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Profile

Introduction
“Diverse” is the word most commonly used to describe Kenya and its people. Over 30 million people belonging to more than 40 tribes inhabit a nation that ranges from arid deserts to tropical coastal mangrove forests. While many people associate Kenya with its famous highland wildlife reserves or its white-sand beaches on the Indian Ocean, the country is equally famous for its wealth of cultures. The Swahili people of the coast, reflecting hundreds of years of interactions and assimilation with Arab and Asian traders, are Kenyans. So too are the Somali pastoralists of the northern arid regions, the nomadic Masai tribespeople of the southern Highlands, and the Luo of the Lake Victoria region.

Like many African nations, the modern nation of Kenya is a somewhat arbitrarily defined state springing from the Colonial era. Traditional tribal regions were not used to define Kenya’s boundaries, nor were any natural geographical boundary markers with the exception of Lake Victoria in the southwest corner and the Indian Ocean on the east. Through its nearly 45 years of independence, Kenya has faced a difficult struggle to develop a national political and social structure that is tolerant of tribal and ethnic differences while at the same time clearly reflects a Kenyan identity separate from tribal traditions or the remaining vestiges of British colonial institutions and culture.

Perhaps Kenya’s national motto, harambee (“let’s pull together”), best expresses what helps Kenya and Kenyans continue on the path to forging a national identity while neighboring African countries continue to fragment through regional and tribal disputes. The term harambee has been used since independence as a reminder of the need for the many peoples of Kenya to come together as a country. It also reflects a traditional principle among the numerous Kenyan tribes—the importance to come together and help each other in order to achieve what is good for all.1

Facts and Figures2

Location:
Eastern Africa, bordering the Indian Ocean, between Somalia and Tanzania

Area:
582,650 sq km (224, 962 sq miles)

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Border Countries:
Ethiopia 861 km (535 miles), Somalia 682 km (424 miles), Sudan 232 km (144 miles), Tanzania 769 km (478 miles), Uganda 933 km (580 miles)

Natural Hazards:
Recurring drought; flooding during rainy seasons

Climate
Varies from tropical along the coast to arid in the interior

Environment—Current Issues:
Water pollution from urban and industrial wastes; degradation of water quality from increased use of pesticides and fertilizers; water hyacinth infestation in Lake Victoria; deforestation; soil erosion; desertification; poaching

Population:
34,707,817 (July 2006 est.)

Median Age:
32.7 years (2006 est.)

Population Growth Rate:
2.57 percent (2006 est.)

Life Expectancy at Birth:
48.93 years (2006 est.)

HIV/AIDS—Adult Prevalence Rate:
6.7 percent (2003 est.)

Major Infectious Diseases:
Degree of risk: Very high
Food or waterborne diseases: Bacterial and protozoal diarrhea, hepatitis A, and typhoid fever
Vectorborne disease: Malaria is a high risk in some locations
Water contact disease: Schistosomiasis (2007)

Nationality:
Noun: Kenyan(s)
Adjective: Kenyan
Sex Ratio:
At birth: 1.02 male(s)/female
15-64 years: 1.01 male(s)/female
65 years and over: 0.83 male(s)/female
Total population: 1.01 male(s)/female (2006 est.)

Ethnic Groups:
Kikuyu 22%, Luhya 14%, Luo 13%, Kalenjin 12%,
Kamba 11%, Kisii 6%, Meru 6%, other African 15%, non-African (Asian, European,
Arab) 1%

Religions:
Protestant 45%, Roman Catholic 33%, Muslim 10%, indigenous beliefs 10%, other 2%

Languages:
English (official), Kiswahili (official), numerous indigenous languages

Literacy:
Definition: Persons age 15 and over who can read and write
Total population: 85.1%
Male: 90.6%
Female: 79.7% (2003 est.)

Country Name:
Conventional long form: Republic of Kenya
Conventional short form: Kenya
Local long form: Republic of Kenya/Jamhuri y Kenya
Local short form: Kenya
Former: British East Africa

Government Type:
Republic

Capital:
Nairobi

Administrative Divisions:
7 provinces and 1 area (sheng, singular and plural), 5 autonomous regions (zizhiqu, singular and plural), and 4 municipalities (shi, singular and plural)
Provinces: Central, Coast, Eastern, North Eastern, Nyanza, Rift Valley, Western
Area: Nairobi

Independence:
12 December 1963 (from United Kingdom)
National Holiday:
Independence Day, 12 December (1963)

Constitution:
Note: a new draft constitution was defeated by popular referendum in 2005. Most recent promulgation was 4 December 1982

Legal System:
Based on Kenyan statutory law, Kenyan and English common law, tribal law, and Islamic law; judicial review in High Court; accepts compulsory ICJ jurisdiction, with reservations; constitutional amendment of 1982 making Kenya a de jure one-party state repealed in 1991

Suffrage:
18 years of age; universal

Government:
Chief of state/Head of Government: President Mwai Kibaki (since 30 December 2002);
Vice President Moody Awori (since 25 September 2003)
Note: the President is both the chief of state and head of government
Cabinet: Cabinet appointed by the President
Elections: President elected by popular vote for a five-year term (eligible for a second term); in addition to receiving the largest number of votes in absolute terms, the presidential candidate must also win 25 percent or more of the vote in at least five of Kenya's seven provinces and one area to avoid a runoff; election last held 27 December 2002 (next to be held in December 2007); Vice President appointed by the President
Election results: President Mwai Kibaki elected President with percent of vote - Mwai Kibaki 63 percent, Uhuru Kenyatta 30 percent

Legislative Branch:
Unicameral National Assembly or Bunge (224 seats; 210 members elected by popular vote to serve five-year terms, 12 so-called "nominated" members who are appointed by the President but selected by the parties in proportion to their parliamentary vote totals, 2 ex-officio members)
Elections: Last held 27 December 2002 (next to be held December 2007)
Election Results: seats by party – National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) 125, Kenya African National Union (KANU) 64, Forum for the Restoration of Democracy – People (FORD-P) 14, others 7; ex-officio 2; seats appointed by the President- NARC 7, KANU 4, FORD-P 1

Judicial Branch:
Court of Appeal (Chief Justice is appointed by the president); High Court Supreme
International Organization Participation:

GDP—Real Growth Rate:
5.5% (2006 est.)

GDP—Composition by Sector:
Agriculture: 16.3%
Industry: 18.8%
Services: 65% (2004 est.)

Labor Force—By Occupation:
Agriculture: 75%
Industry and Services: 25% (2003 est.)

Telephones—Main Lines in Use:
281,800 (2005 est.)

Telephones—Mobile Cellular:
6.5 million (2006 est.)

Radio Broadcast Stations:
AM 24, FM 18, shortwave 6 (2001)

Television Broadcast Stations:
8 (2002)

Internet Users:
13,274 (2006)

Airports:
225 (2006)

Airports—With Paved Runways:
Total: 15
Over 3,047 m (1.89 miles): 4
2,438 to 3,047 m (1.51-1.89 miles): 1
1,524 to 2,437 m (0.95-1.51 miles): 4
914 to 1,523 m (0.57-0.95 miles): 5
Under 914 m (0.57 miles): 1 (2006)
Military Branches:
Kenyan Army, Kenyan Navy, Kenyan Air Force (2007)

Military Service Age and Obligation:
18 years of age (est.) (2004)

International Disputes:
Kenya served as an important mediator in brokering Sudan's north-south separation in February 2005. The boundary that separates Kenya's and Sudan's sovereignty is unclear in the "Ilemi Triangle," which Kenya has administered since colonial times. Kenya provides shelter to almost a quarter of a million refugees, including Ugandans who flee across the border periodically to seek protection from Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) rebels. Kenya works hard to prevent the clan and militia fighting in Somalia from spreading across the border, which has long been open to nomadic pastoralists.

Trafficking in Persons:
Current situation: Kenya is a source, transit, and destination country for men, women, and children trafficked for forced labor and sexual exploitation. Children are trafficked within the country for domestic servitude, street vending, agricultural labor, and sexual exploitation. Men, women, and girls are trafficked to the Middle East, other African nations, Western Europe, and North America for domestic servitude, enslavement in massage parlors and brothels, and manual labor. Chinese women trafficked for sexual exploitation reportedly transit Nairobi and Bangladesh may transit Kenya for forced labor in other countries.
Tier rating: Tier 2 Watch List - Kenya is placed on the Tier 2 Watch List due to a lack of evidence of increasing efforts to combat severe forms of trafficking.

Illicit Drugs:
Kenya has widespread harvesting of small plots of marijuana. Kenya is also a transit country for South Asian heroin destined for Europe and North America, and for Indian methaqualone on its way to South Africa. There is significant potential for money-laundering activity given the country's status as a regional financial center, massive corruption, and relatively high levels of narcotics-associated activities.
Geography

Kenya’s Neighborhood
Kenya lies in a central position within East Africa. It borders all of the region’s major countries. East Africa’s largest city (Nairobi) and busiest coastal port (Mombasa) are both located within Kenya. While Kenya suffers from corruption, it has been something of an island of stability between Sudan and Somalia, two countries that have been involved in violent rebellions and civil wars for well over a decade.

Somalia
Kenya’s entire eastern border is shared with Somalia, possibly the world’s least stable country and one that has spent over 16 years without any form of a strong central government. Kenya’s side of this border region lies in the North Eastern Province, where the pastoralist nomadic tribespeople are dominantly Somalis.

The Kenya-Somalia border region currently houses several camps that together host over one hundred thousand refugees from the ongoing conflict in Somalia. To make matters worse, the border region suffered from three years of drought (until late 2006), followed by torrential rains and severe flooding in November 2006. The resulting mosquito infestation subsequently brought outbreaks of polio and Rift Valley Fever to areas in and around the refugee camps.

As of March 2007, formal relations between Kenya and Somalia are virtually nonexistent. In early January 2007, the Kenyan government closed the border with Somalia. Two months prior to this ban, the government had stopped all flights to Somalia from Kenya. The latter ban was based on security concerns about the smuggling of Somali Islamic insurgents and illegal firearms into Kenya. One of the positive results of the flight ban has been that the importation of Kenyan-grown khat (a mild narcotic) into heavily khat-addicted Somalia has temporarily ceased.

Ethiopia
All but the northwestern part of Kenya’s northern border is shared with Ethiopia. No railroads exist between the two countries, and Kenya’s only roads to the Ethiopian border

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are unpaved. While political relations between these two countries are generally good, there have been several violent incidents of cross-border cattle raids and banditry in the border region in recent years. Factors such as dwindling pastoral resources, drought conditions, historical clan and tribal rivalries, and an increased number of small arms in the area have contributed to the instability in the border region.\textsuperscript{9,10,11}

\textbf{Sudan}

Kenya’s border with Sudan is its shortest at 232 kilometers (144 miles). The border is actually a point of contention between the two countries, as well as with Ethiopia. An area north of the official border, known as the Ilemi Triangle, is currently administered by Kenya but is claimed by the other two countries. In actuality, Kenya administers the “Red Line” version of the Ilemi Triangle, one of three separate definitions of the contested region. This territorial dispute goes back to the colonial era and settlement discussions have been delayed by a lengthy civil conflict in southern Sudan that has only recently come to an end. Since the signing of a peace agreement in 2005, the southern part of Sudan, the region adjacent to Kenya, has become an autonomous region. Under the still-fragile agreement,\textsuperscript{12} a referendum will be held in South Sudan in 2011 concerning independence.

\textbf{Uganda and Tanzania}

Kenya’s western boundary coincides exactly with Uganda’s eastern boundary, while Tanzania provides Kenya’s southern border. The three countries are the members of the East African Community (EAC), a customs union that is planned to ultimately lead to a tax-free trade zone and possibly a political federation.\textsuperscript{13} Uganda is Kenya’s largest trading partner in terms of exports and Tanzania is the third largest, but very little is imported into Kenya from these countries at present.\textsuperscript{14}

Kenya has better transportation connections with Uganda and Tanzania than it has with any of its other neighbors. Paved roads exist to both borders\textsuperscript{15} and all three countries have ports with ferry service on Lake Victoria, which is the largest lake in Africa and the source of the White Nile. The Kenyan sea port of Mombasa and the Ugandan capital of

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Kampala are also connected via an aging rail system built during the British colonial period. The sole rail connection between Kenya and Tanzania—an inland link between the Mombasa-Nairobi line and inland coffee-growing regions of Tanzania—has fallen into disuse.  

Unlike border conditions with Kenya’s other neighbors, marked by refugee flight, sporadic cross-border intertribal massacres, and an ongoing boundary dispute, the Ugandan and Tanzanian borders are relatively calm. Tanzania has a history, like Kenya, of relative stability. In contrast, Uganda has suffered through several brutal regimes—most notably the Idi Amin years—that ultimately led to the dissolution of an earlier version of the EAC in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Uganda’s relations with Tanzania and Kenya have improved in recent years, leading to the reinstitution of the EAC. However, Uganda still faces several challenges to its internal stability. In its northern regions, governmental armed forces are still trying to quell a violent rebel group known as the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA), and in the western border region with the Democratic Republic of the Congo, there have been periodic battles with rebel groups.

Area
Kenya is a geographically diverse nation that ranges from coastal mangrove swamps to towering snow-covered mountains. The terrain rises slowly from the coastal areas in a series of plateaus that meet a chain of north-south-oriented highlands in the western half of the country. Through the center of the highlands runs the Great Rift Valley, one of the world’s most famous geological features.

Geographic Regions

The Coast
The Coast region runs along the Indian Ocean and is marked by white sand beaches, coral reefs, and mangrove swamps. The largest coastal population centers are to the south, where rainfall is heaviest. The coastal plain is narrowest in this area and broadens moving northward. The largest city in the Coast region is Mombasa, Kenya’s bustling port city. Malindi, near the mouth of the Tana

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River, and Lamu are popular tourist locations located farther up the coast. The latter town is one of the best-preserved examples of traditional Swahili settlements and is one of Kenya’s three World Heritage Sites.21

Kenya’s Indian Ocean coast has always been a world apart from inland Kenya, in large part because of the coastal region’s extensive history as an Arab and Persian trading center. The fusion of African and Asian influences in the coastal cities produced the Swahili language, people, and culture.22 Even today, when Mombasa and Nairobi are connected via road and rail connections, the cultural distinctiveness of the coastal area remains pronounced.

**The Eastern Plateaus and Northern Plains**

This vast region, which extends from Kenya’s northwestern corner to nearly its southeastern corner, is characterized by arid to semi-arid plains and plateaus. Among these are the lowland Bun Plains and Ngangerabeli Plain near the Somali border; the Yatta Plateau, formed from one of the world’s longest lava flows, along the lower stretch of the Athi River; the Chalbi, Kaisut, and Dida Galgalu Deserts, all east of Lake Turkana; and the Lotikipi Plain in northwestern Kenya near the Sudanese border.

While the Eastern Plateaus and Northern Plains region varies somewhat in climate and elevation, and even includes a few isolated mountain peaks and small ranges, a unifying feature of the entire region is its low population density. There are no major cities within this area. Garissa, the capital of the North Eastern Province, is the only city with a population over 50,000 people.23

**The Lake Victoria Basin**

The entire southwestern portion of Kenya is a region of uplands above 1,000 meters (3,280 feet). Much of this area is mountainous or hilly, but the region surrounding the shore of Lake Victoria is primarily high plateau. To the east lie the mountains or escarpments (cliffs) that define the western boundary of the Great Rift Valley.

The Lake Victoria Basin is a densely populated area containing two of Kenya’s five biggest cities (Kisumu and Eldoret). It is also an area of extensive agricultural cultivation. Parts of the region are among the wettest locations in Kenya. One such area is Mount Elgon, an extinct volcano whose peak lies on the Kenya-Uganda border.24

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The Highlands
To the east of the Lake Victoria Basin lie the highest regions in Kenya. In the center of these mountains and high plateaus, a geological feature known as the Great Rift Valley splits the region in two. The Great Rift Valley defines a region in which the earth’s crust is being slow pulled apart by convection currents of molten rock from the mantle, similar to two conveyor belts moving in opposite directions. The floor of the Great Rift Valley contains several freshwater and saline lakes (Turkana, Baringo, Nakuru, Naivasha, Bogoria, and Magadi) that trace the Rift’s north-south path through Kenya.

To the east of the Great Rift Valley lies Nairobi, East Africa’s largest metropolis; Mount Kenya, the second highest peak in Africa; and the Aberdare Range, the highest mountain range in Kenya. To the west of the Great Rift Valley, the Mau Escarpment provides a high-altitude rim to the western edge of the Great Rift.

Climate
Kenya is an equatorial country. However, its climate is quite different from other equatorial regions such as the Amazon Basin, the Congo Basin, Sumatra, or Borneo. In general the rainfall totals are lower and are more highly variable from year to year. The wettest regions are in the western part of the country in the Highlands and Lake Victoria Basin and along the southern coastal areas. In isolated areas, such as Mount Kenya, snow may even fall. Much of the remaining part of Kenya is semi-arid to arid, including the entire northern region of the country.

Rainfall in Kenya occurs primarily during two periods of the year. The months of March to May are the wettest and are known as the “long rains” season, followed by a relatively dry period until the “little rains” of October to December. In 1997-1998, the latter rains turned much heavier and longer lasting as Kenya was hit by the effects of a powerful El Niño.

Because of the high altitudes in the Highlands and Lake Victoria Basin, temperatures are temperate. Temperatures are higher in coastal regions, where it is also more humid, although sea breezes have a mitigating effect on the level of discomfort. Low-lying inland plains and plateaus are hot and even desert-like in the driest areas.

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Rivers and Lakes

Tana River
The Tana River, at 1,050 kilometers (650 miles), is Kenya’s longest river.\(^{30}\) Its headwaters are in the Aberdare Mountains, northwest of Nairobi. From there the river flows first south and then north before swinging south again in the lowland plains of the Coast Province. It presently enters the Indian Ocean near the small town of Kipini, although in the past its mouth has been further southwest along the coast.\(^{31}\)

The Tana River is navigable by small boat for its last 322 kilometers (200 miles), although its sinuous path makes such travel time consuming. The only town of any size in along its lower stretch is Garissa, the capital of the North Eastern Province. On its upper stretch, five dams supply hydroelectric power and irrigation water. Two Tana River tributaries in the foothills of the Aberdare Mountains are also dammed and supply 95 percent of Nairobi’s water.\(^{32}\)

Athi-Galana-Sabaki River
At 631 kilometers (392 miles) in length, the Athi-Galana-Sabaki River is Kenya’s second longest perennial river. (The river is known as the Athi for its upstream length, becomes the Galana further downstream in Tsavo National Park, and is often referred to as the Sabaki near its mouth on the Indian coast near the town of Malindi.) The Athi’s headwaters are south of Nairobi, and several of its tributaries flow through or near Kenya’s capital city. However, because of pollution issues, only a few percent of Nairobi’s water actually comes from any of the Athi River Basin sources.\(^{33,34}\)

Lake Turkana
Lake Turkana is the largest of Kenya’s Great Rift Valley lakes and extends along the Rift Valley floor from the Ethiopian border to near the northern extent of the Highlands region. It is one of the largest desert lakes in the world.

There are no outlets for Lake Turkana. Much of its water flows in from the Omo River in southern Ethiopia, although it is also fed by the northward-flowing Turkwel River that originates from the northern slopes of Mount Elgon on the Kenya-Uganda border.\(^{35}\)


Lake Turkana is known as a breeding ground for Nile crocodiles, hippopotamuses, and poisonous snakes. The animal life can be viewed at two national parks on barren islands in the lake. Sibiloi National Park along the lake’s northeastern shore is famous for its numerous fossil finds of Homo and Australopithecus species, which have led the Lake region to be called the “Cradle of Mankind.”

**Lake Victoria**

Kenya shares Lake Victoria, the world’s second largest freshwater lake, with Uganda and Tanzania. Several western Kenya rivers feed into Lake Victoria, of which the largest is the Nzoia River. The lake’s sole outlet is the Victoria Nile in Uganda.

An inlet of Lake Victoria known as Winam Gulf is the setting for Kisumu, Kenya’s sole port city on the lake. However, since 1997 the Winam Gulf has been hard-hit by several infestations of water hyacinth, most recently in late 2006. Kisumu’s fishing industry is severely affected by these episodes, as the fishing boats often cannot be launched owing to the thick mat of vegetation on the lake’s surface.

Another concern on Lake Victoria is the lake level. For many years continuing through the middle part of 2006, the lake’s surface continued to lower, causing some regions on the lake to institute water rationing as water intake valves became exposed above water. Fortunately, the problem was remedied by heavy rains in late 2006. Evidence shows that Lake Victoria has dried up at various times in the past (most recently, sometime between 10,000 and 14,000 years ago). With such a dense population of people dependent on the lake for their survival today, all three countries closely watch the lake for fluctuations in surface level.

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Population and Cities
As of mid-year 2005, Kenya’s population was estimated to be 34.3 million. The urban population was estimated to be 21 percent of the population, significantly lower than the average of 35 percent urban population for sub-Saharan Africa as a whole.41 Kenya was one of the first African countries to institute family planning practices, and its birthrate is now one of the lower ones in sub-Saharan Africa (between 28 and 38 per thousand).42 As is the case in many developing countries, the urban population is growing faster than the rural population.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City Name</th>
<th>Province (* = Prov. Capital)</th>
<th>Population 199943</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nairobi</td>
<td>Nairobi*</td>
<td>2,143,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mombasa</td>
<td>Coast*</td>
<td>665,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nyanza*</td>
<td>323,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakuru</td>
<td>Rift Valley*</td>
<td>219,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eldoret</td>
<td>Rift Valley</td>
<td>167,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machakos</td>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>144,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meru</td>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>126,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyeri</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>99,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitale</td>
<td>Rift Valley</td>
<td>86,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thika</td>
<td>Central</td>
<td>83,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nairobi
Geographers refer to Nairobi as a primate city, one that dominates all other cities in the country in term of population, political influence, economic activity, and cultural influence.44 Nairobi’s population exceeds the combined population of the next nine largest cities in the country, and only Mombasa, Kenya’s largest port, remotely rivals Nairobi in terms of economic importance.

Nairobi is a young city. It began in 1899 as a rail depot on the Uganda Railway, built on a swampy area known by the local Masai people as *usao nairobi* (“cold water”). By 1908, Nairobi had become the capital of the British East Africa Protectorate, supplanting Mombasa. The city grew owing to its colonial administrative importance, its central location on the railroad, and its abundant nearby wildlife that attracted numerous visitors, including big-game hunters. Nonetheless, the early history of the city was marked by frequent outbreaks of plague, malaria and numerous sanitation problems.

Modern Nairobi has several faces. There are towering modern skyscrapers downtown that might be seen in any major Western city. On the southern city limit is Nairobi National Park, perhaps the only wildlife park in the world in which a giraffe may be photographed with skyscrapers visible in the background. Leafy suburbs around the edges of Nairobi house the city’s many expatriate workers affiliated with international and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

Only a few kilometers away from these parts of the city, however, are slum areas that are among the worst in Africa. Most infamous of these slums is Kibera, southwest of downtown Nairobi, which contains roughly 800,000 people who occupy an area of about 250 hectares (1 sq mile). Kibera’s residents amount to nearly one third of the city’s population. What makes this statistic even more astounding is the fact that virtually all of the housing is single-story. Health conditions in Kibera are among the worst in Africa, as there are very few toilets and very limited water access.

Economically, Nairobi is Kenya’s industrial center. Products produced include processed food, beer, vehicles, soaps, textiles, and chemicals. The city is also home to the Kenya Stock Exchange. The flip side of Nairobi’s economy is the city’s large informal sector, known as *jua kali* (“hot sun”). *Jua kali* workers are street traders, vendors, artisans, and service providers who work within the unregistered (and thus untaxed) economy. They provide Nairobi with a parallel street economy, without which the city’s many poorer

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residents could not survive. Government statistics estimate that more than three quarters of Kenya’s labor force is employed in *jua kali* enterprises.\(^{50}\)

**Mombasa**

Mombasa, Kenya’s second largest city, has a history quite different from that of Nairobi. Originally settled by Bantu tribespeople, the area was visited by traders from the Middle East as early as the sixth century BCE. Subsequently, waves of traders from Persia, Portugal, and Oman all put their stamp on the local culture, as did immigrants from the Indian subcontinent.\(^{51}\) During the Portuguese period and later during the Omani Sultanate, Mombasa became a center for the East African slave trade. The city’s most popular tourist location, Fort Jesus, is a Portuguese fort in which one may still see some of the old slave cells.\(^{52}\)

The main part of Mombasa is located on an island. On the west side of the island is Kilidini Harbor, the city’s deep-water port. The Port of Mombasa serves as the main shipping point for many of the goods coming and going to Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, eastern Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, and southern Sudan.\(^{53}\) The port is hampered by a dilapidated rail system from Mombasa to Uganda, which has caused a large percentage of the port’s goods to be transported by trucks instead of on Kenya’s already overstressed road system. The result has been cargo pileups at the port for goods destined for Uganda and beyond.\(^{54}\)

Mombasa is also a major tourist location, having become the center of a string of coastal resorts that are now found up and down the Kenyan coast. Apart from the appeal of beaches, the Swahili culture and architecture, a unique blend of Arabic and African influences, makes Mombasa and other coastal locations an attractive place for tourists to explore.

While trade and tourism dominate the local economy, there is some modest industrial activity in and near Mombasa as well. Kenya’s only oil refinery is located in Mombasa; other industries include cement works, sugar refining, and automotive assembly plants.\(^{55,56}\)


Kisumu
Kenya’s only port on Lake Victoria, Kisumu came into being when the railroad reached Lake Victoria at a point formerly named Port Florence in 1901. With the coming of the railroad, the new port town soon became a bustling trade center. The city went into a period of decline for several decades beginning in 1977 after the collapse of the EAC.

Much of Kisumu’s economic revival in the 1990s came from the extension of the Mobassa-Nairobi oil pipeline to Kisumu, where the oil is delivered from the depot to locations within Kenya, Uganda, northern Tanzania, and other East African countries via trucks. The city has long been a center for agricultural products produced nearby such as rice, sugar, and cotton, although environmental degradation has led to declines in these crops in recent years.

The local Kisumu fishing industry underwent a boom in the 1980s when a significant export business built up around the Nile perch, Lake Victoria’s dominant fish species since it was introduced to the lake in the 1950s. However, recent years have seen a decline in Nile perch stocks, despite a ban on the use of trawlers. The negative implications of this decline on the large local industry built around the processing of the Nile perch catch is environmentally offset by an increasing diversity of other fish species in Lake Victoria.

Nakuru
Nakuru is the largest Kenyan city located within the Great Rift Valley. Neolithic fossil remains excavated by Mary Leakey at Hyrax Hill outside town show this area to have long been inhabited by humans. The modern town of Nakuru, like many in inland Kenya, sprung to life with the coming of the Uganda Railway at the beginning of the 20th century. Prior to the colonial development of the railroad, the area had primarily been grazing lands for Masai pastoralists. After World War I, Nakuru became the branching point for a new line of the railroad that extended northwestward to Kampala in Uganda. The city soon became a regional trading and commerce center and the capital of the Great Rift Valley Province.

Today the city is known as an agricultural center. Numerous agricultural-related industries are located in and near the city, ranging from food-processing facilities to farm

machinery assembly plants. Tourism is also important to the local economy, with nearby Lake Nakuru National Park, one of Kenya’s most popular wildlife attractions owing to its spectacular flamingo population.

Eldoret
Eldoret is another of Kenya’s “railroad cities,” although it was actually founded in 1910, fourteen years before the railroad arrived, by Afrikaners from South Africa. The town’s original name was 64, based on the town’s distance (in kilometers) from the Uganda Railway railhead. Two years later the numerical town name was changed to Eldoret, based on the Masai word for “stony river.” While the improved name did help spur some development, Eldoret really only began to grow when the railroad arrived in 1924. Over the years, the town evolved as the focal point of the surrounding agricultural region. Specifically Eldoret has traditionally been the heart of Kenya’s “grain basket” region. Wheat, maize, and dairy products from local farms are all processed and marketed in the city.

In recent times, Eldoret has been the center of controversies tied to the regime of former President Daniel arap Moi, who is a Kalenjin, the dominant tribe in the area surrounding Eldoret. During Moi’s 24-year presidency, there were numerous claims that an unequal amount of government-backed facility and infrastructure development had flowed into the Eldoret region. Two noteworthy examples of large-scale government investment in Eldoret during the Moi years are the city’s international airport, only the third to be built in Kenya (the other two are in Nairobi and Mombasa, both much larger cities); and Moi University, now one of the country’s largest universities.

Environmental Concerns
Although Kenya is a developing country, and thus might be expected to place economic development ahead of environmental concerns, the government has a clear understanding of the country’s environmental issues and has enacted policies to address many of them. This makes good business sense in a country in which the natural gifts of its geographical setting and abundant wildlife tourism have produced a major source of revenue for the economy. However, the

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implementation and enforcement of these policies have proven to be difficult. Widespread poverty and a rapidly growing population that is suffering through the HIV/AIDS pandemic have made it challenging to achieve environmental improvement in many areas. Thus, soil degradation, deforestation, land erosion, loss of biodiversity, habitat encroachment, and surface and groundwater contamination are just some of the problems that Kenya is now facing.

One statistic neatly summarizes Kenya’s environmental dilemma: Nearly 75 percent of Kenyans work in agriculture, but only 8 percent of the country is arable land. The need for such a small percentage of the Kenyan land to support the majority of the population leads to practices that result in some of the environmental ills cited above. Of these, soil and land degradation is perhaps the most pressing issue for a mostly semi-arid country that is perpetually only a few dry years away from drought and famine conditions.

Deforestation is a particularly damaging problem, as it significantly leads to land erosion in agricultural areas. The resulting buildup of silt behind dams on Kenya’s rivers lessens both the dams’ storage capacities for water and ability to produce hydroelectricity. Deforestation also has a negative effect on biodiversity and wildlife habitat.

Despite these concerns, it is difficult to provide alternatives to wood for cooking and heating needs in a country where there are virtually no oil or natural gas resources. Recently, solar cookers have been introduced in Kenya, including in the refugee camps near the Somalian and Sudanese borders. It is hoped that in sunny Kenya they may eventually somewhat lessen the demand for firewood.

While Kenya’s environmental problems are challenging, the work of many Kenyans in trying to address these environmental issues is truly inspiring. In October 2004, the Nobel Peace Prize was awarded to Wangari Maathi, Kenya’s Assistant Minister for the Environment, Natural Resources and Wildlife. She became the first African woman to win this prize. The honor was an acknowledgment of her work on the Green Belt

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Movement, a grassroots organization that has enlisted poor rural Kenyan women in tree planting and in taking advocacy positions on local environmental matters. Since 1976, the group has planted more than 30 million trees on Kenyan farms, church grounds, and schoolyard areas.

**Natural Hazards**

Kenya’s most serious natural hazards are all tied to rainfall—too much (floodings, landslides) and too little (drought). The areas most prone to flooding are the Highlands, Coast, and Lake Victoria Basin regions. In particular, the lowland areas of the Lake Victoria Basin have been particularly hard hit by recent flooding, with thousands of people displaced. The Eastern Plateaus and Northern Basin region, especially the eastern portion of this region, is most vulnerable to droughts. Within this region, the plateau areas east of the Highlands, including the lower Tana River Basin, are at high risk for both flooding and droughts. Landslides mostly occur in the Highlands region. Those areas most at risk from deadly landslides are usually downslope from the sides of deforested mountains.

In recent years, virtually every spring has brought flood and landslide disasters to parts of Kenya. During this time, the eastern part of the country suffered through one of its worst droughts in 30 years, which was finally eased during the heavy “late rains” of November 2006. However, the slow-starting “long rains” season in April 2007 had relief agencies concerned that the region was still not out of the woods as far as drought potential.

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## Kenyan Natural Disasters Since 1 January 2005

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<th>Disaster</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Provinces most affected</th>
<th>Deaths (if known)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Floods, landslides(^{77})</td>
<td>Nov. 2006</td>
<td>Coast, North Eastern, Eastern (northern part), Nairobi, Western</td>
<td>20+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floods, landslides(^{78})</td>
<td>April-May 2006</td>
<td>Coast, Nyanza</td>
<td>8+</td>
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<tr>
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<td>March 2006</td>
<td>North Eastern, Rift Valley (southern part), Eastern (northern part)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>April-May 2005</td>
<td>Nyanza, Eastern (central part)</td>
<td>5+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The “Cradle of Humanity”

Much of what we know about the early evolution of hominids and pre-hominids comes from the fossil evidence collected in East Africa’s Great Rift Valley. One of the most famous of these archaeological sites is Nariokotome, located near Lake Turkana in northern Kenya. Here in 1984, Kamoya Kimeu, working with famed paleoanthropologist Richard Leakey, found the skull of what eventually became an almost complete skeleton of a *Homo erectus* boy. These remains, which were later dubbed “Turkana Boy,” were dated to 1.6 million years ago and represent some of the oldest known *H. erectus* fossils in the world. They also provide evidence for an African origin of *H. erectus*, as the Turkana Boy fossils predate Java Man and Peking Man (other famous *H. erectus* fossil finds) by 900,000 and 1.1 million years, respectively.

Although the fossil finds are not nearly so ancient, the Hyrax Hill site near the city of Nakuru is famous for the Neolithic fossils and artifacts excavated by Mary Leakey in 1938-1939. Dating as far back as 3,000 years ago, the Hyrax Hills materials have provided a glimpse of prehistoric Stone Age culture in the Great Rift Valley.

Pre-Colonial Inland Kenya

The interior of modern-day Kenya was never marked by the kingdoms that took root in other parts of Africa, such as Ethiopia and Uganda. Instead, the area now known as Kenya saw a flow of different groups of people into and out of the region over a span of several thousand years. Homelands and tribal affiliations changed frequently through warfare, natural migrations, and assimilations. As there is no written history of inland Kenya prior to the colonial era, much of what we know about these peoples comes from archaeological and linguistic studies and through oral stories and histories passed down by modern Kenyan tribes.

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There is evidence of hunters and gatherers living in mainly forested areas of what is now Kenya as far back as 3,000 years ago, but virtually all traces of these cultures disappeared long ago. However, one possible modern remnant from this early era may be the Ogiek, a hunter-gathering group who live in the Mau forest near the Great Rift Valley.

Based on linguistic descent, the three main ancestral groups to modern Kenyans are the Cushites, the Nilotes, and the Bantus. The Cushites came to present-day Kenya from areas to the north and northeast. The Oromo of Ethiopia, one of Africa’s largest ethnic groups, also speak a Cushitic language and several of Kenya’s largest Cushitic groups (e.g. the Borana and the Orma) are southern representatives of the Oromo. The other major group of Cushites in Kenya are the Somalis and other ethnic groups historically related to them (e.g. the Rendille and the Gabbra) who are thought to have migrated from southern Ethiopia and Somalia several hundred years ago. Most of the Cushitic ethnic groups that now dominate northern and eastern Kenya are nomadic pastoralists.

The Nilote groups migrated into present-day Kenya from areas along the Nile River to the northwest. The largest of these tribal groups today are the Luo, who are thought to have entered present-day Kenya in the 15th century. The Luo are descendants of the Lake Nilotes who migrated to the Lake Victoria Basin area of western Kenya. Other Nilotic migrations included the Plains Nilotes, nomadic pastoralists whose modern-day tribal descendants are the Turkana, the Samburu, and the Masai; and the Highland Nilotes, represented today by the various tribal groups known collectively as the Kalenjin. Together the traditional lands of these ethnic groups form a north-to-south swath along the Great Rift Valley and its western margins.

Many believe that the Bantus migrated westward and possibly northward to modern-day Kenya from Central Africa, although several modern Bantu-speaking tribes have oral...
histories that hold to an origin from areas north of Mount Kenya. As with all of the Kenyan migrations, there is much uncertainty about exactly when groups first arrived and, in some cases, from where. Unlike the pastoralist Nilotes and Cushites, the Bantus were primarily agriculturalists. Today their lands in the Highlands and Lake Victoria Basin are some of the most intensely cultivated regions in Kenya.

It is thought that the Bantus first arrived in the Lake Victoria Basin (where the Luyia, Gusii, and Kuria are their possible descendants) sometime between 200 and 1000 CE. Today, the Lake Victoria Basin is one of three separate regions now occupied by Bantu-speaking groups. The second major enclave of Bantu ethnic groups within modern-day Kenya is southern near-coastal areas, where (according to oral legends) the nine Mijikenda tribes fled to after being pushed south by Oromo invaders from the north several hundred years ago. (Some believe, however, that the Mijikenda migrated to the southern Kenya coastal regions from the south.)

On the western side of the Great Rift Valley is the third Bantu tribal grouping, including the Kikuyu (the largest tribe in Kenya), the Embu, the Meru, and the Akamba. This region extends from the Nairobi area in the south to the northern slopes of Mount Kenya in the north. Tribal oral histories vary significantly on how these groups got to their present location. The Meru claim that they moved westward from the coast, the Akamba traditions tell of a northward migration from the area around Mount Kilimanjaro, and the Kikuyu tell of moving southward and then westward from the Nyambeme Hills northeast of Mount Kenya.

Pre-Colonial Coastal Kenya
Coastal Kenya’s history is quite different than that of Kenya’s inland areas because of the East African coastal region’s numerous interactions with Indian Ocean traders. These encounters are documented as far back as the first century CE in the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea, a text thought to be written by a Greek-speaking Egyptian sea merchant. In it, he mentions a trading port along the East African coast known as Rhapta. The location of Rhapta is unknown, but it is believed to have been somewhere along the modern-day Tanzanian coast.

Very little knowledge or solid evidence of the East African coastal civilizations exists until around 900 CE. Ruins of Shanga, an ancient Arab trading village on Paté Island in the Lamu Archipelago, date from this period and are perhaps the oldest existing remnants of proto-Swahili architecture. Nearby, the ruins on Manda Island from around the same era included pieces of Chinese porcelain. Over the next four hundred years, other Arab and Persian trading centers sprang to life along the Kenyan coast, both in the Lamu region and further south in Malindi and Mombasa. Each of these port villages basically functioned as a separate sultanate, although for many years they were nominally under the domain of the Sultan of Kilwa (a small island located off the modern-day Tanzanian coast). The Middle Eastern traders brought salt, cloths, metal tools and weapons, beads, and cowrie shells, which they exchanged with coastal and inland Africans for ivory, tortoise shells, and leopard skins. A slave trade also became established during the Middle Eastern trading expeditions into the interior.

Over time, through intermarriage and cultural exchanges, a unique African-Arab cultural mélange developed along the coast, which today we refer to as the Swahili culture. The Bantu-based Swahili language, which incorporates numerous borrowings from Arabic, is another product of this cultural intermixing.

In 1498 the Portuguese explorer Vasco de Gama sailed to Mombasa and then Malindi, initiating the next chapter of coastal Kenya’s history. Over the next 200 years, the Portuguese through means of their naval power came to dominate the East African coastal trade, although they showed little interest in establishing colonies in the Kenyan coastal towns.

From the beginning, Mombasa became a center of resistance against the Portuguese control. The Portuguese reacted to the local resistance by periodically ransacking the town during the sixteenth century. As the rebellions continued and eventually were enjoined by a Turkish corsair, the Portuguese decided that they needed to establish a more permanent military presence in the region. As a result, in 1593, Fort Jesus was


Unfortunately for the Portuguese, Fort Jesus only briefly protected the Portuguese interests at Mombasa. In 1631 all but five Portuguese residents in Mombasa were killed during a local uprising. The Portuguese eventually were able to reestablish a precarious control over the fort and harbor, but by the end of the seventeenth century they found themselves once again under siege in Mombasa, this time by seven Omani ships sent by the Sultan in Muscat. After a 33-month standoff in which the Portuguese forces were nearly wiped out by an outbreak of bubonic plague, the Omani finally gained control of Mombasa.\footnote{Kenyalogy.com. The Kenyalogy Guide of Kenya’s Nature. Gomez-Garcia, Javier. “History: The Portuguese Empire (1498-1698).” June 2002. http://www.kenyalogy.com/eng/tienda/gklogyen.pdf}

However, the Omani proved to be no more popular with the local population and their leaders than had the Portuguese. Once again, numerous rebellions occurred throughout the East African coast, including rebellions in Mombasa and Paté. From the 1740s into the 1800s, the Omani rulers in Muscat were unable to exert control over much of the modern-day Kenyan coast, which was ruled by the Mazuris, a renegade Omani clan that had established a local dynasty centered in Mombasa.

Finally, in the 1820s and 1830s, a strong Omani ruler, Sayyid Sa’id ibn Sultan, began to reassert control over the areas that the Mazuris had come to dominate. From Zanzibar, which had remained loyal to the Sultanate, the Omani navy was able to take back Pemba, Paté, and Lamu, squeezing the Mazuris’ coastal sphere of influence on both the north and south.

In one of the more bizarre incidents of this period, a British naval commander, Captain W. F. Owen, on his own initiative, raised a British flag of protection over Mombasa as the Sa’id forces were beginning their initial assault on Mombasa in 1824. This action was repudiated by the British government two years later, as their trade interests in the Middle East region hinged on keeping friendly relations with the Omani rulers. The two years of British protection bought the Mazuris some time, but by 1837 Mombasa and the rest of the Kenyan coast was under Omani control.\footnote{Encylopædia Britannica Online. Low, D. Anthony. “History of Eastern Africa: The Omani Ascendancy.” 2007. http://www.britannica.com/eb/article-37490/history-of-eastern-Africa} To consolidate control of the increasingly profitable East African ports, the capital of the Omani sultanate was moved from Muscat to Zanzibar in 1840.

Slave trade during this period began to accelerate dramatically, in part because of the Omani clove plantations on the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba that made extensive use of
In the 1820s, the British were able to apply some pressure to restrict the coastal slave trade to areas under Omani control. While these measures effectively cut off slave trade to French territories, the restrictions did nothing to slow down the extensive slave trade operating between Arab territories.

Sayyid Sa’id died in 1856 and in the subsequent battle for succession, separate sultanates were created for Zanzibar and Muscat. The cleavage of the Sultanate of Oman was guaranteed by the British, who increasingly were involving themselves in the affairs of East Africa. While the British government was certainly motivated by economic self-interests, their increasing focus on East Africa was also tied to a humanitarian concern that was rising up within Britain. At home, popular opinion against the East African slave trade was being roused by, among others, Scottish missionary and explorer David Livingstone, who returned to Britain in 1864 after many years in Africa. The British government responded by increasingly applying pressure on the Sultan of Zanzibar, who in 1873 agreed to a British-negotiated ban on all slave trade operating out of sultanate ports. Four years later, the Sultan further outlawed inland slave caravans.

**The Colonial Era**

During the 1880s, East Africa became the subject of a scramble by European powers to secure their economic footholds in the region. Directly south of modern-day Kenya, in the area then known as Tanganyika (modern Tanzania), a German explorer/colonizer named Carl Peters was able to obtain interest to a number of territories that he and his partners then consolidated as the German East African Company. The German government issued them a charter in 1885. These actions led to the Anglo-German Agreement of 1886, in which much of East Africa was carved into “spheres of influence.” In this agreement, the dividing line between German and British areas was a line drawn from south of Mombasa on the coast to the shores of Lake Victoria, with Mount Kilimanjara lying just to the south of the line (i.e., on the German side). The Sultanate of Zanzibar, which included Mombasa, was separately negotiated to become a British Protectorate a few years later.

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This was the birth of the colonial region known as British East Africa, an area that today constitutes the countries of Kenya and Uganda. The Uganda portion of the region was not easy to reach from the coast, as the terrain was difficult and the feared Masai tribe occupied much of the direct path from Mombasa to Lake Victoria. Representatives of the Imperial British East Africa Company (IBEAC), which had the royal charter to represent the British government in British East Africa, lobbied London for funds to build a railroad to run from the coast to Uganda, but government support for the project was lukewarm at best. Only after the IBEAC went bankrupt and the British were faced with the possibility of losing all presence in the region did the government reconsider. In 1894, the Uganda Protectorate was established by Britain. The following year, much of modern-day Kenya was declared the British East Africa Protectorate. At the same time approval and funding was granted for the construction of a railway from Mombasa to the Uganda Protectorate.\(^{113}\)

The construction of the railway took six years. It was a controversial project, one dubbed the \textit{Lunatic Express} by the press in England. Economically, many at the time felt that the project did not make much sense, and it seemed to make even less sense when construction delays caused the initial budget to double.\(^{114}\) Nonetheless, the coming of the railway transformed the East Africa Protectorate. Three of Kenya’s five largest cities, including Nairobi, sprang to life as rail stations, and the railway provided linkage between coastal and inland areas that was virtually nonexistent prior to its construction. The railway also brought European settlers to the highland areas, triggering discontent when Masai and Kikuyu lands were expropriated for the settlers and many Africans were made to work on the settler’s farms.\(^{115}\)

During World War I, many of Kenya’s British settlers headed south to attack the German settler army in Tanganyika. Much of the African male population was conscripted as porters and soldiers, and they suffered significant losses through battle and diseases.\(^{116,117}\) After the war, German East Africa came under British control under the terms of the Versailles Treaty, thus uniting under British colonial control the region that would later become the East Africa Community as the independent countries of Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania (Tanganyika). As British war veterans began to move into Kenya’s “White


Highlands” as part of a British post-war resettlement program, increasing African resentment toward the settlers set into motion the seeds of revolt. Many of the leaders of the initial nationalist movements were Kikuyu, a tribe whose homeland was most affected by the settlements in the Highland regions around Nairobi.

Foremost among these early African fighters against colonial rule was a Kikuyu whose birth name was Kamau wa Ngengi. At age 20, after converting to Christianity, he was baptized Johnstone Kamau. However, years later the world would come to know him as Jomo Kenyatta, the first president of the new nation of Kenya.

In 1921, Kenyatta joined the East African Association, a group fighting to regain Kikuyu lands taken when Kenya became a British crown colony in 1920. After governmental pressures caused the East Africa Association to disband in 1925, he subsequently joined the Kikuyu Central Association (KCA), a successor group to the East African Association. In 1929 and 1931, Kenyatta traveled to London to press the group’s demands for return of their lands and to also argue against a proposed closer union between Britain’s three East African colonies, a proposal that the KCA viewed as not in the best interests of the Kikuyu.

Kenyatta’s lobbying did not produce much in the way of change in British colonial practices in East Africa. He stayed on in Europe for 15 years, eventually earning a PhD in anthropology from the London School of Economics. During this time, he also briefly joined the Communist Party and became known as an outspoken African nationalist. In 1945, he helped organized the Fifth Pan African Congress in Manchester, England, a session that also included African-American protest leader W. E. D. DuBois and Kwame Nkrumah (future first president of Ghana).

After Kenyatta returned to British East Africa in September 1946, he soon became leader of the newly founded Kenya African Union (KAU) and continued to actively engage the British colonial administration on land return issues and African political equality.

As Kenyatta and the KAU continued to push for peaceful political and economic change, factions within the African nationalist movement were becoming increasingly frustrated and moving to more violent methods to effect change. Within Kenya in the late 1940s, a resistance group that came to be referred to as the Mau Mau began to carry out secret oathing rituals. The Mau Mau (the origin of the group’s name remains a mystery) were mostly Kikuyu tribespeople, although they also included some members from the neighboring Embu, Meru, and Akamba tribes. The group was declared illegal in 1950, but the ban had little effect on recruitment.

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In 1952, as attacks on white settlers and African supporters of the colonists (known as “loyalists”) began to mount, the Kenyan government declared a state of emergency. Several nationalist leaders, including Jomo Kenyatta, were arrested and charged with being involved in the revolt. Although it was later established that Kenyatta did not have any involvement with the Mau Mau movement, he was eventually sentenced to seven years of hard labor for his alleged role in the Mau Mau uprisings.\textsuperscript{120}

Fear and terror began to sweep the Highlands, as Kikuyu loyalists, Mau Maus, and the British became enmeshed in what was both a brutal colonial war and a violent Kikuyu civil war. Even though the Mau Mau rebellion was effectively defeated by 1956, concern that subsequent protests could reignite the violence of the Mau Mau period colored British Kenya colonial reactions throughout the remainder of the 1950s.\textsuperscript{121}

In 1959, after stories concerning a British-run torture camp in western Kenya became public in England, the British government accelerated their efforts to disengage from the Kenyan colonial morass.\textsuperscript{122} As power was gradually transferred to a democratically elected African government, the KAU splintered into two parties. One was the Kenya Africa National Union (KANU), with Jomo Kenyatta, who was still under government house arrest, serving as its leader. The KANU felt that post-colonial Kenya should be governed under a strong centralized authority. Its rival was the Kenya African Democratic Union (KADU) led by Ronald Ngala and Daniel arap Moi. The KADU favored a more decentralized structure, fearing that a centralized government might lead to Kikuyu dominance. Despite their differences, both organizations worked for the release of Kenyatta, who was finally freed in August 1961.\textsuperscript{123}

Shortly after Kenyatta’s release, the two Kenyan political parties united to form a coalition for the emergent Kenyan government. Kenya became fully independent in December 1963. The following year, the Republic of Kenya came into existence with Kenyatta as President. The KANU quickly became the dominant political party, with several former KADU members, including Moi, assuming administrative and ministerial positions within the new KANU government.\textsuperscript{124,125}

\begin{thebibliography}{99}
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Kenyatta’s early policies for the new country focused on smoothing the transition to nationhood for a country of people with strong ethnic ties but having little in the way of a unifying national identity other than seventy years of British colonial domination. Wealth was spread around to the country’s various ethnic groups, although much of the former settler lands bought by the government and targeted for redistribution eventually ended up in the control of wealthy Kikuyu. (These Kikuyu elite came to be known as the “Kiambu Mafia,” after the name of Kenyatta’s home district, although they were not all from the Kiambu area.) Free-market capitalism and foreign investment were encouraged, and the property rights of the white settlers were guaranteed, thus helping to ensure a more orderly transfer to an Africanized Kenya.

As Kenya’s economy grew, the country became a symbol of Africa’s potential. Tourism and foreign investment grew and the country seemed to be a model African nation: democratic, politically stable, and with a generally higher standard of living than much of Africa. However, behind the bright facade, dangerous cracks could be seen. The country’s economic growth was not felt by much of Kenya’s poor, and the unemployment level remained very high. In addition, much of Kenya’s valuable lands remained in the hands of a small minority, albeit now an African one rather than a British one.

Kenyatta’s consolidation of power had left Kenya a de facto one-party nation and left few outlets for dissent. Vice President Jaramogi Oginga Odinga, a Luo, became disgruntled and left the KANU in 1966 to form the Kenya People’s Union (KPU) party. Three years later, Thomas Mboya, also a Luo and the Government’s Minister for Economic Planning and Development, was assassinated. Many Luo suspected powerful Kikuyu members of KANU as being behind the killing, and in the ensuing political battle Kenyatta banned the KPU and had Odinga arrested. Odinga was later released in 1971 in an act of reconciliation, but the ethnic divisions were difficult to erase and have continued to characterize Kenyan politics to this day.

When another dissident KANU member, Josiah Mwangi Kariuki, was killed in 1975, student riots broke out at the University of Nairobi, ultimately leading to Kenyatta agreeing to an independent investigation of the circumstances of Kariuki’s death. When the resulting report implicated members of Kenyatta’s government, several KANU members of Parliament called for a “no confidence” vote. After the Deputy Speaker and

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two other members of Parliament were arrested, resistance against the Kenyatta government quickly collapsed, although the political environment continued to be one of suspicion and fear.  

Jomo Kenyatta died in 1978 and was succeeded by the Vice President, Daniel arap Moi. Some powerful Kikuyu initially tried to keep Moi from power, but they were thwarted by two Kikuyu cabinet members, Attorney General Charles Njonjo and Finance Minister Mwai Kibaki. Moi was a member of the Kalenjin, a smaller tribe than either the Kikuyu or Luo, and was thought to be a president who might steer the country away from ethnic politics and corruption, and help institute reform policies to aid Kenya’s many poor. However, over time the Moi government became increasingly autocratic, dissent became outlawed, and corruption among the government elite and their supporters came to match anything seen during the Kenyatta years.

In 1982 the National Assembly amended the Constitution and formalized Kenya’s “one party” policy, which was followed shortly thereafter by a failed coup attempt by junior Air Force officers that was supported by many university students. After the Army came to his support and quashed the rebellion, Moi subsequently dismantled the Kenyan Air Force and temporarily closed Kenyan universities. Moi’s former benefactor, Charles Njonjo, was arrested the following year and convicted on charges of treason and subversion for his role in the coup attempt, but was subsequently pardoned by Moi.

In 1983 and 1988, Moi won reelection as an unopposed candidate in national elections. During the 1980s, the Moi government continued to receive foreign aid owing to his pro-Western policies, but as the Soviet bloc collapsed in the early 1990s, international donors began to demand political and economic reforms.

In 1991, Moi repealed the one-party law when all international aid to Kenya was suspended for six months pending the institution of political and economic reforms. Multiparty elections were subsequently held in 1992 and 1997, but they were marred by

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ethnic violence during both the pre- and post-election periods. Moi’s KANU party won both elections with 36 and 40 percent of the vote, respectively. The closeness of the 1997 election forced Moi to create a coalition government by bringing in some minority parties, the first time in the history of Kenya that parties other than KANU shared in governmental power.

**Recent History**

In 1998, Nairobi was rocked by a violent explosion at the U.S. Embassy that killed 214 people and injured over 5,000. The bombing was later tied to the al Qaeda terrorist organization. The terrorist attack struck a crippling blow to Kenyan tourism, the Kenyan economy’s largest source of foreign revenue. Eventually tourism began to rebound, but new al Qaeda attacks in 2002 on a tourist hotel near Mombasa and an Israeli jet taking off from the Mombasa airport brought further travel warnings about Kenya in the U.S. and Europe. Since then, Kenyan tourism has once again rebounded, but the government, concerned about the potential devastating effects of further terrorist actions in their country, has been active in instituting anti-terrorist policies and training.

In 2002, Daniel arap Moi was constitutionally barred from running for re-election as a result of a two-term limit instituted in the multiparty election reforms of the early 1990s. Moi’s hand-picked successor was Uhuru Kenyatta, Jomo Kenyatta’s son. Unlike previous Kenyan elections, in which a vast array of minority parties splintered the vote and allowed KANU to win with far less than 50 percent, an opposition coalition party known as the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) coalesced behind Mwai Kibaki and won with over 60 percent of the vote.

Kibaki campaigned to make primary education free, to strengthen the economy, to provide better and more universal healthcare, to institute constitutional reforms to reduce the powers of the presidency, and to eliminate corruption. In the intervening five years,
there has been demonstrable progress towards achieving the first three goals.\textsuperscript{144,145,146} Constitutional reform, on the other hand, has been a very thorny issue that has caused much of Kibaki’s fragile coalition to fragment. A draft constitution was defeated in a referendum in 2005, after which Kibaki dismissed his entire cabinet.\textsuperscript{147}

The Kibaki administration’s biggest failure to date, however, has been on the issue of corruption. An anti-corruption commission was put into place soon after Kibaki came to power, but its director, John Githongo, resigned in 2005 and moved to Great Britain. In January 2006, he provided details about alleged fraud in the issuance of a Kenyan passport printing contract. Githongo’s charges included the involvement of Kenya’s Vice President and several Kibaki administration cabinet ministers. The political fall-out from this scandal (known as the Anglo Leasing deal) has been great, but one positive is that there now seems to be less nationwide tolerance for both small-scale and large-scale acts of corruption than there was during the days of one-party rule.\textsuperscript{148}

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ECONOMY

Industry
While certainly not an industrial powerhouse of the likes of China or Germany, Kenya is East Africa’s largest industrial producer, with 12.4 percent of the country’s gross domestic product in 2005 coming from manufacturing. Much of this output comes from local subsidiaries of multinational corporations. Processing of agricultural products (e.g., grain milling, sugarcane crushing) and the production of consumer goods are the dominant industrial activities. Nairobi, Mombasa, and Kisumu are the primary industrial centers.

Some of the fastest growing areas in the manufacturing economy have been tobacco products (36.9 percent growth from 2004 to 2005), plastic products (25.9 percent growth), paper and paper products (20.8 percent growth), meat and dairy products (18.2 percent growth), beverages (15.9 percent growth), and cement (13.3 percent growth). Other industries that are not growing as fast are still major contributors to the country’s economy. These include petroleum products (produced at a refinery in the Mombasa area), rubber products, transport equipment, printed materials, and textiles and clothing.

One of the problems that the manufacturing sector in Kenya still faces is that most of its raw materials must be imported. This problem is further exasperated by long delays in clearing customs at Mombasa harbor, poor rail service to inland industrial centers, and deteriorated road infrastructure. On top of all of these transportation issues, energy costs are high in Kenya. As a result, it is difficult to produce products that will be cost competitive on the world market. It is hoped that the recently instituted East African Community (EAC) Customs Union may aid at least some of Kenya’s industries by effectively expanding the size of the domestic market and thus creating more favorable economies of scale for Kenyan manufacturers.
Banking

The Central Bank of Kenya (CBK) is responsible for planning and implementing the country’s monetary policy and overseeing the Kenyan banking industry. Unfortunately, the CBK and Kenyan banking industry have been involved in two high-level corruption scandals over the past 15 years that has shaken the confidence in the country’s supervision of its banking industry.

In March 2006, the Governor of the CBK, Andrew Mullei, was charged with four counts of abuse of office by allegedly illegally hiring four people, including his son, as consultants. The consultants had been brought in by Mullei and the CBK to investigate charges of tax evasion and money laundering by Charterhouse Bank, one of the 42 Kenyan banks under CBK purview. Defenders of Mullei claim that the charges against him and his subsequent suspension as CBK Governor are retribution for having recommended that Charterhouse be de-licensed after receiving the consultants’ interim report on the bank’s activities. (The court’s decision in the Mullei case had not yet been decided as of April 2007.) In November 2006, the U.S. Ambassador to Kenya, Michael Ranneberger, called on the Kenyan government to pass anti-money-laundering legislation so as to avoid future recurrences of Charterhouse-style scandals.

The Charterhouse banking scandal came at an inopportune time, as the CBK was still trying to emerge from the black cloud of a corruption scandal that occurred during the early 1990s and came to light during the last years of the Moi administration. Known as the Goldenberg scandal (for the name of the gold-and diamond-exporting firm that allegedly manipulated the CBK for a 35-percent return on hard-currency conversions from phony mineral exports), the scandal ultimately became tied to several high-level government officials past and present, including President Moi himself. It may ultimately have cost the CBK as much as KSh 60 billion (USD 850 million), or one fifth the Kenyan GDP. Ultimately the Goldenberg scandal significantly contributed much of Kenya’s economic suffering of the 1990s. During this time, a confluence of out-of-

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control inflation, a rapidly inflating national debt, and a cutoff of international donor support brought the economy’s growth to a standstill.\textsuperscript{164}

\textbf{Trade}

Kenya continues to show a significant trade deficit. Because Kenya’s manufacturing products are not currently competitive in most world markets, a large part of Kenya’s trade deficit is in manufactured goods (2005 imports of USD 3.39 billion versus exports of USD 638 million). Within the manufactured goods category, Kenya runs its largest deficit in machinery and transport equipment (2005 imports of USD 1.50 billion versus exports of USD 55 million).\textsuperscript{165}

Another significant percentage of the deficit comes from the importing of fuels and minerals. Although some of Kenya’s crude oil imports are later exported after being processed at the Mombasa refinery, the overall gap between imports and exports was USD 634 million in 2005.\textsuperscript{166}

Agricultural products are Kenya’s most valuable exports (2005 exports of USD 1.50 billion versus imports of USD 676 million). In no other broad trade category for goods does Kenya show a net trade surplus. In the services sector, tourism does help to reduce the trade deficit and provides Kenya with its single most important source of foreign currency.

Horticultural products (fruits, vegetables, cut flowers) are often pointed to as one of the few Kenyan trade success stories.\textsuperscript{167} Now only tourism brings in more trade dollars than horticultural items, and only tea within the goods category comes close to generating as much export revenue.\textsuperscript{168}

Kenya has long been associated with coffee as well, and as recently as 1989 coffee was the country’s most valuable export. Since then, however, export revenues from Kenyan coffee have shown a steady decline. The causes for the downward trend include lower world coffee prices, reduced production as small farmers switch to other crops, droughts, and corruption in coffee cooperatives that lessen the amount earned by the coffee

growers. In 2004 and 2005, export revenues from coffee finally began to reverse direction and increase again, reflecting a rise in global prices for coffee.

Kenya’s top trading partners for exports are Uganda (13.6 percent), United Kingdom (10.4 percent), Tanzania (8.2 percent), the Netherlands (7.8 percent), Pakistan (6.3 percent), Egypt (4.4 percent), and the United States (3.8 percent). Most of Kenya’s exports to the United States are clothing and textiles that enter the U.S. duty free under terms of the African Growth and Opportunity Act of 2000. In terms of imports, Kenya’s leading trading partners are the United Arab Emirates (14.6 percent), United Kingdom (10.9 percent), South Africa (8.9 percent), India (6.1 percent), Japan (5.2 percent), China (4.8 percent), and Saudi Arabia (4.8 percent).

Investment
Accurate statistics on foreign direct investment in Kenya are difficult to obtain, but the country has clearly gone through a period of low investment input since the mid-1980s. During that time, the country suffered from a deteriorating infrastructure, political corruption, inconsistent economic policies, and haphazard institution of economic structural reforms. A Kenya Investment Guide published by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development in May 2005 reported that poor infrastructure in transportation and telecommunications, high costs associated with crime, and expensive and undependable power and water sources created disincentives for Kenyan investment.

On the other hand, Kenya has been striving in recent years to improve its overall investment setting. The Investment Promotion Act of 2004 streamlined some of the legal and administrative procedures for new foreign or joint venture investments. Since the early 1990s, Kenya has promoted the development of Export Processing Zones (EPZs)

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that encourage export-oriented businesses to locate in Kenya in exchange for tax and tariff breaks. Over 85 percent of these businesses are foreign owned or joint ventures.\textsuperscript{175}

Most of the EPZs are located in Mombasa or Nairobi, with the largest one located in the suburban town of Athi River not far from Nairobi’s Jomo Kenyatta International Airport. In 2004, over 10 percent of Kenya’s overall exports came from businesses operating in the EPZs.\textsuperscript{176} Much of the EPZ growth since 2000 has come from garment manufacturing enterprises that have started up to take advantage of the U.S. African Growth and Opportunity Act.\textsuperscript{177} The working conditions in some of the enterprises within the EPZs have been an ongoing subject of controversy over the past few years.\textsuperscript{178,179}

During 1993-94, the Kenyan government enacted an economic Structural Adjustment Program prescribed by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). As controls on foreign exchange, prices, and interest rates were phased out and the economy moved toward greater privatization, Kenya went through a phase of macroeconomic shock therapy. To negate some of the negative effects of the economic liberalization, the government embraced microfinance service providers as a way to jump-start development at the grass-roots level.\textsuperscript{180,181} The microfinance lenders specialize in loans for small or micro-entrepreneurial enterprises and for historically underserved economic groups, such as rural workers and women. Such assistance has continued to this day and is a key component of the Kenyan Government’s poverty reduction program.\textsuperscript{182}

**Energy and Resources**

Kenya has no fossil fuel sources of its own, although offshore petroleum exploration is ongoing.\textsuperscript{183} The country is able to generate nearly 55 percent of its electricity from hydropower dams, and geothermal plants in the Great Rift Valley produce an additional


17 percent of Kenya’s electricity.184 Despite high start-up costs, geothermal energy is viewed as the country’s best bet for reducing its reliance on imported fossil fuels, which are used to generate most of the remainder of Kenya’s current electricity needs.185,186 A small amount of Kenya’s electricity is imported from Uganda, although fluctuations in rainfall, and thus hydroelectric generating capacity, can increase this amount during dry years and can also lead to periodic power outages. As power usage increases and rainfall patterns continue to be unpredictable, increasing shortages are expected in the future.187

Kenya’s mineral resources are limited. Soda ash and fluorspar are the most valuable minerals that are mined and generate 63 percent and 17 percent of the value of Kenya’s mineral exports, respectively. Small gold-mining operations in the western part of the country make gold the third most valuable mineral export (11 percent of total revenue). Three cement companies in the Nairobi and Mombasa areas produce cement using locally mined limestone. The cement is both used in the domestic construction industry and exported to neighboring countries.

**Standard of Living**

Until very recently, the standard of living in Kenya had been going through a period of steady decline. Today, Kenya ranks 152nd out of 177 countries on the Human Development Index, a frequently used measure of standard of living that considers GDP per capita, adult literacy, school attendance at various levels, and life expectancy. To be sure, much of Sub-Saharan Africa has been showing steady or declining HDI scores primarily because of the terrible toll that HIV/AIDS has placed on average life expectancy in these countries (including Kenya).188 (AIDS also adversely affects economic output, as the economically most productive age group, ages 15–49, is also the group most severely ravaged by the disease.189) Nonetheless, the Kenyan HDI drop has exceeded that of its neighbors. This decline has been attributed to the relatively stagnant economic growth during the last decade of the Moi era as corruption, a wavering commitment to economic reform, and massive flooding in 1997–98 generally kept the

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brakes on outside investment and development grants.\textsuperscript{190} Kenya has dropped 20 places in the HDI rankings from 2002 to 2005, having fallen behind its neighbor Uganda in that time.\textsuperscript{191}

Beginning in 2003, the newly elected Kibaki administration instituted some reforms—most notably in opening up access to primary education and strongly committing to the implementation of HIV/AIDS awareness, testing, and prevention programs.\textsuperscript{192} The economy has also seen increasing growth during the last three years. These measures and trends should eventually help raise Kenya’s HDI scores.

However, as important as it is for Kenya to raise its overall standard of living measures, a more daunting task will be to bridge the tremendous standard-of-living gap between Kenya’s more prosperous areas, most notably Nairobi and the surrounding areas, and the rest of the country. The statistics bear out the immensity of the problem. Only in Nairobi and the adjoining Central Province is the poverty rate less than 50 percent. Areas such as the North Eastern Province have an HDI value that ranks far below all 177 countries measured in the HDI rankings, whereas the HDI for Nairobi is comparable to Turkey, a country with a much higher standard of living than virtually all of Sub-Saharan Africa.\textsuperscript{193,194}

Numerous factors, some very difficult to address, come to bear in Kenya’s standard-of-living differences. Most of the northern and eastern parts of the country are arid to semi-arid lands that are subject to periodic droughts. In the much wetter Lake Victoria region, increasing population density, poor health care, soil erosion, and low investment have made this area one of the poorest in all of Kenya. Even within Nairobi, many citizens exist on the margins of the country’s economy, and this financial insecurity contributes to increasing urban crime, which in turn has a negative effect on attracting outside investment.\textsuperscript{195}

Agriculture
Kenya’s economy has always been a dominantly agricultural one, despite the fact that only 7 to 8 percent of the country is considered high-potential agricultural lands. Most non-pastoral agricultural activity occurs in the Highlands, the Lake Victoria Basin, and parts of the Coast region, where rainfall is more dependable. Approximately three quarters of all Kenyans make a living in the agricultural sector. Agriculture, including forestry and fishing, currently directly generates 26 percent of Kenya’s GDP and another 27 percent indirectly through other economic sectors.

Agriculture is particularly important to Kenya’s economy because of its large contribution to foreign exports (generating 60 percent of Kenya’s export earnings and 45 percent of all government revenues). Kenya’s largest cash crops for export are horticultural crops (primarily cut flowers) and tea, producing 19.9 and 18 percent, respectively, of Kenya’s total export revenue. Much smaller export contributions come from coffee, tobacco (including manufactured tobacco), and fish (primarily Nile perch from Lake Victoria). Other important food products, grown mostly for domestic use, include corn, wheat, and sugarcane.

One of Kenya’s lesser known leading agricultural exports is pyrethrum, a flower whose extract is used in insecticides. Presently Kenya supplies 70 percent of the world’s pyrethrum. The extract (pyrethrin) has seen growing use in insecticides because of the increasing demand for organic materials in these products.

The tea industry is a good example of how, in broad terms, some of Kenya’s export-focused agricultural segments operate. Kenya is one of the largest producers of tea, ranked fourth among all countries in overall production and second in export values. About 60 percent of all tea grown in Kenya is grown by “smallholders,” i.e. farmers on small plots averaging about 0.8 hectares (2 acres). Most of these farmers’ tea crops are

processed and marketed through the Kenya Tea Development Agency, a former state-owned and now privately held company that owns over 50 tea factories in the country. The private owners of the KTDA are the smallholders themselves.

The remaining Kenyan tea is grown on large estates that have their own factories and do their own marketing. The largest estate tea growers are Brooke Bond Kenya Ltd. and James Finlay Ltd., who are owned by the multinational corporations Unilever and the Swire Group, respectively. Unlike the smallholder farms, the tea estates have many full-time workers. Both the estates and the KTDA sell the majority of their tea in bulk at weekly auctions in Mombasa.203

Tourism
On a balance-of-trade basis, tourism is the most important segment of the Kenyan economy. In 2005, tourism generated 20 percent of Kenya’s foreign exchange revenues, more than tea and horticulture exports, the next highest contributors to foreign exchange earnings.204 In fiscal year 2005/06, Kenya tourism generated over USD $600 million in revenue.205 It is also estimated that Kenyan tourism generates 500,000 jobs both directly and indirectly, and these workers in turn support another 850,000 dependents.206

Nearly 55 percent of Kenya’s tourist visitors come from Europe. Germans represent the highest percentage of these visitors, followed by travelers from the United Kingdom. In recent years, the largest percentage increases in visitors have been from Asia and the Middle East.207

There are two major components to African tourism. Of these two, the one most widely associated with Kenya is wildlife park viewing, which has become especially popular as eco-tourism has developed into a major segment of the tourism industry. Some of these parks are far from Nairobi or Mombasa, and thus many tourist visitors to the remote parks depend on domestic flights from Nairobi’s Wilson Airport.208

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Kenya’s coastal areas provide beach resorts, the second major tourism component in Kenya. Mombasa is the base for much of this tourism. In terms of overall visitors and revenue, the coastal tourism trade is more important to Kenya’s economy than the wildlife parks component. It is for this reason that coastal disturbances that generate security concerns, such as local ethnic fighting that took place before the 1997 national elections or the Mombasa terrorist bombing in 2002, can have an extremely large impact on overall tourism in Kenya.²⁰⁹,²¹⁰

Transportation

On paper, Kenya would seem to have a good transportation system. Railroad lines connect the country to Uganda and Tanzania, its two largest neighboring trade partners, and they provide a link between the Indian Ocean port of Mombasa and the Lake Victoria port of Kisumu. Numerous highways run between all of the major cities and provide routes to and from each of Kenya’s neighboring countries. The two largest cities, Mombasa and Nairobi, have large international airports, and Wilson Airport in Nairobi, which handles domestic flights, is one of the busiest in Africa.

Unfortunately, the Kenya transportation system has not been well maintained, particularly during the last two decades as the country’s economy went through a long decline. The most dramatic example of these problems is the national railway system.

Railroads

Until November 2006, Kenya Railways, a corporation owned by the government, was in charge of Kenya’s rail transportation system. Services were gradually cut back as insufficient funding and poor management led to inadequate maintenance and a shortage of working rolling stock.²¹¹ Several branch lines have ceased to be used as conditions worsened.²¹²

In late 2006, the system was transferred to a concession arrangement. Rift Valley Railways (RVR), a South African-led consortium, took over the railroad under terms of a 25-year operating license. However, promises by RVR of investments in the system and purchases of new locomotives and other rolling stock have yet to be fulfilled. In the meantime the Port of Mombasa has been plagued by cargo pile-ups at the docks because

of the decreasing ability of the rail system to move goods to Nairobi and other inland destinations.213

**Highways**
Approximately 80 percent of Kenya’s roads are unpaved, including significant portions of the major routes to the Ethiopian and Somali borders. Elsewhere, important paved roads have fallen into disrepair in places. The bad road conditions lead to higher transport costs, which make Kenyan products less competitive in the global market.

However, there are some signs of improvement. For example, recent and ongoing work on sections of the main road connecting Mombasa to Uganda via Nairobi has improved travel times on parts of this key transportation corridor. Much of this road improvement was aided through grants from the European Union.214 Another road being upgraded is the main highway from Kenya to Ethiopia, whose mostly unpaved northern portion is notoriously bad.215

**Air Transportation**
There are 200 airports in Kenya, most of which have unpaved runways. By far the most important ones in terms of international trade and tourism are Jomo Kenyatta International Airport (JKIA) in Nairobi and Moi International Airport in Mombasa. Presently JKIA is in the first stages of an expansion project that will eventually add a fourth air passenger terminal, upgrade security and safety standards, and renovate existing facilities, including cargo handling operations. Malindi Airport, an important air connection for tourists traveling between Nairobi and the Kenyan coast, is also earmarked for expansion, as is the airport at the Lake Victoria port city of Kisumu.216

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Business Outlook
The overall climate for business in Kenya is improving, although potential dark clouds can also be seen. Since 2004, the economy has shown steady growth, with GDP increases in the 4.5-6 percent range after many years in which the economy seldom grew by more than 3 percent.\(^\text{217,218}\) Tourism is increasing quickly, as interest in eco-tourism grows and tourist terrorism fears abate. Transport infrastructure remains a concern, but key road systems are being upgraded and there is still hope that the newly privatized railway system can eventually institute needed improvements. Tax administration changes have increased domestic revenues without raising overall taxes. HIV/AIDS and education reforms show a governmental commitment to societal concerns that eventually should transfer into a more stable social environment and improve the country’s long-term prospects for increased prosperity. The manufacturing sector has been growing steadily, spurred primarily by increased domestic demand for goods and growth in a few local trade areas, such as cement exports to Uganda.\(^\text{219}\) All of these trends add to the feeling of cautious optimism about Kenya’s medium-term economic future and the overall business climate.\(^\text{220}\)

However, there are numerous concerns as well. Kenya, with no fossil fuel resources of its own, a large balance-of-trade deficit, and already high transport costs for its mostly inland-located businesses, is particularly vulnerable to high oil prices. New geothermal and hydroelectric projects are underway, but until they are completed it is likely that Kenya will see shortfalls in its electricity generation.\(^\text{221}\) Corruption, a relatively weak legal and judicial system, burdensome regulatory requirements, and a high crime rate are problems that continue to dampen the enthusiasm of outside investors. These hidden expenses of doing business plus Kenya’s high transportation and energy costs continue to hamper the competitiveness of most Kenyan manufactured products outside the regional area.\(^\text{222}\)

International Organizations
Kenya is a member of most international trade, banking, and business organizations. One of these, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), has extended numerous loans and credits to Kenya over the years. These loans were cut off during much of the late 1990s and early 2000s over concerns about management of the Kenyan economy and high-level corruption. Numerous other donor organizations, including the World Bank, followed the IMF lead and also cut off financial assistance to Kenya. \(^{223,224}\) Recently, the IMF reinstated Kenya on its funding list by releasing loans of KSh 4 billion (USD 56.8 million) for poverty relief programs. \(^{225}\)


Society

Introduction
East Africa, where Kenya is located, is considered to be the center of human origin. There are indications that humans lived in Tanzania’s Olduvai Gorge at the edge of the Great Rift Valley over 2 million years ago. It is also in this region where Jane Goodall conducted over 30 years of research on chimpanzee behavior before her untimely death.

Here in East Africa, Swahili is spoken by more than 50 million people. It is interesting to note that the basic greetings in Swahili are more complex and time consuming than greetings in most European languages, reflecting the friendliness and politeness of the East African peoples. This complexity demonstrates the importance of human interaction and mutual respect in Swahili-speaking societies. The following chapter attempts to introduce you to the Kenyan people and their lifestyles.

Ethnic Groups
There are over 70 ethnic groups in Kenya. They are comprised of the Kikuyu at 22 percent, Luhya at 14 percent, Luo at 13 percent, Kalenjin at 12 percent, Kamba at 11 percent, Kisii at 6 percent, Meru at 6 percent, other African at 15 percent, and non-African (Asian, European, and Arab) at 1 percent. The ethnic groups can be divided up into three main groups, the Bantu, the Nilotic, and the Cushite.

Bantu
The Bantu people live mostly in Kenya’s coastal areas. The Kikuyu is the largest ethnic group of the Bantu people and reside mainly in northern Nairobi. Many of them are in the nation’s government and social structure. The remainder of the Bantu people are comprised of the Embu, Mberu, Kamba, Luhya, Guba, Kuria, Gusii, Mijikenda, Pokomo and Tharaka.

The Nilotic people are comprised of the Masai, Luo, Kalenjin, (which includes sub-tribes of the Kipsigis, Nandi, Tugen, Marakwet, Keiyo, Pokot, Terik, and Sabaot), and make up about one-quarter

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of Kenya’s total population. The rural Luo live in the lower parts of Kenya’s western plateau while the Kalenjin-speaking people live in the higher parts of the plateau. The Masai are rural itinerants in the southern region bordering Tanzania.\textsuperscript{232}

**Cushite**

The Cushites, which make up a small portion of Kenya’s population, are mostly nomadic cattle herders. Many of these people can be found at Lake Turkana and the remote coastal areas. The Cushites are comprised of the Boni, Boran Burji, Dassenich, El-Molo, Gabbra, Orma, Sakuye, Galla, Rendille, Wata, Yaaka and Dahalo tribes.\textsuperscript{233}

**Other**

Arabs, Pakistani (or, by Kenyan standards, “Asian”), Indian, and European Kenyans make up the remainder of the ethnic groups. The Indians and Pakistani immigrated from colonial rule and many remained after Kenya’s independence. The European Kenyans are British in origin and are remnants from the farming and colonial populations. Most of these people live in cities like Nairobi and Mombasa. The Arabs, who are offspring of Arab and African marriages, live mainly on Kenya’s coast.\textsuperscript{234}

**Languages**

English and Kiswahili, or Swahili, are the official languages of Kenya. There are also numerous indigenous languages.

**English**

Often times during colonization, the native language is replaced with the language of the colonists. In this case, the native languages of Kenya were replaced with English. There is some concern about this. Historians have noted how native African speaking students were demoted, humiliated, and possibly beaten, to learn the English language. Others would have seen the transition to the English language as a practical alternative to enhance inter-nation communication.

One well-known Kenyan writer, Ngugi wa Thiong’o, preferred to move away from English. He felt that native people would better understand themselves by speaking their native tongue. Ngugi wa Thiong’o felt that learning English was a “cultural bomb” that continued to erase any Kenyan memories before the colonization.\textsuperscript{235} He also felt that African texts should be written in their native languages. In 1969, he began to question the English language and wanted the English Department at the University of Nairobi to be replaced with a Black Literature Department. Thus, began the activism toward returning to Kenya’s native tongue.\textsuperscript{236}

The African argument is that a black person cannot have a healthy concept of him or herself while having an Anglo Saxon image as a role model. Africans argue that learning English has disconnected them from their culture and history, and forces them to become more dependent on foreign leaders.237

Swahili
Swahili is a language borne from the Bantu tribe peoples. It is spoken by 35 million people and is the official language of not only Kenya, but Tanzania and Uganda as well. The name “Swahili” is derived from the word “sawāhili” (coasts). This language contains derivatives from the Arabic, Persian, Malagasy, English, German and Portuguese languages.238

Once the missionaries came to Africa, they would teach Swahili as a communication tool to spread the gospel. As a result of this, the first Swahili-English dictionary was written by a missionary. Swahili spread into Zanzibar where it has its own dialect known as Kiunguja. Swahili is now spoken in many countries in East Africa and there are efforts under way to continue promoting the language. As Swahili is becoming more widely spoken, radio stations such as the BBC, Radio Cairo, and the Voice of America have it as a language option. Also, in the Disney movie, “The Lion King,” the song “Hakuna Matata,” is Swahili for “no troubles, no problems.”239

Indigenous
Kenya is home to 61 living languages. Some of these unique languages are Borana, Bukusu, Chonyi, Chuka, Luyia, Digo, Embu, Garreh-Ajuran, Gikuyu, Giryama, Gusii, and Luo.

Borana is spoken by 152,000 people in the eastern province of Kenya. Bukusu is spoken by 565,000 people and is spoken in the Bungoma District, Mt. Elgon, and the Western Province. Chonyi is spoken by 121,000 people on Kenya’s coast. Chuka is spoken by 70,000 people in the Southern Meru District of the Eastern Province. Luyia is spoken by 3,418,083 people throughout the country. Digo is spoken by 247,000 people in the coastal area south of Mombasa. Embu is spoken by 429,000 people in the Eastern Province. Garreh-Ajuran is spoken by 128,000 people in the Northeastern Province. Gikuyu is spoken by 5,347,000 people in West central Kenya and the Central Province. Giryama is spoken by 623,000 people north of Mombasa, in the Kilifi and Kwale Districts as well as the coastal areas. Gusii is spoken by 1,582,000 people in the Southwestern areas and in the Nyanza Province. Luo is spoken by 3,418,083 people throughout the country. 240

Religion
The main religions in Kenya are Protestant at 45 percent, Roman Catholic at 33 percent, and Muslim at 10 percent, indigenous beliefs at 10 percent, and other at 2 percent.241

Christianity and Islam
Christian missionaries began to arrive in Kenya at the end of the 19th century. Kenya’s interior opened up after the completion of the railroad between Mombasa and Uganda. This allowed easier access to the rest of the country for the missionaries. During the 1920s and 1930s, churches were founded mostly in the regions where the Kikuyu, Luo, and Luyia resided. The intention was to combine both Christian and indigenous beliefs. When the colonists settled, a church was allocated to them in their particular territory.

A firm Christian follower, Johana Owalo, who was the founder of Kenya’s largest Christian church, the Nomiya Luo Church, became disenchanted with Christianity and converted to Islam. Thus, the Islamic movement came into being. Over half of Kenya’s Muslim population is of Somali background. Most of the remainder is on the coast. The Bajun, Mijikenda and Pokomo tribes are also Muslim.

Indigenous
Almost all of the indigenous religions share the same characteristics. They believe in an eternal omnipotent creator. In the Kikuyu tribe, for instance, their god is Murungu, or Ngai, which is borrowed from the Masai people. They believe that if they please their spirits, they will be successful, and if they do not please their spirits, evil or illness may happen. Believing in ghosts, sorcery, and witchcraft is very prevalent in these indigenous belief systems. Many of these religions also recognize that spiritual forces work together in all aspects of life.242

Traditions: Celebrations and Holidays
Kenya celebrates the following holidays: New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, and Labor Day, which in Kenya, falls on May 1st. Christmas is celebrated on the 25th of December and on December 26th Kenya celebrates Boxing Day, which is a British holiday. Kenya also recognizes Eid-al-Fitr (make normal hyphens with no space), the Muslim festival that marks the end of Ramadan.243 Dancing is a part of any holiday or celebration and traditional dances are typically performed on national holidays.244

National Holidays
Madaraka Day, which marks the anniversary of Kenya’s self-government, is celebrated on June 1st. It is on this day that Kenya commemorates independence from the colonial British government. Madaraka Day is followed by Moi Day, on October 10th. This holiday is in honor of Daniel arap Moi who, in 1978 following the death of Jomo Kenyatta, became president.245

Kenyatta Day is remembered on October 20th. This day commemorates the arrest of freedom fighter Jomo Kenyatta in 1953. At that time, a state of emergency was declared by the then colonial governor Sir Evelyn Berring due to the freedom fighting by Kenyatta and hundreds others. Kenyatta was arrested for conspiring with the outlawed Mau Mau movement, which in its attempt to free Kenya from the British was accused of murdering and terrorizing Europeans and Africans over a five-year period. Of note, Kenyatta was never a member of the Mau Mau movement and speculation was that the court trial against him was rigged. Kenyatta completed his sentence and became president of the Kenyan African National Union (KANU) on October 28, 1961. In June 1963, he became the country’s first prime minister of a self-governing Kenya.246

Jamhuri Day is celebrated on the 12th of December. The word jamhuri is Swahili for “republic.” This is the official day that marks Kenya as a republic on December 12, 1964. Kenya also gained independence from Britain one year earlier.247 On December 12, 1963, Jomo Kenyatta became Kenya’s first president.248

Worth noting here is the fact that few Kenyans, especially the younger ones, do not know the difference between these days. A vox popli (people’s opinion) was conducted and the result was that few Kenyans could differentiate between these three national holidays.249

Social Customs
Kenyans are especially friendly and polite. They are proud of their culture and their national heritage. Whenever their flag is raised or lowered, they stop and observe a moment of silence during this small ceremony.

Family is the key to the Kenyans and is the most important group in a Kenyan’s life, followed by his or her tribe. An example of the closeness of the family is that a wealthier relative will be expected to help out his less fortunate relative with expenses.

Kenyans are very social and love to pay friends and neighbors a visit. This is their most common activity. Sunday is a popular day for visiting friends and family. Most visits are unannounced and this is accepted. The host is expected to serve his visitors tea and will never ask his guests to leave. That is considered impolite. When leaving, the host will walk with his guests instead of saying goodbye at the door.  

**Cuisine**

When Kenyans dine, they eat together from a common plate, or *sinia*. Extended families often eat together and eating becomes quite a social experience. This is a time when stories are told and communal eating is enjoyed. A favorite recipe is *pilau*, or pilaf, rice with beef stew.  

Another favorite dish is *nyama choma*, or roasted meat. This is typically meat that has been roasted over an open pit with *sukuma wiki*, or greens, and *ugali*, corn porridge, one of Kenya’s popular staples.  

Other dishes are *chapatti*, a pancake of flour and water, and *githeri*, a curried stew made from beans, corn, and vegetables. Soup, broth with spices, is also popular.  

The national drink is *chai*, or tea. It is prepared with sugar, tea, ginger, and milk added to cold water then boiled and served hot.  

Because of the tropical climate, Kenya also has an array of tropical fruits such as mangoes, *maemb*, papaya, *paipai*, passion fruit, *pasheni*, bananas, *ndizi*, and custard apples, *stafeli*. Other favorite dishes include *irio*, a combination of greens, beans, and corn, *m’baazi*, cooked and mashed pea pods, and groundnuts, similar to peanuts.  

Over time, the Kenyan cuisine has been influenced by Britain and East India. The British brought with them tea, cereal, coffee, produce, and cattle. The British hired the East Indians to prepare the food and this is where the Kenyans developed their unique cooking techniques.  

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Arts

**Art as Ritual Decoration**

Kenya is a country that is imbued with art, decoration, and sculpture. It is a country that has few art galleries but has invaluable artistic qualities. Kenyan culture exemplifies the art of adornment and tradition. Many traditional cultures have a great significance on decoration of both ritual objects and the human body.

The Kuria and the Samburu tribes used art as physical beauty and adornment. Hair styling and body painting created an impression of delicacy. Many northern tribes such as the Boran and the Ormo carved and decorated gourds to make stools and neck pillows. The Turkana people decorated their bodies and objects, such as knives and clubs, with ostrich eggshells.

The Masai use decorative beadwork to emphasize their social status and different stages of rites of passage.\(^{255}\) They crafted shields from buffalo hide sewn onto wooden frames. The surface was painted with crescents of red, white, and black. Red paint was created by mixing earth with either blood or the red sap from the *solanum campyla* fruit. White was found in clay and black was made from burnt gourds.

The shield remains one of the Masai’s important tools. They were used in warfare, hunting, and training. They were also considered rites of passage and were used for identification. Spear markings and designs have been used to differentiate the different Masai subgroups.\(^ {256}\)

**Kikangu, or Grave Markers**

The Giryama people on the coast are known for their carved wooden eight foot tall mortuary posts. These posts, or *kikangu*, are built to honor the power and presence of the *koma*, or ancestor spirits. They acted as mediators between the ancestral spirits and the living. Giryama religious life revolves around this important relationship that attempts to achieve the powers of the *koma* and avoid any outward destruction. The *kikangu* also serves as an ancestral tree and may often have inscribed on them the number of wives and/or enemies of the deceased.\(^ {257}\)

**Soapstone Carvings**

Carving soapstone is a well-known art form of the Kisii and Kamba groups. As they were skilled woodworkers, they would carve intricate sculptures from quarried soapstone ranging in color from white to deep red. The tourist trade has heavily influenced

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soapstone carvings and many objects such as soap dishes, coasters, and ash trays are available to buy in Kenya today.

**Graphical Art**
Graphical art such as painting and rock decoration has less of a history. However, European artists have come to Kenya over the years and have made an impact on the influence of Kenyan art. As a result, Kenya is home to several local artists as well as artist from America, Europe and Australia.258

**Music and Dance**
African music and dance plays a very important role in African society. A child takes an active role in learning a musical instrument at a very young age. Music becomes a communication between man and art. This “language” is shared by the entire community. In fact, music is so inherent in African culture that there is no African noun to describe it. African music is almost always combined with another art form, such as dance or theatre.259

Music from Kenya originated from its various tribes. The Masai sing a unique song, *engilakinoto*, after a lion hunt. It is a rhythmic chant and dance where the warriors leap both vertically and horizontally in the air.

The drum, or *ngoma*, is still used throughout the country. The Luhya of western Kenya have a dance called the *Sikuti*. This dance incorporates several drums, bells, horns, and whistles where both men and women dance energetically.

The *nyatiti* is played in Kenya’s western area. This instrument has a gentle and relaxing sound and is often accompanied by a solo singer. It is very similar to the lyre.

*Taarab* music is music that originated from Kenya’s coastal area. It combines the African percussion with Arabic rhythms. Often, the Arab instrument, the *Oud*, accompanies this music. It is one of the favorite styles of music on Kenya’s coast today.

*Beni* singing is a type of folk singing that arose from the colonial times. This type of singing contained strong elements of social commentary and political criticism. These songs were always very long and sung in a narrative story.

During the 1960s, Kenyan music saw two distinct influences. One was African jazz from Zimbabwe called “higlife” guitar. The other was from the west, which was a rumba type of Congolese pop music. Also, gospel singing became increasingly popular due to the rise in Christianity.

New Wave Kenyan musicians created a type of music that fuses traditional elements with external influences. These musicians would combine music such as reggae, rap, and

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rhythm and blues mixed with Swahili and Sheng (a combination of Swahili and English) rap.

Rap has become increasingly popular with young Kenyans. Although the music may be influenced by Western rap artists, lyrics are Kenyans describing life in Kenya today.260

**Literature**

The earliest Swahili piece of literature was a Swahili poem dating to 1728. It’s title *Utendi wa Tambuka* was “The Story of Tambuka.” Swahili poetry was derived from Arabic poetry and included Bantu ritual songs.

Most of African literature is not written, but oral. The Africans love to tell stories and they would include riddles, proverbs, and sayings. It was very common for families to sit around the fire at night with the elders telling stories to the children. These stories were indicators of real-life issues with the African people so the children were able to identify with the characters.

Stories often included animals, such as the hare and tortoise. The hare became symbolic of being small and weak, yet cunning and smart as to outwit its predators such as the lion, leopard, and hyena. The tortoise was slow, yet wise, and could be a trickster.

African proverbs drew on the wisdom of people and expressed their feelings, thoughts, and expressions. They served an important social and ethical role. Each culture has its own proverbs, so knowing some history of the particular tribe is important.

Once missionaries and colonization arrived in Africa, much of the African literature was replaced by European languages. As a language would carry the culture, the culture was lost as describing the African experience in another language was not possible.

Today, there is a hybrid called Afro-European literature. It is quite common to hear a Kenyan speak in a combination of Swahili and English.261

**Children’s Literature**

African children were introduced to children literature in missionary schools. They were taught to appreciate such books as *Black Beauty*, *Alice in Wonderland*, and *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*. As these were western books with western themes, the children were not taught African themes.262

Since colonialism, African elders have been trying to re-teach their children African literature. A group by the name of “Africa Access”

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is working with other scholars to improve the selection and use of accurate, balanced materials on Africa in schools, public libraries, and other institutions that serve children.263

**Sports**

With favorable weather, Kenyans are able to enjoy watching and engaging in sports year round. Although football (soccer) is the most popular sport in Kenya, Kenyans are well-known around the world for their domination of long distance running and track events. Kenyans also use sporting events, such as the International Camel Derby and Rhino Run, to bring awareness to environmental conservation.

**International Camel Derby**

This annual event is held in the northern region of Kenya in August. Entrants from Australia, the United States, New Zealand, and Europe have entered this race. The route runs through the semi-desert regions of Kenya. The camel race is an excellent opportunity to create awareness to the destruction of Kenya’s deserts, camel husbandry, and the people and region of Northern Kenya.264

**Wildebeest Migrate to the Masai Mara**

Every year from July to October, the wildebeests migrate from the Serengeti to the Mara and back on a quest for greener pastures. These ungainly animals are known to travel by the millions across this vast region. Riding along side them in a Jeep is the best way to watch them. They are often accompanied by their predators, lions, hyenas, and vultures.265

**Rhino Charge**

Each year in June, Kenya holds a fund raising event to help protect its rhinoceros population. This event is held in the Aberdare mountain range. This park is one of Kenya’s largest rainforests. Its ecosystem protects one of the largest black rhino populations in the world. Despite its name, this event does not use rhinos as vehicles. Instead, 4-wheel-drive vehicles are used to race very treacherous roads in the African bush. The object is to outrun a competitor and there are trophies for the winners. Also, the team that has raised the most money for the project receives the “Most Meritorious” award, and the best women’s team receives the “Coup des Dames” award.266

**Kenyan Olympic Rural Runner**

As Kenya has borne some of the world’s greatest runners, it’s no coincidence that they are mostly from rural families. Runners hail from villages all over the highlands, looking for what they consider is employment. The Kalejin tribespeople are known best for their running abilities. As a result, a good majority of Olympic runners are from this tribe. In

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the past, boys were encouraged to run competitively. What motivated young women to pursue running began with a young girl who was sent to the village to be “circumcised” and never made it. Kenyan runners have brought home 38 Olympic gold medals and most always win any marathon held anywhere else in the world.267

Olympic runners usually have nothing more than their farm to train. As there was no transportation, they got used to traveling by themselves. Traveling 350 km (217 miles) to was necessary to get to Nairobi. Hence, running became second nature. As life for the rural women consists of running the entire farm, back-breaking work of planting corn, milking cows, and getting milk to the stores, running to these female athletes is the better life style.268

**Traditional Dress**

Archeological findings have revealed woven fiber pieces dating back to the 9th century in West Africa. Evidence of using a loom dates back to the 11th century in Mauritania. Early African clothing was made from animal hides, furs, and feathers. Fibers that have been used to make clothing include tree bark, camel, wool, raffia palm, jute, flax, and silk.

These fibers were woven with looms into narrow strips and the narrow strips were then sewn together. These fibers were often dyed using vegetable and animal dyes. Two of the most popular dyeing techniques were tie dye and resist dye. Tie dye was created by tying the material into knots or sewing stitches in the cloth. Then the material would be dyed. Once the stitching or the knots were removed, a unique spiral pattern was formed. Resist dye was a type of technique that used a dye resist such as candle wax. Designs would be drawn directly on to the material with the hot wax and allowed to dry. Then the material would be dyed. Once the material was dry, the wax resist would be removed. It created an unusual thread-like pattern on the material.

Popular dyes were the indigo plant for its deep blues and cola nuts or redwood trees for their reddish brown hues.

**Kangas, or Headscarfs**

In the late 19th century, African women began sewing brightly colored handkerchiefs (imported from Portugal) called *lesos* into larger pieces of fabrics. These became known as *kangas*. *Kangas* became symbolic to African women as emancipated clothing after the abolition of slavery in Zanzibar. *Kangas* are worn widely in East Africa, specifically in Kenya and Tanzania.269 They can be worn as headscarves or wrapped around the waist as a skirt, or a protective shawl for the mothers’ infants.

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In the tribal areas, such as with the Turkana, Samburu and Masai, traditional clothing is still worn.  

**Kenyan Fashion**

Kenya is making headway into the fashion industry and many Kenyan fashion designers incorporate traditional Kenyan tribal art. One fashion designer uses strictly Kenyan art such as Kenyan-spun cotton and wool, beadwork from the Masai group, buttons, thongs, and trims made from coconuts, horns, bones, and hides. These fashion designers also work with local Kenyan artisans to create unique African fashion designs. So popular has African, and specifically Kenyan, fashion become that Kenya hosted its first ever Fashion Week in 2001.

**African Dress Code**

Although Africa has very ornate and colorful clothing and jewelry, it does not yet have a traditional dress code. The typical dress code for members of the Kenyan parliament is the very European suit and tie. In an effort to bring attention to Kenya’s traditional dress, three members of parliament entered the chambers in *agbadas*, long gowns, in 2003. Another member sported a casual shirt and khaki pants. There was disagreement from these Parliament members that Kenya’s only dress code is a “colonial” dress code.

In an effort to find their cultural identification, Kenyans are struggling with the question “What makes us Kenyan?” As Kenya rises out of the colonial oppression, it wants to return to its African roots, establishing not only a national language, but a cultural lifestyle and dress code.

**Folklore**

Kenya’s ethnic groups have legends that tell their history, traditions, and world views. These stories recount the influx of people from the Rift Valley into the Highlands and Lake regions. Myths talk about how cattle were given to people by their god. The Masai people believe this so much that they would go on cattle raids and bring back cattle that they believed were rightfully theirs. There are also myths about dying. One such myth is that birds would often tell a man that he is going to die.

Each ethnic group has their own riddles, proverbs, and sayings. Riddles were often told at the family fire at night. There might be competitions between children who would “bet”

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their riddles on villages, cattle, or other items. The Kikuyu have a singing riddle game. It is sung in duet and the players compete against each other. They are often accompanied by a musical gourd rattle.

Proverbs reveal key elements about the culture. The Luo, for instance, have these three proverbs: 1) “The eye you have treated will look at you contumeliously,” 2) “A cowardly hyena lives for many years,” and 3) “The swimmer who races alone, praises the winner.” There are also proverbs that are a mix of Swahili and English and have become part of the Kenyan’s life style. For instance, “Haraka Haraka haina Baraka” (Hurry, hurry has no blessing) and also, “When elephants fight, it is the grass that suffers.”

Gender Issues
Male Circumcision
The National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), part of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) has announced that circumcision of adult males in Kenya would significantly reduce the risk of acquiring HIV/AIDS. In Kisumu, 2,784 HIV-negative men showed a 53 percent reduction in acquiring HIV of circumcised men than a similar study in Uganda. The UNAIDS estimates that in Sub-Saharan Africa there are 2.6 million new cases of HIV/AIDS occurrences every year. In March 2007, the World Health Organization (WHO) recommended that adult male circumcision is an important factor in the prevention of HIV/AIDS in Kenya and other African countries as it reduces their risk by 60 percent.

The WHO also is sensitive to the cultural impacts of this finding and recommends that awareness, education, and careful monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS programs will be necessary in order to minimize any stigma that might be associated with circumcision.

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM)
Female Genital Mutilation, or FGM, is a circumcision, or a clitoridectomy on young women that is practiced by the tribal Kenyans. A clitoridectomy involves removing the clitoral hood and all or part of the clitoris (similar in procedure to the male circumcision). Complications that can arise from this are reduced sexual desire, severe bleeding often resulting in death, infection, risk of HIV transmission due to unsanitary knives, and later complications in childbirth.

Rural Kenyans have been doing this procedure for hundreds of years, and their feelings are that not only does this practice keep a young woman from straying from her marriage;

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http://www.africa.upenn.edu/NEH/kfolklore.htm


http://www.africasciencenews.org/_disc1/00000056.htm
it also helps in the prevention of HIV/AIDS. Because of the HIV/AIDS awareness, FGM “surgeons” claim that they no longer will use the same knife on more than one child. Instead, they will use a disposable razor blade.

Though this practice is outlawed in Kenya, the 12 - 14 year old girls of the Masai tribes still undergo this procedure. As children are becoming more educated and learning more about the dangers of FGM, young girls claim they will never allow this to happen to their children. There is evidence of girls dying from this procedure, but due to the secrecy within the tribe, there is no way to prove it. Men, called morans, or warriors, believe that FGM keeps a woman chaste and he will not marry a Masai woman if she has not been “cut.”

Kenya is struggling with teaching the Masai to discontinue this practice without undermining the richness of their culture.278

**Sexual Assault**

In Kenya, there are two cases of sexual assault reported every day. In 2006, there were 95 reports of sexual assault and 24 reports of rape or attempted rape in Nairobi alone. Nairobi politicians claim that a woman is raped every 30 minutes. Parliament wants more involvement from politicians to enforce stricter laws combating gender violence.

The concern is that women are silent victims of gender violence as local media is uncovering more survivors of rape than statistics indicate. Members of law enforcement claim that the rise is a result of unemployment, poverty, and alcohol abuse. Statistically, sexual violence increases during times of war. It has been used as a tool of war in Sudan’s Dafur region, the Republic of Congo, and Bosnia. These vicious acts are performed by armed men, often with the permission of their superiors.

Ending violence with women requires changing the public perceptions and breaking the barriers of culture and tradition. A motion has been filed in Kenya’s parliament to prevent sexual violence against women and children.279

The recent “Ending Impunity for Violence against Women and Girls” that was held on Kenya’s International Women’s Day in March 2007 is concerned that ending sexual assault will not happen any time soon. There is also concern that the current sentences for rapists are too lenient. The 2006 law stipulates a maximum sentence of 10 years and a maximum punishment of life in prison. However, there is concern that the law is not fully utilized as copies of the new legislation have not been distributed into the rural areas such

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as Kericho in southwestern Kenya. Organizations working toward women’s rights have found that “The accused in the proceedings was sentenced to four and a half years in jail, three strokes of the cane and hard labour after being convicted of rape.” These organizers argue that unless parliament and politicians severely punish rapists, the crime will continue to increase.  

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A Perspective

U.S./Kenya Relations
Since Kenya’s independence, the United States and Kenya has maintained a good relationship. More than 5,000 Americans live in Kenya, and in 2006, over 86,000 Americans visited Kenya as tourists. The United States has stepped forward to help Kenya with aid in healthcare, including family planning and AIDS prevention. The Peace Corps has sent over 150 volunteers to Kenya.281

As a result of this long standing relationship with the United States, Kenyan military officials, the Pentagon, and the States Department are in discussions to establish an African command center, known as Africom. Although this new command center is currently headquartered in Germany, it will eventually move to Africa. It is too early in the discussion period to determine if Kenya will be the new command center’s headquarters. This relationship with Kenya benefits the United States as well since the United States has used Kenya’s ports and air fields upon occasion.282

Continuing with the Kenyan-US relations, the United States Marines and Sailors of the 26th Marine Expeditionary Unit (MEU) spent a 10-day training exercise with the Kenyan army in March 2007. The purpose of this exercise was to provide an opportunity to train, build stronger relationships, and make a positive impression with the Kenyans. This was also an opportunity for the Marines to acquaint themselves with both the members of the Kenyan army and the Kenyan civilians.

Sergeant Major Howard K. Long, sergeant major of BLT 2/2 was quoted as saying, “The Kenyans have been most hospitable. We have compared drill, shared martial arts, looked at each other's gear and interacted every way that military guys can do so, including breaking bread together.” He also claimed that “those exchanges were some of the most important parts of the entire training. You cannot put a price on the cultural exchange. This has made memories on both sides that will last a lifetime.”283

Poverty
If Kenya, and Africa as a whole, wants to eradicate poverty by the 2015 deadline set by the United Nation’s Millennium Development Goals, several factors will have to come into play. They are 1) Strengthen the African private sector; 2) Increase the economic empowerment of women; 3) Build skills for competitiveness in the global economy; 4) Raise agricultural productivity; 5) Improve access to and reliability of clean energy; 6) Expand and upgrade road networks and transit corridors; 7) Increase access to safe water and sanitation; and 8) Strengthen national health systems and combat malaria and HIV/AIDS.

These eight factors were a result of an Africa Action Plan developed by the World Bank in April 2007. This action plan was devised for all of Africa to meet these goals by 2015. The World Bank has found that Africa’s faster growing countries have reduced poverty. These countries have provided a lessons-learned situation by identifying growth constraints and how these constraints were resolved. The advantage here is that Kenya can benefit from these lessons learned situations.284

Radical Groups
Kenya is a relatively stable country in that it does not produce extremist or radical groups. However, it has been vulnerable to Islamic terrorists operating under al Qaeda. Kenya took action against these extremists in 2003. It held its first-ever terrorism trial in which four Kenyans were charged with the involvement of the suicide-bombing of the Paradise Hotel in 2002.285

Al Qaeda in Africa
A report circulated in February 2007 to the Intelligence and Terrorism Information Center raised concern about al Qaeda spreading throughout Africa, including Kenya. The article states that the Mujahidin have had a prominent role in North and East Africa. The article continues that due to Africa’s vulnerability as a weak nation, this is the perfect soil for the Mujahidin to plant its roots. The study revealed an interesting caveat: where the Muslims are the minority in a country, that minority tends to belong to those who want to make political and social change. This is especially true in both the western and eastern parts of Africa, notably Kenya. Kenya’s slums and borders are zones operating outside of the state’s control. What with the level of poverty and “insufficient security forces,” Kenya could become an easy target for a terrorist breeding ground.286

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Kenya – A Missing Link
One observation made by the World Bank through the Africa Action Plan was that the eastern and southern states of Africa have no internet structure. This “missing link” accounts for the reason why this region has less than one percent of the world’s international bandwidth capacity. This contributes to the holding back of this region’s growth and development. The Africa Regional Communications Infrastructure Program (RCIP) intends to focus on this region. Kenya, along with Burundi and Madagascar, will be part of the first phase of RCIP. It is anticipated that KSh 30 billion (USD 424 million) will be spent on this “missing link.”

Progress
African leaders stated unequivocally that Mali, Tanzania, Nigeria, and Kenya have made tremendous strides by taking ownership of their states. New partnerships are emerging and any external partners are there to support them. These leaders have a very clear understanding of what their state’s problems are and what needs to be done to resolve them.

Other progress noted is that there are more children in schools and the balance between the boys and girls is fairer. The HIV/AIDS epidemic fell from 11 percent to 6 percent over the last five years. Water and sanitation is improving. Kenya has reported two years of positive growth.

Looking Forward
“Infrastructure, infrastructure, infrastructure” are the words chanted by Muriuki Karue, a member of Kenya’s Parliament, and a civil engineer by profession who attended a meeting with the World Bank regarding Kenya’s future. It is the poor conditions of the roads and other infrastructures that are preventing this country from moving forward. It is Kenya’s and the United Nation’s goal to have its infrastructure in place by 2030.

Although Kenya’s economy has achieved a growth rate of 5.8 percent, it is hampered by poor road conditions, poor telecommunications, inefficient power, and unclean water and sanitation.

Kenya can be an opportunity for high-tech firms to establish a base there. Doing this would demonstrate how African countries can be brought together by employing a good

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http://www.dfid.gov.uk/countries/africa/kenya.asp
labor force, maintaining a regulatory environment, and collaborating with a dynamic private sector.\textsuperscript{290}