCM	Revolutionary State Party (Chama Cha Mapinduzi)
CHS	Commission on Human Security
CUF	Civic United Front
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EU	European Union
FORD	Forum for the Restoration of Democracy
FDC	Forum for Democratic Change
GDP	Gross domestic product
GTZ	German Agency for Technical Cooperation (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit)
HDI	Human development index
HDR	Human Development Report
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
HSC	Human Security Centre
HSN	Human Security Network

HSU	Human Security Unit
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IRIN	Integrated Regional Information Networks
ITCZ	Inter-tropical convergence zone
KANU	Kenya African National Union
KNMI	Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (Koninklijk Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut)
LRA	Lord´s Resistance Army
MDG´s	Millenium Development Goals
NARC	National Rainbow Coalition
NFA	National Forestry Authority
NRA	National Resistance Army
OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
RVF	Rift Valley Fever
TB	Tuberculosis
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNTFHS	United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security

UNU-EHS	United Nations University - Institute for Environment and Human Security
WFP	World Food Programme
WMO	World Meteorological Organization

1. Introduction

If somebody ask me: „What is your first association when I say security threat?“, I would probably answer: „Weapons and war“. And I am convinced that majority inhabitants of so-called rich North, or if you want developed countries, has still perception of security conected mainly with national security which could be threatened by war. No wonder if we realized that in previous century two World Wars and one Cold War took place during which two superpowers threaten each other by using of nuclear and mass destruction weapons and national security was the priority and the main national interest.

However, there always exist many things that threaten human life and feeling of safety, such a deadly diseases, natural disasters, despotic ruler, lack of food etc. But never in the past was attention paid to these issues qua a threats to the security of people. Even they apparently are.

Personally I find very useful and interesting to pay attention to these issues and attach importance to the attempt of their elimination because in today´s world these issues cause much more deaths and afflictions then ´clasic wars and weapons´. That is why I chose this topic for my thesis.

1.1. Objective

The first objective of this thesis is to inform readers about concept of human security, that slowly but surely start to be influential in development issues and policy making. This concept is people-centred and try to comprehend all current events that endanger or even make impossible to live a full-value life and try to find an appropriate ways of solution.

The second one is to put near the problems and events that threaten people in the chosen region of East Africa.

1.2. Structure

The theme 'human security' is quite broad and involves many aspects. There are many theories and criticisms. It would be difficult and boring to present all of them. That is why I decided to omit some explicitly academic debates and I rather focus on situation in a concrete region.

Thesis is conceived to three parts. The first part deals with different points of views on human security and introduces advocates of two main concepts of human security. Purport of the second part is a short presentation of the region of East Africa, its geography, political and economic situation. In this part I also present three problems that are threatening, threatened in the recent past or would threat in future the particular states of the region. The last part is about threat that, according to me, could be the worst in the future not only for East Africa – climate change. At first I bring evidence of extreme events related to the climate and then I focus on one of them, drought, and its impact on the life of Kenya's pastoralists.

2. Methodology

The objective of this thesis is to provide some basic information about relatively new concept of human security and briefly sum up the state of human (in)security in the region of East Africa. The region has been chosen because I had chance to visit Kenya and Tanzania this year on February/March turn.

As was said thesis has three different parts. The first, explicitly theoretical part is compilation based on the broad qualitative literature survey. As the main sources of information were used studies (reports, articles) published by respected international organizations, such as The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), The United Nations University - Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), The Human Security Centre (HSC), The Commission on Human Security (CHS), written by researchers and experts who are concerned with human security.

The second part treats the region generally of and recent situation in it. As the sources for the second part were used data from government's web sites of particular country, statistics from the 2006 Human Development Report (HDR), informations from The European Journal of Development Research, The World Meteorological Organization (WMO), news from Reuters, BBC or The Integrated Regional Information Networks (IRIN) etc.

The last part deals with concrete threat for human security – climate change. In this part were used scientific articles published in The Developments, extracts from The Christian Aid Report and so on.

3. New Security Paradigm

Traditional concept of 'national' or 'state' security, which had purpose during the Cold War and which stands on premises that most threats come from the outside and that these threats are primarily of a military nature, is now a bit out-of-date. [Debiel, 2004, p. 52] And not only because 'classic' wars between states almost disappeared.

The 'evolution' of threats has changed human understanding of insecurities. Suddenly it has been apparent that lives of millions of people are being threatened not only by international war and conflict but also by civil violence, transnational terrorism, organised crime, weapons of mass destruction, hunger, chronic poverty, environmental degradation and disasters, and deadly infectious diseases. [Human Security – Background; OCHA]

And it was inevitable to expand the concept of security, which had „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 nuclear holocaust.“ [Human Development Report, 1994, p. 22] Human security was thus meant to change the referent object of security „from an exclusive stress on territorial security to a much greater stress on people's security.“ [Human Development Report, 1994, p. 24]

Simply said it was necessary to shift attention from the security of the state to the security of the people – to human security. [Ogata; Sen (eds.), 2003, p. 2]

4. Definition of Human Security

The concept of human security was born in the 'policy world', not in the 'world of academics or analysts'¹. [Krause, 2004, p. 43]

The first mentions of the idea of human security we can find out in reports of global commissions in the 1970s and 1980s. Such as in reports of The Brandt Commission, The Brundtland Commission and The Commission on Global Governance. But it was not until the 1994 United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Human Development Report that the 'human security' was used for the first time in a serious way. That means that in this report the human security was introduced as a distinctive new concept. Since then the concept has been refined by subsequent reports (not only UN reports), so until today there have been

¹ In contrast to environmental security where academic debate influenced policy agenda of several international organizations. [Brauch, 2005, p. 22]

created several more or less diverse concepts of human security. [Human Security – Background; OCHA]

The policy debate on human security had a direct impact on the academic debate where after 10 years no common definition on human security has emerged². [Brauch, 2005, p. 23]

But despite of absence of one universal, by all accepted definition, and despite of diversity of particular conceptions we can define, in ‘policy world’, two competing visions of human security – the broad one and the narrow one, whereas both of them agree that primary goal is the protection of human beings. Consensus breaks down over precisely what threats individuals should be protected from. [Mack; Nielsen (eds.), 2005, p. VIII]

Now I am going to introduce briefly the main visions and fundamental reports and their editors. Concretely UNDP and its 1994 Human Development Report, The Commission on Human Security (CHS) and its report Human Security Now (both broad vision) and The Human Security Centre (HSC) and its 2005 Human Security Report (narrow vision).

4.1. The broad vision of human security

The broad vision is closely linked to the original UNDP formulation and according to Krause can be summarized by the phrase ‘freedom from want’. Human security in this concept is about ensuring basic human needs in economic, food, health, environmental and social terms and is focused on broad range of threats to individuals. [Krause, 2004, p. 44]

4.1.1. United Nations Development Programme

4.1.1.1. Human Development Report

The annual Human Development Report, commissioned by UNDP, focuses the global debate on key development issues, providing new measurement tools, innovative analysis and often controversial policy proposals. In 1994 UNDP introduced a new concept of human

² Alkire in Security Dialogue (Sept. 2004, p. 359) noted more than 30 definitions:

Some focus mainly on threats from wars and internal conflicts, sometimes including a focus on criminal and domestic violence; others focus on threats from preventable disease, economic hardship, or financial crisis – the threats of poverty and want; while a third group considers both types of threats – often described as ‘fear’ and ‘want’ ... as well as the processes by which people protect themselves and are protected. [Brauch, 2005, p. 23]

security which equated security with people rather than territories, with development rather than arms.

The report identified the following four essential characteristics of human security:

- 1) Human security is a *universal* concern. It is relevant to people everywhere, in rich nations and poor.
- 2) The components of human security are *interdependent*.
- 3) Human security is *easier to ensure through early prevention* than later intervention. It is less costly to meet these threats upstream than downstream.
- 4) Human security is *people-centred*. It is concerned with how people live and breathe in a society, how freely they exercise their many choices, how much access they have to market and social opportunities – and whether they live in conflict or in peace. [Human Development Report, 1994, p. 22; 23]

And finally defined human security as:

„Safety from chronic threats such as hunger, disease and repression.“

„Protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life – whether in jobs, in homes or in communities.“ [Human Development Report, 1994, p. 23]

The report further mentioned that threats to human security should be considered under seven main categories: economic security, food security, environmental security, health security, personal security, community security and political security. [Human Development Report, 1994, p. 24; 25] Mack assigns to each ‘security’ the main threat.

Main threats to particular type of security

Type of security	Threat
Economic	Poverty
Food	Hunger and famine
Health	Injury and disease
Environmental	Pollution, environmental degradation and resource depletion
Personal	Various forms of violence
Community	Desintegration of cultures
Political	Political repression

Table 1
processed according to Mack [Mack, 2004, p. 50]

Except UNDP, the advocate of broad vision is The Commission on Human Security (CHS) which is in its report focused on issues of fair trade, access to health care, patent rights, access to education and basic human freedoms. [Krause, 2004, p. 44]

4.1.2. CHS – Commission on Human Security

In March 1999, the Government of Japan and The United Nations Secretariat launched The United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS). The UNTFHS, open to UN agencies, started its activities under the management of The United Nations (UN) Controller. The majority of funding was directed towards developmental concerns including key thematic areas such as health, education, agriculture and small scale infrastructure development.

At the 2000 United Nations Millennium Summit, The UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan called upon the world community to advance the twin goals of ‘freedom from fear’ and ‘freedom from want’. Thanks to his words, initiative of the Government of Japan and as a contribution to this effort, was in January 2001 established an independent Commission on Human Security (CHS). The Commission consisted of twelve prominent international figures, including Mrs. Sadako Ogata (former UN High Commissioner for Refugees) and Professor Amartya Sen (1998 Nobel Laureate in Economics)³.

In May 2003, after two years of deliberation, the CHS submitted its final report, entitled Human Security Now, to The UN Secretary-General. Based on recommendations of the CHS The Advisory Board on Human Security (ABHS)⁴ was established, which on its first meeting on 16th September 2003 agreed new priorities for the UNTFHS. The new priorities

³ Sadako Ogata and Amartya Sen are co-chairs, commissioners are: Lakhdar Brahimi (Special Representative of the UN Secretary-General for Afghanistan and UN Under Secretary-General), Lincoln C. Chen (Director, Global Equity Initiative, Harvard University, and former Vice President of the Rockefeller Foundation), Bronislaw Geremek (former Foreign Minister of Poland), Frene Frenny Noshir Ginwala (Speaker of the National Assembly of the Parliament, Republic of South Africa), Sonia Picado S. (President of the Board of Directors of the Inter-American Institute of Human Rights), Surin Pitsuwan (Member of Parliament and former Minister of Foreign Affairs, Thailand), Donna E. Shalala (President of the University of Miami and former Secretary of Health and Human Services, United States), Peter Sutherland (Chairman and Managing Director, Goldman Sachs International, Chairman of BP and former Director-General of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade), Albert Tevoedjre (Special Envoy of the UN Secretary-General for Côte d’Ivoire, former Deputy Director General of the International Labour Organization and former Minister of Planning, Benin), Carl Tham (Swedish Ambassador to Germany and former Secretary-General of the Olof Palme Centre). [Ogata; Sen (eds.), 2003, p. iii]

⁴ The ABHS was established to carry forward the recommendations of the CHS and advise the UN Secretary-General on: the general guidelines for the UNTFHS; methods to increase the impact of projects and activities funded by the UNTFHS; ways to promote and disseminate the human security concept and deepen its understanding and acceptance worldwide. [Human Security Unit: Overview and Objectives, 2004, p. 1]

were formulated on the basis of illation of final report. [Human Security Unit: Overview and Objectives, 2004, p. 1]

4.1.2.1. Human Security Now

As was written thereinbefore Human Security Now is tittle of final report, which evolved after two-year activity of the CHS. In Human Security Now is human security defines as the protection of „the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfilment. Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms – freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people’s strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity“. [Ogata; Sen (eds.), 2003, p. 4]

Human security is far more than the absence of violent conflict. It encompasses human rights, good governance and access to economic opportunity, education and health care and ensuring that each individual has opportunities and choices to fulfil his or her own potential. Every step in this direction is also a step towards reducing poverty, achieving economic growth and preventing conflict.

Human security connects different types of freedoms – freedom from want, freedom from fear and freedom to take action on one’s behalf. [Ogata; Sen (eds.), 2003, p. 4]

To attain the goals of human security, the Commission proposes a framework based on two general strategies: protection and empowerment. Protection requires concerted effort to develop the norms, processes and institutions that systematically address insecurities and shield people from pervasive and critical threats. It implies a ‘top-down’ approach, that means that states have the primary responsibility to implement such a protective structure. However, international and regional organizations, non-governmental and the private sector and civil society also play a crucial role in protecting people from menaces. [Outline of the Report of the Commission on Human Security, 2003, p. 1]

Empowerment enables people to make informed choices and to act on their own behalf through developing their potential.

Protection and empowerment are mutually reinforcing, and both are required in most situations. People protected can exercise many choises and people empowered can demand respect for their dignity when it is violated, address many problems locally and so avoid some

risks and also demands improvements in the systems of protection. And finally they can mobilize for the security of others. [Ogata; Sen (eds.), 2003, p. 11; 12]

The report is comprehensive and deals with many issues. The CHS in the terms of the report has arrived at policy conclusions in the following areas: protecting people in violent conflict, protecting people from the proliferation of arms, supporting the security of people on the move, establishing human security transition funds for post-conflict situations, encouraging fair trade and markets to benefit the extreme poor, working to provide minimum living standards everywhere, according higher priority to ensuring universal access to basic health care, developing an efficient and equitable global system for patent rights, empowering all people with universal basic education, clarifying the need for a global human identity while respecting the freedom of individuals. [Ogata; Sen (eds.), 2003, p. 133]

For each of these policy conclusions alliances of key actors should be supported – networks of public, private and civil actors who can help develop norms, embark on integrated activities and monitor progress and performance. Such efforts could create a horizontal, cross-border source of legitimacy that complements traditional vertical structures. This array of alliances could begin to give voice to a nascent international public opinion. Human security could serve as a catalytic concept that links many existing initiatives. [Ogata; Sen (eds.), 2003, p. 142]

4.1.3. Human Security Unit

Year after publication of Human Security Now, in May 2004, The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) established The Human Security Unit (HSU). Its overall objective is to place human security in the mainstream of UN activities. By combining the management of the UNTFHS with the dissemination and promotion activities of the ABHS, the HSU plays a pivotal role in translating the concept of human security into concrete activities and highlighting the added value of the human security approach as proposed by the CHS. [Human Security Unit: Overview and Objectives, 2004, p. 1]

The broad vision of human security is today widely used by many non-governmental and international organizations like Oxfam, Pax Christi, Saferworld, the Worldwatch Institute, the Center for Humanitarian Dialogue etc. because in this concept human security is as lens, a way of describing or framing what they are doing. [Krause, 2004, p. 44]

4.2. The narrow vision of human security

The narrow vision is linked to the activities of The Human Security Network (HSN). [Krause, 2004, p. 44] Proponents of this more tightly focused vision claim that there are already several reports describing and analyzing trends in global poverty, disease, malnutrition and ecological devastation... the threats embraced by the broad concept. But there are no reports that map the trends in the incidence, severity, causes and consequences of global violence. For them human security is about removing use of, or threat of, force and violence from people's everyday lives. As a key slogan they use 'fear from fear' and focus 'only' on violent threats to individuals. [Mack; Nielsen (eds.), 2005, p. VIII]

This narrow concept gives rise to a concrete agenda for political action which includes range of issues such as: eliminating the scourge of anti-personnel land-mines, stopping the use of child soldiers and implementing effective demobilization and reintegration programs for them, combating proliferation and misuse of small arms and light weapons, promoting good governance in the security sector etc. [Krause, 2004, p. 44; 45]

Among proponents of the narrow vision belong The Human Security Network (HSN), The Human Security Centre (HSC), The Bonn International Center for Conversion (BICC).

4.2.1. HSC – Human Security Centre

The Human Security Centre, which is based at The Liu Institute for Global Issues at The University of British Columbia in Vancouver, Canada, was established in 2002 by the Honourable Lloyd Axworthy⁵. Today the HSC has ten regular employees, including director Andrew Mack, who thinks of human security as „the protection of individuals and communities from war and others forms of violence“. [Latest news and information; HSC]

Mission of the centre is to make human security-related research more accessible to the policy and research communities, the media, educators and the public. The centre undertakes independent research and works with a large network of collaborators in research institutions around the world. [Mack; Nielsen (eds.), 2005, p. VI]

In 2005, after three years in making and with support from five governments the HSC's flagship publication was published – *Human Security Report: War and Peace in the*

⁵ Former Canadian minister for foreign affairs and then Director of the Liu Institute. Dr. Axworthy had promoted the concept of human security vigorously while in office and continues to do so in his current position as president and vice-chancellor of the University of Winnipeg. [Mack; Nielsen (eds.), 2005, p. VI]

*21st Century*⁶ that „presents a comprehensive and evidence-based portrait of global security. It identifies and examines major trends in global political violence, asks what factors drive these trends and examines some of the consequences. It poses major challenges to conventional wisdom.“ [Mack; Nielsen (eds.), 2005, p.1]

Its primary goal is to provide the data and analysis and so displace some myths and misunderstandings by evidence.

This was a brief presentation of the main documents and organizations conversant with the concept of human security. On account of limited space and because I would like to have my thesis not only theoretical, I am obliged to omit academic theories and criticisms of particular concepts of human security, and target the situation in the chosen region. I must point out that I will not comprehend all above-mentioned dimensions of human security and that I will not come up with some exact evidence or measures of insecurity. I only offer some concrete problems which are now actual in East Africa.

⁶ Which is complemented by *The Human Security Gateway*, an online database of human security resources, and two online bulletins, *The Human Security News* and *The Human Security Research*. [Latest news and information; HSC]

5. Human security in East Africa

In this part of thesis I will demarcate the region, tell something about its geography, climate, political events occurred after the end of the Cold War, sum up in brief the economic situation and present particular events that endanger people's safety in this region.

5.1. Demarcation of region

There are several definitions of East Africa in geographical literature. According to Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (Koninklijk Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut; KNMI) is East Africa defined as the area astride the Equator from 10°S to 5°N and eastward of 28°E. [Climate Change in Africa; KNMI, 2006] Cole for the easternmost part of the African continent uses name Eastern Africa which according to him refers to Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda [Cole, 1996, p. 294] According to Wikipedia East Africa refers to Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. [East Africa; Wikipedia, 2007] Rwanda and Burundi sometimes are added. These five states are nowadays members of The East African Community (EAC)⁷. I will work with the narrowest definition, it means I will focus on Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda.

Map of East Africa



Map 1

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⁷ Rwanda and Burundi joined the EAC on 30th November 2006 [Rwanda Information Exchange]

Basic facts

	Republic of Kenya	United Republic of Tanzania	Republic of Uganda
Area (sq km)	580,367	945,087	236,040
Population	28,686,607* (34,707,817**)	34,443,603* (37,445,392**)	24,227,297* (28,195,754**)
Capital city	Nairobi	Dodoma	Kampala
Independence (from the United Kingdom)	12th December 1963 (Republic declared a year later)	9th December 1961 (Tanganyika, 19th December 1963 Zanzibar)	9th October 1962
President	Mwai Kibaki	Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete	Yoweri Museveni

* 2002 Census (Tanzania, Uganda); 1999 Census (Kenya)

** July 2006 estimate, The World Factbook

Table 2

Processed according to Country's 2002/ 1999 Census, Wikipedia, The World Factbook

5.2. Geography

The geography of East Africa was shaped by global tectonic forces that have created the Great Rift Valley which is actually part of the Afro-Arabian rift system that stretches about 6000 km from the Dead Sea to Mozambique, passing through the Red Sea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Malawi. East part of the Great Rift Valley can be traced through Lake Turkana (Lake Rudolf), the Cherangani Hills and lakes Baringo, Bogoria, Nakuru etc. in Kenya. A western branch forms a string of lakes, including Lake Albert and Lake Rutanzige (Lake Edward) on the Uganda-Congo border, Kivu on the Rwanda-Congo border, and Lake Tanganyika on the Tanzania-Congo border. East Africa is the site of two highest peak in Africa – Uhuru (Kilimanjaro – 5,892 m) and Kirinyaga (Mt. Kenya – 5,199 m). It also includes the world's third largest lake – Ukerewe (Lake Victoria – 68,800 sq km) where springs White Nile. Another important rivers of the region are Athi/Galana River, Tana River (Kenya), Rufiji River (Tanzania), Albert and Victoria River (Uganda). Its sources has in East Africa also Congo River.

Kenya rises from a low coastal plain in a series of plateaus to the more than 3,000 metres in the centre. The Kenyan Highlands comprise one of the most successful agricultural production regions in Africa. Uganda is mostly plateau averaging about 900 metres above the sea level. Also the centre of Tanzania is a large plateau, while north-east of the country is mountainous. [Ottův nový atlas světa, 2003, p. 113; 129]

5.3. Climate

The climate of East Africa is as varied as its topography. Climatic conditions range from the tropical humidity of the coast through the dry heat of the hinterland and plains to the cool air of the plateau and mountains. [Worldmark Encyclopedia of the nations – Africa, 1984, p. 141]

Because East Africa lies astride the equator, much of the region experiences two rainy seasons occurring when the Inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ)⁸ traverses the region in its southward and northward migrations. A longer rainy season starts around March through to June, with the peak centred on March to May. The shorter rainy season runs from September and tapers off in November or December. However some areas along the Lake Victoria coast, experience a prolonged rainy season with significant rains received even during boreal summer as evidenced by a local mean rainfall maxima centred around Lake Victoria. Areas south of about 5°S have a single rain season with the most rainfall received during austral summer. [Climate Change in Africa; KNMI, 2006]

The last part of thesis will be treated of climate in more details, now I would like only mention that weather conditions in region started to be unpredictable⁹.

5.4. Situation in region after the end of the Cold War

„With the collapse of communism and the break-up of the Soviet Union it was no longer necessary for Western powers to prop up corrupt non-communist regime in Africa. Donors who had previously turned a blind eye to civil rights misdemeanours began calling for multiparty elections if economic aid was to be maintained...” [Parkinson; Phillips, 2006]

5.4.1. Political life

5.4.1.1. Republic of Kenya

In 1991 a new opposition party was formed – Forum for the Restoration of Democracy (FORD). The party was at first banned by Moi¹⁰. Leaders, including Oginga Odinga¹¹, were

⁸ Also known as the Intertropical Front, Monsoon trough, Doldrums or the Equatorial Convergence Zone, is a belt of low pressure girdling Earth at the equator. It is formed by the vertical ascent of warm, moist air from the latitudes above and below the equator. [Inter-tropical convergence zone; Wikipedia, 2007]

⁹ Climate change and Africa were actually addressed directly in the Gleanagles Plan of Action, the document that summarises the commitments made by G8 countries at their July 2005 meeting in Scotland. [World Climate News, 2006, p. 10]

arrested. Most Western countries suspended their economic aid to Kenya in condemnation of the political oppression and abuses of human rights. Moi finally gave up and introduced the multiparty system in Kenya. The constitution was changed, for the first time allowing registration of opposition parties. During 1992 political discussions slowly became more common on the streets and some people even dare to hope for a change. But at the same time many people feared the wars, violence and chaos in other African countries. An argument often heard is that Moi may be one the most corrupt leaders in the world, but he has kept Kenya peaceful.

Prior to 1992 elections, 2000 people were killed in ethnic clashes in the Rift Valley region. It is almost certain that the violence was provoked by Kenya African National Union (KANU)¹². But President Moi managed to end the conflict and made from himself an image as the peace maker after which he was re-elected. In 1994 Oginga Odinga died, the oppositions parties formed a new coalition but at the same time they had strong internal disputes. In 1996 KANU announced a wish to change the constitution allowing Moi to stay in office for one more term. After that there were many demonstrations for democracy. Nevertheless in 1997 Moi won his 5th term as a president. Once again he had succeeded to play opposition and ethnic groups against each other.

Big ethnic clashes broke out again in 2001. Worst in the Kibera slum area of Nairobi. The government stayed passive – some people though that Moi would like to see chaos in Kenya after he gave up presidency. The last election was held in 27th December 2002 and Mwai Kibaki, running as the candidate of the multiethnic, united opposition group, the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC), defeated KANU candidate Uhuru Kenyatta and assumed the presidency following a campaign centered on an anticorruption platform. The next general elections are set to be held in December 2007. [Crawford, 1996-2007]

President Kibaki is expected to rerun. „The President said he was prepared to continue serving Kenyans as Head of State“, quoted on 26th January 2007 Martin Mutua from The East African Standard.

5.4.1.2. United Republic of Tanzania

In January and February 1992, the government, lead by president Ali Hassan Mwinyi, decided to adopt multiparty democracy¹³. Legal and constitutional changes led to the

¹⁰ Kenya's president since 6th October 1978.

¹¹ Former vice president from Luo tribe, who was excluded from the Kikuyu dominated KANU party.

¹² Since independence in 1963 only one legal political party in Kenya. [Crawford, 1996-2007]

¹³ Since independence in 1961 was Tanzania a oneparty state with a socialist model of economic development. [Politics of Tanzania; Wikipedia, 2007]

registration of 11 political parties. In October 1995 Tanzania held its first multiparty election ever. However, till then ruling Revolutionary State Party (Chama Cha Mapinduzi, CCM) comfortably won the elections and its candidate Benjamin Mkapa was subsequently sworn in as the new president of the United Republic of Tanzania despite international observers' claims of voting irregularities.

In 1996 Tanzania's capital was officially moved. From Dar es Salaam to Dodoma, although many government offices still remain in the old capital.

The second multiparty elections was held in October 2000. Mkapa confirmed his position smoothly. But the Zanzibar presidential election was marred by irregularities, and subsequent political violence claimed at least 23 lives in January 2001, mostly on Pemba island, where police used tear gas and bullets against demonstrators. Hundreds were injured, and state forces were reported to have attacked boats of refugees fleeing to Kenya. Also, 16 Civic United Front (CUF) members were expelled from the Union Parliament after boycotting the legislature to protest the Zanzibar election results.

In October 2001, the CCM and the CUF parties signed a reconciliation agreement which called for electoral reforms and set up a Commission of Inquiry to investigate the deaths that occurred in January 2001 on Pemba.

The last election was held in December 2005 and as the 4th president Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete from CCM was elected, with over 80 % of votes. The next general election are set to be held in 2010. [Politics of Tanzania; Wikipedia, 2007]

5.4.1.3. Republic of Uganda

Current president Yoweri Museveni has controlled Uganda since 1985 when National Resistance Army (NRA), operating under his leadership, deposed general Tito Okello. Six month before was by Okello deposed Milton Obote. Museveni resisted domestic and foreign pressure to introduce a multiparty system, arguing that, in an unstable climate, this was a recipe for tribal conflict. In this non-party system political parties continued to exist but could not campaign in elections or field candidates directly (although electoral candidates could belong to political parties). The government initially worked around the problem by insisting that candidates stood for election as individuals and not as representatives of a political party. In March 1993, the government published a draft constitution and in March 1994, a constituent assembly was elected to amend and enact it. The restriction on political parties was lifted. [Uganda Travel Guide – history; Africa.com, 2007]

Despite of it, in the mid to late 1990s, Museveni lauded by the West as part of a 'new generation of African leaders'. His presidency has been fauled, however, by involvement in the civil war in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), and other conflicts in the Great Lake region, as well as the civil war against the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) which has operated in northern Uganda. [Uganda – history, politics; Wikipedia, 2007]

Ban on multiparty politics lasted 19 years and was cancelled by constitutional referendum in July 2005. The presidential election were held in February 2006 and Museveni ran against candidates, the most prominent of whom was exiled Dr. Kizza Besigye¹⁴. Museveni was declared the winner, with almost 60 % of votes, in the elections which were predominantly free and fair according to international and national observers. Despite technically democratic elections, harassment of opposition had started months earlier in the form of disturbing of opposition campaign, detention of activists, rape and other criminal allegations against Besigye and use of state funds for electoral campaigning. [Uganda Travel Guide – history; Africa.com, 2007]

5.4.2. Economy

5.4.2.1. Republic of Kenya

Once Kenya had the most prosperous economy in East Africa. But during 1990s government mismanagement and corruption have eroded its former preeminence. In 1997 for example, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) suspended Kenya's Enhanced Structural Adjustment Program due to the government's failure to maintain reforms and curb corruption. [The World Factbook – Kenya, 2007]

In 2003, the new government's reform efforts made some progress in rooting out corruption and encouraging donor support and so brought a return to economic growth. Kenya's growth performance improved from extremely low average growth during most of the 1990s up to 2001-2, GDP growth reached 4.3 % in 2004 and exceeded 5 % in 2005. [Country brief – Kenya; World Bank, 2007] Since then, however, government has been rocked by high-level graft scandals, but these have not seemed to affect growth, with GDP growing more then 5 % in 2006. [The World Factbook – Kenya, 2007] During the last five years, growth has been driven by the agriculture and service sectors, particularly horticulture,

¹⁴ Former colonel in the Ugandan army, president of the Forum for Democratic Change (FDC) party, challenger in Uganda's 2001 and 2006 presidential elections. [Kizza Besigye; Wikipedia, 2007]

tea and coffee, in the former, and telecommunications and tourism, in the latter. [Country brief – Kenya; World Bank, 2007]

5.4.2.2. United Republic of Tanzania

Tanzania economy still depends heavily on agriculture¹⁵, industry traditionally featured the processing of agricultural products and light consumer goods. The WB, IMF, and bilateral donors have provided funds to rehabilitate Tanzania's out-of-date economic infrastructure and to alleviate poverty. [The World Factbook – Tanzania, 2007] Real GDP growth rate averaged 6.9 % since 2001 and was 6.8 % in 2005. The agriculture sector grew by 5.2 % in 2005. A prolonged drought reduced growth of the agriculture sector to about 3.7 % in 2006. The drought also led to a sharp decline in hydro-generation capacity. While load shedding of up to 12 hours primarily affected households, it also impacted industry and the service sector. Recent banking reforms have helped increase private-sector growth and investment. Continued donor assistance and solid macroeconomic policies supported real GDP growth. Overall GDP growth for 2006 was estimated to be around 5.8 %. [Country brief – Tanzania; World Bank, 2007]

5.4.2.3. Republic of Uganda

Over the last two decades, Uganda's economy showed in a solid performance based on the investment in the rehabilitation of infrastructure, improved incentives for production and exports, reduced inflation, gradually improved domestic security, and the return of exiled Indian-Ugandan entrepreneurs. In 2000, Uganda qualified for enhanced Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) and in accordance with the bond started to pay health care, to support fight against AIDS, to support education and so on from debt dividends¹⁶. Growth for 2001/02 was solid despite continued decline in the price of coffee, Uganda's principal export. [The World Factbook – Uganda, 2007] Growth for 2005/06 was estimated to have slowed to 5.3 % from an average of 5.6 % over the five years to 2004/05. The decline in growth could partly be attributed to the impact of prolonged drought conditions in most parts of the country on agricultural output; the effect of energy shortages on industrial production; and the high and

¹⁵ Topography and climatic conditions, however, limit cultivated crops to only 4 % of the land area [The World Factbook – Tanzania, 2007]

¹⁶ debt relief worth \$1.3 billion and Paris Club debt relief worth \$145 million, these amounts combined with the original HIPC debt relief added up to about \$2 billion. [The World Factbook – Uganda, 2007]

volatile world oil prices. The outlook for 2006/07 – 2008/09 envisages average real growth of about 6.4 %. [Country brief – Uganda; World Bank, 2007]

After a very quick trip to a ‘modern’ history of East Africa, which proves that multiparty system was not so common how was expected after the end of the Cold War, and summary of economic situation, I would like to return to the main topic of this thesis, namely to the human security, or more precisely, to the events that threaten people in East Africa. Prior to that I set before few numbers.

State of East Africa – selected indicators

	Republic of Kenya	United Republic of Tanzania	Republic of Uganda
GDP per capita (USD, purchasing power parity)	1,140	674	1,478
Human Development Index (HDI)	0.491	0.430	0.502
Life expectancy at birth (years)	47.0	45.9	48.4
Adult literacy rate (% ages 15 and older)	73.6	69.4	66.8
People living with HIV (2006 estimate)	1,300,000	1,400,000	1,000,000
HIV prevalence (% ages 15-49)	6,2	6,5	6,7

Table 3

Processed according to 2006 Human Development Report and 2006 AIDS Epidemic Update

HDI was measured for 177 countries. According to its rate is Kenya at the 152, Tanzania at the 162 and Uganda at the 145 rank. Kenya’s HDI is the worst since 1975, Tanzania’s HDI was better last time in 1990, Uganda’s HDI improved since 1990. According to GDP, the life expectancy and ‘AIDS data’ makes East Africa among the poorest region in the world. [Human Development Report, 2006]

There are no economic minerals. A wide range of tropical and subtropical crops is grown for export. Region depends on imported oil and oil products. [Cole, 1996, p. 295] And I add what is quite clear from previous: Corruption is a big issue. From time to time ethnic conflicts break out. Natural disasters like drought and floods occur more and more often...

5.5. Current issues imperilling region

5.5.1. Deforestation in Uganda

Uganda could lose all its forest cover in 50 years if the current rate of destruction is not reversed, thereby upsetting the ecosystem and exposing the country to further environmental degradation, analysts warned toward the end of March 2007.

Paul Drichi, director of technical services at the National Forestry Authority (NFA) argued that rates of cutting trees exceed sustainable level, which is characterised by the prevention of forest regeneration by grazing and fires. And added that many urban and peri-urban forest reserves were also under the threat of degazettement for industrial development and housing.

In the early 1990s there were about 4.9 million hectares of forest in Uganda but this had decreased to 3.6 million hectares in 2005, an annual depletion rate of 2 %. This is considered high by international standards.

Various experts said the that current rate of deforestation was already causing environmental-related problems in some parts of Uganda. Regions that used to be cold and malaria-free have experienced rising temperatures, providing good conditions for disease spread. „Areas like the southwest in Kabale, which had been cold, are losing 0.3 degree Celsius off their minimum temperature every 10 years,“ Paul Isabirye, a principal government meteorologist said. „These places did not have mosquitoes but now malaria is becoming rampant.“

Deforestation can also affect rainfall patterns, disturb the eco-system and change the micro-climate. Rising temperatures could also affect Uganda’s main cash crop, coffee. Isabirye claims that any further increase by two degrees Celsius would wipe out coffee in many coffee-growing areas of Uganda. And adds that the ecological range of the coffee was shrinking.

Despite these facts, the government is considering giving away an estimated 7,000 hectares of the dense 32,000 hectares Mabira Forest Reserve, about 50 km east of the capital, Kampala, to a sugar Asian-owned company to plant cane. [IRIN, March 2007]

On 12th April Reuters and BBC’s correspondent report about the protest in Kampala streets against plans to allocate forest land to a sugar company. According to the local police at least three people have died during violence. [BBC, April 2007]

5.5.2. Rift Valley Fever – Kenya, Tanzania

Rift Valley Fever (RVF)¹⁷ is an acute, fever-causing viral disease that affects livestock and humans. The RVF virus is spread to humans from livestock via the aedes mosquito, which breeds rapidly during floods. Or it can be transmitted through contact with infected animal material, such as blood or organs. Sheep, goats, camels and cattle are all susceptible to the virus. Consumption of milk, a staple for many pastoral people, is also thought to lead to infection. Symptoms in humans include bleeding through the nose and mouth, and liver failure. [FEWSNET, February 2007]

Outbreaks are more likely during a period of heavy rainfall when mosquito eggs hatch. The virus can lie dormant for years in mosquito eggs which survive long periods of drought before hatching in the rainy season.

Some human cases can develop haemorrhagic fever and bleed to death. Last outbreak was reported in Kenya in December 2006. At the end of January 2007 Kenya's medical officials said there were about 150 RVF-related deaths since outbreak. [BBC, January 2007]

In February 2007 RVF spread into Tanzania and caused mounting concern, especially among pastoralists who depend on livestock for their livelihood. After reports that two people in the northern region of Arusha had died of RVF, the government announced measures to curb the spread of the viral disease, including a ban on the movement of cattle and other livestock between Kenya and Tanzania. Besides this, Anthony Dialo, the Minister for Livestock Development, ordered government authorities across the country to restrict the internal movement of livestock. [IRIN, February 2007] On 20th March the Tanzania's Minister of Health said that the death toll has risen to 16 since RVF outbreaked in Tanzania. [Reuters, March 2007] On 6th April authorities in Tanzania's semi-autonomous islands of Zanzibar imposed a ban on the importation of farm animals and meat in a bid to keep the islands free of RVF. Last report claims that in Tanzania died 40 people and at least 150 was infected. [IRIN, April 2007]

5.5.3. AIDS in East Africa

General trend of stabilizing or declining HIV prevalence seems to continue within the region. With over one million people currently living with HIV in each country, however, region still contending with a serious AIDS epidemic. Moreover in some rural areas there is

¹⁷ The virus was first isolated in 1930 in the Rift Valley of Kenya, and outbreaks have been detected across the continent since then [Reuters, 2007]

now evidence of an increase in HIV infection. For example according to data gathered in a study done in 25 Uganda's villiges, prevalence rose from 5.6 % in men and 6.9 % in women in 2000, to 6.5 % in men and 8.8. % women in 2004. [AIDS Epidemic Update, 2006, p. 17] And in Tanzania has been observed high HIV prevalence at rural antenatal sites. According to projections, the number of new HIV infections in rural areas (where about ¾ of the Tanzania's population live) could be twice as high as in urban areas by 2010. [AIDS Epidemic Update, 2006, p. 19]

5.5.3.1. Spread of HIV/AIDS among pastoralists

There are some hypothesis that pastoralists in East Africa are highly vulnerable to the impact of AIDS, and maybe highly susceptible to HIV infection. They are poor and also marginalised in multiple ways: environmentally, socio-culturality, politically and economically. Such a marginality has severely affected their acces to health care and preventive health services. [Morton, 2006, p. 242]

One of the main reasons for high vulnerability to HIV is that pastoralists have different patterns of sexual behaviour, as an example summarises for the Maasai according to Coast: polygynous marriage, early sexual debut for females, high levels of sexual networking within and outside of marriage, non-consensual sex as 'commonplace', wife-sharing etc. [Morton, 2006, p. 243; 244]

5.5.3.2. Tuberculosis (TB) versus HIV/AIDS

According to the research conducted in many parts of the Tanzania by the Ministry of Health between 2003 and 2004 established that HIV/AIDS contributes to increased TB cases by about 60 %. David Mwakyusa, health minister, said on 22nd March 2007 that the number of tuberculosis cases in Tanzania had risen from 39,000 a decade ago to 64,200 in 2005, and trend blamed on high HIV/AIDS prevalence. „More than 30 % of AIDS patients die of TB. This is a big challenge to our country in the fight against the disease,“ he added in remarks ahead of the World Tuberculosis Day, declare by WHO every year on 24th March.

Uganda records an estimated 80,000 new cases of tuberculosis every year, half of them among people infected with the HIV virus that causes AIDS. Francis Adatu, head of the TB and leprosy unit in the Ministry of Health of Uganda told at the end of March 2007 that Ministry of Health only had managed to detect 49 % of those cases in 2006. And only 73 %

were successfully treated. Then he added that HIV/AIDS was the main trigger of dormant TB in the population today. [IRIN, March 2007]

6. Climate as a fulmination

„Climate change is one of the most important and complex challenges facing humanity in the 21st century. The way in which that challenge is addressed will have profound implications for human development. While the world’s poorest countries and its poorest people bear little responsibility for the build-up of carbon and other global warming gases in the earth’s atmosphere, they stand to bear the brunt of the social and economic consequences. There is a clear and present danger that climate change will roll back human development for a large section of humanity, undermining international cooperation aimed at achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDG’s) in the process.”

[Human Development Report, 2007]

„Forget about making poverty history. Climate change will make poverty permanent.”

[Chowdbury in A Christian Aid Report, May 2006, p. 34]

„Climate change will make it impossible for the world to achieve the millennium development goals. Poverty is bound to increase. Food security is bound to get worse. People will be spending a lot of money trying to deal with food security and thereby deal with poverty and in the end there will be no solution.”

[Odingo¹⁸ in A Christian Aid Report, May 2006, p. 28]

I think that from these statements it is evident that climate change and its impacts no longer worry only people who suffer from it directly. Experts and researchers who work for UNDP will address this topic in the next Human Development Report, Professor Odingo asserts that it is impossible to solve poverty until we stop climate change and that we need a ninth MDG which explicitly addresses it.

It is pretty clear that some parts of the world are affected more and some are affected less. In the last part of this thesis I would like to present what climate changes cause in East Africa through brief evidence of extreme events, and finally I will focus on drought and its impacts on Kenya’s pastoralists.

¹⁸ Professor Richard Odingo is a vice-chairman of the UK’s Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), who has published work on drought-related conflict in north-eastern Kenya. [Wroe; Doney, 2006, p. 13]

6.1. Extreme events related to climate

Onyango¹⁹ claimed that climate change was one of the major causes of the natural disasters the Kenyans were facing and so that it was not just future threat but a present danger for many people. And added that the flustering fact was that the climate extremes were becoming more frequent: „We used to have a drought every 15-20 years or so, and now it is every five, or even less.” [Wroe; Doney, 2006, p. 11]

6.1.1. From scientific papers

In 2000 drought dominated many parts of East Africa region. It was the worst for decades and in others was an extension of the persistent drought that began in 1998. On the other hand it should be noted that many parts of the region that were under drought stress in 1999-2000 had experienced excessive rainfall and flooding during 1997/1998.

Rainfall during the long rains season in equatorial eastern Africa in 2000 was late and light (in some places the rains failed completely)²⁰. Parts of northern and south-western Kenya, as well as the north-west of the Tanzania, experienced the driest conditions on record since 1961 during the usually peak rainfall month of April.

From October to December, there was heavy rainfall in the west, and some parts of eastern Uganda. The southern part of Tanzania had the wettest conditions on record since 1961 for the months of October and December. This spilled over to January 2001, with parts of southern, central and western Kenya, as well as Uganda, experienced flooding. Heavy rainfall also persisted over much of Tanzania. Despite of January is normally a dry month in this region. January 2001 was, however, extremely wet. [World Climate News, 2001, p. 3; 4]

A year later Tanzania experienced heavy rains in January again, Kenya and Uganda experienced them from March to May 2002. [World Climate News, 2003, p. 4]

In 2004, on the contrary, fell in south-eastern Kenya only 50 % of normal rainfall. [World Climate News, 2005, p. 5]

¹⁹ Maurice Onyango is Emergency Programme Officer in Kenya for the relief and development agency Christian Aid. [Wroe; Doney, 2006, p. 11]

²⁰ This failure was associated with La Niña conditions and cyclone activity in the Indian Ocean. [World Climate News, 2001, p. 3]

6.1.2. From local people

I can add remarks of people who I met in northern Kenya and who spoke with me about climate change. Acting head officer of local branch of The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in Kakuma²¹, employees of The German Agency for Technical Cooperation (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit, gtz) at the same place, head officer of local branch of Oxfam in Lodwar²², and even a taxidriver from Lodwar, these all asserted that the year 2005 was almost as hot and dry as year 2000. On the contrary the year 2006 was unusually wet with rains almost every month. And all of them came to a verdict that the biggest problem with weather is its unpredictability. They said that people used to be able to predict the season, farmers knew when to plant or prepare seeds, pastoralists knew where to seek for water, but now they cannot.

Professor from The Meteorological Department of University of Nairobi for a change claimed that in the western part of Kenya, on the east shore of the Victoria Lake, the yearly floods were worse and more devastating than in the past. The reason is not only onward deforestation and soil erosion but also unusual rainfall and too much water in rivers flowing from the northern part.

6.1.3. From newspapers

„Massive flooding in Kenya has killed at least 114 people and affected more than 700,000 others over the past six weeks, the Kenyan Red Cross said Monday, more than doubling its earlier death toll.“ [Terra Daily, 11/12/2006]

„It was termed a mild El Nino and lived up to its billing! The October to December 2006 short rains in Kenya caused massive flooding uncharacteristically into January 2007. As a result, flooded rivers burst their banks and affected approximately 723,000 people in 32 districts in Eastern, North-Eastern, Central, Western, Nyanza and Coast provinces of Kenya. The flooding was aggravated by the over-flow of hydroelectricity generating dams along the Tana River.

The floods effects were devastating with entire villages being submerged and thousands of people displaced, while a number of people lost their lives, property and livestock. Crops and farmland

²¹ Kakuma town is located in Turkana District, in the northwestern region of Kenya. Since 1992 Kakuma has hosted big refugee camp. In the camp there are over 70,000 people from neighbouring countries which have been at war for a long time. A majority are from southern Sudan, some from Somalia and the last major group from Ethiopia.

²² Lodwar is the largest town in northwest Kenya, lying on the west of Lake Turkana. It is also the capital of Turkana district.

were destroyed and irrigation equipment and area infrastructure washed away or severely damaged. Thousands of latrines were destroyed and water sources contaminated, thereby increasing the potential for outbreaks of water-borne disease. For weeks, a number of areas were marooned and roads linking the areas were cut off or were impassable. Fears of food shortages added to the already devastating humanitarian situation. [ReliefWeb, 2/04/2007]

6.2. Case study: Drought in Kenya, impact on pastoralists

In Kenya, where over 58 % of the population lives on less than US\$2 a day [Statistics; Human Development Report, 2006], it is the poor who will be hit the hardest by climate change. Pastoralists represent a significant proportion of the rural population in Kenya and they are among the poorest and least educated people in Kenya. And that virtually all are heavily vulnerable to external shocks and trends as drought resulting in conflict on water or rangelands. [Cunningham; Jacques (eds.), 2006, p. 30]

In the northern part of Kenya, nomadic pastoralism has, over the centuries, been shaped by unpredictable weather patterns and regular drought. It is therefore already well adapted to its environment and many still argue that it is the only viable way of life in the region. But increasing frequency and severity of drought brought on by climate change has brought region to its knees. And scientists predict that things will get even worse in the coming years. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 3]

For centuries Kenya's pastoralists have criss-crossed the arid plains, moving with their families and herds in search of water and grazing pastures. „Normally a drought is not a serious problem for the pastoralists as they can just move to another area where there have been some rains - this is their main way of coping,“ said Ahmed Abdow from the Kenya Red Cross Society. But recent years drought has hit so many countries over such a huge area, that pastoralists simply cannot migrate and they have no fallback as they are unable use their coping mechanism. [Morton, 2006, p. 242]

For about 3 million pastoralists in northern Kenya, the situation is now critical. Their whole way of life, that has supported them for thousands of years, could soon fall prey to climate change. Hundreds of thousands of herders have been forced to forsake their traditional culture and settle in Kenya's North Eastern Province because consecutive droughts have decimated their livestock in recent years. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 2]

The table below shows changes in average herd sizes in one of the most affected district in northern Kenya due to the last drought:

Average herd sizes - Mandera district

Area	Libehia	Kalalio	Arabiya	S/Fatuma	Takaba
Cattle before drought	5,000	21,000	37,000	24,000	41,000
Cattle after drought	300	4,000	4,000	2,000	3,000
% loss	94	81	89	92	93
Camel before drought	4,000	3,000	16,000	18,000	13,000
Camel after drought	100	300	3,700	5,900	4000
% loss	98	90	76	66	69
Sheep and goats before drought	90,000	47,000	139,000	73,000	40,000
Sheep and goats after drought	12,000	9,000	27,000	11,000	7,000
% loss	87	81	80	85	82.5

Table 4

Processed according to Christian Aid's survey published in Christian Aid Report, November 2006

From the table it is evident that after the drought, there were no longer large herds in any of the areas surveyed. And herds mean everything for nomad pastoralists. Now I bring in some consequences of this on pastoralists.

6.2.1. Consequences of climate change on pastoralists

6.2.1.1. Migration

As was said migration is the main coping mechanism against drought. Kenya's pastoralists used to move long distances with their livestock. Their preferred destination is Ethiopia because local clans are more accommodating than other Kenyans. Unfortunately, disease control in Ethiopia is not strict and most of the livestock that move to Ethiopia do not come back alive. In addition, in recent years drought is a problem not only in Kenya but also

in border states. So, the places where pastoralists can migrate and find water and pasture are less and less.

And as the climate change intensifies, all nomads (from Ethiopia, Somalia, Uganda, Sudan, Kenya) are forced to move further from their traditional grazing routes in search of water and pasture for their animals, which means that they move on to other people's lands. And such a migrations bring along many complications. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 10]

6.2.1.2. Conflict

Edwin Rutto of the Africa Peace Forum says that there is an „established correlation between drought and violent conflict... During times of drought, conflict between communities over water and pastures increases.“ Professor Odingo added that during a period of drought, the strongest survived: „You have a lot of conflict because of that. It is related to the struggle for resources, especially water and grazing“ he said. And as for the climate change this is certain to get worse, particularly as water shortages worsen. [Cunningham; Jacques (eds.), 2006, p. 29]

Conflict between pastoralists, between pastoralists and farmers and cross-border conflict have become increasingly deadly in recent years with the influx of cheap guns from nearby war zones. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 11]

In January and February 2005 there were clashes between Maasai pastoralists and Kikuyu farmers in the Rift Valley over a water point on Ewaso Kedong river. 22 people were killed, more than a dozen hospitalised and hundreds displaced. Farmers diverted water to irrigate their farms, Maasai pastoralists living downstream illegally occupied their land, stole livestock and destroyed waterpipes in protest. The Maasai were desperate for water because Kajiado district, where they live, had received less than 20 % of its usual rainfall during 2004 and 2005. [Sparks, 2006, p. 420]

Another conflict over access to water, grazing and land that resulted in extreme violence broke out between Borana and Gabra pastoralists in Marsabit district, near the Ethiopian border. On 12th July 2005, 56 people, including 22 primary school children, were killed in Turbi village. Another 20 people died in revenge attacks as Borana passengers were pulled from buses and murdered. [Cunningham; Jacques (eds.), 2006, p. 30]

6.2.1.3. Deforestation

Some pastoralists try to make profit by cutting trees and selling them on the market. As one of the few available commodities they cutting down trees to sell as charcoal, firewood and building materials. This further degrades the environment and increases desertification. Vegetation is becoming so scarce in some places that it takes a three-day round trip to gather firewood to sell to town dwellers. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 11]

6.2.1.4. Settlement in villages and camps

More and more nomads have become sedentary. This is indicated by an increased number of villages in the North Eastern Province, especially along the main roads. For example, along the main route to Mandera, the epicentre of the latest drought, two large villages (Omar Jellhow and Harere Hosle) have sprung up in the past six years. With 2006 drought, the original roadside settlements have swelled substantially and dozens of smaller camps have appeared.

Hungry families shelter in crude camps on the outskirts of most towns in the region, hoping for handouts of food. Unless there is concerted action to create alternative means of making a living, these miserable camps will continue to mushroom. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 11] Many pastoralists, especially children and women end up almost as slaves in urban centres where they work for food and nothing else. And also prostitution has fast become not just the last but the only resort for many women and children. [Cunningham; Jacques (eds.), 2006, p. 30]

6.2.1.5. Aid Dependency

In March 2006, 80 % of the population in the worst-affected districts were receiving food aid from The World Food Programme (WFP). The arrival of the October rains has done little to fill their empty stomachs because most of their animals were already dead. At the height of the drought, the WFP was providing food aid to 3.5 million Kenyans. With the rains, this number has fallen to just under 3 million. After that, the crisis was no longer headline news, donor funds dried up. In September 2006, the WFP issued an urgent appeal for more aid as it was running out of food.

Clearly this situation is not sustainable. The WFP says governments have „a humanitarian obligation and economic imperative“ to invest in the long-term development of

Kenya's arid lands because „drought will inevitably return“. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 11]

It is clear that climate change has a huge impact on pastoralists and their way of life. The question is: „Is it possible for pastoralists to cope with this impact?“ According to Christian Aid researchers some kind of adaptation could be the answer.

6.2.2. Adaptation

Adaptation to the climate change in the northern Kenya cannot be divorced from rearing livestock. Government of Kenya should acknowledge that the investment in livestock marketing is key to ensuring that pastoralists can manage in the face of climate change. This includes building roads, improving pastoralists' access to abattoirs, providing veterinary services and opening up overseas markets to trade.

The land in the northern Kenya is marginal and pastoralism is probably the only livelihood hardy enough to survive in such a harsh climate. But with the onset of climate change alternative livelihoods must be developed so these people can continue to support themselves.

With the revival of the meat market, a number of related enterprises could develop. With access to affordable loans, known as micro-credit, people could set up businesses to transport livestock and grow and distribute animal fodder. Skins and hides, which currently go to waste, could be tanned into leather and sold.

Micro-credit could also provide a springboard for many other industries and services. For example, a number of bee-keeping cooperatives have been set up along the Dawa River and proved successful. The transport and the sale of water, a valuable commodity in the northern Kenya, is also a lucrative business in this parched land. [Christian Aid Report, November 2006, p. 12]

In conclusion I would like to add a 'small recommendation'. Massive new funds financed from taxes on carbon emissions (which according to me accelerate climate change) and trading could be injected into countries such as Kenya to help them cope with climate change. Otherwise, the potential for human suffering and social upheaval is too overwhelming to contemplate.

7. Conclusion

The first part of the thesis provided basic information about human security. Human security is a relatively new concept, now widely used to describe the complex of interrelated threats associated with many issues depending on whether is used in broad or narrow meaning.

There are several ways on how to think of human security issues. The best or the rightest definition does not exist.. Nowadays, debate about it is still vital especially among academist. Among politicians there is tendency to make some kind of concensus about accurate content and meaning of the term „human security“, primarily because of easier dealing with it. The broad vision is too wide so it is complicated to measure and evaluate all of aspects and make clear conclusion. Narrow vision is more concrete but still does not impeach all important aspects that threaten people all over the world.

But more important then endless debates is that, despite conceptual weaknesses and the different ways it can be interpreted, the concept of human security has gained relevancy in political discussion over the last ten years. Today it is increasingly included in the agendas and the policy debates of regional and intergovernmental organizations such as The European Union (EU), The African Union (AU), The Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), or G8. In addition, there is a growing number of governments, non-governmental and civil society which have incorporated human security into their programmes and policy priorities.

The second part of the thesis, in brief, presented the region of East Africa. Summarised its history after the end of The Cold War and current economic situation. And also put near three issues that threatened human security: deforestation, Rift Valley Fever and AIDS in connection with tuberculosis. It is apparent that the region has to face much more problems than I could analyse in this limited space. Moreover it was not a purpose, because I wanted to present the most current events, that is why I used in this part also sources like IRIN or Reuters.

One threat seemed to me so serious that I focused on it in the last part of the thesis with the help of the scientific reports and articles. The climate change was, is and apparently unfortunately will be the most serious threat of the human security in East Africa, and not only there, because many of its impact materialized through changes in extreme events such

as droughts or floods. And such extremes resulted in severe human suffering. As a prove of this statement was discussed issue of drought and its impact on Kenya's pastoralists. Cyclical droughts, further compounded by deforestation and land degradation, took, and is still taking, their toll on them. Many pastoralists felt they might have to give up the life that previous generations have passed and many of them have already done it. The Kenyan government needs to find the political will to invest in northern Kenya and reverse the region's rapid decline into a permanent state of crisis.

Summary

The objective of this thesis is to provide basic information about human security and threats in East Africa. The paper is composed of three parts. The first part at first argues why it is necessary to change a paradigm of national, state-centred security and then describes relatively new concept of human security. There I outlined two main visions of this concept and particular threats. The broad one includes threat such as poverty, hunger, diseases etc. and is approached through presentation of the report of The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and The Commission on Human Security (CHS), the narrow one deals with incidence, severity, causes and consequences of global violence. This narrow vision is approached through description of operation of The Human Security Centre (HSC).

The second part presents the region of East Africa; its geography, climate, modern history and economic situation, and puts near some current events that threaten the people in this region.

Finally in the last part I focus on one of the most serious threats nowadays for Africa – on climate change; that makes the weather unpredictable and causes devastating floods or droughts. The impacts of the climate change are presented on the example of the Kenya's pastoralists who suffer from cyclical droughts resulting in conflicts on resources such a pasture or water. Sometimes they are even forced to forsake their traditional way of life.

Key words: human security, Human Development Report, Human Security Now, Human Security Centre, East Africa, threats, climate change, droughts, pastoralists

Shrnutí

Cílem této práce je podat základní informace o konceptu 'human security' a přiblížit události, které ji narušují (ohrožují) ve Východní Africe. Práce se skládá ze tří odlišných částí. V první jsou shrnuty argumenty, proč je nutné změnit paradigma národní, na stát zaměřené bezpečnosti, a dále pak popsán poměrně nový koncept lidské bezpečnosti. Jsou zde nastíněna dvě hlavní pojetí tohoto konceptu a představeny jednotlivé hrozby pro lidskou bezpečnost ve světě. V širším pojetí jsou jako hrozby vnímány chudoba, hlad, šíření nemocí atd. Toto pojetí je přiblíženo skrze zprávy Rozvojového programu Organizace spojených národů (UNDP) a Komise pro lidskou bezpečnost (CHS). Užší pojetí se zaměřuje především na příčiny a následky globálního násilí. Jakožto hlavního zastávce užšího pojetí práce představuje Centrum pro lidskou bezpečnost (HSC).

Druhá část se zabývá Východní Afrikou; politickým vývojem v regionu po konci studené války, ekonomickou situací, přírodními podmínkami. Zároveň jsou zde popsány vybrané události, které aktuálně ohrožují obyvatele tohoto regionu.

Závěrečná část se zaměřuje na v současnosti jednu z nejvýznamnějších hrozeb pro Afriku – na změnu klimatu, díky níž se počasí stává nepředvídatelným, a která způsobuje katastrofální záplavy a sucha. Dopady klimatických změn jsou zde přiblíženy na příkladu keňských pastevců, kteří jsou sužováni opakujícími se suchy, jež v posledních letech vedou ke konfliktům o omezené zdroje vody a pastvin. Někteří pastevci byli už dokonce díky klimatickým změnám nuceni opustit svůj nomádský způsob života.

Klíčová slova: lidská bezpečnost (human security), Human Development Report, Human Security Now, Human Security Centre, Východní Afrika, hrozby, změny klimatu, sucha, pastevci (nomádi)

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