

The background of the cover features a serene landscape. The top portion shows a dark blue night sky with a full moon and scattered stars. Below the sky, there are silhouettes of mountains or hills. The bottom portion of the image shows a sunset or sunrise over a body of water, with the sun low on the horizon, creating a gradient of colors from yellow to orange and red, transitioning into a lighter blue sky.

Securing Our Destiny

Through Effective Management of the Environment

Kariuki Muigua

**Securing
Our Destiny through Effective
Management of the Environment**

Kariuki Muigua

Table of Contents

1. Role of Law in Environmental Management and Governance	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Environmental Governance: Meaning and Scope.....	3
1.3 Place of Law in General Governance Matters	4
1.4 Environmental Governance in Kenya: Prospects and Challenges in the Legal and Institutional Frameworks.....	4
1.4.1 Environmental Governance in Kenya: Legal and Institutional Frameworks ...	4
1.4.2 Need for Revisiting the Formal and State-Centered Governance Solutions? ...	5
1.5 Achieving Sustainable Development in Kenya through Effective Environmental Governance: Revisiting the Role of Law in Environmental Governance	6
1.6 The Role of Courts in Safeguarding Environmental Rights in Kenya: A Critical Appraisal.....	8
1.6.1 Legal Recognition and Protection of Environmental Rights in Kenya: Where are we?.....	8
1.6.2 The Role of Courts in Safeguarding Environmental Rights in Kenya: prospects and Challenges.....	10
1.6.3 Enhancing the Role of Courts in Safeguarding Environmental Rights in Kenya	11
1.6.3.2 Public Interest Litigation.....	12
1.7 Conclusion	14
2. Implementing Constitutional Provisions on Natural Resources and Environmental Management in Kenya	15
2.1 Introduction.....	15
2.2 Constitution of Kenya 2010 and Natural Resource and Environmental Management	15
2.2.1 State Obligations in Environmental and Natural resources Governance	15
2.2.2 Obligations of Citizens in Environment and Natural Resources Management: Co-managers or Mere Spectators?	16
2.3 Policy, Legal and Institutional Framework on Natural Resource and Environmental Management in Kenya: The Disconnect.....	17
2.3.1 Resource Management Approaches	17
2.4 Implementing the Constitutional Obligations of the State in Respect of the Environment.....	23
2.4.1 Sustainable and Inclusive Approaches to Environmental Management	23
2.4.2 Achieving Ten Percentage Forest Cover	24

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

2.4.3. Realising the State’s Role in Facilitating Equitable Benefit Sharing for Social Sustainability	28
2.4.4 Empowerment and Public Participation for Effective Natural Resources Management	29
2.4.5 Establishment of systems of environmental impact assessment, environmental audit and monitoring of the environment	31
2.4.6 Judicial Activism	32
2.5 Conclusion	33
3. Role of Corporations in Environmental Conservation and Sustainable Development in Kenya.....	33
3.1 Introduction.....	33
3.2 Legal and Institutional Framework for Corporate Environmental Compliance	34
3.2.1 International Legal Framework.....	34
3.2.2 National Legal Framework	36
3.3 Challenges Related To Corporate Environmental Compliance in Kenya	41
3.3.1 Environmental Pollution	41
3.3.2 Human Rights Violation	43
3.4 Environmental Liability by Corporations in Kenya.....	43
3.4.1 Civil Liability.....	43
3.4.2 Criminal Liability	44
3.5 Environmental Compliance and Corporate Social Responsibility: The Role of Company Secretary as the Compliance Officer	45
3.6 Way Forward.....	48
3.6.1 Enhanced Corporate Environmental Compliance	48
3.6.2 Adhering to Principles of Sustainable Development	48
3.6.3 Corporate Social and Environmental Responsibility.....	48
3.6.4 Environmental Insurance	49
3.7 Regulating Grant of Concessions for Corporate Accountability and Transparency .50	
3.7.1 Introduction	50
3.7.2 Overview of the Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act, 2016.....	51
3.7.3 Making Natural Resources Work for the People: Challenges and Prospects..	54
3.8 Conclusion	58
4. Realising Environmental Democracy in Kenya for Effective Environmental Management.....	59
4.1 Introduction.....	59
4.2 Need for Environmental Democracy as an Environmental Right	60

<i>Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment</i>	
4.2.1 The Concept of Environmental Democracy	60
4.2.2 Environmental Democracy as an Empowerment Tool for Achieving Sustainable Development.....	62
4.3 Status of Environmental Democracy in Kenya.....	64
4.4 Realising Environmental Democracy in Kenya.....	66
4.4.1 Mobilising Communities/Citizenry through Demonstrations, Picketing and Petitions	67
4.4.2 Role of Media, Civil Society in Environmental Governance.....	68
4.4.3 Streamlining Access to Environmental Information.....	68
4.4.4 Enhanced Public Participation	69
4.4.5 Entrenching Environmental Ethics.....	70
4.4.6 Proactive Role of Courts in Environmental Justice	71
4.5 Conclusion	72
5. The Sustainable Management of the Extractives Industry in Kenya: The (Dis) Connect	73
5.1 Introduction.....	73
5.2 Legal and Institutional Framework on Kenya’s Extractives Industry: Gaps and Prospects	74
5.2.1 Kenya’s Extractives Industry: The Policy, Legislative and Institutional Framework.....	76
5.3 Regulating the Extractives Industry in Kenya: Challenges and Prospects	86
5.3.1 The Mining Sector in Kenya	87
5.3.2 Oil and Gas sector in Kenya.....	90
5.4 Promoting Open and Accountable Management of Extractives in Kenya: Implementing the Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative	92
5.4.1 Introduction	92
5.4.2 Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative: Background and Overview ...	93
5.4.3 Accountability and Transparency in Benefit Sharing: Avoiding the Resource Curse	94
5.5 Kenya’s Extractives Industry: Achieving the Dream.....	98
5.6 Conclusion	100
6. Making the Blue Economy Work-Tapping into the Blue Economy for Sustainable Development	100
6.1 Introduction.....	100
6.2 Blue Economy: The Definition and Scope	101
6.3 Towards a Sustainable Blue Economy for Economic and Social Development: Challenges and Prospects for Kenya	102

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

6.3.1 Achieving Sustainable Blue Economy in Kenya: Challenges	102
6.3.2 Tapping into the Blue Economy Resources: The Way Forward.....	103
6.4 Conclusion	104
7. Enhancing Benefit Sharing from Natural Resources Exploitation	104
7.1 Introduction.....	104
7.2 Extractive Industries Resources: The New Canaan for Kenya?	105
7.3 Benefit Sharing: Community Rights and Responsibilities	107
7.4 Legal Framework on Benefit Sharing and Natural Resource Exploitation in Kenya 108	
7.5 Lessons from Ghana: Catapulting National Development through Extractive Industries.....	111
7.6 Nigeria: Resource Curse or Blessing?	112
7.7 Opportunities: Making Natural Resources Wealth Count.....	113
7.7.1 Foundations and Trusts	114
7.7.2 Enhancing Local Accountability and Building Capacity.....	114
7.7.3 Achieving Right to environmental information.....	115
7.7.4 Devolution and Benefit Sharing.....	115
7.7.5 Public participation	116
7.7.6 Addressing Resource capture Phenomenon/Corruption	116
7.8 Conclusion	117
8. An Integrated Approach to Environmental Management and Conservation for Sustainable Development in Kenya.....	117
8.1 Introduction.....	117
8.2 Who Speaks for Nature? Entrenching the Ecocentric Approach in Environmental Management in Kenya	119
8.2.1 Introduction	119
8.2.2 Ecocentric Approaches to Environmental Management.....	120
8.2.3 Environmental Management Approaches in Kenya: Prospects and Challenges	121
8.2.4 Entrenching the Ecocentric Approach in Environmental Management in Kenya	121
8.3 The Neglected Link: Safeguarding Pollinators for Sustainable Development in Kenya.....	122
8.3.1 Introduction	122
8.3.2 Pollinators as Key Players in Environmental Conservation Discourse: The Neglected Link	123
8.3.3 Protection of Pollinators: the Legal, Institutional and Policy Framework	124

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

8.3.4 Safeguarding the Future: Addressing the Challenges Affecting Pollinators	125
8.4 Conclusion	129
9. Strengthening the Environmental Liability Regime in Kenya for Sustainable Development	129
9.1 Introduction	129
9.2 Environmental Liability under the International and Regional Environmental Legal Framework	130
9.3 Environmental Liability under Kenya’s Legal Framework: The (In) Adequacy	132
9.3.1 Environmental Management Tools in Kenya	132
9.4 Enhanced Environmental Enforcement and Compliance for Sustainable Development in Kenya	137
9.4.1 Encouraging Proactive Corporate Environmental Compliance	138
9.4.2 Due Diligence/Cultivating Environmental Ethics	138
9.4.3 Environmental Insurance	139
9.5 Conclusion	140
10. Mainstreaming Traditional Ecological Knowledge in Kenya for Sustainable Development	140
10.1 Introduction	140
10.2 Traditional Environmental Knowledge: Relevance to the Environment and Natural Resources Management	141
10.3 International and National Legal Framework on Traditional Environmental Knowledge	143
10.3.1 International Framework on Traditional Environmental Knowledge	143
10.3.2 National Legal and Institutional Framework on Traditional Environmental Knowledge	143
10.4 Kenya’s Environmental and Natural Resources Laws: Challenges and Prospects	145
10.5 Mainstreaming Traditional Ecological Knowledge in Kenya’s Environmental Governance Framework	146
10.5 Conclusion	148
11. Effective Environmental Management and Governance for Peace Building in Kenya	148
11.1 Introduction	148
11.2 Environmental Governance: Theories and Conceptualisation	149
11.2.1 Theories and Conceptualisation of Environmental Governance	149
11.2.2 Role of Law in Environmental Governance and Management	150
11.3 Peace Building: Meaning and Scope	151
11.3.1 Meaning and Scope of Peace Building	151

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

11.3.2 Role of Law in Peace Building	152
11.4 Nexus between Environmental Governance and Peace Building.....	153
11.5 Building Lasting Peace through Effective Environmental Governance	155
11.5.1 Use of Alternative Dispute Resolution Mechanisms to Enhance Public Participation in Environmental Conflict management.....	155
11.5.2 Inclusive and Participatory Approaches to Environmental Governance and Management	156
11.5.3 Inclusive Education for Sustainable Livelihoods and Societies.....	156
11.6 Conclusion	158
12. Conclusion	159
Select Bibliography	161
List of Cases.....	179
List of Statutes, Policies and Official Government Reports.....	181
List of International and Regional Legal Instruments and Documents	182

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Kariuki Muigua*

1. Role of Law in Environmental Management and Governance

Abstract

This paper covers the theme of effective management of the environment. It is informed by the need to manage the environment using an integrated approach in order to achieve a clean and healthy environment, environmental justice and dignity for the human beings and the environment itself.

The paper is divided into 12 sections covering areas such as: the Role of Law in Environmental Management and Governance; Implementing Constitutional Provisions on Natural Resources and Environmental Management in Kenya; Role of Corporations in Environmental Conservation and Sustainable Development in Kenya; Achieving Environmental Security for Sustainable Development in Kenya; The Extractives Industry and Environmental Management in Kenya: the (Dis) Connect; Harnessing the Blue Economy: Challenges and Opportunities for Kenya; Environmental and Natural Resources and Equitable Benefit Sharing in Kenya; Adopting an Integrated Approach to Environmental Management and Conservation for Sustainable Development in Kenya; Environmental Liability Regime in Kenya and Sustainable Development; Managing Environmental and Land Related Conflicts Through Traditional Dispute Resolution Mechanisms; Effective Environmental Management and Governance for Peace Building in Kenya and Environmental Justice.

The sections cover the challenges facing environmental management in Kenya and the opportunities available towards better governance.

The paper offers some tangible recommendations that hopefully will result in effective management of the environment using an integrated approach that involves all stakeholders and cuts across regions, disciplines and ecosystems. It is an approach that balances development with ecological sustainability.

1.1 Introduction

This paper discusses the general environmental governance and management practices and makes recommendations on how the environmental law frameworks in Kenya can be reviewed to make them more inclusive. Environmental management as used in this section, and the paper in general, includes the protection, conservation and sustainable components of the environment.¹ Environmental governance on the other hand

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¹ Sec. 2, Environmental (Management and Coordination) Act, No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

comprises the rules, practices, policies and institutions that shape how humans interact with the environment.² The paper thus looks at the role of law in both concepts.

The main argument is that the law should be a means to an end and it should be no different for the environmental laws in Kenya as far as meeting the socio-economic needs of the people is concerned. This is because, as it has been argued by some authors, the law is meant to dictate the structure, boundaries, rules, and processes within which governmental action takes place.³ This section advocates for laws that strike a balance between anthropocentric and ecocentric approaches in environmental governance and management.

The current Constitution of Kenya recognises this role of law by dint of Article 10 of the Constitution which spells out the national values and principles of governance which should bind all persons and state organs when making, interpreting or implementing any law.⁴ Even courts have affirmed that '*while interpreting the Constitution, they are to consider these national values and principles of governance. These principles include participation of the people as well as good governance, integrity, transparency and accountability. These values are supposed to be in the DNA of public officers and are to be applied when making decisions in the course of their duties*'.⁵

The law is meant to not only ensure that the environment is properly managed in light of the sustainable development agenda but also that it guarantees and protects the environmental rights of the citizens. This is in line with the court's role in safeguarding the rule of law, as affirmed in the case of *Johnson Kamau Njuguna & another v Director of Public Prosecutions [2018] eKLR*.⁶

Notably, in determining environmental disputes at any stage, Kenyan courts are to be guided by the constitutional framework on the environment as spelt out in Articles 42, 69 and 70 of the Constitution and the legislative framework set out in the Environment (Management and Coordination) Act, 1999 (EMCA) as well as the broad environmental principles set out in Section 3 of the EMCA.⁷ These are important tools in the interpretation of the law and adjudication of environmental disputes and these ought to

² United Nations Environment Programme, "Environmental Governance," p. 2. Available at https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/7935/Environmental_Governance.pdf?sequence=5&isAllowed=y [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

³ Barbara A Cosens, et. al, 'The Role of Law in Adaptive Governance' (2017) 22 Ecology and society: a journal of integrative science for resilience and sustainability 1.

⁴ Article 10, Constitution of Kenya 2010 (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2010).

⁵ Para. 56, John Kabukuru Kibicho & another v County Government of Nakuru & 2 others [2016] eKLR, petition No. 13 of 2016.

⁶ *Johnson Kamau Njuguna & another v Director of Public Prosecutions [2018] eKLR*, Judicial Review 9 of 2018, para. 17; See also Constitution of Kenya 2010, Articles 20, 22 & 23.

⁷ Sec. 3 (5), Environment (Management and Coordination) Act, No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

be construed in a manner that promotes the letter and spirit of the above constitutional underpinnings and general principles in Section 3 of the EMCA.⁸

1.2 Governance: Meaning and Scope

Environmental governance comprises the rules, practices, policies and institutions that shape how humans interact with the environment.⁹ Environmental governance has been defined as the set of regulatory processes, mechanisms and organizations through which political actors influence environmental actions and outcomes.¹⁰

One scholar has convincingly argued that environmental governance is best understood as the establishment, reaffirmation or change of institutions to resolve conflicts over environmental resources.¹¹ In this broader context, conflict refers to a conflict of interest, not necessarily to an open conflict, between involved parties.

It has been suggested that good governance includes: *Participation; Rule of law; Transparency; Responsiveness; Consensus oriented; Equity and inclusiveness; Effectiveness and efficiency; and Accountability.*¹² Good environmental governance takes into account the role of all actors that impact the environment, including governments, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), the private sector and civil society, who must all cooperate to achieve effective governance that can help us move towards a more sustainable future.¹³

It is against these definitions of the term ‘governance’ that this section seeks to discuss what the law making process and its implementation should entail, especially in respect of environmental governance laws in Kenya.

⁸ Para. 23, Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR, petition No. 32 of 2017.

⁹ United Nations Environment Programme, “Environmental governance,” available at https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/7935/Environmental_Governance.pdf?sequence=5&isAllowed=y [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

¹⁰ Lemos, M. C., & Agrawal, A., “Environmental governance,” *Annu. Rev. Environ. Resour.*, 31 (2006): 297-325.

¹¹ Paavola, J., “Institutions and Environmental Governance: A Reconceptualization,” *Ecological economics*, 63, no. 1 (2007): 93-103, at p.94.

¹² United Nations, *Introduction to Environmental Governance*, 2017. Available at <https://globalpact.informe.org/sites/default/files/documents/International%20Environmental%20Governance.pdf> [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

¹³ United Nations Environment Programme, “Environmental governance,” available at https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/7935/Environmental_Governance.pdf?sequence=5&isAllowed=y [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

1.3 Place of Law in General Governance Matters

Some scholars have conceptualised the link between law and governance in general terms.¹⁴ A good example of this link is to be found under the current Constitution of Kenya which provides for national values and principles of governance which must bind all State organs, State officers, public officers and all persons whenever any of them—

(a) applies or interprets this Constitution; (b) enacts, applies or interprets any law; or (c) makes or implements public policy decisions.¹⁵ The Constitution also declares the Republic of Kenya to be a multi-party democratic State founded on the national values and principles of governance referred to in Article 10.¹⁶ It is thus evident that the law plays an important role in governance matters by not only setting up the relevant governance institutions but also setting out the *modus operandi* for such institutions.

Notably, the Constitution of Kenya recognises both formal and informal systems of law.¹⁷ Despite this qualification, it is clear that the definition of law in the context of Kenya includes customary law and applies in a pluralistic way.

The Constitution thus creates room for pluralistic operation of formal and informal laws in Kenya in governance matters, albeit with certain qualifications as stated.

1.4 Environmental Governance in Kenya: Prospects and Challenges in the Legal and Institutional Frameworks

1.4.1 Environmental Governance in Kenya: Legal and Institutional Frameworks

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 outlines the obligations of the State in respect of the environment as including but not limited to the duty to:¹⁸ ensure sustainable exploitation, utilisation, management and conservation of the environment and natural resources¹⁹. Notably, the Constitution of Kenya also places a duty on every person to cooperate with State organs and other persons to protect and conserve the environment and ensure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources.²⁰ The

¹⁴ Bell, C., “Governance and Law: The Distinctive Context of Transitions from Conflict and its Consequences for Development Interventions,” *Briefing Paper 4*, (The Political Settlements Programme Consortium, 2015), pp.1-2. Available at http://www.politicalsettlements.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/2015_BP_4_Bell_Governance-and-Law.pdf [Accessed on 26/5/2019].

¹⁵ Constitution of Kenya 2010, Art. 10(1).

¹⁶ Constitution of Kenya 2010, Article 4(2).

¹⁷ Art. 2(4), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

¹⁸ Constitution of Kenya, Art. 69(1).

¹⁹ The Constitution interprets “natural resources” to mean the physical non-human factors and components, whether renewable or non-renewable, including—sunlight; surface and groundwater; forests, biodiversity and genetic resources; and rocks, minerals, fossil fuels and other sources of energy (Art. 260).

²⁰ Constitution of Kenya, Art. 69(2).

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Constitution envisages a collaborative approach between communities and the State. Decision making processes still seem to be largely top-down in nature and communities are only afforded opportunities to apply for resource user rights, with little or no consultations regarding management and governance matters.

The Court, in *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR*²¹, stated that in determining environmental disputes at any stage, Kenyan courts are obliged to be guided by and promote the constitutional framework on the environment as spelt out in Articles 42, 69 and 70 of the Constitution and the legislative framework set out in the EMCA. In this regard, Articles 42, 69 and 70 of the Constitution and the broad environmental principles set out in Section 3 of the EMCA are important tools in the interpretation of the law and adjudication of environmental disputes. Invariably, the environmental governance legal framework and any other relevant legislative instrument [substantive or subsidiary], ought to be construed in a manner that promotes the letter and spirit of the above constitutional underpinnings and general principles in Section 3 of the EMCA.²²

1.4.2 Need for Revisiting the Formal and State-Centered Governance Solutions?

This section seeks to re-evaluate the effectiveness of the enforcement power of the state as against solutions or approaches based on voluntary cooperation within the environmental governance framework in Kenya.

Some scholars have observed that institutions resolve environmental conflicts by striking a particular balance between conflicting interests by either establishing, reaffirming or redefining entitlements in environmental resources.²³ In other words, they seek to strike a balance between anthropocentric and ecocentric approaches to environmental governance. An anthropocentric approach to environmental governance would focus on poverty eradication, food security, environmental democracy, environmental justice, environmental security, public participation, gender equity, access to information and conflicts management, amongst others.²⁴ Ecocentric approaches dwell on themes such as combating climate change, impact of resource

²¹ *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR*, Petition 32 of 2017.

²² *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others*, para. 23.

²³ Paavola, J., "Institutions and Environmental Governance: A Reconceptualization," *op cit.*, at p.95.

²⁴ See generally, Muigua, K., *Nurturing Our Environment for Sustainable Development*, Glenwood Publishers, Nairobi – 2016.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

extraction, environmental health, and environmental conservation for the sake of the Mother Nature.²⁵ Conflicts over natural resources and environmental crimes intensify the problems. The risks of violent conflict increase when exploitation of natural resources causes environmental damage, loss of livelihood, or unequal distribution of benefits.²⁶

The Court in *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR*²⁷, pointed out that a court seized of an environmental dispute, whether at the interlocutory stage or at the substantive hearing, is to bear in mind that, through their judgments and rulings, courts play a crucial role in promoting environmental governance, upholding the rule of law, and in ensuring a fair balance between competing environmental, social, developmental and commercial interests.²⁸ This is an affirmation of the fact that courts, in collaboration with other stakeholders in the environmental governance matters, also have a role to play.

The State should consult widely when coming up with the methods of benefit sharing especially with regard to the local community. It is only through mobilizing the efforts of all the relevant stakeholders that the constitutional provisions on the environment and natural resources can effectively be implemented and make it possible to achieve sustainable development. The various sectoral laws and policies must be designed in a way that protects the environment from degradation, and also involves communities through measures that encourage active participation in benefit sharing or decision-making processes, whether through incentives or otherwise.

Customary approaches to environmental governance can be incorporated into the formal environmental governance frameworks as a tool for facilitating participation of communities. As already pointed out, the law should include both formal and customary approaches to governance.

1.5 Achieving Sustainable Development in Kenya through Effective Environmental Governance: Revisiting the Role of Law in Environmental Governance

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ United Nations, “Environmental Rule of Law,” available at <https://www.unenvironment.org/explore-topics/environmental-rights-and-governance/what-we-do/promoting-environmental-rule-law-0> [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

²⁷ *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR*, Petition 32 of 2017.

²⁸ Ibid, para. 22.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Environmental rule of law is central to sustainable development. It integrates environmental needs with the essential elements of the rule of law, and provides the basis for improving environmental governance. It highlights environmental sustainability by connecting it with fundamental rights and obligations. It reflects universal moral values and ethical norms of behaviour, and it provides a foundation for environmental rights and obligations.²⁹

In addition, it is contended that natural resources that are managed sustainably, transparently, and on the basis of the rule of law can be the engine for sustainable development as well as a platform for peace and justice. The rule of law in environmental matters is essential for equity in terms of the advancement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the provision of fair access by assuring a rights-based approach, and the promotion and protection of environmental and other socio-economic rights.³⁰

Arguably, environmental governance structures should be used as means to an end, to wit, realisation of social justice for the people of Kenya. Legitimate environmental decisions have to reflect both distributive and procedural justice concerns. This is especially so when people have broader concerns than their narrowly construed economic welfare. In the context of pluralism, distributive justice matters in a broad sense of whose interests and values will be realized by the establishment, change or affirmation of environmental governance institutions.³¹

Procedural justice plays a role in justifying decisions to those whose interests and values are sacrificed to realize some other interests and values. It can also facilitate learning and transformation of values and motivations of involved actors. Therefore, governance solutions do more than specify entitlements: they also provide for participation and avail conflict resolution to involved actors.³²

Increasing environmental pressures from climate change, biodiversity loss, water scarcity, air and water pollution, soil degradation, among others, contribute to poverty and to growing social inequalities.³³

²⁹ United Nations, "Environmental Rule of Law", available at <https://www.unenvironment.org/explore-topics/environmental-rights-and-governance/what-we-do/promoting-environmental-rule-law-0> [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Paavola, J., "Institutions and environmental governance: A reconceptualization," *Ecological economics*, vol.63, no. 1 (2007): 93-103 at p.98.

³² Ibid., p. 97.

³³ United Nations, "Environmental Rule of Law", op. cit.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

There is need for greater cooperation between state and private-sector actors in environment-related decision making and enforcement processes. The Constitution of Kenya creates an opportunity where, through devolution, communities are supposed to be empowered by devolving power from the state to local institutions of decision-making as a way of empowering local communities to manage natural resources and environmental matters.

The main custodian of the Constitutional rights and the law in general are the national courts and tribunals, as envisaged under the Constitution.³⁴ Of utmost importance under the environmental law are the environmental rights. The next section discusses the role of national courts in safeguarding these rights.

1.6 The Role of Courts in Safeguarding Environmental Rights in Kenya: A Critical Appraisal

The preamble to the Constitution of Kenya recognises the importance of the environment and therefore calls for its respect, being the heritage of the Kenyan people, and also requires its sustenance for the benefit of future generations.³⁵ In addition, it also spells out and guarantees the right of every person to a clean and healthy environment and the need to have the same respected and protected.³⁶

Notably, scholars have pointed out that there is ‘considerable evidence that national courts are increasingly willing to apply international environmental obligations’³⁷. It is in light of this that this section discusses the place of national courts in the pursuit of environmental justice and protection of environmental rights in Kenya.

1.6.1 Legal Recognition and Protection of Environmental Rights in Kenya: Where are we?

The Preamble to the Constitution of Kenya places a duty on every person to conserve and sustainably manage the environment. Thus, every person has a constitutional duty to cooperate with State organs and other persons to protect and conserve the environment and ensure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources.³⁸ The citizenry should not only cooperate but also actively participate in

³⁴ Articles 20, 22, 23, Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁵ Preamble, Constitution of Kenya, (Government Printer, 2010).

³⁶ Art. 42, Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁷ Sands, P. and Peel, J., *Principles of international environmental law*, Cambridge University Press, 2012, p.47.

³⁸ Art. 69(2), Constitution of Kenya.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

sustainable environmental and natural resources matters through seeking court's intervention.

Article 22(1) of the Constitution of Kenya guarantees the right of every person to institute court proceedings claiming that a right or fundamental freedom in the Bill of Rights has been denied, violated or infringed, or is threatened. Citizenry have a right of ensuring that their rights in relation to the environment are not violated, by way of litigation.³⁹ This is also captured in the various statutes such as the *Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act*.⁴⁰ The Constitution also recognises the right of every person to a clean and healthy environment.⁴¹

The protection and promotion of environmental rights in Kenya is further reinforced by the constitutionally recognised Environment and Land Court established under the *Environment and Land Court Act, 2011*⁴², enacted to give effect to Article 162(2) (b) of the Constitution; to establish a superior court to hear and determine disputes relating to the environment and the use and occupation of, and title to, land, and to make provision for its jurisdiction functions and powers, and for connected purposes.⁴³ The overriding objective this Act is to enable the Court to facilitate the just, expeditious, proportionate and accessible resolution of disputes governed by this Act.⁴⁴

The Court has original and appellate jurisdiction to hear and determine all disputes in accordance with Article 162(2) (b) of the Constitution and with the provisions of this Act or any other law applicable in Kenya relating to environment and land.⁴⁵

The Court is also empowered to hear and determine applications for redress of a denial, violation or infringement of, or threat to, rights or fundamental freedom relating to a clean and healthy environment under Articles 42, 69 and 70 of the Constitution.⁴⁶

It is therefore clear that environmental rights in Kenya are well entrenched under the Constitution and statutes on environmental law. All that remains is taking measures geared towards ensuring that all persons get to enjoy these rights as envisaged under the law.

³⁹ See also Art. 70 (1), Constitution of Kenya, 2010.

⁴⁰ No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya, s. 3(3); See also *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, No. 5 of 2015*, Laws of Kenya, (s. 3).

⁴¹ Art. 42, Constitution of Kenya, 2010.

⁴² No. 19 of 2011, Laws of Kenya. See S. 4 thereof.

⁴³ *Ibid*, Preamble.

⁴⁴ *Ibid*, S. 3(1).

⁴⁵ *Ibid*, S. 13(1).

⁴⁶ *Ibid*, S. 13(3).

1.6.2 The Role of Courts in Safeguarding Environmental Rights in Kenya: prospects and Challenges

1.6.2.1 Pre-Constitution 2010 Era

EMCA was enacted to provide for the establishment of an appropriate legal and institutional framework for the management of the environment and related matters.⁴⁷ The Act provides that in exercising the jurisdiction conferred upon it under the Act, the High Court is to be guided by the principles of sustainable development.⁴⁸

Part XII,⁴⁹ section 125 of EMCA establishes the National Environment Tribunal (NET), which is charged with settling disputes that arises in matters provided for under the Act.⁵⁰ NET is charged with hearing appeals arising from administrative decisions of committees mandated to enforce environmental standards.⁵¹

Notably, dispute management procedures under EMCA require the active participation of NEMA, being the implementing agency, with any grievances being addressed by NET Tribunal as an appeal which can however be heard by the Environment and Land Court as the final port of call. The role of NEMA in the safeguarding environment as established under EMCA was well summarized in the case of *Martin Osano Rabera & another v Municipal Council of Nakuru & 2 others [2018] eKLR*⁵² in the following words:

72. NEMA is not just an investigator and a prosecutor. Its success cannot be measured in terms of successful investigations and prosecutions. It has a bigger mandate: to be the principal instrument of government and the people of Kenya in the implementation of all policies relating to the environment....

1.6.2.2 Post-Constitution 2010 Era

The constitutionalisation of the role of courts in promotion and protection of environmental rights is a step that seeks to ensure that these rights are treated as any other human rights that are justiciable under the laws of Kenya.

The *Environment and Land Court Act*, 2011 provides that in exercise of its jurisdiction under the Act, the Court should be guided by the principles of sustainable

⁴⁷ *Ibid*, Preamble.

⁴⁸ EMCA.S. 3(5).

⁴⁹ SS. 125-136, No. 8 of 1999.

⁵⁰ S. 125, No. 8 of 1999.

⁵¹ S. 126, No. 8 of 1999.

⁵² *Martin Osano Rabera & another v Municipal Council of Nakuru & 2 others [2018] eKLR*, Petition No. 53 of 2012.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

development.⁵³ Access to courts is an important pillar in promoting environmental justice in Kenya. Courts have, however, been faced by a number of challenges that hinder people particularly local communities from vindicating their environmental rights. Although the Constitution of Kenya guarantees the right of every person to institute proceedings claiming that a right or fundamental freedom in the Bill of Rights has been denied, violated or infringed, or is threatened with no need to prove *locus standi* to institute the suit, there still lies other challenges hindering access to courts such as the geographical location, complexity of rules and procedure and the use of legalese.⁵⁴ There is also lack of information amongst the citizenry and ignorance of their rights as far as environmental rights are concerned. Uninformed people cannot make use of courts in fighting for their rights and thus, despite their recognition under the Constitution and other laws of Kenya, a lot still need to be done to achieve this full enjoyment of these rights for all. There is however a number of ways through which this can be addressed. It must however be pointed out that this cannot only be achieved by courts but they need the support of all stakeholders.

1.6.3 Enhancing the Role of Courts in Safeguarding Environmental Rights in Kenya

1.6.3.1 Judicial Activism

There is no clear definition of some of the rights guaranteed in the Constitution regarding the environment and thus it is up to the courts to give guidance in certain matters. This would not be new as noted by some scholars. For instance, some scholars have argued that the role of courts in recognition of environmental rights around the world has been so fundamental that, whereas the right to a clean and healthy environment has rapidly gained constitutional protection around the world, in some countries, recognition of the right first occurred through court decisions determining that it is implicit in other constitutional provisions, primarily the right to life.⁵⁵

There is, therefore, a need for judicial activism so that jurisprudence in this area can be improved. For instance, there is no explanation of what, for example, amounts to a

⁵³ S. 18.

⁵⁴ *Strengthening Judicial Reform in Kenya: Public Perceptions and Proposals on the Judiciary in the new Constitution*, ICJ Kenya, Vol. III, May, 2002; See also Muigua, K., *Avoiding Litigation through the Employment of Alternative Dispute Resolution*, pp. 6-7, a Paper presented by the author at the In-House Legal Counsel, Marcus Evans Conference at the Tribe Village Market Hotel, Kenya on 8th & 9th March, 2012. Available at <http://www.chuitech.com/kmco/attachments/Art./101/Avoiding.pdf> [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

⁵⁵ Boyd, D.R., 'The Implicit Constitutional Right to Live in a Healthy Environment,' *Review of European Community & International Environmental Law*, Vol. 20, No. 2, 2011, pp. 171-179 at p. 171.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

‘clean and healthy environment’, and in some instances, it has taken court’s intervention⁵⁶ to delineate the right.⁵⁷

Notably, the *Environment and Land Court Act* gives the court *suo moto* jurisdiction.⁵⁸ It is arguable that the section allows judges to engage in judicial activism to safeguard environmental rights by ensuring sustainable development using the devices envisaged in Article 159 of the Constitution to ease access to justice. Courts may therefore act without necessarily waiting for filing of any cases on public interest litigation so as to promote environmental justice.

1.6.3.2 Public Interest Litigation

Courts should continually support and encourage public interest litigation geared towards protection of environmental rights and enhancing environmental justice in Kenya. The Constitution provides for the enforcement of environmental rights and guarantees that any person may apply to a court for redress in addition to any other legal remedies that are available in respect to the same matter.⁵⁹ Further, constitutional provisions that are useful in the promotion of the right under Article 70 are to be found under Articles 22, 23 and 48 thereof. These are important provisions that are aimed at promoting environmental justice for every person through use of public interest litigation. This was also affirmed in the case of *Joseph Leboo & 2 others v Director Kenya Forest Services & another [2013] eKLR*⁶⁰ where the Court reiterated that one does not have to demonstrate personal loss or injury, in order to institute a cause aimed at the protection of the environment.⁶¹

These provisions have been applied in other significant cases too.⁶² Some of the ways through which courts can encourage aggrieved persons to make use of public litigation is being slow in awarding costs where such parties do not get favourable outcomes. This was in fact highlighted in the case of *Brian Asin & 2 others v Wafula W. Chebukati & 9 others [2017] eKLR*⁶³ where the place of public litigation in constitutional matters was

⁵⁶ See *Uganda Electricity Transmission Co. Ltd v De Samaline Incorporation Ltd*, Misc. Cause No. 181 of 2004 (High Court of Uganda).

⁵⁷ Twinomugisha, B.K., “Some Reflections on Judicial Protection of the Right to a Clean and Healthy Environment in Uganda,” *3/3 Law, Environment and Development Journal* (2007), p. 244, p. 249.

⁵⁸ S. 20, *Environment and Land Court Act*, 2011.

⁵⁹ Art. 70 (1) Constitution of Kenya, 2010.

⁶⁰ *Joseph Leboo & 2 others v Director Kenya Forest Services & another [2013] eKLR*, Environment and Land 273 of 2013.

⁶¹ *Ibid*, para. 26.

⁶² *African Network for Animal Welfare (ANAW) v The Attorney General of the United Republic of Tanzania*, Reference No. 9 of 2010.

⁶³ *Brian Asin & 2 others v Wafula W. Chebukati & 9 others [2017] eKLR*, Petition 429 of 2017.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

sumarised in the following words: "an award of costs may have a chilling effect on the litigants who might wish to vindicate their constitutional rights."

This was also affirmed in the case of *Republic v Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission & 2 others Ex-Parte Alinoor Derow Abdullahi & others* [2017] eKLR⁶⁴.

1.6.3.3 National Courts and Sustainable Development

Access to justice is one of the pillars of the *Agenda 2030 on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)*.⁶⁵ SDG Goal 16 seeks to ‘promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels’.

It has rightly been argued that there are other regulatory approaches to achieving environmental protection and public health that are not rights-based. These include economic incentives and disincentives, criminal law, and private liability regimes which have all formed part of the framework of international and national environmental law and health law.⁶⁶ For instance, the *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015*⁶⁷ seeks to ensure that any area declared to be a protected area under section 54(1), may be managed in cooperation with any individual, community or government with interests in the land and forests and should *provide incentives to promote community conservation* (emphasis added).⁶⁸ Such an approach can boost the State’s efforts in sustainable development.

In *Peter K. Waweru v Republic*,⁶⁹ the Court observed that ‘...environmental crimes under the Water Act, Public Health Act and EMCA cover the entire range of liability including strict liability and absolute liability and ought to be severely punished because the challenge of the restoration of the environment has to be tackled from all sides and by every man and woman....’⁷⁰

⁶⁴ *Republic v Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission & 2 others Ex-Parte Alinoor Derow Abdullahi & others* [2017] eKLR, Miscellaneous Application 388 of 2017.

⁶⁵ United Nations, *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015, A/RES/70/1.

⁶⁶ Shelton, D., ‘Human Rights, Health and Environmental Protection: Linkages in Law and Practice: A Background Paper for the WHO,’ p. 3. Available at http://www.who.int/hhr/information/Human_Rights_Health_and_Environmental_Protection.pdf [Accessed on 13/1/202020].

⁶⁷ *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act*, No. 5 of 2015, Laws of Kenya.

⁶⁸ S. 31, *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015*.

⁶⁹ [2006] eKLR, Misc. Civ. Applic. No. 118 of 2004.

⁷⁰ *Peter K. Waweru v Republic*, p.14.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

The role of the State and the national courts, and indeed the general public, in promoting sustainable development through striking a balance between environmental conservation and development needs of the country was also reiterated in the case of *Patrick Musimba –vs- National Land Commission & 4 Others (2016) eKLR*⁷¹ where the Court reiterated the constitutional role of the State on ensuring sustainable development and every person's right to a clean and healthy environment.

Courts should thus closely work with the rest of the stakeholders in not only safeguarding the environment but also ensuring that the country meets its international and national obligations towards realisation of the sustainable development agenda.

Courts play an important role in giving life and meaning to human rights, including environmental rights, by providing a forum of last resort for human rights violations, at the national level.⁷²

1.7 Conclusion

It is imperative for the policy makers and legislators to bear in mind the end game of any intended law or policy as far as environmental governance is concerned. Achieving social justice should be one of the direct results of implementing environmental laws and policies on governance.

The law should be a tool for achieving social justice for the people and environmental governance laws should not be any different. There is indeed a need to revisit the role of law in environmental governance in Kenya. Formal laws and also customary law practices and norms should be utilised in participatory governance for sustainable development.

Courts are important players in promoting and securing the environmental rights of persons as well as in environmental conservation and are therefore useful in achievement of peace, sustainable development and environmental justice for all.⁷³

Kenyans have a role to play in achieving the ideal of a clean and healthy environment. There is need to cultivate a culture of respect for environment by all, without necessarily relying on courts for enforcing the same. Developing environmental ethics and consciousness through such means as dissemination of information and knowledge in

⁷¹ *Patrick Musimba –vs- National Land Commission & 4 Others (2016) eKLR*, Petition 613 of 2014.

⁷² Boyd, D.R., 'The Constitutional Right to a Healthy Environment,' *Environment: Science and Policy for Sustainable Development*, July-August 2012, available at <http://www.environmentmagazine.org/Archives/Back%20Issues/2012/JulyAugust%202012/constitution-al-rights-full.html> [Accessed on 13/1/2020].

⁷³ Art. 10(2) (d), Constitution of Kenya.

meaningful forms can also enhance participation in decision-making and enhance appreciation of the best ways of protecting and conserving the environment.

2. Implementing Constitutional Provisions on Natural Resources and Environmental Management in Kenya

2.1 Introduction

The previous section has critically discussed the role of law in promoting sustainable environmental management as well as the role of courts in implementing the same. This section discusses the constitutional provisions covering the policy, legal and institutional framework on natural resources and environmental management in Kenya. It seeks to examine where the opportunities exist under the constitutional framework but the required implementation tools are either non-existent or underdeveloped. The author offers suggestions on some of the most plausible ways of effectively implementing these provisions.

2.2 Constitution of Kenya 2010 and Natural Resource and Environmental Management

The Constitution of Kenya provides for obligations meant to ensure sustainable management of natural resources and the environment, which lie against both the State and individual persons.⁷⁴ This section briefly looks at these functions as encapsulated by the Constitution.

2.2.1 State Obligations in Environmental and Natural resources Governance

Constitutionalisation of environmental rights is now one of the universally accepted approaches to environmental conservation and management.⁷⁵ This approach can be argued to have been informed by the adoption of a human rights approach to environmental matters. The link between human rights and the environment may have first been established by the *Stockholm Declaration* in 1972.⁷⁶ It has also become the

⁷⁴ Art. 69, Constitution of Kenya 2010.

⁷⁵ See generally, Boyd, D.R., 'The Effectiveness of Constitutional Environmental Rights,' *Yale UNITAR Workshop*, April 26/27, 2013, available at <https://environment.yale.edu/content/documents/00003438/Boyd-Effectiveness-of-Constitutional-Environmental-Rights.docx?1389969747> [Accessed on 14/1/2020]; See also Daly, E. & May, J.R., 'Comparative environmental constitutionalism,' *Jindal Global Law Review*, April 2015, Volume 6, Issue 1, pp 9–30; See also, Mwenda, A. & Kibutu, T.N., 'Implications of the New Constitution on Environmental Management in Kenya,' *Law, Environment and Development Journal*, Vol. 8, No. 1, 2012, p. 78.

⁷⁶ UN General Assembly, *United Nations Conference on the Human Environment*, 15 December 1972, A/RES/2994.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

norm worldwide for the duties of the state in respect of the environmental management and conservation to be spelt out in the Constitution.

It is against this background that the Constitution of Kenya 2010 outlines the obligations of the State in respect of the environment.⁷⁷

The courts have affirmed that although the national objectives and directive principles of State policy are not on their own justiciable, they and the preamble of the Constitution should be given effect wherever it was fairly possible to do so without violating the meaning of the words used.⁷⁸ Considering that the Constitution is the supreme law of the land, all the other sectoral laws on environment and natural resources management ought to be aligned to the constitutional provisions. The reality however, is that some of the laws are yet to be aligned and thus making it difficult to achieve the constitutional objectives on environment and natural resources governance.

2.2.2 Obligations of Citizens in Environment and Natural Resources Management: Co-managers or Mere Spectators?

Article 69(2) of the Constitution of Kenya places a duty on every person to cooperate with State organs and other persons to protect and conserve the environment and ensure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources.⁷⁹ The duty is only limited to cooperation with the state and personal initiative that falls outside of statutory requirements may only be construed. Thus, it is the State and its organs that are to take initiative in management and the rest are only expected to offer support and follow any direction given.

The Constitution has gone a step further to provide for active involvement of communities in sustainable environmental and natural resources matters through seeking court's intervention. Citizenry have a role of ensuring that their rights in relation to the environment are not violated, by way of litigation.⁸⁰

As already observed, active participation of citizens makes them appreciate and support government efforts and also take part in conservation measures. However, there has not been meaningful participation of the public in environmental and natural resource management matters since majority of the sectoral laws only provide for public participation as a mere formality and not as an empowerment tool as envisaged in

⁷⁷ Art. 69(1) Constitution of Kenya 2010.

⁷⁸ Para. 18, Republic v Kenya Forest Service Ex-parte Clement Kariuki & 2 others [2013] eKLR, Judicial Review Case 285 of 2012.

⁷⁹ See also para. 53, Milimani Splendor Management Limited v National Environment Management Authority & 4 others [2019] eKLR, Petition 61 of 2018.

⁸⁰ Art. 22(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

international human rights instruments.⁸¹ A good example is the *Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act 1999* (EMCA), which, while it provides for consultations, the same are mainly meant to be between the state agencies charged with environmental governance. Thus, it is possible to have a scenario where the protectionist approaches adopted in most of these sectoral laws end up undermining efforts towards achieving sustainable development instead of boosting the same.

The *Agenda 21*⁸² under section 23 calls for full public participation by all social groups, including women, youth, indigenous people and local communities in policy-making and decision-making. The *Rio Declaration* also largely adopts an anthropocentric approach to environmental conservation and sustainable development in general.

While the Constitution of Kenya has not been very clear on the specific role of communities as far as environmental governance is concerned, it has however addressed the right of communities to seek legal redress. The right to seek legal redress is also guaranteed under s. 3(3) of the *Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act*.⁸³ The State should ensure that communities play a key role in these efforts and thus, there is need to align these laws with the current Constitution.

2.3 Policy, Legal and Institutional Framework on Natural Resource and Environmental Management in Kenya: The Disconnect

Policies and laws on natural resources and environment in Kenya should be aligned to reflect the requirements and spirit of the Constitution. This section examines the extent to which select existing legislation on natural resources such as land, water, forests, minerals and wildlife reflect the spirit of Article 69 and the Constitution in general as far as resource management is concerned.

2.3.1 Resource Management Approaches

It is arguable that some of the current laws on natural resources management in Kenya still suffer from adopting approaches that defeat any efforts aimed at achieving sustainable development. This section briefly interrogates some of these laws and the specific approaches that they adopt.

i. Wildlife, Biodiversity and Forest Management Approaches

⁸¹ See Principle 10 of the *Rio Declaration; UNECE Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters, or Aarhus Convention*, Articles 4, 5, 6 & 9.

⁸² United Nations Conference on Environment & Development Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 3 to 14 June 1992.

⁸³ No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya; See also *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015* (s. 3).

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

The *Forest Act, 2005*⁸⁴ was enacted, as an attempt to provide for involvement of local communities living around any forest in the management of those forests.⁸⁵ The Forests Act (2005) introduced participatory forest management, through the engagement of local communities, and the promotion of the private sector investment in gazetted forest reserves, accompanied by associated institutional and organisation change, notably the establishment of the Kenya Forest Service (KFS)⁸⁶, and the formation of Community Forest Associations (CFAs)⁸⁷.

The important role of communities in resource management has recently been acknowledged and this is commendable. For instance, the National Land Commission Chairman was recently quoted as saying that resettling traditional forest-dwelling communities in their natural habitats can play an important role in restoring the country's forest cover.⁸⁸ If the Commission adopts such an approach, they are likely to boost chances of succeeding in environmental conservation and enhancing meaningful and active participation of communities in natural resources and environmental conservation, especially with regard to forests.

It is also notable that the Act did not specifically spell out how communities are to be involved in decision-making processes.

Secondly, CFAs are registered by few people who are interested in doing so and the same are not necessarily representatives of the majority of the people. This means, therefore, that even where they make decisions regarding formulation and implementation of forest programmes consistent with the traditional forest user rights of the community concerned, the same cannot be said to be a representative voice of the majority. Community, in this context and as defined in the Act, does not necessarily mean the whole community.

The *Forest Policy 2014* also identifies key issues and challenges in the forestry sector which needs to be addressed. It also acknowledges that the promulgation of the Constitution brought new requirements for natural resource management such as public participation, community and gender rights, equity in benefit sharing, devolution and the need to achieve 10% forest cover among others.⁸⁹ Therefore, the need to enact supporting legislation following the promulgation of the Constitution was required to minimize conflicts between industry, communities and governments at both national and county levels over resource management and benefit sharing. In addition, forest

⁸⁴ No. 7 of 2005, Laws of Kenya (repealed).

⁸⁵ Part IV, SS. 45-48.

⁸⁶ S.4, No. 7 of 2005.

⁸⁷ No. 7 of 2005, S. 45.

⁸⁸ Kibet L., 'Swazuri reveals plans to recognise forest settlers,' *The Standard*, Thursday, July 28, 2016 (The Standard Group, Nairobi, 2016), p. 2.

⁸⁹ *Ibid*, para. 2.1.1.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

governance needed to take into account emerging issues and best practices at global, regional and national level.⁹⁰

The Forest Act 2005 was repealed by the *Forest Conservation and Management Act, 2016*⁹¹ which did not change much in terms of actualisation of the requirements on public consultation and participation. The provisions on public consultation in the *Forest Conservation and Management Act, 2016* are contained in a schedule⁹². The statute provides that where the law requires public consultation, the relevant entity should publish a notice in relation to the proposed action in the Kenya gazette, newspapers and local radio stations.⁹³

One way of implementing the constitutional obligations on the state to protect and enhance intellectual property in, and indigenous knowledge of, biodiversity and the genetic resources of the communities is to incorporate it with the scientific knowledge and involving these communities and helping them appreciate all the foregoing principles of natural resource management for realisation of sustainable development agenda. These principles are both international and cultural.

The *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015*⁹⁴ amends section 48 of EMCA by inserting subsection (3) to the effect that where a forested area is declared to be a protected area under section 54(1), the Cabinet Secretary may cause to be ascertained, any individual, community or government interests in the land and forests and shall provide incentives to promote community conservation.⁹⁵ This is an important clause that can promote forests conservation through the use of incentives. The incentives can be in the form of benefits that accrue to the community from the forests resources. However, this calls for their active involvement in the management through continuous collaboration and consultations with state agencies.

With regard to wildlife biodiversity, it has been observed that many of the regions with abundant and diverse wildlife communities remaining in East Africa are occupied by pastoralists.⁹⁶ Further, it has also been documented that recent studies show that the

⁹⁰ Ibid, para. 2.1.2.

⁹¹ *Forest Conservation and Management Act*, No. 34 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.

⁹² Second Schedule, s.34, Provisions for Public Consultation.

⁹³ Creighton, J.L., *The Public Participation Handbook: Making Better Decisions through Citizen Involvement*, *op cit*, p.7.

⁹⁴ No. 5 of 2015, Laws of Kenya.

⁹⁵ S. 31, *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015*.

⁹⁶ Okech, R.N., 'Wildlife-community conflicts in conservation areas in Kenya,' *African Journals Online*, p. 65. Available at <http://www.ajol.info/index.php/ajcr/article/download/63311/51194> [Accessed on 22/07/2016].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

majority of the local people around protected areas have negative feelings about state policies and conservation programmes. The alienation of grazing land for the exclusive use of wildlife and tourists has a very direct impact upon the pastoralist communities, and prompts them to raise questions about African wildlife policy – as if it leads to a ‘people versus animals’ conflict.⁹⁷ The local communities continue to incur wildlife- related losses and insecurity rather than benefits, while the government and foreign investors continue to draw large amounts of foreign income from parks through the lucrative tourism industry.⁹⁸

The National Wildlife Conservation and Management Policy, 2012 (Wildlife Policy 2012) observes that since Kenya is rich in natural resources, including a vast array of wildlife, and due to its species’ richness, endemism and ecosystem diversity, under the Convention on Biological Diversity Kenya is categorized as a mega-diverse country.⁹⁹ Accordingly, the Policy affirms the need for different conservation priorities and measures, for each of the ecosystems. This is accredited to a combined set of attributes which include: variability in climate, topography, diversity in ecosystems and habitats ranging from mountain ranges to semi-arid and arid areas to marine and freshwater.¹⁰⁰

Wildlife is required to contribute directly and indirectly to the local and national economy through revenue generation and wealth creation.¹⁰¹ Notably, the Policy observes that Kenya’s wildlife is increasingly under threat and consequently opportunities are being lost for it to positively contribute to economic growth, wealth creation and increased employment. Much of this wildlife occurs outside the protected areas on lands owned by communities and other different organizations or persons. Communities consider the presence of wildlife on their land as a burden rather than an opportunity for gaining benefits.¹⁰²

The *Wildlife Conservation and Management Act, 2013*¹⁰³ was enacted, as a result of the Wildlife Policy 2012, to provide for the protection, conservation, sustainable use and management of wildlife in Kenya and for connected purposes.¹⁰⁴ The Act affirms that benefits of wildlife conservation should be derived by the land user in order to offset costs and to ensure the value and management of wildlife do not decline; wildlife

⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ Ibid, p. 74.

⁹⁹ Republic of Kenya: Ministry of Forestry and Wildlife, National Wildlife Conservation and Management Policy, 2012, p. 1.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ Wildlife Conservation and Management Act, No. 47 of 2013, Laws of Kenya.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid, Preamble.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

conservation and management should be exercised in accordance with the principles of sustainable utilization to meet the benefits of present and future generations; and benefits accruing from wildlife conservation and management should be enjoyed and equitably shared by the people of Kenya.¹⁰⁵ The Act provides for consumptive wildlife use activities, which include, game farming, ranching, live capture, research involving off-take, cropping and culling.¹⁰⁶ However, hunting is prohibited as a form of consumptive utilization.¹⁰⁷

The Act also provides for non-consumptive utilization of wildlife. A general permit may be issued by the Cabinet Secretary for non-consumptive wildlife user rights, including - wildlife-based tourism; commercial photography and filming; educational purposes; research purposes; cultural purposes; and religious purposes.¹⁰⁸ The functions of the Kenya Wildlife Service, under the Act, include, collecting revenue and charges due to the national government from wildlife and, as appropriate, develop mechanisms for benefit sharing with communities living in wildlife areas, and developing mechanisms for benefit sharing with communities living in wildlife areas.¹⁰⁹

Also significant is the provision that every person has the right to practice wildlife conservation and management as a form of gainful land use.¹¹⁰ Further, every person has the right to reasonable access to wildlife resources and shall be entitled to enjoy the benefits accruing there-from without undue hindrance.¹¹¹ However, utilisation and exploitation of wildlife resources by any person whether individual land owner or in a conservation area, and wherever else should be practised in a manner that is sustainable and in accordance with regulations made under this Act.¹¹²

The *Wildlife Conservation and Management Act* requires the Cabinet Secretary, in consultation with the land owner, the National Land Commission, the Commission on Revenue Allocation and in liaison with the Service, to formulate regulations and guidelines on access and benefit sharing.¹¹³

¹⁰⁵ Ibid, s.4.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid, s.80 (3).

¹⁰⁷ Ibid, s. 97 & s. 98; See also Eighth Schedule to the Act.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid, s. 80.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid, s.7 (e) (f).

¹¹⁰ Ibid, s. 70(1).

¹¹¹ Ibid, s. 71(1).

¹¹² Ibid, s. 72(1).

¹¹³ Ibid, s. 73; See also s. 76(1)-The Cabinet Secretary shall, upon advice by the Service, in consultation with the Commission on Revenue Allocation, formulate guidelines regarding incentives and benefit sharing, and the nature and manner in which the same shall be distributed.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

In a bid to curb human-wildlife conflict, the Act provides that in furtherance of the spirit mutual co-existence in the framework of human – wildlife conflict, every decision and determination on the matter of conservation and management of the wildlife resource should not be exercised in a manner prejudicial to the rights and privileges of communities living adjacent to conservation and protected areas: Provided that in the parties should have due regard for the provisions of the appropriate and enabling laws, including laws on devolution and land management.¹¹⁴ Where animals enter community's areas of living, only authorised officers may kill them where there is potential risk of injury, and any unauthorized persons who may kill a rogue animal, unless for self defence, may be prosecuted.¹¹⁵

The 2013 Act provides for County Wildlife Conservation Committees, Community Wildlife Associations and Wildlife Managers and community conservancies as institutions of promoting community participation. As far as regulation is concerned, the Act does away with an autonomous regulatory agency and instead gives powers of wildlife regulation and licensing to the Cabinet Secretary in charge of wildlife. The various institutions are mostly to advise the Cabinet secretary who then makes the final decision. It is therefore clear that the Act does not create clear channels for the communities to participate in decision making. The approach adopted is also broadly protectionist and does little to bring a change of attitude by local communities regarding wildlife diversity. While the Policy framework seems to acknowledge the importance of community inclusion, there is little evidence in the Act that the same was considered during deliberations to formulate the law.

If the affirmations in the Wildlife Policy are anything to go by, then the protectionist approaches adopted in management and conservation of biological diversity are not justified and do little to achieve the desired objectives of sustainable development. It has been suggested that there is need to adopt a more active participatory approach which is mainly informed by two additional principles: putting resources under local control; and giving local communities a decisive voice and representation through their own local institutions, which means participation in making decisions that affect them.¹¹⁶ These principles, it has been contended, intend to increase trust and confidence and strengthen leadership capabilities at the community level.¹¹⁷ While it may not be necessarily

¹¹⁴ Ibid, s. 75(1).

¹¹⁵ Ibid, ss. 77-78.

¹¹⁶ See Songorwa, A.N., et al, 'Community-Based Wildlife Management in Africa: A Critical Assessment of the Literature,' op cit. p. 607; See also Colchester, M., 'Sustaining the Forests: The Community- Based Approach in South and South-East Asia,' (United Nations Research Institute For Social Development, 1992). Available at [http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9%2F\(httpAuxPages\)%2F53024E4A3BAA768480256B67005B6396%2F\\$file%2Fdp35.pdf](http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9%2F(httpAuxPages)%2F53024E4A3BAA768480256B67005B6396%2F$file%2Fdp35.pdf) [Accessed on 28/07/2016].

¹¹⁷ Ibid.

important to devolve control and ownership, there is need for more active and quality community participation in decision-making processes.

2.4 Implementing the Constitutional Obligations of the State in Respect of the Environment

It has been observed that the management regimes of public forests (and perhaps even other natural resources in Kenya), whether they are protectionist oriented or incentive-based are important in determining outcomes of conservation and sustainable use.¹¹⁸ Kenya has historically adopted a protectionist model, where conservation strategies have been dominated by attempts to fence off or reserve areas for nature and exclude people from the reserved areas, and also involved the creation of protected areas (national parks, game reserves and national forest reserves), the exclusion of people as residents, prevention of consumptive use, and minimisation of other forms of human impact.¹¹⁹ Broadly, this approach viewed development objectives of local communities as being in direct conflict with the objectives of biodiversity conservation.¹²⁰

It is for this reason that this section explores measures that may facilitate securing the dream of sustainable exploitation, utilisation, management and conservation of the environment and natural resources and equitable sharing of the accruing benefits. This is in recognition of the fact that the Constitution contemplates adoption of measures that not only promote sustainable management of resources but also actively and meaningfully engage communities in such efforts.

2.4.1 Sustainable and Inclusive Approaches to Environmental Management

As far as wildlife biodiversity is concerned, it has been contended that the involvement and support of local communities in wildlife conservation is a prerequisite to effective and long-term conservation of wildlife and wildlands as part of the terrestrial biodiversity.¹²¹ To this extent, it is argued that as a resource, wildlife must be of value to humans and contribute to human development. In other words, it must directly benefit the people who have the option to use the wildlands for other purposes.¹²² Consequently, in spite of any existing controversies between the purely protectionist approach to wildlife management and the conservation approach, it is argued that it is the local

¹¹⁸ Guthiga, P.M., 'Understanding Local Communities' Perceptions Of Existing Forest Management Regimes of A Kenyan Rainforest,' *International Journal of Social Forestry (IJSF)*, 2008, Vol. 1, No.2, pp.145-166 at p. 146.

¹¹⁹ Ibid, p. 146.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

¹²¹ Sibanda, B.M.C. & Omwega, A.S., 'Some Reflections on Conservation, Sustainable Development And Equitable Sharing of Benefits From Wildlife in Africa: The Case of Kenya and Zimbabwe,' *South African Journal Of Wildlife Research*, Vol. 26, No. 4, 1996, pp. 175-181 at p 175.

¹²² Ibid.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

communities who are to determine whether wildlife conservation is a priority form of land use.¹²³

It has been recommended that involving local communities in sustainable natural resource use and conservation must be encouraged. Arguably, no rural-based education about the use of such resources will succeed if local community needs and opinions are not met and incorporated in conservation practice and policies. If they do not benefit from biodiversity resources, and are not compensated for opportunity costs and wildlife-induced losses, they will not support the conservation of biodiversity.¹²⁴ Lastly, it has been suggested that a national land use plan can also help and will put into perspective land use practices that are compatible with the socio-economic needs, natural resource endowment, and ecological and climatic constraints within different regions of the country.¹²⁵ There is however, hope in Kenya after the recently developed Draft National Land Use Policy 2016¹²⁶ whose overall goal is to provide legal, administrative, institutional and technological framework for optimal utilization and productivity of land and land related resources in a sustainable and desirable manner at National, County and local level.¹²⁷

The various sectoral laws and policies must be designed in way that protects the environment from degradation, and also involves communities in such measures, first through decision-making, and then encouraging active participation, whether through incentives or otherwise.

2.4.2 Achieving Ten Percentage Forest Cover

It has rightly been argued that forest and landscape restoration is about more than just trees. It goes beyond afforestation, reforestation, and ecological restoration to improve both human livelihoods and ecological integrity. Key characteristics include the

¹²³ Ibid; see generally Grossman, E. (ed), 'Integrating Land Use Planning & Biodiversity,' (Defenders of Wildlife, Washington, D.C., 2003). Available at http://www.defenders.org/publications/integrating_land_use_planning_and_biodiversity.pdf [Accessed on 14/1/2020]; See also Kiss, A., 'Making Biodiversity Conservation A Land Use Priority,' available at <http://www2.gsu.edu/~wwwcec/special/AgiBookSection2002.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020]

¹²⁴ Okech, R.N., 'Wildlife-community conflicts in conservation areas in Kenya,' *African Journals Online*, op cit at p.78.

¹²⁵ Ibid, p. 78; See also generally, Wehrmann, B. (ed), 'Land Use Planning: Concept, Tools and Applications,' (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH, Eschborn, 2012). Available at <https://www.giz.de/fachexpertise/downloads/Fachexpertise/giz2012-en-land-use-planning-manual.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020]

¹²⁶ Developed by the Ministry of Lands and Physical Planning, Kenya, May 2016.

¹²⁷ Ibid, para. 1.4.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

following: Local stakeholders are actively engaged in decision making, collaboration, and implementation; whole landscapes are restored, not just individual sites, so that trade-offs among conflicting interests can be made and minimized within a wider context; landscapes are restored and managed to provide for an agreed, balanced combination of ecosystem services and goods, not only for increased forest cover; a wide range of restoration strategies are considered, from managed natural regeneration to tree planting; and continuous monitoring, learning, and adaptation are central.¹²⁸

Further, a restored landscape can accommodate a mosaic of land uses such as agriculture, protected reserves, ecological corridors, regenerating forests, well-managed plantations, agroforestry systems, and riparian plantings to protect waterways. Restoration must complement and enhance food production and not cause natural forests to be converted into plantations.¹²⁹

Principle 8(a) of the *Non-Legally Binding Authoritative Statement of Principles for a Global Consensus on the Management, Conservation and Sustainable Development of All Types of Forests* (the Forest Principles of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED))¹³⁰ provide that efforts should be undertaken towards the greening of the world. Furthermore,

*Draft National Forest Policy, 2015*¹³¹ provides for a framework for improved forest governance, resource allocation, partnerships and collaboration with the state and non-state actors to enable the sector contribute in meeting the country's growth and poverty alleviation goals within a sustainable environment.¹³² The overall goal of the Policy is sustainable development, management, utilization and conservation of forest resources and equitable sharing of accrued benefits for the present and future generations of the people of Kenya.¹³³

¹²⁸ World Resources Institute, 'Atlas of Forest and Landscape Restoration Opportunities,' available at <http://www.wri.org/resources/maps/atlas-forest-and-landscape-restoration-opportunities> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹²⁹ Ibid.

¹³⁰ Report Of The United Nations Conference On Environment And Development (Rio De Janeiro, 3-14 June 1992), Annex III: Non-Legally Binding Authoritative Statement Of Principles For A Global Consensus on The Management, Conservation and Sustainable Development of All Types of Forests, A/CONF.151/26 (Vol. III).

¹³¹ Forest Policy, 2015 (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2015).

¹³² Ibid, para. 1.1.9.

¹³³ Para. 3.1.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

The *Draft National Forest Policy, 2015* acknowledges that to achieve the national forest cover target of 10% of land area, the major afforestation effort will have to be in community and private lands.¹³⁴

Further, the Policy emphasizes that participatory forest management and sound conservation practice has potential to improve forest protection, management and growth by involving relevant non-state actors and local communities in planning and implementation.

The *Draft National Land Use Policy 2016* requires that to address the low vegetation cover with other competing land uses, the government should: carry out an inventory of all land cover classifications; establish mechanisms to ensure protection and improvement of vegetation cover over time; incorporate multi stake holder participation in a forestation programmes and initiatives; develop a framework for incentives to encourage maintenance of forest cover; promote the use of alternatives and efficient production methods to reduce demand on forest products; and ensure public participation in stakeholder forums in the determination of planning zones.¹³⁵

It has been asserted that land users require long-term secure rights to use and harvest a piece of land before they will invest time and effort in sustaining its long-term productivity.¹³⁶ As a result of past land alienation policies, a significant portion of much of the developing world's forest lands now falls within the public domain, and has become a de facto open access resource.¹³⁷ If the people using these resources have no enforceable legal or customary rights (to cultivate, graze or collect forest products) they have no incentive to conserve the productive potential of the resources (soil, water, vegetation and animals). Tenurial systems are therefore important in any aspect of natural resource management.¹³⁸

The *Forest Conservation and Management Act, 2016* was enacted to give effect to Article 69 of the Constitution with regard to forest resources; to make provision for the conservation and management of forests; and for connected purposes. The Act applies to apply to all forests on public, community and private lands.¹³⁹ Among the guiding

¹³⁴ Para. 4.5.

¹³⁵ Draft National Land Use Policy 2016, para. 3.8.3.

¹³⁶ Lamb, D. & Gilmour, D., *Rehabilitation and Restoration of Degraded Forests*. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK and WWF, Gland, Switzerland, 2003. x +110 pp. at p. 66. Available at http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/rehabilitation_and_restoration_of_degraded_forests.pdf [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ Ibid; see generally, *Rethinking Forest Partnerships and Benefit Sharing: Insights on Factors and Context that Make Collaborative Arrangements Work for Communities and Landowners*, Report No. 51575-GLB, (The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank, Washington, DC, 2009).

¹³⁹ Forest Conservation and Management Act, 2016(Government Printer, Nairobi, 2016), sec. 3.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

principles of the Act are: public participation and community involvement in the management of forests; and consultation and co-operation between the national and county governments. The Act also requires the Cabinet Secretary, in consultation with the relevant stakeholders, develop a national forest management policy for the sustainable use of forests and forest resources, and which must be reviewed at least once in every five years.¹⁴⁰

The *Forest Conservation and Management Act, 2016* notably retains provisions for formation and registration a community forest association in accordance with the provisions of the Societies Act.¹⁴¹ The management agreement between the Kenya Forest Service and the community forest association is meant to give such communities some forest user rights.¹⁴² Such forest user rights may, with the approval of the Director-General, be assigned either partly or all under a management agreement to a suitably qualified agent on mutually agreed terms.¹⁴³

The Forest Conservation and Management Act, 2016 also provides that subject to Article 66¹⁴⁴ of the Constitution, investors in forests must share the benefits of their investment with local communities by applying various options including but not limited to infrastructure, education and social amenities.¹⁴⁵ This provision is in recognition of the fact that "benefits" mean quantifiable and non-quantifiable goods and services provided by forest ecosystems.¹⁴⁶

Unilateral efforts to achieve at least ten percent tree cover may not bear much fruits since communities may feel used by the State organs without necessarily benefiting from the same.

Deforestation contributes to climate change and thus, it must be tackled as one of the means of achieving the sustainable development agenda.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid, Sec. 5.

¹⁴¹ Ibid, Sec. 47(1).

¹⁴² Ibid, Sec. 48.

¹⁴³ Ibid, Sec. 49.

¹⁴⁴ Art. 66(1)- The State may regulate the use of any land, or any interest in or right over any land, in the interest of defence, public safety, public order, public morality, public health, or land use planning. (2) Parliament shall enact legislation ensuring that investments in property benefit local communities and their economies.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid, sec. 52.

¹⁴⁶ Ibid, sec. 2. *Legal Notice 160 of 2006 on the Environmental Management and Co-Ordination (Conservation of Biological Diversity and Resources, Access to Genetic Resources and Benefit Sharing) Regulations, 2006, Regulation 20 (1).*

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

The *National Climate Change Response Strategy 2010* (NCCRS)¹⁴⁷, has identified the forestry sector as a strong vehicle for undertaking both mitigation and adaptation efforts and intends to exploit incentives provided within the framework of UNFCCC, especially the REDD mechanism, to implement sustainable forest management approaches.¹⁴⁸ These efforts and initiatives should be supported as they demonstrate Kenya's commitment to climate change mitigation, a positive step towards attaining sustainable development.

The Bali Principles of Climate Justice of 2002 (Bali Principles)¹⁴⁹ acknowledge that if consumption of fossil fuels, deforestation and other ecological devastation continues at current rates, it is certain that climate change will result in increased temperatures, sea level rise, changes in agricultural patterns, increased frequency and magnitude of "natural" disasters such as floods, droughts, loss of biodiversity, intense storms and epidemics. Further, deforestation contributes to climate change, while having a negative impact on a broad array of local communities.

2.4.3. Realising the State's Role in Facilitating Equitable Benefit Sharing for Social Sustainability

The proposed legislation *Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing Bill)*¹⁵⁰ seeks to establish a system of benefit sharing in resource exploitation between resource exploiters, the national government, county governments and local communities, to establish the natural resources benefit sharing authority and for connected purposes. The proposed law is to apply with respect to petroleum and natural gas, among other natural resources. The proposed law provides for guiding principles to include transparency and inclusivity, revenue maximization and adequacy, efficiency and equity and accountability.¹⁵¹ The proposed legislation seeks to set up a Benefit Sharing Authority which will be mandated to coordinate the preparation of benefit sharing agreements between local communities and affected organizations, among other functions.¹⁵²

There is need to actively involve communities in the implementation of this law, if enacted, to ensure that they are not left out as far as benefit sharing is concerned. The approach should be one that ensures that communities feel part of the resource

¹⁴⁷ See para. 4.2.5.2, Government of Kenya, 2010.

¹⁴⁸ The REDD Desk, *REDD in Kenya*, available at <http://theredddesk.org/countries/kenya> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁴⁹ Available at <http://www.ejnet.org/ej/bali.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁵⁰ 2018 (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2018).

¹⁵¹ Ibid, Clause 4.

¹⁵² Clause 6, *Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing Bill)*, 2018.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

management strategies and not mere spectators where they are not consulted even on the best approaches to benefit sharing.

There is also the *Community Land Act, 2016*¹⁵³ was enacted to give effect to Article 63 (5) of the Constitution; to provide for the recognition, protection and registration of community land rights; management and administration of community land; to provide for the role of county governments in relation to unregistered community land and for connected purposes.¹⁵⁴ Section 36 provides that subject to any other law, natural resources found in community land should be used and managed—sustainably and productively; for the benefit of the whole community including future generations; with transparency and accountability; and on the basis of equitable sharing of accruing benefits.

The International Finance Corporation (IFC) suggests practical processes for sharing benefits with communities.¹⁵⁵ One of the ways that this can be achieved is through maintaining active relationships built on trust with communities through appropriate and effective communication. This implies that genuine consultations and participation in decision-making will happen whenever possible and that perceptions and expectations are closely aligned with reality.

There is need to ensure that any model that is put in place guarantees a fair and equitable benefit-sharing, with terms and provisions which clearly spell out the model to be used in determining the accruing benefits and the associated costs, in order to determine the investments (and compromises) from all parties and stakeholders involved.¹⁵⁶

2.4.4 Empowerment and Public Participation for Effective Natural Resources Management

It has been observed that an emphasis on responsibilities rather than rights echoes language from the Stockholm Declaration and subsequent instruments that emphasize the duty of each person to protect and improve the environment for present and future generations.¹⁵⁷ This, it is arguable, calls for empowerment of the citizenry to enable

¹⁵³ *Community Land Act, No. 27 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.*

¹⁵⁴ Preamble, *Community Land Act, No. 27 of 2016* (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2015).

¹⁵⁵ Lohde, L.A., *The Art and Science of Benefit Sharing in the Natural Resource Sector*, (International Finance Corporation, February 2015), p. 61. Available at http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/8e29cb00475956019385972fbd86d19b/IFC_Art+and+Science+of+Benefits+Sharing_Final.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CACHEID=8e29cb00475956019385972fbd86d19b [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁵⁶ See generally, Jonge, B.D., 'What is Fair and Equitable Benefit-sharing?' *Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics*, Vol. 24, 2011, pp.127–146.

¹⁵⁷ Shelton, D., 'Human Rights, Health and Environmental Protection: Linkages in Law and Practice: A Background Paper for the WHO,' op cit. p. 3.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

them carry out their duties towards environmental management effectively. The fact that the Constitution of Kenya¹⁵⁸ and EMCA¹⁵⁹ have already dispensed with the need to prove locus standi in environmental matters litigation presents a good opportunity for the citizenry, through relevant support, to hold government and private entities accountable as far as management of environmental resources is concerned.

In the case of *Joseph Leboo & 2 Others v Director Kenya Forest Services & Another*¹⁶⁰ the Learned Judge observed that affirmed that any person is free to raise an issue that touches on the conservation and management of the environment, and it is not necessary for such person to demonstrate, that the issues being raised, concern him personally, or indeed, demonstrate that he stands to suffer individually.¹⁶¹

However, such suits require that the particular persons be first empowered through the relevant information, acquired either through formal, informal or non-formal education or general awareness on the relevant matters. The right to information must therefore be realized to facilitate enjoyment of environmental rights. This can be achieved through implementation of Article 35 of the Constitution, which guarantees the right to information.¹⁶²

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) recommends adoption of decentralised governance of natural resources, which concerns the ownership and control of, access to and use of resources, and involves decision making and the exercise of the powers over others.¹⁶³ According to UNDP, decentralised governance of natural resources is considered one of the key strategies for promoting sustainable management, equitable decision-making, promoting efficiency, participatory governance and equitable sharing of benefits accrued from exploitation of natural resources at the local levels.¹⁶⁴ The Constitution provides for the role of devolved governance system in the management of natural resources and the environment. The Fourth Schedule to the

¹⁵⁸ For the purposes of this Article, an applicant does not have to demonstrate that any person has incurred loss or suffered injury (Art. 70(3)).

¹⁵⁹ S.3 (4) A person proceeding under subsection (3) of this section shall have the capacity to bring an action notwithstanding that such a person cannot show that the defendant's act or omission has caused or is likely to cause him any personal loss or injury provided that such action – (a) is not frivolous or vexatious; or (b) is not an abuse of the court process.

¹⁶⁰ [2013] eKLR, Environment and Land No. 273 of 2013.

¹⁶¹ Paras 25 & 28.

¹⁶² Art. 35(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010; *Access to Information Act, 2015*.

¹⁶³ United Nations Development Programme, *Decentralized Governance of Natural Resources*, available at <http://web.undp.org/drylands/decentralized-governance.html> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁶⁴ *Ibid.*

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Constitution¹⁶⁵ provides for the distribution of functions between the National Government and the County Governments.

Agenda 21 tasks the Government to do all that is necessary in giving communities a large measure of participation in the sustainable management and protection of the local natural resources in order to enhance their productive capacity.¹⁶⁶

Thus, it is important to ensure that public participation is well captured in the policy and legal framework to facilitate sustainable management and conservation of environmental resources through approaches that are inclusive, participatory and deliberative in nature.

2.4.5 Establishment of systems of environmental impact assessment, environmental audit and monitoring of the environment

The Constitution of Kenya requires the State to establish systems of environmental impact assessment, environmental audit and monitoring of the environment. EMCA tasks National Environmental Management Authority (NEMA) with the responsibility of carrying out Environmental Audit of all activities that are likely to have significant effect on the environment. While Environmental Impact Assessment is conducted before commencement of any new development to minimise negative environmental impacts, for ongoing activities, an Environmental Audit ascertains if the activities in question have significant environmental effects.¹⁶⁷

In Kenya, an environmental impact assessment study preparation is generally required to take into account environmental, social, cultural, economic, and legal considerations, and should—identify the anticipated environmental impacts of the project and the scale of the impacts; identify and analyze alternatives to the proposed project; propose mitigation measures to be taken during and after the implementation of the project; and develop an environmental management plan with mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the compliance and environmental performance which should include the cost of mitigation measures and the time frame of implementing the measures.¹⁶⁸

Public participation is believed to be an integral part of the environmental impact assessment process as it creates an opportunity for concerned citizens to express their views on natural resource development.¹⁶⁹ Public participation is also encouraged under

¹⁶⁵ (Article 185 (2), 186 (1) and 187 (2)), Constitution of Kenya.

¹⁶⁶ Agenda 21, clause 3.7(d).

¹⁶⁷ FAO, 'Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) and Environmental Auditing (EA),' available at <http://www.fao.org/docrep/005/v9933e/v9933e02.htm> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁶⁸ Regulation 16, *Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003*, Legal Notice 101 of 2003.

¹⁶⁹ Ingelson, A., et al, 'Philippine Environmental Impact Assessment, Mining and Genuine Development', op cit, p. 6; See also Okello, N., et al, 'The doing and un-doing of public participation during

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

EIA because, after stakeholders have had the opportunity to express their opinions, they may be more inclined to accept the final outcome decided by the regulators, as they have had the opportunity to express their views.¹⁷⁰

The mandatory requirements for Environmental Impact Assessment, Strategic Environmental Assessment¹⁷¹ and Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA) also present viable channels through which communities can actively participate in sustainable development agenda in the country.¹⁷²

These exercises should not be just a matter of formality and paper work.¹⁷³ The affected communities should be afforded an opportunity to meaningfully participate and give feedback on the likely effects on social, economic and environmental aspects of the community.

2.4.6 Judicial Activism

It has rightly been argued that there are other regulatory approaches to achieving environmental protection and public health that are not rights-based. These include economic incentives and disincentives, criminal law, and private liability regimes which have all formed part of the framework of international and national environmental law and health law.¹⁷⁴

In the enforcement of other Constitutional rights such as economic and social rights and the right to life under the Constitution, courts should accord such provisions broad

environmental impact assessments in Kenya,' *Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal*, Vol. 27, No.3, 2009, pp.217-226.

¹⁷⁰ Ibid, p. 6.

¹⁷¹ "strategic environmental assessment" means a formal and systematic process to analyse and address the environmental effects of policies, plans, programmes and other strategic initiatives (s.2, *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act*, No. 5 of 2015); S. 57A, EMCA, No. 8 of 1999; See also the *Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003*, Legal Notice 101 of 2003, Regulations 42 & 43.

¹⁷² One of the Policy Statements in the *National Environment Policy 2013* is that the Government will ensure Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA), Environmental Impact Assessment, Social Impact Assessment and Public participation in the planning and approval of infrastructural projects (para. 5.6).

¹⁷³ See generally, United Nations, *Environmental Impact Assessment and Strategic Environmental Assessment: Towards an Integrated Approach*, (UNEP, 2004). Available at <http://www.unep.ch/etu/publications/textONUbr.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020]; See also The World Bank, 'Strategic Environmental Assessment,' September 10, 2013. Available at <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/environment/brief/strategic-environmental-assessment> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁷⁴ Shelton, D., 'Human Rights, Health and Environmental Protection: Linkages in Law and Practice: A Background Paper for the WHO,' p. 3. Available at http://www.who.int/hhr/information/Human_Rights_Health_and_Environmental_Protection.pdf [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

interpretations so as to address any environmental factors that impede access to the resources necessary for enjoyment of the right in question.

2.5 Conclusion

The existing policies, legal and institutional frameworks, as already highlighted in select statutes, appear to suggest that the sustainable management of resources agenda is oneto be driven by the State, especially in terms of decision-making, and not the local community. The Constitution envisages a collaborative approach between communities and the State. Decision making processes still seem to be largely top-down in nature and communities are only afforded opportunities to apply for resource user rights, with little or no consultations regarding management.

The Constitution creates an opportunity where, through devolution, communities are supposed to be empowered by devolving power from the state to local institutions of decision- making as a way of empowering local communities to manage natural resources and environmental matters. There is also need to put in place a framework thatclearly defines the role of various stakeholders.

3. Role of Corporations in Environmental Conservation and Sustainable Development in Kenya

3.1 Introduction

The vast majority of economic activities around the world are organized through corporations.¹⁷⁵ Corporations have often faced the dilemma of striking a balance between economic development and environmental conservation.¹⁷⁶ In Kenya, it has been observed that corporate bodies are involved in acts and omissions which violate theright to a clean and healthy environment such as pollution and non-compliance with statutory obligations including undertaking environmental impact assessments and audits.¹⁷⁷

The main concern of corporates engaged in such acts is their economic growth and they engage in acts of pollution to save costs through acts and omissions such as failure to

¹⁷⁵ Rauterberg. G, 'The Corporation's Place in Society' available at http://michiganlawreview.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/114MichLRev.913_Rauterberg.pdf [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁷⁶ Sozinova. A et al, 'Economic Environmental Activities of Russian Corporations' International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues, Volume 6, Issue 1, 2016, p. 52-56.

¹⁷⁷ Kamweti D et al, 'Nature and Extent of Environmental Crime in Kenya' available at <https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/111770/M166FULL.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

treat effluent before discharging into water bodies.¹⁷⁸ However, with the increased environmental challenges such as climate change, the acts and omissions of corporations can no longer go unregulated.

The concept of environmental liability has emerged at both the national and global level to curb against environmental damage by corporations. Further, corporate governance principles such as corporate social responsibility require corporations to consider the social consequences of their economic actions in decision making.¹⁷⁹ It has been argued that the concept of environmental governance is an important aspect of corporate social and environmental responsibility.¹⁸⁰

This section discusses the concept of corporate environmental compliance in Kenya and proposes solutions on how the same can be enhanced to promote sustainable development. In light of the provisions of the Constitution of Kenya, 2010 and EMCA the environmental regime in Kenya has been strengthened and corporations now face both civil and criminal liability for acts and omissions related to the environment. It delves into corporate environmental compliance challenges in Kenya and highlights how they affect the right to a clean and healthy environment in addition to other human rights before suggesting how corporations can tackle these challenges.

3.2 Legal and Institutional Framework for Corporate Environmental Compliance

3.2.1 International Legal Framework

The international framework on corporate environmental compliance is based on a number of treaties, standards and principles aimed at facilitating enforcement and compliance with environmental laws and regulations. While such treaties, principles and standards generally bind states, they are directly applicable to corporations since a state can control the activities of a corporation within its jurisdiction in compliance with its obligations under international law especially on environmental matters.

The *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, Paris Agreement 2015*¹⁸¹, is an Agreement aimed at strengthening the global response to the threat of

¹⁷⁸ Ibid.

¹⁷⁹ Buckley, P 'Can Corporations Contribute directly to society or only through regulated behaviour' *Journal of the British Academy*, 6 (sl), p. 323-374.

¹⁸⁰ MSV. Prasad, 'Corporate Environmental Governance: A Perception of Indian Stakeholder', available at https://ecoinsee.org/conference/conf_papers/conf_paper_18.pdf, [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁸¹ Paris Agreement, United Nations, 2015, available at

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

climate change in the context of sustainable development. The Agreement contains provisions aimed at holding the rise in global temperature levels and controlling greenhouse gas emissions.¹⁸² It is noteworthy that most corporations especially those in industrial goods production release greenhouse gases that may adversely affect the ozone layer and this makes them bound by this legal instrument.

*The Montreal Protocol*¹⁸³ is an international Treaty which aims to regulate the production and use of chemicals that contribute to the depletion of ozone layer. It sets limits on the production of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and related substances that may lead to the depletion of the ozone layer. Again, some corporations may release chemicals that may adversely affect the ozone layer.

*The 1972 Stockholm Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment*¹⁸⁴ contains provisions on compensation for damage to victims of environmental liability and requires member states to adopt laws that provide for liability and compensation to victims of environmental damage such as pollution. This has been captured in Kenya under the Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act, 1999¹⁸⁵ which imposes both civil and criminal liability for environmental damage.

*The Rio Declaration on Environment and Development*¹⁸⁶ captures several principles aimed at protecting the integrity of the global environment and developmental system. These include sustainable development, public participation, inter and intra generational equity, precautionary principle and the polluter pays principle.

ISO 14000 entails a number of standards developed by the International Organization for Standardization to help organizations take a proactive approach to managing environmental issues.¹⁸⁷ The standards challenge organizations to undertake a number of activities related to environmental governance which include taking stock of their impacts on the environment, establishing objectives and targets towards environmental

https://unfccc.int/files/essential_background/convention/application/pdf/english_paris_agreement.pdf
[Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁸² Ibid, Art. 2.

¹⁸³ Montreal Protocol and (London Amendment) on Substances that Deplete the Ozone layer, 1522 UNTS 3; 26 ILM 1550 (1987).

¹⁸⁴ Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment Stockholm, 16 June 1972, available at

<https://legal.un.org/avl/ha/dunche/dunche.html> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁸⁵ Act No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya.

¹⁸⁶ The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, Rio Declaration 1992, Available http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/RIO_E.PDF [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

¹⁸⁷ Environmental Management: The ISO 14000 family of International Standards, available at https://www.iso.org/files/live/sites/isoorg/files/archive/pdf/en/theiso14000family_2009.pdf [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

management, committing to effective and reliable solutions such as prevention pollution and taking personal responsibility for conduct related to the environment.¹⁸⁸ The existence of such standards is important since it allows organisations to gauge their environmental efforts against the generally accepted international criteria.

3.2.2 National Legal Framework

a) Constitution of Kenya, 2010

The Constitution of Kenya accords every person the right to a clean and healthy environment¹⁸⁹, which includes the right to have the environment protected for the benefit of present and future generations through measures contemplated in article 69; and to have obligations relating to the environment fulfilled under Article 70. These Constitutional provisions bind both the state and every person. Corporations thus have environmental obligations under the Constitution since they are artificial persons. Breach of these obligations could result in enforcement of environmental rights against the corporation and sanctions such as compensation for any victim of a violation of the right to a clean and healthy environment under Article 70 (2) (c).

b) Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act (EMCA), 1999

The *Environmental (Management and Co-ordination) Act, 1999* (EMCA) is an Act of Parliament to provide for the establishment of an appropriate legal and institutional framework for the management of the environment.¹⁹⁰ The Act entitles every person to a clean and healthy environment and requires every person to cooperate with state organs to protect and conserve the environment and to ensure the ecological sustainable development and use of natural resources.¹⁹¹ EMCA also stipulates several measures for protection and conservation of the environmental subsectors including rivers, lakes, seas, wetlands, mountain areas, forests, biological resource and the ozone layer.¹⁹²

These provisions bind both the state and individuals and their violation could result in commission of environmental offences set out under the Act. When these offences are committed, *by a body corporate, the body corporate and every director or officer of the body corporate who had knowledge of the commission of the offence and who did not*

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.

¹⁸⁹ Art. 42, Constitution of Kenya 2010, (Government Printer, 2010, Nairobi).

¹⁹⁰ Environmental Management and Co-Ordination Act (EMCA), No. 8 of 1999, Government Printer, Nairobi.

¹⁹¹ Ibid, s. 3 (2A).

¹⁹² Ibid, Part V.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

*exercise due diligence, efficiency and economy to ensure compliance with this Act, shall be guilty of an offence (emphasis added).*¹⁹³

To aid in environmental protection and conservation, the Act lists several environmental management tools such as *Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA)*, *Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA)*, *Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA)*, *Environmental Audits and Monitoring (emphasis added)*.

c) Companies Act, 2015

The *Companies Act, 2015* calls upon directors while discharging the duty to promote the success of a company to have regard to the impact of the operations of the company on the community and the environment.¹⁹⁴ The Act further mandates directors while preparing their reports to include information about environmental matters and take into account the impact of the business of the company on the environment.¹⁹⁵

d) Climate Change Act, 2016

The *Climate Change Act, 2016* provides a regulatory framework for enhanced response to climate change and puts in place measures and mechanisms aimed at achieving low carbon climate development.¹⁹⁶ The Act applies in all sectors of the economy and requires measures to be taken towards mainstreaming climate change responses in development planning, providing incentives and obligations for private sector contribution in achieving low carbon climate development and promotion of low carbon technologies.¹⁹⁷ *It also imposes climate change duties upon private entities which may also be required to prepare reports on the status of performance of such obligations (emphasis added).*¹⁹⁸ The Act empowers the National Environmental Management Authority (NEMA) to monitor, investigate and report whether public and private entities are in compliance with their duties under the Act.¹⁹⁹

e) Water Act, 2016

This is an Act of Parliament to provide for the regulation, management and development of water resources.²⁰⁰ It enshrines the right to clean and healthy water and contains provisions that seek to curb contamination and pollution of water sources and

¹⁹³ Ibid, s. 135.

¹⁹⁴ Companies Act, No. 17 of 2015 (Government Printer, 2015, Nairobi), s. 143 (1) (d).

¹⁹⁵ Ibid, s. 655 (4) (b).

¹⁹⁶ *Climate Change Act, No. 11 of 2016*, Laws of Kenya (Government Printer, 2016, Nairobi).

¹⁹⁷ Ibid, s. 3.

¹⁹⁸ Ibid, s. 16.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid, s. 17.

²⁰⁰ *Water Act, No. 43 of 2016*, (Government Printer, 2016, Nairobi).

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

establishes institutions to enforce the Act. Despite enactment of the Act, there are still many cases of pollution of water bodies some which are perpetrated by corporations through discharge of untreated wastes. Enforcement and compliance with the Act is necessary in attainment of the right to clean and healthy water.

f) Sectoral Regulations

In addition to these legal instruments, there are several sectoral regulations which govern environmental compliance in Kenya. *The Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003*²⁰¹ provide for a system governing the Environmental Impact Assessment process and environmental audits. *The Air Quality Regulations 2014*²⁰² provide for prevention, control and abatement of air pollution to ensure clean and healthy ambient air. The regulations further provide for establishment of *emission standards* for various sources *including industries* as outlined in the Environmental Management and Coordination Act, 1999 (emphasis added). *The Water Quality Regulations 2006*²⁰³ provides for the right to clean and healthy water and obligates every person to refrain *from acts and omission that may cause water pollution (emphasis added)*. The *Waste Management Regulations 2006*²⁰⁴ provide a system to govern management of wastes including industrial and hazardous wastes.

g) Environmental Compliance Requirements under EMCA

Environmental compliance *entails adherence to environmental laws, standards, regulations and other requirements*. The need for *environmental compliance is important among corporations due to the potential of environmental liability as a result of non-compliance (emphasis added)*.²⁰⁵ Corporations thus have to adhere to the various environmental laws, regulations and standards set out under EMCA and other environmental sectoral laws. EMCA sets out various environmental management tools such as Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), Environmental Audits, Strategic

²⁰¹ The Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, Legal Notice No. 101 (June 13, 2003),

²⁰² Environment Management And Co-ordination (Air Quality) Regulations, available at http://www.nema.go.ke/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=31&Itemid=171 [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²⁰³ Legal Notice No. 120 (September 4, 2006), Environment Management and Co-ordination Water Quality Regulations, 2006.

²⁰⁴ Legal Notice, No. 121 (September 4, 2006), Environmental Management and Co-Ordination (Waste Management) Regulations, 2006.

²⁰⁵ Muigua K, 'Strengthening the Environmental Liability Regime in Kenya for Sustainable Development' available at <https://www.google.com/search?client=firefox-b-d&q=environmental+compliance> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Environmental Assessment (SEA) and Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA).

i. Environmental Impact Assessment

Since most development activities and projects in Kenya are undertaken by companies, EIA becomes an important aspect of the corporate governance discourse. It has been argued that EIA *can be a powerful tool for keeping the corporates including Multinational Corporations (MNCs) operating in the country in check* (emphasis added).²⁰⁶

The need for EIA is so important that the Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003 makes it mandatory to conduct an EIA study and have it approved before undertaking a project likely to have environmental effects.²⁰⁷ The Regulations require a proponent to prepare a Project Report that covers *inter alia*; the nature of the project, activities to be undertaken during construction of the project and the potential environmental impacts of the project and the mitigation measures to be taken during and after implementation of the project.²⁰⁸

Failure to comply with EIA requirements under EMCA has seen instances where projects have been halted. In *Cortec Mining Kenya Limited v Cabinet Secretary Ministry of Mining & 9 others* [2015] eKLR, the Applicant was issued with a mining license without complying with the EIA requirements under EMCA. In cancelling the license, the Environment and Land Court decided that:

*‘To the extent that the Commissioner for mines was not furnished with a NEMA Licence as required under the EMCA Act and the Regulations made thereunder my view is he could not issue a valid Mining Licence and the Licence he issued to the Applicant on 7th March 2013 was null and void and of no legal effect.’*²⁰⁹

It is important for corporations to comply with EIA requirements under EMCA in order to minimise the environmental impacts of their projects and promote sustainable development.

²⁰⁶ Muigua K, ‘Strengthening the Environmental Liability Regime in Kenya for Sustainable Development’ Op Cit.

²⁰⁷ The Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003, Legal Notice No.101 (June 13, 2003), Government Printer, Nairobi.

²⁰⁸ Ibid, Regulation 7.

²⁰⁹ *Cortec Mining Kenya Limited v Cabinet Secretary Ministry of Mining & 9 others* [2015] eKLR, available at <http://kenyalaw.org/caselaw/cases/view/109485> [Accessed on 14/1/2020]; See also *Save Lamu & 5 Others v NEMA & another*, Tribunal Appeal No. NET 196 of 2016, where the license was cancelled on account of lack of public participation.

ii. Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA)

EMCA requires all entities, including corporations, to undertake preparations for SEAs at their own expense and submit them to NEMA for approval.²¹⁰ It has been observed that the object of SEA is to enhance environmental protection and promote sustainable development through contributing to the integration of environmental considerations into the preparation and adoption of specified policies, plans and programmes.²¹¹

iii. Environmental Audits and Monitoring

The requirement for environmental audits and monitoring has been enshrined under the Constitution of Kenya as part of the obligations in respect of the environment.²¹² Environmental audits and monitoring act as follow up tools to determine the extent to which activities being undertaken conform to the environmental impact assessment study report issues in respect of the particular project.

The aim of this process is to guard against deviation from the study report which could have detrimental effects on the environment. NEMA is mandated under EMCA to undertake environmental audits of all activities that are likely to have *significant effect on the environment and in consultation with lead agencies, monitor all environmental phenomena with a view to making an assessment of any possible changes in the environment and their possible impacts (emphasis added)*.²¹³

iv. Public Participation

The principle of Public participation has become essential under the current Constitutional dispensation in Kenya. It is enshrined under the Constitution as one of the national values and principles that binds all persons (including corporations) in the implementation of policy decisions.²¹⁴ The principle is fundamental in environmental governance and all policies, plans and processes related to the environment are to be subjected to public participation. In *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR*, the court recognized the importance of this principle and observed that, ‘One of

²¹⁰ EMCA, s. 57 A (3).

²¹¹ Environmental protection Agency, ‘Strategic Environmental Assessment,’ Available at <http://www.epa.ie/monitoringassessment/assessment/sea/#.Vi5tmGuJ2CA> [Accessed on 14/1/2020]; See also Muigua, K, ‘Legal Aspects of Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) and Environmental Management,’ available at <http://kmco.co.ke/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/Legal-Aspects-of-SEA-and-Environmental-Management-3RD-December-2016.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²¹² Constitution of Kenya, 2010, Article 69 (1) (f), Government Printer, Nairobi.

²¹³ EMCA, s. 68 & 69.

²¹⁴ Constitution of Kenya, 2010, Art. 10.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

the environmental governance principles emphasized by the legal framework is the principle of public participation in the development of policies, plans and processes for the management of the environment and natural resources.²¹⁵

This principle has also been captured under EMCA. The Act requires the Environment and Land Court in exercising jurisdiction conferred upon it by the Act to be guided by principles of sustainable development including participation of the people in the development of policies, plans and processes for the management of the environment.²¹⁶

v. Sustainable Development

Sustainable development has been enshrined as one of the national values and principles under the Constitution.²¹⁷ The principle has also been captured under EMCA and includes public participation, inter and intra generational equity, polluter pays principle, precautionary principle *inter alia*.²¹⁸ The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by the United Nations member states in 2015 are a universal call of action towards targets such as ending poverty and protecting the planet.²¹⁹ The SDGs set various targets such as sustainable management of water and sanitation for all, attainment of affordable and clean energy, promotion of inclusive and sustainable industrialization and taking action to combat climate change.²²⁰ Corporations can assist towards promoting sustainable development through compliance with the targets set out under the SDGs.

3.3 Challenges Related To Corporate Environmental Compliance in Kenya

3.3.1 Environmental Pollution

EMCA defines pollution as ‘the direct or indirect alteration of any part of the environment through discharge, emission or deposition of wastes’.²²¹ Environmental pollution has also been defined as ‘any discharge of material or energy into water, land, or air that causes or may cause acute (short-term) or chronic (long-term) detriment to the Earth's ecological balance or that lowers the quality of life’.²²² *Environmental pollution*

²¹⁵ Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR, available at <http://kenyalaw.org/caselaw/cases/view/140427> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²¹⁶ EMCA, s. 3 (5) (a).

²¹⁷ Constitution of Kenya, 2010, Art. 10 (2) (d).

²¹⁸ EMCA, s. 3 (5).

²¹⁹ Sustainable Development Goals, available at https://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/corporate/brochure/SDGs_Booklet_Web_En.pdf [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²²⁰ Ibid.

²²¹ EMCA, s. 2, Government Printer, Nairobi.

²²² Coker, A.O, "Environmental Pollution: Types, Causes, Impacts and Management for the Health and Socio-Economic Well-Being of Nigeria," p.1. Available at

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

occurs in various forms including water pollution, air pollution, noise pollution and land pollution (emphasis added).²²³ Environmental pollution has become a major challenge across the world due to the rapid economic development to cater for the rising human population.²²⁴

The problem of pollution especially by manufacturing industries is well documented in Kenya. It has been pointed out that a number of manufacturing industries discharge untreated effluent into rivers resulting in high pollution levels in the Nairobi and Ngong Rivers.²²⁵ According to the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA), many factories in the country have been contravening provisions of the *Water Quality Regulations, 2006* by either discharging untreated effluent into a public sewer or discharging into the environment without an effluent discharge license.²²⁶ These incidences of pollution have recently been highlighted by the media resulting in crackdown by the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA) against the perpetrators.²²⁷

In addition to water pollution through discharge of effluent, other forms of environmental pollution by corporations have also been reported in Kenya.²²⁸ Further, studies have also indicated that this has contributed to soil pollution in the area.²²⁹

<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/8e7b/a9595bab30d7ea87715533353c53f7452811.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²²³ Ullah, S., "A sociological study of environmental pollution and its effects on the public health Faisalabad city," *International Journal of Education and Research*, Vol. 1 No. 6 June 2013.

²²⁴ Muigua K, 'Safeguarding the Environment through Effective Pollution Control in Kenya' available at <http://kmco.co.ke/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/Safeguarding-the-Environment-through-Effective-Pollution-Control-in-Kenya-Kariuki-Muigua-28th-SEPT-2019.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²²⁵ National Environment Management Authority (NEMA), 'Environment, People and Development' available at <http://www.nema.go.ke/images/Docs/Regulations/KenyaSoECh1.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²²⁶ National Environment Management Authority, 'Factories Closed, Owners Arrested for Polluting the Environment' available at http://www.nema.go.ke/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=298:factories-closed-owners-arrested-for-polluting-environment&catid=10:news-and-events&Itemid=454 [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²²⁷ Onyango, L, 'Kenya Regulator Shuts Down 4 Firms for Polluting Nairobi River' *The East African*, 27th August, 2010, available at <https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/scienceandhealth/firms-shut-down-for-polluting-Nairobi-River/3073694-5250300-xrqj6bz/index.html> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²²⁸ Consumer Federation of Kenya, 'Lead Poisoning in Owino Ohuru Slums in Mombasa-Kenya' available at <https://www.cofek.co.ke/Lead%20Poisoning%20in%20Owino%20Uhuru%20Slums%20Mombasa.pdf> [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²²⁹ Caravanos, 'Conflicting Conclusions or Competing Methodologies? Documenting Soil Lead Pollution in Owino Uhuru, Kenya' *Journal of Health & Pollution*, Vol. 9, No. 21, March 2019.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Despite the existence of laws and regulations to curb against pollution such as the Water Quality Regulations, Waste Management Regulations and Air Quality Regulations, the problem of pollution has persisted in the country. This calls for concerted efforts involving both the regulatory agencies such NEMA and corporations to enhance effective environmental compliance.

3.3.2 Human Rights Violation

It has been noted that environmental rights are intertwined with other human rights especially the economic and social rights.²³⁰ The Constitution enshrines these rights which include the right to health, accessible and adequate housing, right to food, clean water and the right to education.²³¹ Realization of the economic and social rights is largely dependent on the quality of the environment which is a basic condition of life, indispensable to the promotion of human dignity, welfare and the fulfilment of other human rights.²³² Thus, acts and omissions by corporations related to the environment are likely to have impact on the realization of socio-economic rights enshrined in the Constitution. Where water sources are polluted due to effluent discharge from industries, the rights to clean water and health are likely to be compromised. Further, soil pollution is likely to affect the right to food due to its effect on agricultural activities. The right to housing may be affected in instances where people are displaced to cater for economic activities by corporations such as mining. The link between environmental rights and other human rights was succinctly captured by the High Court of Kenya in *Peter K. Waweru –v- Republic*²³³.

Corporations therefore have a role to play in the attainment of socio-economic rights in Kenya through environmental compliance.

3.4 Environmental Liability by Corporations in Kenya

3.4.1 Civil Liability

Civil liability against corporations for environmental breaches occurs in the form of compensation and damages aimed at bringing the property or person affected by such

²³⁰ Muigua. K and Kariuki. F, ‘Safeguarding Environmental Rights in Kenya’ available at http://erepository.uonbi.ac.ke/bitstream/handle/11295/90689/Muigua_Safeguarding%20Environmental%20Rights%20in%20Kenya.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²³¹ Art. 43, Constitution of Kenya, 2010.

²³² Patricia Birnie & Alan Boyle, *International Law and the Environment*, Op. Cit.; See also Philippe Sands, *Principles of International Environmental Law*, 2 ed. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003) and Phillippe Cullet, “Definition of an Environmental Right in a Human Rights Context”.

²³³ *Peter K. Waweru –v- Republic*, (2006) 1 KLR (E&L) 677 at 691.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

acts as far as possible to the condition they were before the breaches occurred.²³⁴ Civil remedies for environmental protection can be classified according to their intended function which could be preventive, compensatory, reparatory or natural restitution.²³⁵ In addition to enshrining the right to clean and healthy environment, the Constitution sets out obligations in respect of the environment.²³⁶ Breach of these obligations may result in enforcement of environmental rights under article 70 of the Constitution which empowers the Environment and Land Court to grant civil remedies such as compensation to the victim or orders of injunction to prevent, stop or discontinue any act or omission that is harmful to the environment. In addition to these remedies, EMCA provides for environmental restoration orders, conservation orders, and easements as part of civil remedies for environmental breaches.²³⁷

Consequently, corporations in Kenya found liable for environmental breaches have been imposed with civil consequences.²³⁸

Civil liability for environmental breaches by corporations follows common law principles such as the strict liability rule. The rule was laid down in the case of *Rylands vs Fletcher*²³⁹ which imposes strict liability on the owner of land for damage caused by the escape of substances to his or her neighbour's land. Courts in Kenya have applied the strict liability rule and imposed civil liability on corporations for actions that have resulted in damage to the adjacent lands.²⁴⁰

Corporations therefore have to guard against instances of environmental damage since their actions can give rise to civil liability.

3.4.2 Criminal Liability

EMCA stipulates various environmental offences which including offences related to *inspection*, offences *related to Environmental Impact Assessment*, offences related to records and *standards and offences related to hazardous wastes (emphasis added)*.²⁴¹ The Act also prescribes penalties for these offences.²⁴² The Act also empowers environmental inspectors appointed under the Act, subject to the Constitution and

²³⁴ Krstinić, D., Bingulac, N., & Dragojlović, J., "Criminal and civil liability for environmental damage," *Economics of Agriculture* 64, no. 3 (2017): 1161-1176.

²³⁵ Muigua, K, 'Strengthening the Environmental Liability Regime in Kenya for Sustainable Development' Op Cit.

²³⁶ Constitution of Kenya, 2010, Art. 42 & 69, Op Cit.

²³⁷ EMCA, Part IX (Sec. 108-116).

²³⁸ John Mutungu Waititu –vs- China Wuyi (Kenya) Co. Ltd, Environment and Land Court at Nyahururu, ELC Appeal No. 25 of 2017, (2018) eKLR.

²³⁹ *Rylands vs Fletcher* [1861-73] ALL ER REP 1.

²⁴⁰ Esther Wanjiru Mwangi & 3 others v Xinghui International (K) Limited, High Court of Kenya at Nakuru, Civil Suit No. 144 of 2009 (2016) eKLR.

²⁴¹ EMCA, s. 137-146.

²⁴² *Ibid.*

section 29 of the Office of the Director of Prosecution Act, *to institute and undertake criminal proceedings* against any person before a court of competent jurisdiction (other than a court martial) in respect of any *offence alleged to have been committed by that person under EMCA (emphasis added)*.²⁴³

Corporates need to be aware of the legal provisions in regard to civil and criminal liability and comply accordingly to avoid incurring liability.

3.5 Environmental Compliance and Corporate Social Responsibility: The Role of Company Secretary as the Compliance Officer

In recent years, the world has experienced awareness in the area of environmentalism.²⁴⁴ Companies want to reduce pollution, engage in cleaner production, conserve the environment and generally engage in environmentally responsible corporate behaviour.²⁴⁵ Some companies even go to the extent of incorporating environmental goals into their vision and mission statements.²⁴⁶ Ideas such as conservation, pollution control, recycling waste, public awareness and education, use of cleaner fuels and the use of Environmental Impact Assessment and Audits have found their way into the management principles of corporations.²⁴⁷ The Company Secretary who is a member of the management finds herself engaged in environmental issues at both policy and operational levels.²⁴⁸ The survival of the corporate body may well depend on how

²⁴³ EMCA, s. 118 (b).

²⁴⁴ 'Awareness and Action for Environment Protection - Service Européen Pour l'action Extérieure' <https://eeas.europa.eu/topics/climate-environment-energy/63659/awareness-and-action-environment-protection_fr> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

²⁴⁵ Marcia Narine Weldon, 'Corporate Governance, Compliance, Social Responsibility, and Enterprise Risk Management in the Trump/Pence Era' (2018) 19 Transactions: The Tennessee Journal of Business Law 14.

²⁴⁶ Marie PavlÁková Dočekalová and Alena Kocmanová, 'Comparison of Sustainable Environmental, Social, and Corporate Governance Value Added Models for Investors Decision Making' (2018) 10 Sustainability 649; Philip Mirvis, Bradley Googins and Sylvia Kinnicutt, 'Vision, Mission, Values' (2010) 39 Organizational Dynamics 316.

²⁴⁷ Raimi, L., "Who is Responsible? Mainstreaming Corporate Social Responsibility into Ecological Sustainability in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria." *Development* 9, no. 3 (2019); Borland, H., Ambrosini, V., Lindgreen, A., & Vanhamme, J., "Building theory at the intersection of ecological sustainability and strategic management." *Journal of Business Ethics* 135, no. 2 (2016): 293-307; Dahlmann, F., Stubbs, W., Griggs, D., & Morrell, K., 'Corporate Actors, the UN Sustainable Development Goals and Earth System Governance: A Research Agenda' (2019) 6 The Anthropocene Review 167; Christian Voegtlin and Andreas Georg Scherer, 'Responsible Innovation and the Innovation of Responsibility: Governing Sustainable Development in a Globalized World' (2017) 143 Journal of Business Ethics 227.

²⁴⁸ Trevor D. Wilmshurst, Geoffrey R. Frost, "Corporate environmental reporting: A test of legitimacy theory", *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, Vol. 13 Issue: 1, 2000, pp.10-26; Y Sumiani, Y Haslinda and Glen Lehman, 'Environmental Reporting in a Developing Country: A Case Study on Status and Implementation in Malaysia' (2007) 15 Journal of cleaner production 895;

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

environmental issues are handled.²⁴⁹ The Company Secretary may find herself engaged in issues of environmental compliance as a matter of law. There is thus a need for knowledge of what the law requires in this regard.

Indeed, it has been observed that many private firms across the world have adopted different forms of private environmental governance to improve their environmental footprints, going beyond mere compliance with rules of traditional environmental law.²⁵⁰ As already pointed out in another section, the current Constitution of Kenya 2010 outlines the national values and principles of governance which must guide all persons makes or implements public policy decisions. These values and principles include among others, sustainable development.²⁵¹ This is affirmed under the Companies Act, 2015²⁵² which provides that a director of a company should act in the way in which the director considers, in good faith, would promote the success of the company for the benefit of its members as a whole, and in so doing the director shall have regard to, inter alia — the impact of the operations of the company on the community and the environment.²⁵³

In addition to the foregoing statutory requirements on environmental reporting, corporations are also notably bound by the provisions of EMCA depending on the various projects or activities that they are involved in.

Under the Environmental Management and Coordination Act, *when an offence under the Act is committed by a body corporate, the body Corporate and every director or officer of the body corporate who had knowledge of the commission of the offence and who did not exercise due diligence, efficiency and economy to ensure compliance with this Act shall be guilty of an offence* (emphasis added). A Company Secretary is increasingly being viewed as an officer of the company. The law thus imposes a duty on the Company Secretary to ensure compliance with environmental law, rules and regulations.²⁵⁴

²⁴⁹ Beate Sjaafjell, 'Beyond Climate Risk: Integrating Sustainability into the Duties of the Corporate Board' (2018) 23 Deakin Law Review 41.

²⁵⁰ Light, S.E., "The Law of the Corporation as Environmental Law." *Stanford Law Review* 71, no. 1 (2019), p.139.

²⁵¹ Constitution of Kenya 2010, Article 10.

²⁵² Companies Act, No. 17 of 2015, Laws of Kenya.

²⁵³ Sec. 143(1), Companies Act, 2015; See also Sec. 655 (1); Sec. 655 (4) (b); Sec. 655 (6) (b).

²⁵⁴ 'Role of the Company Secretary'

<http://aicd.companydirectors.com.au/resources/all-sectors/roles-duties-and-responsibilities/role-of-the-company-secretary?no_redirect=true> accessed 11 January 2020; Lee, J., "From 'Housekeeping' to 'Gatekeeping': The Enhanced Role of the Company Secretary in the Governance System." *Available at SSRN 2733180* (2015); Dr Bob Tricker, 'The Significance of the Company Secretary' 60; Lee, J., "The

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

The penalties under EMCA are harsh and can include imprisonment and fines that ran into hundreds of thousands of shillings.²⁵⁵ Offences under EMCA relate among other things, failing to submit to inspection²⁵⁶, offences relating to Environmental Impact Assessment²⁵⁷; offences relating to records²⁵⁸; offences relating to standards²⁵⁹; offences relating to hazardous waste²⁶⁰; offences relating to pollution²⁶¹; and offences relating to restoration orders²⁶².

The Act imputes personal liability even where the offence complained of was committed on account of another person (corporate body)²⁶³; it is thus possible for a Company Secretary to be personally liable for environmental offences committed by the Company. The role of the Company Secretary in Environmental Compliance is thus a statutory one.²⁶⁴

The imposition of liability on the directors and officers of a corporation is meant to act as a disincentive to ensure that they establish corporate mechanisms for environmental compliance, and thus avoid passing the cost of non-compliance to consumers and the general public.²⁶⁵

A Company Secretary as an officer of the company must then logically ensure that where an Environmental Impact Assessment is required to be prepared, the same has been prepared in accordance with the law²⁶⁶. Similarly, where an Environmental Audit is required to be carried out, the Company Secretary should ensure that it is prepared in accordance with the requirements of EMCA or the regulations made thereunder.²⁶⁷ It also follows that the Company Secretary being an Officer of the Company has a duty to ensure compliance with standards set out under EMCA.

corporate governance officer as a transformed role of the company secretary: An international comparison," *SCJ Int'l L. & Bus.* 14 (2017): 107.

²⁵⁵ S 138.

²⁵⁶ Sec. 137, EMCA.

²⁵⁷ Sec. 138, EMCA.

²⁵⁸ Sec. 139, EMCA.

²⁵⁹ Sec. 140, EMCA.

²⁶⁰ Sec. 141, EMCA.

²⁶¹ Sec. 142, EMCA.

²⁶² Sec. 143, EMCA.

²⁶³ Sec. 145, EMCA.

²⁶⁴ Republic v National Environment Management Authority & another Ex-Parte Philip Kisia & City Council Of Nairobi [2013] eKLR, JR Case 251 of 2011.

²⁶⁵ Lord, R., Goldberg, S., Brunnée, J., & Rajamani, L. (Eds.), *Climate Change Liability: Transnational Law and Practice* (Cambridge University Press 2012), pp. 315-316.

²⁶⁶ Sec s 58 (7) EMCA; See also Sec. 43, Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, No. 5 of 2015, Laws of Kenya.

²⁶⁷ Sec. 68 (3), EMCA.

If he/she does not do so, then liability in criminal law attaches.²⁶⁸ Similarly, a Company Secretary should ensure that hazardous waste and other chemicals and radioactive materials are handled properly to avoid liability.²⁶⁹

3.6 Way Forward

3.6.1 Enhanced Corporate Environmental Compliance

Environmental compliance by corporate organizations is mandatory under EMCA. The foregoing discussion has demonstrated that breach of environmental compliance may result in civil and criminal sanctions upon an organization. This relates to the sanctions that may be imposed for breach of environmental compliance requirements such as damages or closure of the corporation.

As already pointed out, officers of corporations such as directors and company secretaries have to ensure that all environmental laws, regulations and policies are adhered to. Breach of this duty may result in both civil and criminal liability under EMCA.²⁷⁰

3.6.2 Adhering to Principles of Sustainable Development

Sustainable development is enshrined as one of the national principles under the Constitution and binds all persons including corporations.²⁷¹ Sustainable development is also captured under EMCA and incorporates the principles of public participation, international co-operation, inter and intra generational equity, polluter pays principle and the precautionary principle.²⁷²

Corporations should therefore adhere to the principles of sustainable development to ensure that their economic activities meet the needs of both the present and future generations.

3.6.3 Corporate Social and Environmental Responsibility

Related to sustainable development is the idea of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). However, while sustainable development is a legal requirement, CSR is a voluntary undertaking. CSR has been defined as a transparent business practice based

²⁶⁸ Sec. 140, EMCA.

²⁶⁹ Sec. 141, EMCA.

²⁷⁰ EMCA, s. 145 (1).

²⁷¹ Art. 10 (2) (d), Constitution of Kenya, 2010.

²⁷² EMCA, s. 3 (5).

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

on ethical values, legal requirements compliance and respect for the community, people and the environment within which the business operates.²⁷³

It has been argued that CSR contributes to the economic success of an organization since it meets the needs of stakeholders who are critical to its existence.²⁷⁴ According to proponents of CSR, a firm's success is dependent on how it is able to safeguard relationship with stakeholders such as employees, communities and customers since socially responsible helps it gain support from such stakeholders.²⁷⁵ In Kenya, studies have shown that *corporations that have undertaken CSR initiatives such as environmental conservation programs have witnessed success in areas such as sales and market share (emphasis added)*.²⁷⁶ Corporations should therefore pursue corporate environmental responsibilities such as environmental conservation programmes which may include clean up exercises, restoration activities, tree planting exercises and environmental awareness campaigns. These activities have the ability to contribute to the economic growth of an organization.

3.6.4 Environmental Insurance

Environmental Insurance can be used as a tool for environmental management. This however is yet to be popularized in Kenya and EMCA does not have provisions on environmental insurance. It has however been suggested that environmental insurance can be popularized in the country for both medium and large corporations to shield them against environmental liability which could turn out to be too costly.²⁷⁷ Some insurance providers have packages on environmental liability covering environmental damage and clean-up costs for pollution.²⁷⁸ It is therefore important to popularize environmental insurance in the country since *some cases of environmental liability may not be foreseen by a corporation and could arise due to natural acts (emphasis added)*. However, the strict liability rule imposes liability on the corporation even where such acts could not be foreseen. Through environmental insurance, it may be possible to shield a corporation from cases of environmental liability.

²⁷³ Arora, R., & Richa, G. D. (2013). 'Corporate Social Responsibility—Issues and Challenges in India.' International Journal of Research in Finance & Marketing, 3 (2).

²⁷⁴ Freeman. E, and Velamuri. R, 'A New Approach to CSR: Company Stakeholder Responsibility' available at https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1186223 [Accessed on 14/1/2020].

²⁷⁵ Ibid.

²⁷⁶ Mwancha. Y, and Ouma. C, 'Effects of Social Responsibility Initiatives on Performance of Safaricom Kenya Limited' International Journal of Innovative Research & Development, Volume 6, Issue 8, August 2017.

²⁷⁷ Muigua. K. 'Strengthening the Environmental Liability Regime in Kenya for Sustainable Development' Op Cit.

²⁷⁸ <https://www.aig.co.ke/commercial/products/liabilities/environmental-impairment-liability> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

3.7 Regulating Grant of Concessions for Corporate Accountability and Transparency

3.7.1 Introduction

The *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act, 2016*²⁷⁹ was enacted in 2016 to give effect to Article 71 of the Constitution of Kenya and for connected purposes.²⁸⁰ Article 71 of the Constitution provides that a transaction is subject to ratification by Parliament if it—involves the grant of a right or concession by or on behalf of any person, including the national government, to another person for the exploitation²⁸¹ of any natural resource of Kenya; and is entered into on or after the effective date.²⁸² This Act was thus enacted in 2016 in line with the constitutional requirement that Parliament should enact legislation providing for the classes of transactions subject to ratification under clause (1).²⁸³

This provision is similar to the one found in the Constitution of Ghana²⁸⁴ which was hailed as a step forward in safeguarding the country's resources against arbitrary grant of concessions to foreign companies by the country's leadership including chiefs especially during the colonial period.²⁸⁵ This may not be very far from the reality in Kenya especially in such cases as the Lake Magadi soda ash mining concessions and the infamous Maasai community land disinheritance by the colonial masters.²⁸⁶ Kenya has also suffered other instances of skewed contracts whose resultant activities have been characterised by past reported and unreported cases of non-disclosure and non-declaration of income by the mining companies in the country.²⁸⁷ Hence, the *Natural*

²⁷⁹ *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act*, No. 41 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.

²⁸⁰ *Ibid*, Preamble.

²⁸¹ Notably, section 2 of the Act interprets "exploitation" to mean an activity that confers or is aimed at conferring a benefit on the beneficiary of the grant of the concession or right but does not include an activity that is exploratory in nature.

²⁸² Article 71(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

²⁸³ Article 71(2), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

²⁸⁴ Article 268.

²⁸⁵ Wouters, J., Ninio, A., Doherty, T., & Cisse', H. (Eds.), *The World Bank Legal Review Volume 6 Improving Delivery in Development: The Role of Voice, Social Contract, and Accountability*, The World Bank, 2015, p. 158.

²⁸⁶ Kamau, J., "Magadi saga exposes the ugly side of capitalism," *Daily Nation*, Sunday April 21 2019. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/news/Magadi-saga-exposes-the-ugly-side-of-capitalism/1056-5080906-2eii8rz/index.html> [11/1/2020].

²⁸⁷ Sanga, B., "Auditor General reveals how mining companies under-declare tax dues," 25th Aug 2016. Available at <https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/article/2000213275/auditor-general-reveals-how-mining-companies-under-declare-tax-dues> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act, 2016 was a welcome move by the Parliament of Kenya.

This section offers a critical appraisal of the *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act* with a view to proposing some recommendations on how the Act can be used in ensuring that the natural resources are exploited and used in a way that benefits communities and the country at large.

3.7.2 Overview of the Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act, 2016

This Act applies to any transaction entered into on or after the effective date which, under Article 71 of the Constitution, is subject to ratification by Parliament on account of the fact that the transaction- involves the grant of a right or concession by or on behalf of any person to another person for the exploitation of a natural resource of Kenya; and falls within the class of transactions designated as subject to ratification by section 4 of this Act.²⁸⁸

The Act also applies to any transaction involving the - national government, county government, state organ and all county government entities; and grant of a right or a concession by a private person in cases in which such transaction is required by this Act to be ratified by Parliament.²⁸⁹ This clarification is important to reign in on county governments which, in an attempt to diversify their sources of income and possibly power struggles, may enter into exploitation agreements with foreigners or even worse, frustrate any investors with operations in their counties. The County governments must however be involved in the process. For instance, in the case of *Mui Coal Basin Local Community & 15 others v Permanent Secretary Ministry of Energy & 17 others [2015] eKLR*²⁹⁰, the Court affirmed that an issue involving prospecting and concessioning of minerals that potentially could affect hundreds of thousands of people in a county must be done in consultation with the County Government – even if the primary activity is assigned to the National Government in our scheme of devolution.²⁹¹

It can therefore be said that the Parliament is to come in later on in the process after the due process as per the Constitution and other statutory requirements has been complied with. Section 4 of the Act provides that the classes of transactions set out in the schedule

²⁸⁸ Sec. 3(1), *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act, 2016*.

²⁸⁹ *Ibid*, sec. 3(2).

²⁹⁰ *Mui Coal Basin Local Community & 15 others v Permanent Secretary Ministry of Energy & 17 others [2015] eKLR*, Constitutional Petition Nos 305 of 2012, 34 of 2013 & 12 of 2014 (Formerly Nairobi Constitutional Petition 43 of 2014) (Consolidated).

²⁹¹ *Ibid*, para. 104.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

are subject to ratification by Parliament pursuant to Article 71 of the Constitution.²⁹² The Act spells out the transactions relating to natural resources, which are subject to the Act.²⁹³

The Act, however, exempts some transactions from ratification by Parliament.²⁹⁴

While this exemption is well meaning, there is potential for abuse or confusion. For instance, where the Act exempts the grant of a concession or right to exploit a natural resource through a permit, licence or other authorization issued in accordance with the requirements of national or county government legislation from such ratification, what measures will be put in place to determine the seriousness of the transaction in question and the ramifications of such exemption? This, coupled with the exemption of the grant of a concession or right by a private person to exploit a natural resource through an agreement or a contract, are both likely to be used for personal gains especially in light of the rampant corruption in the country's governance structures. Would Parliament be compromised to classify a particular transaction as qualifying under these two exemptions for purposes of bypassing the Act's provisions? Again, how will grant of a concession or right by a private person to exploit a natural resource through an agreement or a contract be qualified against the constitutional provisions that vest all minerals and mineral oils as defined by law in the government of Kenya?²⁹⁵ How are the private persons to either benefit from the exploitation or the ones to grant the concession to be determined to prevent abuse? Is it possible for a private person to use the Parliament through insider lobbying to access or get a particular transaction for exploitation of a particular resource? These are some of the questions that may arise in light of the listed exemptions.

A transaction, which under this Act, is subject to ratification by Parliament, shall only be effective once it is ratified, and where Parliament has declined to ratify any transaction under this Act, the transaction shall be null and void.²⁹⁶ The Act spells out certain relevant considerations in deciding whether or not to ratify an agreement: the applicable Government policy; recommendations of the relevant regulatory agency; comments received from the county government within whose area of jurisdiction the natural resource that is the subject of the transaction is located; adequacy of stakeholder consultation; the extent to which the agreement has struck a fair balance between the interests of the beneficiary and the benefits to the country arising from the agreement;

²⁹² *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act*, 2016, sec. 4 (1).

²⁹³ Schedule [Section 4(1), 4(2)(e)].

²⁹⁴ *Ibid*, sec. 4 (2).

²⁹⁵ Constitution of Kenya 2010, Article 62 (1) (f) (3).

²⁹⁶ *Ibid*, sec. 7.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

the benefits which the local community is likely to enjoy from the transaction; and whether, in granting the concession or right the applicable law has been complied with.²⁹⁷

These considerations, if fully upheld may be useful in giving the ratification process some credence. However, this is based on the assumption that Parliament is above reproach as far as following due process and putting into consideration the general public's interests is concerned.

Notably, the Cabinet Secretary responsible for the transaction that is subject to ratification may, pursuant to Article 35 of the Constitution, grant a request that the agreement or portions of it ought not to be publicly disclosed on account of commercial confidentiality, national security or other public interest considerations.²⁹⁸ While this may be a useful safeguard for purposes of commercial confidentiality, there is need for Parliament and other stakeholders to ensure that the same is not abused to hide or deny the public access to useful information.

Arguably, any such non-disclosure should also be done in line with the mining regulations as envisaged under the Mining Act 2016, as already discussed elsewhere in this paper. It is assumed that these regulations and other relevant statutory requirements are to be complied with before the agreements reach the ratification stage in order to avoid any foul play as far as due process is concerned. These Regulations, among others under different statutes dealing with natural resources exploitation²⁹⁹, are meant to ensure that the benefits flowing from such exploitation get to benefit the communities and the economy in general. Notably, there are still complaints from communities about either lack of involvement or lack of direct benefits such as employment benefits.³⁰⁰ They have been feeling marginalised and sometimes outright ignored as far as benefit sharing is concerned.³⁰¹ The *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to*

²⁹⁷ *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act*, 2016, sec. 9.

²⁹⁸ *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act*, 2016, sec. 13 (1).

²⁹⁹ For instance, see Mining Act, No. 12 of 2016, *Petroleum Act, No. 2 of 2019, Forests Management and Conservation Act, No. 34 of 2016, Water Act, No. 43 of 2016*.

³⁰⁰ Cordaid, "Oil Exploration In Kenya: Success Requires Consultation," *Assessment Of Community Perceptions Of Oil Exploration In Turkana County, Kenya*, Report, August, 2019; Etyang, H., "No oil will leave Turkana without security and jobs, protesters say," *The Star*, 27 June, 2018. Available at <https://www.the-star.co.ke/news/2018-06-27-no-oil-will-leave-turkana-without-security-and-jobs-protesters-say/> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³⁰¹ See generally, Schilling, J., Locham, R., & Scheffran, J., "A local to global perspective on oil and wind exploitation, resource governance and conflict in Northern Kenya." *Conflict, Security & Development* 18, no. 6 (2018): 571-600; see also Mwakio, P., "Mvurya: Public participation in mineral resource exploitation mandatory," *Standard Digital*, 22nd May, 2019. Available at

Ratification by Parliament) Act, 2016 was thus meant to include the Parliament in ensuring that natural resources are exploited in a responsible manner that benefits concerned communities and the people of Kenya in general.

3.7.3 Making Natural Resources Work for the People: Challenges and Prospects

It is noteworthy that the *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act* outlines some of the relevant considerations in deciding whether or not to ratify an agreement as including: comments received from the county government within whose area of jurisdiction the natural resource that is the subject of the transaction is located; adequacy of stakeholder consultation; the extent to which the agreement has struck a fair balance between the interests of the beneficiary and the benefits to the country arising from the agreement; the benefits which the local community is likely to enjoy from the transaction; and whether, in granting the concession or right the applicable law has been complied with.³⁰²

Apart from these considerations, it is worth pointing out that the Constitution has also laid out some national values and principles of governance which must bind all State organs, State officers, public officers and all persons whenever any of them—applies or interprets this Constitution; enacts, applies or interprets any law; or makes or implements public policy decisions.³⁰³

It is noteworthy that natural resources' exploitation and all the related activities are meant to benefit the country as well as communities that live in the areas where these resources are to be found. The Constitution of Kenya 2010 makes provisions on “naturalresources” which means the physical non-human factors and components, whether renewable or non-renewable, including—*rocks, minerals, fossil fuels and other sources of energy*.³⁰⁴ While the Act may not require ratification of all the transactions involving exploitation of different resources, it is important to note that there are other legal provisions that seek to safeguard the interests of the country and the general public as far as benefit sharing is concerned and should therefore be upheld in entering these agreements.

While the Act is well meaning in its mandate, there are notably some earlier exploitation agreements that were entered into before the enactment of the Act and were not revised

<https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/business/article/2001326660/mvurya-public-participation-in-mineral-resource-exploitation-mandatory> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³⁰² *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act*, 2016, sec. 9.

³⁰³ Article 10(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁰⁴ See Article 260; and Section Five of the Constitution of Kenya.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

in line with the Act.³⁰⁵ The Act specifically provides that a transaction that is subject to ratification by Parliament, which was lawfully entered into on or after the effective date but before the commencement date, shall continue in effect and be deemed valid and lawful notwithstanding the absence of ratification by Parliament.³⁰⁶

The implication of this provision is that there may have been some important transactions that greatly affect communities but do not get the chance to undergo the ratification process. As a result, the communities feel sidelined as far as decision-making is concerned and the environment also gets to suffer. While there are notably other statutory provisions in place to take care of some of these issues, there is the risk of complacency in some government organs and agencies which may mean that due process may not have been followed.

There are still some complaints from some Kenyan communities about how natural resources exploitation activities within their localities are carried out and the lack of inclusion in decision-making and benefit sharing.³⁰⁷ For instance, the oil and gas mining activities in the Turkana region have been facing serious challenges from the locals who have been complaining about inadequate consultations, inadequate benefits and a general feeling of marginalization from the Government and the contractors.³⁰⁸ There have also been complaints from other natural resources exploitation about environmental degradation which directly affects the livelihoods of the communities living with such areas.³⁰⁹

³⁰⁵ For instance, the agreements on exploitation of the oil and gas in Turkana; Titanium mining in Kwale, among others.

³⁰⁶ Sec. 16, *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act*, 2016.

³⁰⁷ Masinde, J., "Are Kwale residents expecting too much?" *Daily Nation*, Tuesday February 12 2013. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/lifestyle/smartcompany/Are-Kwale-residents-expecting-too-much/1226-1690904-nb7rqyz/index.html> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³⁰⁸ Johannes, E. M., Zulu, L. C., & Kalipeni, E., "Oil discovery in Turkana County, Kenya: a source of conflict or development?" *African Geographical Review* 34, no. 2 (2015): 142-164; Mkutu Agade, K., "'Ungoverned Space' and the Oil Find in Turkana, Kenya," *The Round Table* 103, no. 5 (2014): 497-515; Enns, C., & Bersaglio, B., "Pastoralism in the time of oil: Youth perspectives on the oil industry and the future of pastoralism in Turkana, Kenya." *The Extractive Industries and Society* 3, no. 1 (2016): 160-170; Enns, C., "Experiments in governance and citizenship in Kenya's resource frontier," PhD diss., University of Waterloo, 2016. Available at <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/144149828.pdf> [Accessed on 11/1/2020]; See also Parliament of Kenya, the Senate, *The Hansard*, Wednesday, 27th March, 2019, *Petitions: Iron Ore Mining In Kishushe Area, Taita-Taveta County*, available at <http://www.parliament.go.ke/sites/default/files/2019-04/Wednesday%202027th%20March%202019.pdf> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³⁰⁹ Economic and Social Rights Centre (Hakijamii) (Kenya), *Titanium mining benefit sharing in Kwale County: HAKIJAMIIA comprehensive analysis of the law and practice in the context of Nguluku and Bwiti*, September, 2017 Available at <http://www.hakijamii.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/Titanium-mining-benefit-sharing.pdf> [Accessed on 11/1/2020]; See also Schilling, J., Locham, R., Weinzierl, T., Vivekananda, J., & Scheffran, J., "The nexus of oil, conflict,

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

There is scarce information on the existing ratifications since 2016 because, although the Act provides that the Cabinet Secretary shall establish and maintain a central register of agreements relating to natural resources and other transactions which have been ratified as per the Act as well as ensuring that on an annual basis, they publish a report on the summary of the transactions submitted under this Act and the status of ratification of transactions, there are no publicly available reports or published summary of such reports. The effect of such laxity on the part of the Ministry is violation of the right to information which is useful for public participation in decision-making processes and any potential pursuit of their other rights in case of perceived violation.

Environmental laws and regulations and other laws that govern natural resources exploitation are meant to ensure that due process and other legal requirements are met but there are still instances where exploitation agreements are still challenged in courts and other forums for alleged failure to abide by the law.³¹⁰ In order to bring the existing contracts or agreements especially in the extractives industry in line with the law on ratification of agreements, there may be a need to consider incorporating periodic contract review mechanisms. Such reviews would also be in line with international best practices, such as the principles of Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI)³¹¹ which set the global standard to promote the open and accountable management of oil, gas and mineral resources.³¹² Through reviews, there may be demonstrated accountability and transparency which is important for the contractors, the government and the communities at large.³¹³ Periodic contract review mechanisms, which are provisions in contracts that formally require parties to meet at particular intervals to review the terms of the contract, are mechanisms that may facilitate the

and climate change vulnerability of pastoral communities in northwest Kenya," *Earth System Dynamics* 6, no. 2 (2015): 703-717.

³¹⁰ See Parliament of Kenya, the Senate, *The Hansard*, Wednesday, 27th March, 2019, *Petitions: Iron Ore Mining In Kishushe Area, Taita-Taveta County*, available at <http://www.parliament.go.ke/sites/default/files/2019-04/Wednesday%2C%2027th%20March%2C%202019.pdf> [Accessed on 11/1/2020]; See also Mui Coal Basin Local Community & 15 others v Permanent Secretary Ministry of Energy & 17 others [2015] eKLR, Constitutional Petition Nos 305 of 2012, 34 of 2013 & 12 of 2014 (Formerly Nairobi Constitutional Petition 43 of 2014) (Consolidated); Okiya Omtatah Okoiti v Kenya Power and Lighting Company & 10 others [2018] eKLR, Petition No. 14 of 2017.

³¹¹ See Muigua, K., "Promoting Open and Accountable Management of Extractives in Kenya: Implementing the Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative," August, 2019. Available at <http://kmco.co.ke/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Implementing-the-Extractives-Industries-Transparency-Initiative-in-Kenya-Kariuki-Muigua-15th-August-2019.pdf> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³¹² Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative, "Who we are," available at <https://eiti.org/who-we-are> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³¹³ Haufler, V., "Disclosure as governance: The extractive industries transparency initiative and resource management in the developing world." *Global Environmental Politics*, vol.10, no. 3 (2010): 53-73; See also African Union, "Africa mining vision," *AU, Addis Ababa* (2009).

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

process of negotiating contractual changes to accommodate changing circumstances over the term of extractive industries contracts.³¹⁴

Some countries such as Tanzania have sought to renegotiate their extractives exploitation contracts where it was deemed necessary. The Tanzanian government enacted laws that introduced changes in the exploitation of natural resources in the country's mining sector to ensure that Tanzania's natural resources are exploited to benefit the citizens.³¹⁵ Some of the laws such as the Natural Wealth and Resources Contracts (*Review and Renegotiation of Unconscionable Terms*) Act, 2017³¹⁶ are meant to empower Parliament to review all the arrangements and agreements made by the government regarding natural resources.³¹⁷ The Natural Wealth and Resources Contracts (Review and Re-negotiation of Unconscionable Terms) Act 2017 is meant to give powers to parliament to direct the Government to re-negotiate and rectify any term that seem to bear questionable circumstances in the contracts.

The provision for renegotiation in Tanzania is a notable departure from Kenya's position which is that a transaction that is subject to ratification by Parliament, which was lawfully entered into on or after the effective date but before the commencement date, shall continue in effect and be deemed valid and lawful notwithstanding the absence of ratification by Parliament.³¹⁸ The question that arises is whether, where such a transaction is later rendered unconscionable due to the prevailing circumstances, is there any legal framework to facilitate renegotiation as is the case in Tanzania.

While statutory annual reporting requirements under different laws may seem like a cure for this, it is worth pointing out that there is hardly any mechanism in place to ensure that such reporting is done, and where the Cabinet Secretary in question fails to follow up or raise queries on such reporting, the lack or failure of contractors to report will

³¹⁴ Mandelbaum, J., Swartz, S. A., & Hauert, J., "Periodic review in natural resource contracts," *Journal of Sustainable Development Law and Policy (The)*, Vol.7, no. 1 (2016): 116-136, p. 116; Lax, D. A., & Sebenius, J. K., *Insecure contracts and resource development*, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1981.

³¹⁵ "Tanzania seeks to reform mining sector for citizens' benefit," *The East African*, Saturday July 1 2017, available at <https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/business/Tanzania-seeks-to-reform-mining-sector/2560-3995660-7pyhb5/index.html> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³¹⁶ Natural Wealth and Resources Contracts (Review and Re-Negotiation of Unconscionable Terms) Act, No.6 of 2017, Laws of Tanzania. Available at <https://tanzlii.org/tz/legislation/act/2017/6-0> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³¹⁷ "Tanzania seeks to reform mining sector for citizens' benefit," *The East African*, Saturday July 1 2017, available at <https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/business/Tanzania-seeks-to-reform-mining-sector/2560-3995660-7pyhb5/index.html> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³¹⁸ Sec. 16, *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act*, 2016.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

most likely go unreported and unnoticed.³¹⁹ It may thus be necessary to consider going the Tanzanian way; putting in place a separate law to govern such matters. It has rightly been pointed out that provided that the parties take advantage of the opportunity to renegotiate terms, the contract terms and conditions can be readjusted before the parties are so desperate and frustrated that the investor decides to stop work or the Government decides to terminate permits and concessions.³²⁰

3.8 Conclusion

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 calls for concerted efforts of all persons in governance matters including in natural resources governance and management.³²¹ Sound environmental governance and natural resources management ought to consider these values and principles.³²² The Parliament of Kenya is afforded an opportunity to determine how natural resources exploitation is carried out through ratification of agreements. It is important that the Parliament not only considers the ability of the contractor in question to deliver but must also consider the country's development policies and must also remember the affected communities in certain areas with a view to ensuring that the resources in question get to benefit them especially in light of the fact that they may bear the brunt of most of the adverse environmental degradation. A good example would be the people living in Turkana region where oil and gas exploration and exploitation activities are ongoing.

The people living in Mui Basin region will also bear the brunt of the adverse effects of coal mining.³²³

Laws are meant to protect the interests of the people and the Parliament must as such ensure that any ratification of agreements that they carry out are geared towards this. Existing agreements should also be reviewed accordingly to ensure that the considerations set out under existing laws and specifically the *Natural Resources (Classes of Transaction Subject to Ratification by Parliament) Act, 2016*.

³¹⁹ Stuesson, A., & Zobel, T., "The Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) in Uganda: who will take the lead when the government falters?" *The Extractive Industries and Society*, Vol.2, no. 1 (2015): 33-45.

³²⁰ Mandelbaum, J., Swartz, S. A., & Hauert, J., "Periodic review in natural resource contracts," *op cit.*, p. 117; Smith, D. N., & Wells, L. T., "Conflict avoidance and concession agreements," *Harvard International Law Journal* 17 (1976): 51.

³²¹ Article 10(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³²² Prno, J., & Slocombe, D. S., "Exploring the origins of 'social license to operate' in the mining sector: Perspectives from governance and sustainability theories," *Resources policy*, Vol.37, no. 3 (2012): 346-357.

³²³ Mui Coal Basin Local Community & 15 others v Permanent Secretary Ministry of Energy & 17 others [2015] eKLR, Constitutional Petition Nos 305 of 2012, 34 of 2013 & 12 of 2014 (Formerly Nairobi Constitutional Petition 43 of 2014) (Consolidated)

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

It is important that the policy and legal framework and all the relevant actors work towards enhancing benefits from natural resources exploitation. Natural resources exploitation should contribute to the realisation of the sustainable development goals.³²⁴

Corporate environmental compliance remains a central theme in the environmental governance debate in Kenya. In case of violation of these rules, both civil and criminal liability may be imposed upon the corporation. Corporations can therefore ensure environmental compliance by *adhering to environmental laws, rules and regulations, promoting sustainable development, engaging in Corporate Social Responsibility activities and taking up environmental liability insurance* (emphasis added). Corporate Environmental Compliance is thus vital in the quest for attainment of sustainable development.

4. Realising Environmental Democracy in Kenya for Effective Environmental Management

4.1 Introduction

This section critically examines the concept of environmental democracy in light of the current Constitution of Kenya 2010 and the existing framework on facilitating enjoyment of environmental democracy by the Kenyan people. It traces the legal foundations of this right in the international environmental discourse as well as its place in the Kenyan law. The section proffers recommendations on the practical ways through which this right can be actualized based on the existing legal, institutional and policy frameworks.

Over the years, environmental democracy has been incorporated as one of the important aspects of environmental governance and management both in the international and national environmental law discourse. While most national legal instruments on environmental governance do not expressly refer to the concept of environmental democracy as such, the same is incorporated within the provisions, both constitutional and statutory. Indeed, it has been pointed out that the global trend toward adopting environmental rights within national constitutions has been largely regarded as a positive development for both human rights and the natural environment.³²⁵

³²⁴ UN General Assembly, *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, 21 October 2015, A/RES/70/1.

³²⁵ See Gellers, Joshua C. & Chris Jeffords, "Toward Environmental Democracy? Procedural Environmental Rights and Environmental Justice," *Global Environmental Politics* Early Access (2018): 99-121 at 99.

The section traces environmental democracy within the constitutional and main statutory framework on environment law in Kenya. It also offers a post 2010 Constitution perspective on the extent to which the concept of environmental democracy has been embraced and incorporated into the environmental policies and laws in the country.³²⁶ The author ultimately makes a case for environmental democracy as a means to an end in promoting and realisation of environmental rights for Kenyan communities, for peace and development, in the context of sustainable development.

4.2 Need for Environmental Democracy as an Environmental Right

4.2.1 The Concept of Environmental Democracy

The concept of environmental governance has been defined as encompassing the relationships and interactions among government and non-government structures, procedures and conventions, where power and responsibility are exercised in making environmental decisions.³²⁷ Furthermore, it concerns how the decisions are made, with a particular emphasis on the need for citizens, interest groups, and communities generally, to participate and have their voices heard.³²⁸ Principles such as inclusivity, representation, accountability, efficiency, and effectiveness, as well as social equity and justice, are believed to be the foundations of good governance.³²⁹

‘Environmental democracy is rooted in the idea that meaningful public participation is critical to ensure that land and natural resource decisions adequately and equitably address citizens’ interests.³³⁰ In addition, at its core, environmental democracy involves three mutually reinforcing rights: the right to freely access information on environmental quality and problems; the right to participate meaningfully in decision-making; and the right to seek enforcement of environmental laws or compensation for harm.³³¹

³²⁶ See a pre-Constitution 2010 discussion on the same topic, Muigua, K & Musyimi, P.N., “Enhancing Environmental Democracy in Kenya” (2008). Available at http://www.kmco.co.ke/attachments/article/81/072_Envtal_Dem_Kenya.pdf [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³²⁷ Jeffery, Michael I, "Environmental Governance: A Comparative Analysis of Public Participation and Access to Justice," *Journal of South Pacific Law* 9, no. 2 (2005).

³²⁸ Ibid.

³²⁹ “Part II: State of the environment,” 54. Available at https://www.environment.gov.za/sites/default/files/docs/part2_environmental_governance.pdf [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³³⁰ Environmental Democracy Index, ‘Background and Methodology: Environmental Democracy Background,’ available at http://environmentaldemocracyindex.org/about/background_and_methodology [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³³¹ Ibid.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Democratic participation of citizenry in political processes is considered as one of the tenets of an open and just society around the world.³³² It has also been opined that ‘participatory democracy seems at first glance to be wholly congenial with the spirit of science, which places its emphasis on free inquiry, open access to information, and informed critical debate’.³³³ The main argument is that ‘increasing knowledge and increasing participation - in the sense of larger numbers of voices at the table - do not by themselves automatically tell us how to act or how to make good decisions....because participation and science together often produce irreducible discord and confusion.’³³⁴

Environmental democracy is pegged on the right and ability of the public to freely access relevant and timely information, provide input and scrutiny into decision making, and to challenge decisions made by public or private actors which may harm the environment or violate their rights before an accessible, independent, and fair legal authority.³³⁵ Environmental democracy is therefore an important element in effective environmental governance.

States make attempts to address environmental changes experienced at the national level by adopting environmental policy innovations whose origins lie at the global level, including environmental institutions, instruments, laws, and policies.³³⁶ Principle 10 of the *1992 Rio Declaration on Environment and Development*³³⁷ envisages the various elements of environmental governance where it provides that ‘environmental issues are best handled with the participation of all concerned citizens, at the relevant level.’³³⁸

³³² See Jasanoff, Sheila, "The dilemma of environmental democracy," *Issues in Science and Technology* 13, no. 1 (1996): 63-70 at 64; See also Gellers, Joshua C. & Chris Jeffords, "Toward Environmental Democracy? Procedural Environmental Rights and Environmental Justice," *Global Environmental Politics* Early Access (2018): 99-121 at 102.

³³³ Jasanoff, Sheila, "The dilemma of environmental democracy," op cit., at 64.

³³⁴ Ibid, at 65.

³³⁵ Worker, Jesse & De Silva, Lalanath, *The Environmental Democracy Index*, (World Resources Institute, Technical Note Working Paper, June 2015), p.2. Available at http://environmentaldemocracyindex.org/sites/default/files/files/EDI_Technical%20Note%20Final%207_9_15.pdf [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³³⁶ Gellers, Joshua C. & Chris Jeffords, "Toward Environmental Democracy? Procedural Environmental Rights and Environmental Justice," op cit. at 99.

³³⁷ Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio De Janeiro, 3-14 June 1992) Annex I, *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development*, A/CONF.151/26 (Vol. I). Adopted in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil on 14 June 1992.

³³⁸ *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development*.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Although not directly applicable to Kenya, the *Aarhus Convention*³³⁹ offers significant pointers on effective environmental governance. The Convention provides for: the right of everyone to receive environmental information that is held by public authorities ("access to environmental information"); the right to participate in environmental decision-making ("public participation in environmental decision-making"); and the right to review procedures to challenge public decisions that have been made without respecting the two aforementioned rights or environmental law in general ("access to justice").³⁴⁰

It has been argued that 'participation is central to the notion of environmental democracy, and that participation in environmental governance enhances the likelihood that government agencies will be held accountable to the public; infuses local knowledge into decision-making processes; increases popular support for policies; and produces higher-quality planning outcomes, environmental decisions, and conservation efforts'.³⁴¹

4.2.2 Environmental Democracy as an Empowerment Tool for Achieving Sustainable Development

The concept of sustainability provides the nexus of economic, social, and environmental spheres of life.³⁴² Sustainable Development Goal (SDGs) 16 aims to 'promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels'.³⁴³ The SDGs also seek to promote participation of local communities in natural resource management.³⁴⁴ The environmental democracy rights of access to information, public participation, and

³³⁹ United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), *Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters*, 1998.

³⁴⁰ European Commission, *The Aarhus Convention: What is the Aarhus Convention?* Available at <http://ec.europa.eu/environment/aarhus/> [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³⁴¹ Gellers, Joshua C. & Chris Jeffords, "Toward Environmental Democracy? Procedural Environmental Rights and Environmental Justice," *op cit.* at 102.

³⁴² Gellers, Joshua C. & Chris Jeffords, "Toward Environmental Democracy? Procedural Environmental Rights and Environmental Justice," *op cit.* at 104; See also Fisher, Joshua & Kristen Rucki, "Re-conceptualizing the Science of Sustainability: A Dynamical Systems Approach to Understanding the Nexus of Conflict, Development and the Environment," *Sustainable Development* 25, no. 4 (2017): 267-275.

³⁴³ United Nations, *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, A/RES/70/1, Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015.

³⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, Goal 6b.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

access to justice in environmental matters are promoted as key drivers of informed, accountable decision making and citizen empowerment.³⁴⁵

Empowerment is aimed at achieving the following: developing the ability to access and control material and non-material resources and to effectively mobilize them in order to influence decision outcomes; developing the ability to access and influence decision-making processes on various levels (household, community, national, global) in order to ensure the proper representation of one's interests (also described as getting a —voice); gaining an awareness of dominant ideologies and of the nature of domination that one is subjected to in order to discover one's identity, and ultimately to develop the ability to independently determine one's preferences and act upon them; and developing the ability to trust in one's personal abilities in order to act with confidence.³⁴⁶

It has been rightly noted that a right is not just the ability to do something that is among your important interests (whatever they are), but a guarantee or empowerment to actually do it, because it is the correct thing that you have this empowerment.³⁴⁷ Political empowerment requires inclusion in democratic decision-making processes which is equated to mainly gaining a voice within the local and/or central state.³⁴⁸

It is important to point out that while policy and legal framework is necessary, it cannot alone guarantee achievement of environmental justice for communities.

Indeed, the place of public participation has been justified as important in getting the public's views on scientific and technological issues.³⁴⁹

Sustainable development needs to draw upon the best knowledge available from the relevant scientific and stakeholder communities.³⁵⁰ Public participation, as observed above, is important as it provides a forum whereby the scientific information and values

³⁴⁵ Worker, Jesse & De Silva, Lalanath, *The Environmental Democracy Index*, (World Resources Institute, Technical Note Working Paper, June 2015), p.1.

³⁴⁶ Oladipo, S.E., 'Psychological Empowerment and Development', *African Journals Online, Vol. 2, No 1, 2009*, p.121.

³⁴⁷ The Hendrick Hudson Lincoln-Douglas *Philosophical Handbook*, Version 4.0 (including a few Frenchmen), p. 4. Available at <http://www.jimmenick.com/henhud/hhldph.pdf> [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³⁴⁸ Miller, B., 'Political empowerment, local—central state relations, and geographically shifting political opportunity structures: Strategies of the Cambridge, Massachusetts, Peace Movement', *Political Geography*, (Special Issue: Empowering Political Struggle), Volume 13, Issue 5, September 1994, pp. 393–406.

³⁴⁹ Petts, J. and Brooks, C., "Expert Conceptualisations of the Role of Lay Knowledge i Environmental .Decision making: Challenges for Deliberative Democracy," *Environment and Planning A*, 38, 2006, pp.1045-1059 at pp.1045-46.

³⁵⁰ Daniels, SE & Walker, GB, 'Rethinking public participation in natural resource management: Concepts from pluralism and five emerging approaches,' p. 4. Available at <http://dev.mtnforum.org/sites/default/files/publication/files/260.pdf> [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

of the public and the agency can be integrated so that the final decision is viewed as both desirable and feasible by the broadest portion of society.³⁵¹

Environmental democracy presents an opportunity to entrench a culture of environmental justice for communities through formal and informal approaches.

4.3 Status of Environmental Democracy in Kenya

As already pointed out, environmental democracy includes the following: the rights of access to information, public participation and access to justice in environmental matters. These are mainly promoted through various concepts such as transparency, accountability and inclusiveness in environmental governance.

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 envisages the national values and principles of governance, including environmental governance matters. The relevant values and principles in this context include: democracy and participation of the people; equity; social justice; inclusiveness; equality; non-discrimination and protection of the marginalised; good governance; integrity; transparency and accountability; and sustainable development.³⁵²

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 guarantees the right of every citizen to: access information held by the state; and information held by another person and required for the exercise or protection of any right or fundamental freedom.³⁵³ The State is however obligated to publish and publicise any important information affecting the nation.³⁵⁴ These constitutional provisions are buttressed by the *Access to Information Act, 2016*³⁵⁵ which was enacted to give effect to Article 35 of the Constitution; to confer on the Commission on Administrative Justice the oversight and enforcement functions and powers and for connected purposes.

The *Environment and Land Court Act, 2011* provides that ‘in exercise of its jurisdiction under this Act, the Court shall be guided by the following principles—the principles of sustainable development, including—the principle of public participation in the development of policies, plans and processes for the management of the environment and land’ and the national values and principles of governance under Article 10(2) of the Constitution.³⁵⁶

³⁵¹ Ibid, p.4.

³⁵² Article 10(2), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁵³ Article 35(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.
Article 35(3), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁵⁵ *Access to Information Act*, No. 31 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.

³⁵⁶ Section 18, *Environment and Land Court Act*, No. 19 of 2011, Laws of Kenya.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Under Article 69 (1) (d) of the Constitution, which deals with the environment and natural resources, the State is obligated to “encourage public participation in the management, protection and conservation of the environment.”

There is an attempt by Parliament to statutorily entrench public participation through the proposed *Public Participation (No. 2) Act, 2019*³⁵⁷ which seeks to provide a general framework for effective public participation; to give effect to the constitutional principles of democracy and participation of the people under Articles 1(2), 10(2), 35, 69(1)(d), 118, 174(c) and (d), 184(1)(c), 196,201(a) and 232(1)(d) of the Constitution; and for connected purposes.³⁵⁸

The development of a law on public participation is a step in the right direction in enhancing environmental democracy in Kenya. One of the pillars underpinning the devolved system of governance in Kenya is public participation as envisaged under Article 174(c) of the Constitution of Kenya which outlines one of the objects of devolution as “to give powers of self-governance to the people and enhance the participation of the people in the exercise of the powers of the State and in making decisions affecting them”. Indeed, the Fourth Schedule to the Constitution, in Part 2(14), states that the functions and powers of the County government include: “*Ensuring and coordinating the participation of communities and locations in governance at the local level and assisting communities and locations to develop the administrative capacity for the effective exercise of the functions and powers and participation in governance at the local level.*”³⁵⁹

In The Matter of the National Land Commission [2015] eKLR, the Supreme Court was of the opinion that the dominant perception at the time of constitution-making was that the decentralization of powers would not only give greater access to the social goods previously regulated centrally, but would also open up the scope for political self-fulfilment, through an enlarged scheme of actual participation in governance mechanisms by the people thus giving more fulfilment to the concept of democracy.³⁶⁰

³⁵⁷ *Public Participation (No. 2) Act, 2019*, Nairobi, 11th October, 2019), Kenya Gazette Supplement No. 170 (National Assembly Bills No. 71).

³⁵⁸ Preamble, *Public Participation (No. 2) Act, 2019*.

³⁵⁹ See also *County Public Participation Guidelines 2016*.

³⁶⁰ *In The Matter of the National Land Commission [2015] eKLR*, para. 21; See also Muigua, K., *et al.* (2015) *Natural Resources and Environmental Justice in Kenya*, (Glenwood Publishers Limited, 2015, Nairobi).

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Environmental democracy is a means to an end; the aim is to achieve environmental justice.³⁶¹

Despite the foregoing constitutional and statutory provisions guaranteeing public participation, access to information and access to justice in environmental matters, Kenya still lags behind as far as environmental democracy is concerned. There arises a challenge regarding the implementation of the environmental rights as guaranteed under the Constitution and the other statutes. The Constitution provides that ‘every person has the right to institute court proceedings claiming that a right or fundamental freedom in the Bill of Rights has been denied, violated or infringed, or is threatened’.³⁶²

Communities are still suffering in the hands of foreign and local investors and complacent state agencies who fail to uphold the rule of law in environmental governance matters.³⁶³ The next section looks at how communities and other stakeholders can employ more meaningful and practical approaches for realisation of environmental democracy for the Kenyan people.

4.4 Realising Environmental Democracy in Kenya

Enhanced environmental democracy for the Kenyan people is one of the ways through which the internationally and constitutionally guaranteed environmental rights can be achieved. The associated rights of access to information, access to public participation, and access to justice (the three “access rights”) are considered practical means of ensuring that decisions by governments consider sustainable development concerns and the interests of the poor.³⁶⁴ There are diverse ways through which these rights can be promoted and realised, ranging from formal to informal mechanisms. It has been

³⁶¹ The *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development* Goal 16 of the Sustainable Development Goals is dedicated to the promotion of peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, the provision of access to justice for all, and building effective, accountable institutions at all levels. (Para. 16) (https://cic.nyu.edu/sites/default/files/publication_sdg16_roadmap_discussion_paper_07mar17.pdf [Accessed on 15/1/2020].)

³⁶² Article 22(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁶³ B. Jenje, ‘MP to compensate families injured by lead poison ‘if guilty’,’ *Daily Nation*, Wednesday, April 29, 2015, available at <http://www.nation.co.ke/news/politics/MP-to-compensate-families-injured-by-lead-poison-if-guilty/-/1064/2701594/-/15u9ivl/-/index.html> [Accessed on 15/1/2020]; See also M. W. Chege, *et al*, ‘Lead contamination of traditional hand-dug wells in parts of Kwale County, Kenya,’ *International Journal of Physical Sciences*, Vol. 8, No.17, 9 May, 2013, pp. 835-839.

³⁶⁴ World Resources Institute, “The Access Initiative (TAI),” available at <http://www.wri.org/our-work/project/access-initiative-tai/commissions> [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

documented that ‘that where environmental policy incorporates procedural rights, environmental protection efforts are more robust’.³⁶⁵

In addition, ‘achieving environmental justice requires that vulnerable communities have opportunities to participate meaningfully in decision-making processes’.³⁶⁶ Equipping underrepresented groups with environmental information and avenues for influencing policy decisions is also believed to strengthen the values and practices associated with democracy’.³⁶⁷ Different forms of participatory processes have also been suggested as a way of improving environmental governance.³⁶⁸

This section proffers suggestions on how environmental democracy can meaningfully be realised for the benefit of all. While this section is not exhaustive on the possible ways of doing this, it offers some of the most viable means through which environmental democracy as a facilitative right can be achieved.

4.4.1 Mobilising Communities/Citizenry through Demonstrations, Picketing and Petitions

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 guarantees that ‘every person has the right, peaceably and unarmed, to assemble, to demonstrate, to picket, and to present petitions to public authorities’.³⁶⁹ Courts have also commented on this right and affirmed its importance in expressing personal views as part of a democratic society.³⁷⁰

When done within the confines of law, assemblies, demonstrations, picketing and petitions can be effective channels of realizing environmental democracy for the general public and affected communities in cases of environmental justice.³⁷¹ These channels are especially useful in instances where there are challenges in accessing courts for public litigation either due to limited resources or lack of courthouses. This channel has successfully been used in other jurisdictions with satisfactory results..³⁷²

Petitions to the Parliament, with proper guidance, can also provide a good channel for communities especially those suffering injustices to communicate their concerns and problems to the Parliament for discussion and possibly policy and legal responses.³⁷³

³⁶⁵ Gellers, Joshua C. & Chris Jeffords, "Toward Environmental Democracy? Procedural Environmental Rights and Environmental Justice," op cit. at 100.

³⁶⁶ Ibid, at 100.

³⁶⁷ Ibid, at 100.

³⁶⁸ Ibid, at 102.

³⁶⁹ Article 37, Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁷⁰ *Ferdinand Ndung'u Waititu & 4 others v Attorney General & 12 others* [2016] eKLR, Petition 169 of 2016.

³⁷¹ Ibid.

³⁷² Jasanoff, Sheila, "The dilemma of environmental democracy," op cit., at 65.

³⁷³ Article 118 (1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

It is, therefore, important to sensitise communities on the important role that demonstrations and picketing can play in enhancing environmental justice by giving a voice to the unheard communities.

4.4.2 Role of Media, Civil Society in Environmental Governance

Scholars have suggested that the civil society can play a major role in global environmental governance including: collecting, disseminating, and analysing information; providing input to agenda-setting and policy development processes; performing operational functions; assessing environmental conditions and monitoring compliance with environmental agreements; and advocating environmental justice.³⁷⁴

Regarding the place of media in environmental governance, it has been documented that countries with a larger newspaper circulation have better environmental responsiveness, on average, despite controlling for the extent of environmental regulation, the availability of information on environmental outcomes, and the level of economic development measured as GDP per capita.³⁷⁵ Furthermore, public opinion pressure generated by an active press is also essential to efforts by private sector organizations to use self-regulation to improve corporate governance.³⁷⁶

An improved working relationship between the government and non-state actors aimed at enhancing the contributions from civil society participation need to be enhanced through a strengthened, more formalized structure for engagement.³⁷⁷

4.4.3 Streamlining Access to Environmental Information

Ensuring access to information on environmental matters has been touted as one of the ways that enhance the capacity of citizens to check abuses that public or private actors commit.³⁷⁸ Empowered communities also find it easier to hold to account those who flout environmental laws, be they government entities, private institutions or individuals. It is easier to engage a community that feels a sense of belonging than one

³⁷⁴ See Gemmill, Barbara & Abimbola Bamidele-Izu, "The role of NGOs and civil society in global environmental governance," *Global environmental governance: Options and opportunities* (2002): 77-100 at 77; 83.

³⁷⁵ Dyck, Alexander & Zingales, Luigi, "The Corporate Governance Role of the Media," August, 2002, p.5. Available at <http://faculty.chicagobooth.edu/finance/papers/corporate%20governance.pdf> [Accessed on 11/1/2020].

³⁷⁶ *Ibid*, at 11.

³⁷⁷ Gemmill, Barbara & Abimbola Bamidele-Izu, "The role of NGOs and civil society in global environmental governance," *Global environmental governance: Options and opportunities* (2002): 77- 100 at 96.

³⁷⁸ Gellers, Joshua C. & Chris Jeffords, "Toward Environmental Democracy? Procedural Environmental Rights and Environmental Justice," *op cit.* at 103.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

that feels sidelined by the state actors. It has rightly been asserted that informed with basic facts about the quality of their environment, citizens can become active participants in identifying and resolving issues at both local and national levels.³⁷⁹

Dissemination of information and knowledge in meaningful forms can enhance participation in decision-making and enhance appreciation of the best ways of protecting and conserving the environment.

4.4.4 Enhanced Public Participation

Effective participation in decision-making processes by local communities is believed to be one of the ways through which they can articulate and effectively enforce their common interest.³⁸⁰ The need for a broader conceptualisation of public participation was canvassed in the case of *Thuku Kirori & 4 Others v. County Government of Murang'a*³⁸¹ where the Court held that *the participation of the public in affairs that concern them should not be narrowly interpreted to mean engagement of a section of people purporting to be professionals who are out to rip maximum profits out of services for which they are neither registered nor qualified to offer; the ultimate goal for public engagement as envisaged in the constitution is for the larger public benefit*³⁸²(emphasis added).

Notably, natural resource related conflicts in Kenya are still prevalent and a cause of much concern.

Natural resources are a source of livelihood for many, and any development activities that affect the same in any way ought to seek the social licence through engaging the affected communities through public participation. Competition for scarce resources may lead to a 'survival of the fittest' situation.³⁸³

Lack of environmental democracy and environmental justice aggravates the situation since the affected groups are neither involved nor supplied with information regarding the resources. The process of managing natural resource conflicts is an off-shoot of the right to access to environmental justice and by extension, environmental democracy.³⁸⁴

³⁷⁹ Hazen, S., "Environmental democracy," *Our Planet* 8.6-March 1997, op cit.

³⁸⁰ GH, Brundtland, *Our Common Future: Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development* para. 20.

³⁸¹ Petition No. 1 of 2014; [2014] eKLR.

³⁸² See also *In the Matter of the National Land Commission [2015] eKLR*, Advisory Opinion Reference No. 2 of 2014, Para. 340.

³⁸³ See generally, "Section 5: Survival at Stake: Violent Land Conflict in Africa," *Small Arms Survey 2013*, available at <http://www.smallarmssurvey.org/fileadmin/docs/A-Yearbook/2013/en/Small-Arms-Survey-2013-Section-5-EN.pdf> [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³⁸⁴ Muigua, K., *Nurturing Our Environment for Sustainable Development*, Glenwood Publishers, Nairobi – 2016), p. 332.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Environmental justice ensures equitable treatment of people in ensuring access to and sharing of environmental resources and justice in environmental matters.³⁸⁵

ADR and Traditional dispute resolution mechanisms, especially negotiation and mediation, still have relevance in natural resource conflicts management, a role recognized in the Constitution.³⁸⁶ This is the true essence of environmental democracy; affording communities guaranteed and meaningful participation in the decision making process by presenting proof and reasoned arguments in their favour, as tools for obtaining a socio-economic justice.³⁸⁷

4.4.5 Entrenching Environmental Ethics

Article 69(2) of the Constitution provides that every person has a duty to cooperate with State organs and other persons to protect and conserve the environment and ensure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources. There is need to empower communities so as to actualise these constitutional provisions. It calls for active participation of all. Kenyans have a role to play in achieving sustainable development agenda. There is therefore a need to cultivate a culture of respect for environment by all, without necessarily relying on courts for enforcing the same. The citizenry should practise preventive measures. Developing environmental ethics and consciousness can be enhanced through adopting participatory approaches to conservation and management of environment and its resources.

There is a need to encourage voluntary compliance with environmental regulations, by the general public. This can be achieved through creating public awareness on the impacts of unsustainable and environment-degrading production and social activities, while providing sustainable alternatives. Such awareness can include organizing public forums, use of media to disseminate information and environmental campaigns and introducing comprehensive and up-to date environmental studies in learning institutions, at all levels.

³⁸⁵ United States Environmental Protection Agency, 'Environmental Justice Analysis', available at <http://www.epa.gov/sustainability/analytics/environmental-justice.htm>

[Accessed on 15/1/2020]. .

³⁸⁶ See Art. 60(1) (g); Art. 159.

³⁸⁷ Ristanić, A., 'Alternative Dispute Resolution And Indigenous Peoples: Intellectual Property Disputes in the Context of Traditional Knowledge, Traditional Cultural Expressions and Genetic resources,' (Lund University, April 2015), available at [https://www.law.lu.se/webuk.nsf/%28MenuItemById%29/JAMR32exam/\\$FILE/Alternative%20Dispute%20Resolution%20and%20Indigenous%20Peoples.%20Intellectual%20Property%20Disputes%20in%20the%20Context%20of%20Traditional%20Knowledg.pdf](https://www.law.lu.se/webuk.nsf/%28MenuItemById%29/JAMR32exam/$FILE/Alternative%20Dispute%20Resolution%20and%20Indigenous%20Peoples.%20Intellectual%20Property%20Disputes%20in%20the%20Context%20of%20Traditional%20Knowledg.pdf) [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Incentives and disincentives can also be offered to encourage people to discard unsustainable methods of production and other activities that contribute to the degradation of the environment. Environmental rules that reward environmental leadership, build on best practices, and ensure a level playing field are more likely to succeed in securing compliance.³⁸⁸

Apart from inclusion in decision-making and governance matters, these communities should be empowered economically and socially in a way that ensures that they have a diversified source of livelihood in order to insulate them against climate change and other adverse environmental factors. This is also a way of ensuring that pressure on available environmental resources is minimised and subsequently reduce or prevent emergence of inter-ethnic conflicts.

4.4.6 Proactive Role of Courts in Environmental Justice

The judiciary is considered a crucial partner in promoting environmental governance, upholding the rule of law and in ensuring a fair balance amongst environmental, social and developmental considerations through its judgments and declarations.³⁸⁹ The *Rio Declaration* in principle 10 emphasizes the importance of courts by stating that: “Environmental issues are best handled with the participation of all concerned citizens, at the relevant level.... *Effective access to judicial and administrative proceedings, including redress and remedy, shall be provided* (emphasis added).³⁹⁰

Section 3 (5) of *Environment (Management and Coordination) Act 1999*³⁹¹ (EMCA) provides that “in exercising the jurisdiction conferred upon the Court under subsection 3, the High Court shall be guided by the principles of sustainable development.

Courts have a role to play in promoting sustainable development agenda. This has also been affirmed through various cases. For instance, in *Mohamed Ali Baadi & 9 Others v Attorney General* [2018] eKLR, the Court observed that there is a narrow class of cases where the exhaustion doctrine in environmental-related controversies does not mandatorily oust the jurisdiction of the court as the first port of call, especially where the alternative fora do not provide an accessible, affordable, timely and effective

³⁸⁸ International Network for Environmental Compliance and Enforcement (INECE), ‘The Importance of Environmental Compliance and Enforcement for Sustainable Development for the Rio+20 Conference,’ p.2, available at <http://www.uncsd2012.org/content/documents/332INECE%20Submission%20Rio%20Compilation%20Document.pdf> [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

³⁸⁹ Gupta, K.S., The role of judiciary in promoting sustainable development: Need of specialized environment court in India. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 4, No.2, 2011, p.249-253 at p. 249.

³⁹⁰ United Nations Conference on Environment and development, *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development*, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 1992.

³⁹¹ No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya.

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

remedy. The court was also of the opinion that the precautionary principle allows the court to intervene where it is necessary to do so in order to avert a violation of environmental governance principles. This approach envisages intervention by the Courts to step in and protect the environment without necessarily looking for immediate proof of likely violation of principles of environmental governance.

In the case of *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR*, the Court rightly stated that “Besides the above general guiding principles, a court seized of an environmental dispute, whether at the interlocutory stage or at the substantive hearing, is to bear in mind that, through their judgments and rulings, courts play a crucial role in promoting environmental governance, upholding the rule of law, and in ensuring a fair balance between competing environmental, social, developmental and commercial interests”.³⁹²

The judiciary has a fundamental contribution to make in upholding the rule of law and ensuring that national and international laws and principles of environmental law, including promotion of sustainable development, are interpreted and applied fairly, efficiently, and effectively.³⁹³

4.5 Conclusion

Environmental democracy, while not expressly acknowledged or recognised as one of the environmental rights, is a crucial component of the procedural rights associated with realisation of environmental rights, especially environmental justice. It is an important link in actualizing and providing a channel through which the general environmental rights may be realised by all, regardless of their social standing.

Getting a platform to voice their environmental related concerns is important for affected persons or communities. Enhanced environmental democracy can potentially afford them this platform. Thus, environmental democracy is an important component of procedural justice in environmental justice that must be cultivated for the sake of securing a brighter future for realization of environmental rights for all.

³⁹² Para 22, *Kenya Association of Manufacturers & 2 others v Cabinet Secretary - Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources & 3 others [2017] eKLR*.

³⁹³ International Network for Environmental Compliance and Enforcement (INECE), ‘The Importance of Environmental Compliance and Enforcement for Sustainable Development for the Rio+20 Conference,’ p.2, available at <http://www.uncsd2012.org/content/documents/332INECE%20Submission%20Rio%20Compilation%20Document.pdf> [Accessed on 15/1/2020].

Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment

Democratic engagement in environmental governance is essential to achieving a healthy flourishing environment, which can support both nature and the health and wellbeing of society. Environmental democracy can be a driver of change towards achieving human rights in the environmental sphere.

5. The Sustainable Management of the Extractives Industry in Kenya: The (Dis) Connect

5.1 Introduction

This section critically discusses the regulatory framework governing the extractives industry in Kenya. It highlights the prospects of the existing laws in enhancing the sector's returns and contribution to the national development agenda. The extractives sector is an area that comes with a lot of hopes for the public worldwide, with the expectations that their governments will use these resources to make their lives as well as the national economy better. These expectations may however need to be managed through ensuring that the said groups of people have the relevant information on the available resources and how the same are to be utilised.

One of the most efficient ways of managing these expectations is through promoting open, accountable and transparent governance of the extractives sector as well as how the revenues accrued are utilised. Where such openness and transparency in management of extractives lack, there has been negative effects on the socio-economic development in what is commonly referred to as the resource curse. Unmet expectations have often resulted in conflicts. It is for these reasons that the international community have often attempted to come up with best practices in form of guidelines to help nation states to put in place and implement measures that promote open, accountable and transparent governance of the extractives sector.

The section also discusses some of the loopholes that must be addressed by Kenya's policy makers and other stakeholders in order to realise the full benefits of the new laws, if any. One of the most common initiatives geared towards this is the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) which is meant to promote the open and accountable management of oil, gas and mineral resources. This section discusses how Kenya, with its nascent extractives sector can adopt and implement the EITI standard in ensuring open and accountable management of oil, gas and mineral resources.

The extractive industry mainly includes oil, gas and mining. The main argument is that implementation of the EITI standard alongside the domestic laws governing the sector can ensure that Kenya escapes the resource curse that has bedeviled other countries that have seen the sector becoming a source of agony instead of development as anticipated.

Notably, these principles also form part of the national values and principles of governance enunciated under the current Constitution of Kenya 2010 and it is therefore argued that the EITI initiative and the principles therein ought to be implemented in a complementary manner.

Kenya's mining subsector and the extractives in general can be considered relatively small considering that its current contribution to the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is much smaller than the expected potential.¹ However, there have been improved hopes of higher incomes from this sector especially with the discovery of various mineral deposits in various parts of the country.² These mineral resources come with great hopes of boosting the country's development agenda.³

5.2 Legal and Institutional Framework on Kenya's Extractives Industry: Gaps and Prospects

The main legal instrument that lays out the core governance principles for the natural resources exploitation in the country is the Constitution of Kenya 2010.⁴

Countries preparing to join the EITI are encouraged to identify potential barriers to systematic disclosures from the outset, for instance by conducting a systematic disclosure feasibility study or addressing opportunities for systematic disclosures as part of the preparations for becoming an EITI implementing country.⁵

Notably, Kenya made a commitment in 2015 to: (a) join EITI, making it a part of a global multi-stakeholder program designed to increase the transparency of the financial windfall many resource-rich governments receive from developing their oil, gas and minerals. Kenya pledged to establish a government focal point for EITI implementations within six months; and (b) adopt a "transparent policy and legislative framework" for the oil and gas sector, including the adoption of a transparent process for licensing (or

¹ KPMG, "Analysis of Mining Act 2016," July 2016, p. 1. Available at <https://assets.kpmg/content/dam/kpmg/ke/pdf/kpmg-mining-act-2016-analysis.pdf> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

² Scola Kamau and Christine Mungai, "Kenya's \$100 billion hidden mineral deposits," *The East African*, Saturday July 20 2013. Available at <https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/news/Kenya-hits-USD100-billion-rare-earth-jackpot-/2558-1920964-ma895tz/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]. Mrima Hill, in the coastal county of Kwale, has one of the top five rare earth deposits in the world. The area also has niobium deposits estimated to be worth \$35 billion.

³ Ndemo, B., "Kenya's mineral resources could pull millions out of poverty," *Daily Nation*, Monday June 24 2019. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/oped/blogs/dot9/ndemo/2274486-5169428-990fwj/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Chimboza, R., "More should and can be done to start taking mining sector seriously," *Daily Nation*, Tuesday October 4 2016.

⁴ See Articles 10; 60, 69, Constitution of Kenya 2010.

⁵ EITI International Secretariat, "The EITI Standard 2019: The Global Standard for the Good Governance of Oil, Gas and Mineral Resources," Edition 1, 17 June 2019, p.8.

awarding) oil and gas blocks as well as publication of contracts between oil companies and the government.⁶

Despite this commitment, Kenya is currently neither compliant nor a candidate country.⁷ Becoming a member would require some self-introspection first to identify the existing gaps and challenges as far as the regulatory framework is concerned. The oil discovery in Turkana County led to stakeholders in the extractives sector calling for a comprehensive and consolidated legislative framework to help track revenue from the sector and enable Kenyans to understand its contribution to the economy.⁸ It is noteworthy that Kenya is a resource-rich country and the recent discovery of new sources of crude oil and natural gas increases the urgency for developing a transparent extractives policy.⁹

The Mining Act 2016¹⁰ is to apply to the minerals specified in the First Schedule¹¹. Notably, the Act does not apply to petroleum and hydrocarbon gases¹². The Mining Act thus covers only a section of the extractives industry since the extractive industry involves the development and exploitation of oil, gas, and mining resources.

The Mining Act has provisions covering various mining issues including but not limited to: mineral rights disputes relating to license and permits¹³; structures for negotiating mineral agreements¹⁴; terms and conditions for minimum activity and work programs, structure for payments¹⁵; and artisanal and small scale mining operations¹⁶. Previously, these have been the subject of several court matters hence the need to settle the same by way of substantive statutory provisions.¹⁷

⁶ Gary, I., “Amidst the flurry of President Obama’s visit, Kenya commits to a transparent oil boom,” *Oxfam America*, August 21, 2015. Available at <https://politicsofpoverty.oxfamamerica.org/2015/08/amidst-the-flurry-of-president-obamas-visit-kenya-commits-to-a-transparent-oil-boom/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁷ EITI, “Base Titanium,” available at <https://eiti.org/supporter/base-titanium> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁸ Open Government Partnership, “Kenya: Publish Oil and Gas Contracts (KE0013),” available at <https://www.opengovpartnership.org/members/kenya/commitments/KE0013/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Mining Act, No. 12 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.

¹¹ The classification of minerals under first schedule includes: A. Construction and Industrial Minerals; B. Precious stones; C. Precious Metal group; D. Semi-precious stones group; E. Base And Rare Metals Group; F. Fuel Mineral Group; and G. Gaseous Minerals.

¹² These fall under the domain of the Energy Act, No. 1 of 2019, Laws of Kenya; and Petroleum Act, No. 2 of 2019, Laws of Kenya.

¹³ Part ix—Surface Rights Compensation and Disputes (sections 151-157).

¹⁴ Part Vii—Mineral Agreements (sections 117-142).

¹⁵ Part Xii—Financial Provisions (sections 182-190).

¹⁶ Act, 2016, Sections 92-100.

¹⁷ See for instance, *Mui Coal Basin Local Community & 15 others v Permanent Secretary Ministry of Energy & 17 others* [2015] eKLR, Constitutional Petition Nos 305 of 2012, 34 of 2013 & 12 of 2014 (Formerly Nairobi Constitutional Petition 43 of 2014) (Consolidated); *Rodgers Muema Nzioka &*

As far as the matters falling within the purview of the EITI are concerned, the Mining Act empowers the Cabinet Secretary to make regulations, and he has since made the regulations discussed earlier in this section.

5.2.1 Kenya's Extractives Industry: The Policy, Legislative and Institutional Framework

The Government of Kenya has a ministry dedicated to the development of the extractives sector¹⁸, as part of the efforts to improve resource exploitation in the country, and this is the Ministry of Mining and Petroleum¹⁹. The concerned Ministry undertakes various functions aimed at enhancing growth of the mining sector in the country as guided by the *Executive Order No. 2 of 2013*²⁰. The mandate of the Ministry of Mining and Petroleum includes: Minerals Exploration and mining policy and Management; Inventory and mapping of mineral resources; Mining and minerals development; oil and gas development; Policies on the management of quarrying and mining of rocks and industrial minerals; Management of health and safety in mines; Policy around extractive industry; Resource Surveys and remote sensing; and Maintenance of geological data (research, collection, collation, analysis).²¹

The Mining sector in Kenya is mainly governed by the Constitution of Kenya 2010, the Mining Act 2016 and numerous Regulations made under the Act to promote proper administration and implementation of the Act. The oil and gas sector is principally governed by the Petroleum Act, 2019²² which was enacted to provide a framework for the contracting, exploration, development and production of petroleum; cessation of upstream petroleum operations; to give effect to relevant articles of the Constitution in so far as they apply to upstream petroleum operations, regulation of midstream and downstream petroleum operations; and for connected purposes.²³

The 2019 Petroleum Act came into effect on 28 March 2019, repealing the Petroleum (Exploration and Production) Act of 1984. The Act is to apply to all upstream, midstream and downstream petroleum operations being carried out in Kenya.²⁴

2 others v Tiomin Kenya Limited [2001] eKLR, Civil Case 97 of 2001; Tom Mboya Odege v Cabinet Secretary, Ministry of Petroleum and Mining & 3 others [2019] eKLR, Environment and Land Petition 2 of 2018; Cortec Mining Kenya Limited v Cabinet Secretary Ministry of Mining & 9 others [2017] eKLR, Civil Appeal 105 of 2015.

¹⁸ Ministry of Mining. Available at

<http://www.mining.go.ke/index.php/about-us/about-ministry> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁹ <https://www.petroleumandmining.go.ke/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

²⁰ Republic of Kenya, *Executive Order No.2 of 2013 – Organization of the Government of Kenya*, May 2013.

²¹ <http://www.mining.go.ke/index.php/about-us/about-ministry> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

²² Petroleum Act, Act No. 2 of 2019, Laws of Kenya.

²³ Ibid, Preamble.

²⁴ Sec. 3, Petroleum Act, 2019.

a) Constitution of Kenya 2010

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 makes provisions on “natural resources” which means the physical non-human factors and components, whether renewable or non-renewable, including —*rocks, minerals, fossil fuels and other sources of energy*.²⁵

Article 60 of the Constitution provides for the principles of land policy which include sustainable and productive management of land resources. Under Article 62 (1) (f) of the Constitution “all minerals and mineral oils as defined by law” are classified as public land and by Article 62 (3) they are vested in and are held by the national government in trust for the people of Kenya.

The Constitution also outlines the obligations of the State in respect of the environment.²⁶ The Constitution further spells out the national values and principles of governance which bind all State organs, State officers, public officers and all persons whenever any of them—applies or interprets this Constitution; enacts, applies or interprets any law; or makes or implements public policy decisions.²⁷ This includes any decision-making or implementation of any law affecting the mining sector.²⁸ The Constitution thus provides some overarching principles that should guide the implementation of any laws governing the mining sector.

b) Mining and Minerals Policy, Sessional Paper No. 7 of 2016

The *Mining and Minerals Policy, Sessional Paper No. 7 of 2016* was informed by the lack of predictability and certainty hence low investment in the mining sector, thus necessitating the need for policy framework to provide a clear guidance for sustainable mineral resources development.²⁹

The Policy was therefore put in place to address gaps that have existed in the mining sector, form the basis for review of the outdated Mining Act of 1940 and align the industry’s strategic direction with African Mining Vision, Vision 2030 and Constitutional Provisions. The overall goal of the Mining and Minerals Policy is to set out frameworks, principles, and strategies to provide for exploration and exploitation of mineral resources for socio-economic development.³⁰

c) Mining Act, 2016

²⁵ See Article 260; and Section Five of the Constitution of Kenya 2010.

²⁶ Constitution of Kenya, Art. 69.

²⁷ Article 10(1), Constitution of Kenya.

²⁸ For instance, see *Cortec Mining Kenya Limited v Cabinet Secretary Ministry of Mining & 9 others* [2017] eKLR, Civil Appeal 105 of 2015.

²⁹ Republic of Kenya, *Mining and Minerals Policy, Sessional Paper No. 7 of 2016*, p. 1.

³⁰ *Ibid*, p.7.

To realise the vision of hope and growth in the mining sector, the *Mining Act 2016*³¹ was enacted to give effect to Articles 60, 62b (1) (f), 66 (2), 69 and 71 of the Constitution in so far as they apply to minerals; provide for prospecting, mining, processing, refining, treatment, transport and any dealings in minerals and for related purposes.³² The Act came about as a result and part of implementation of the *Mining and Minerals Policy, Sessional Paper No. 7 of 2016*.

Notably, the Cabinet Secretary is empowered under the Act to make Regulations necessary or convenient for the proper administration and implementation of this Act.³³ As a result of this, the Cabinet Secretary responsible has since made some mining Regulations under the Act.

This section focuses generally on these Regulations and how the same can help in promotion and realisation of the country's dream of a vibrant mining sector that not only promotes national development but one that also benefits the local communities.

The Act is to apply to the minerals specified in the First Schedule³⁴. Notably, the Act does not apply to petroleum and hydrocarbon gases³⁵. The Act establishes a state mining corporation which shall be the investment arm of the national government in respect of minerals.³⁶ The Act also establishes the Mineral Rights Board whose functions include advising and giving recommendations, in writing, to the Cabinet Secretary on matters relating to mining activities and agreements.³⁷ In order to ease access to services, there is also established under the Act the Directorate of Mines; and the Directorate of Geological Survey, each directorate headed by a director.³⁸

The *Mining Act, 2016* has provisions covering various mining issues including but not limited to: mineral rights disputes relating to license and permits³⁹; structures for negotiating mineral agreements⁴⁰; terms and conditions for minimum activity and work programs, structure for payments⁴¹; and artisanal and small scale mining operations⁴².

³¹ Mining Act, No. 12 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.

³² Ibid, preamble.

³³ Mining Act, 2016, sec. 223.

³⁴ The classification of minerals under first schedule includes: A. Construction And Industrial Minerals; B. Precious stones; C. Precious Metal group; D. Semi-precious stones group; E. Base And Rare Metals Group; F. Fuel Mineral Group; and G. Gaseous Minerals.

³⁵ These fall under the domain of the *Energy Act, No. 1 of 2019*, Laws of Kenya; and *Petroleum Act, No. 2 of 2019*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁶ Mining Act, 2016, Sec. 22(1).

³⁷ Ibid, secs. 30 & 31.

³⁸ Mining Act, 2016, Sec. 17.

³⁹ Part ix—Surface Rights Compensation and Disputes (sections 151-157).

⁴⁰ Part Vii—Mineral Agreements (sections 117-142).

⁴¹ Part Xii—Financial Provisions (sections 182-190).

To operationalize some of these provisions, the Cabinet Secretary in charge of mining has since made Regulations covering the areas and matters in question. The next section casts a critical look at these Regulations.

d) Mining Regulations and Guidelines

i. Mining (Dealings in Minerals) Regulations, 2017

The *Mining (Dealings in Minerals) Regulations, 2017*⁴³ were enacted by the Cabinet Secretary for Mining in exercise of the powers conferred by sections 100 and 223 (I) of the Mining Act, 2016. Section 100 of the Act deals with the sale of minerals won by an artisanal miner. These Regulations are to apply to- the export of a mineral by a holder of a mining right, among others.⁴⁴ However, these Regulations are not to apply to the export and import of rough diamonds.⁴⁵

There have been numerous reported and unreported cases of illegal dealings in extraction and/or sale of minerals in the country. These Regulations were meant to curb this illegal business.⁴⁶

The Regulations, alongside the *Mining Act 2016*, were expected to provide more transparency and credibility for investors in solving issues affecting the mining sector in the country.⁴⁷ The Regulations have however achieved little, if anything, in curbing illegal trading in minerals. This is exemplified by the continued reports of smuggling of gold and other precious stones in and of the country.⁴⁸ Traders still find a way of bypassing these rules to continue with the illegal trading in raw mineral resources. Transparency in declaration of revenues is still lacking as far as mineral extraction and other dealings in Kenya are concerned. It is estimated that Africa is losing over \$60

⁴² Mining Act, 2016, Sections 92-100.

⁴³ Legal Notice No. 88, Kenya Subsidiary Legislation, 2017. Available at http://kenyalaw.org/kl/fileadmin/pdfdownloads/LegalNotices/2017/LN88_2017.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁴⁴ *Mining (Dealings in Minerals) Regulations, 2017*, Regulation 3(1).

⁴⁵ *Ibid*, Regulation 3(2).

⁴⁶ *Mining (Dealings in Minerals) Regulations, 2017*, Regulation 9(5).

⁴⁷ Ali, S., "Govt to make Nairobi a mineral trade hub," *Citizen Digital*, September 26, 2016. Available at <https://citizentv.co.ke/business/govt-to-make-nairobi-a-mineral-trade-hub-142856/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁴⁸ Otieno, R., "Government red tape killing mining sector, claims lobby," *Standard Digital*, 17th April, 2019. Available at <https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/business/article/2001321316/government-red-tape-killing-mining-sector-lobby> [Accessed on 8/7/2019]; Mnyamwezi, R., "Petroleum CS Munyes exposes minerals smuggling cartels," *Standard Digital*, 21st August, 2018. Available at <https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/article/2001292787/kenya-losing-billions-to-minerals-smuggling-cartels> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

billion annually due to the illicit mineral trade.⁴⁹ This is because, amongst other factors, most minerals and precious stones from the region are exported in raw form to processing centres in Asia, notably Hong Kong.⁵⁰

It is therefore unlikely that these Regulations alone, without the support of other security institutions across the region, will curb the illegal dealings in trade. There is a need to ensure that the taxation and royalties regime is regularized and that the same is friendly not only to the multinationals but also the artisanal miners in the country as an incentive to discourage them from dealing with illegal traders in and outside the country.

ii. Mining (Licence and Permit) Regulations, 2017

The *Mining (Licence and Permit) Regulations, 2017*⁵¹ were enacted by the Cabinet Secretary for Mining in exercise of the powers conferred by sections 12 (3), 153 (3) and 223 (2), (c), (d), (g), (j), (k) and (1) of the Mining Act, 2016. These Regulations are to apply to all mineral rights.⁵²

The *Mining (license and permit) Regulations 2017* (Clause 4) provides that all applications for mineral rights shall be made through the On Line Mining Cadastre (OMC) in order for them to be considered for grant.⁵³ Having an online application forum is a positive step towards establishing transparency as far as the application process is concerned so that regardless of whether one is a foreign or local investor, there is certainty on the process of seeking mining licenses and permits.

It is a commendable step that these Regulations seek to regulate, inter alia, small-scale mining or artisanal mining operations in line with the Mining Act 2016, by granting permits.⁵⁴ However, there is a need to ensure that the same are not used as a political tool in awarding permits for corrupt dealings in artisanal mining activities.

In addition, while the artisanal miners may smoothly get licences and permits (which will cost money to apply), there may be a funding challenge. It has been observed that acute cash shortage caused by poor linkages with the financial sectors of the economy is

⁴⁹ Senelwa, K., “Nairobi to process gold and gemstones at value addition centre,” *The East African*, Monday February 20 2017. Available at <https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/business/Nairobi-to-process-gold-and-gemstones/2560-3820176-n8dw6hz/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ *Mining (Licence and Permit) Regulations, 2017*, Legislative Supplement No. 40, Legal Notice No. 87, Laws of Kenya. Available at http://kenyalaw.org/kl/fileadmin/pdfdownloads/LegalNotices/2017/LN87_2017.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁵² *Mining (Licence and Permit) Regulations, 2017*, Regulation 3.

⁵³ *Mining (Licence and Permit) Regulations, 2017*, Regulation 4.

⁵⁴ Part ix — Artisanal Mining Permit.

one of the biggest impediments to the growth of the artisanal and small-scale mining sector.⁵⁵ This is mainly attributed to the fact that being a nascent, capital intense and high-risk sector, it is difficult for local banks to finance it. However, government intervention can go a long way in addressing the funding challenge.

It is therefore not enough to regulate licensing and permits relating to mining activities in the country, there is a need to create a level playing ground for the artisanal miners by creating a funding kitty to help them competitively carry out these mining activities. Such a kitty would be similar to those in other African countries whose artisanal and small scale mining sectors are doing well such as 2017 Nigeria's Ministry of Solid Minerals and Steel Development and the Bank of Industry of Nigeria's N5 billion fund to provide loans and bring the sector under a structured system; and Zimbabwe's gold fund introduced in 2016 through the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe.⁵⁶

iii. Mining (Work Programmes and Exploration Reports) Guidelines, 2017

The *Mining (Work Programmes and Exploration Reports) Guidelines, 2017*⁵⁷ were enacted by the Cabinet Secretary in exercise of the powers conferred by section 221 (1)⁵⁸ of the Mining Act, 2016. These Guidelines -provide guidance to applicants for, and holders of, reconnaissance licences, prospecting licences, prospecting permits and retention licences on how to prepare work programmes and exploration reports; and are to assist the Director of Geological Surveys to review work programmes and exploration reports that shall be submitted by applicants for or holders of mineral rights.⁵⁹

While these reports would go a long way in enhancing the right of access to information for the local people as far as the activities of the mining companies are concerned, there is no evidence of any such reports being made public since 2017 or even any being filed with the government agencies at all. There is therefore lacking in transparency and accountability from the mining companies in the country. As such, there is a need to ensure that these Regulations are not only enforced but also such reports should be made

⁵⁵ Komu, J., "Fund artisanal and small-scale mining," March 26, 2019. Available at <https://www.the-star.co.ke/opinion/columnists/2019-03-26-fund-artisanal-and-small-scale-mining/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁵⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁷ *Mining (Work Programmes and Exploration Reports) Guidelines, 2017*, Legal Notice No. 85 of 2017, Laws of Kenya. Available at http://kenyalaw.org/kl/fileadmin/pdfdownloads/LegalNotices/2017/LN85_2017.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁵⁸ 221. (1) The Cabinet Secretary may publish and disseminate manuals, codes or guidelines relating to large scale and small scale operations, including in relation to environmental matters.

⁵⁹ Clause 3, *Mining (Work Programmes and Exploration Reports) Guidelines, 2017*.

available to the public in light of the right of access to information as guaranteed under Article 35 of the Constitution of Kenya 2010 and Access to Information Act, 2016⁶⁰.

iv. Mining (State Participation) Regulations, 2017

The *Mining (State Participation) Regulations, 2017*⁶¹ were enacted by the Cabinet Secretary in exercise of Section 48(4)⁶² of the Mining Act, 2016. The purpose of these Regulations is to provide for State participation in prospecting or mining operations carried out by a holder of a mineral right.⁶³

These Regulations are to apply to all applicants and holders of any mineral right-which entitles the State to a ten percent free carried interest; where the State acquires any additional interest that may be agreed with the holder of a mining licence; and where the State enters into an agreement to participate in prospecting operations or activities under a prospecting licence held by a holder other than the National Mining Corporation.⁶⁴

In line with the Mining Act 2016, the Regulations reiterate that the National Mining Corporation shall on behalf of the State, be the investment arm of the National Government in respect of all prospecting or mining operations.⁶⁵

The direct interest and participation of the government, albeit through the National Mining Corporation is a positive step towards ensuring that the mining companies declare all the deposits and profits accrued as well as safeguarding the interests of local communities at all stages of mining activities. There has been past reported cases of non-disclosure and non-declaration by the mining companies in the country and this requires the government to have its own watchdog on the ground to curb the vice, hence the need for this Corporation.⁶⁶ The Corporation is also useful in promoting capacity building in the sector as far as exploration of minerals in the country is concerned.

The direct interest and participation of the government, albeit through the National Mining Corporation is a positive step towards ensuring that the mining companies declare all the deposits and profits accrued as well as safeguarding the interests of local communities at all stages of mining activities. This will hopefully do away with such

⁶⁰ Access to Information Act, No. 31 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.

⁶¹ *Mining (State Participation) Regulations, 2017*, Legal Notice No. 84 of 2017, Laws of Kenya.

⁶² (4) The Cabinet Secretary shall make regulations to provide for state participation in mining or prospecting operations between the Government and the holder of a mineral right.

⁶³ *Mining (State Participation) Regulations, 2017*, Regulation 3.

⁶⁴ *Ibid*, Regulation 4.

⁶⁵ *Ibid*, Regulation 5 (1).

⁶⁶ Sanga, B., "Auditor General reveals how mining companies under-declare tax dues," 25th Aug 2016. Available at

<https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/article/2000213275/auditor-general-reveals-how-mining-companies-under-declare-tax-dues> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

situations as the soda ash mining in Lake Magadi where the poverty and lack of investments in Magadi, after 100 years of exploitation of trona worth trillions of shillings, has been attributed to the lack of transparency in the governance of natural resources, corruption, and illegal outflows.⁶⁷

v. *Mining (Use of Local Goods and Services) Regulations, 2017*

The *Mining (Use of Local Goods and Services) Regulations, 2017*⁶⁸ were enacted by the Cabinet Secretary in exercise of the powers conferred by section 223(1) of the Mining Act, 2016. The purpose of these Regulations is to- promote job creation through the use of local expertise, goods and services, businesses and financing in the mining industry value chain and their retention in the country; and achieve the minimum local level and in-country spend for the provision of the goods and services in the mining industry value chain; among others.⁶⁹

The Regulations require that the holder of a licence, its contractors and sub-contractors shall, to the maximum extent possible, when purchasing goods and procuring services required with respect to operations or any-activity to be conducted under a licence, give first priority to- materials and goods made in Kenya; and services provided by citizens of Kenya or entities incorporated and operating in Kenya or owned and controlled by Kenyans: provided that such goods and services are equal in quality, quantity and price to, or better than, goods and services obtainable outside of Kenya.⁷⁰ Except as otherwise provided in the Act or under these Regulations, an application for a licence should not be granted unless, the applicant has submitted a procurement plan for the purchase of goods and services in Kenya to the Cabinet Secretary.⁷¹ The plan, if approved, shall form part of the conditions or obligations under the licence.⁷²

The mining sector in the country is expected to uplift the lives of its people by not only creating employment opportunities but also jobs through creating markets for local goods. One way of alleviating poverty in any mining region would be empowering the local people through creating markets for the locally produced goods and services.⁷³

⁶⁷ Kamau, J., "Magadi saga exposes the ugly side of capitalism," *Daily Nation*, Sunday April 21 2019. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/news/Magadi-saga-exposes-the-ugly-side-of-capitalism/1056-5080906-2eii8rz/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁶⁸ *Mining (Use of Local Goods and Services) Regulations, 2017*, Legal Notice No. 83 of 2017, Laws of Kenya.

⁶⁹ *Ibid*, Regulation 3.

⁷⁰ *Ibid*, Regulation 5.

⁷¹ *Ibid*, Regulation 6(1).

⁷² *Ibid*, Regulation 6(4).

⁷³ See generally, Musawenkosi, N., "Does mining alleviate or exacerbate poverty: Are local community grievances really 'Much Ado about Nothing'?" PhD diss., University of Cape Town, 2017. Available at

However, there is likely to arise a challenge in getting the mining sector players, both local and foreign, to abide by these rules. They are likely to bypass them on grounds of equality in quality, quantity and price to, or better than, goods and services obtainable outside of Kenya.

Considering that there are many factors (such as supply and demand, cost of raw materials, machinery, amongst others) that may influence the production cost of goods and services which may ultimately push up the price of these goods and services or worse compromise their quality, it is likely that the companies in question may use such loopholes to source for the same either from their home countries (for foreigners) or other cheaper and better quality goods from foreign countries for the locals. There are no public records or any other form of evidence thus far to indicate if the companies have complied with these Regulations or if indeed the Government, through the relevant ministry has sought to ensure compliance.

Implementing these Regulations may therefore call for the Government and other stakeholders to first address these challenges before local traders, service providers and communities can benefit from the legal framework.

vi. *Mining (Employment and Training) Regulations, 2017*

The *Mining (Employment and Training) Regulations, 2017*⁷⁴ were enacted by the Cabinet Secretary in exercise of powers conferred by sections 46(3)⁷⁵ and 223(1) of the Mining Act, 2016. The purpose of these Regulations is to- promote job creation through the use of local expertise in the mining industry, the entire mining value chain and to retain the requisite skills within the country; develop local capacities in the mining industry value chain through education, skills and technology transfer, research and development; and achieve the minimum local employment level and in-country spend across the entire mining industry value chain.⁷⁶

These Regulations shall apply to all applicants and holders, of any licence for- reconnaissance, prospecting and mining; cutting, polishing, processing, refining and smelting of a mineral; a large-scale mineral right which is valid after the coming into force of the Act and these Regulations; and mine support services.⁷⁷ An application for

https://open.uct.ac.za/bitstream/handle/11427/24930/thesis_com_2017_nxele_musawenkosi.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Pegg, S., "Mining and poverty reduction: Transforming rhetoric into reality," *Journal of cleaner production*, Vol.14, no. 3-4 (2006): 376-387.

⁷⁴ *Mining (Employment and Training) Regulations, 2017*, Legal Notice No. 82, Laws of Kenya.

⁷⁵ (3) The Cabinet Secretary shall make regulations to provide for the replacement of expatriates, the number of years such expatriates shall serve and provide for collaboration and linkage with universities and research institutions to train citizens.

⁷⁶ *Mining (Employment and Training) Regulations, 2017*, Regulation 3.

⁷⁷ *Ibid*, Regulation 4.

any licence shall not be granted by the Cabinet Secretary-unless the applicant has submitted a plan outlining the proposals for the employment and training of Kenyans.⁷⁸

While these Regulations are well meaning and geared towards ensuring that the mining sector creates jobs, employment and results in specialized training for the Kenyan people, it is based on the assumption that locals have some base knowledge that can be built on to achieve the level of expertise required in the execution of the corresponding duties within the industry. Exclusive reliance on the foreigners to create expertise through technology transfer may not yield the desired results.

There is need for the government to do much more through the local institutions of higher learning through sponsoring courses to build capacity and even having the students/professionals taking such courses leaving the country for specialized training and to gain experience. Such candidates would then be ripe to learn more through any exchange and technology transfer programmes set up under the Mining (*Employment and Training*) Regulations, 2017. There is a need to ensure that the jobs offered are not only menial in nature since, left unsupervised, the foreign companies may not be willing to place local experts in critical positions within the entire mining value chain as required by the law. The Government must offer technical and financial support to its people in order to uplift them to levels where they can competitively take up key positions in the mining sector and specifically represent the interests of the Government and the country at large within these companies.

The lack of proper guidelines or failure to implement any existing regulations and guidelines can lead to conflicts as has been witnessed in other African countries such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, where the locals feel sidelined as far as mining benefits sharing is concerned.⁷⁹ For instance, there have been queries on how to manage expectations of the local people living within the mining areas in order to avert possible conflicts in future.⁸⁰ There is a need for ensuring that the constitutional principles of

⁷⁸ Ibid, Regulation 5 (1).

⁷⁹ Matthysen, K., Montejano, A. Z., & International Peace Information Service (Antwerp), *'Conflict Minerals' initiatives in DR Congo: Perceptions of local mining communities*. Antwerp: International Peace Information Service, 2013. Available at https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/20131112_HU.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Zalan, K., "Tracing conflict gold in the Democratic Republic of the Congo," Public Radio International, June 23, 2017. Available at <https://www.pri.org/stories/2017-06-23/tracing-conflict-gold-democratic-republic-congo> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; BSR, "Conflict Minerals and the Democratic Republic of Congo: Responsible Action in Supply Chains, Government Engagement and Capacity Building," May 2010. Available at https://www.bsr.org/reports/BSR_Conflict_Minerals_and_the_DRC.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁸⁰ Masinde, J., "Are Kwale residents expecting too much?" *Daily Nation*, Tuesday February 12 2013. Available at

public participation, inclusive decision-making, environmental protection and conservation, respect for human rights and respect for occupational health and safety are taken into account when engaging investors in the mining sector in order to avoid any potential conflicts as well as ensuring that these natural resources benefit communities as well.⁸¹

In addition, there are no publicly accessible records to indicate the level of compliance for the existing mining companies in the country. Accountability and transparency are listed under Article 10(2) (c) of the Constitution, as “national values and principles of governance”.

vii. Mining (Use of Assets) Regulations, 2017

The *Mining (Use of Assets) Regulations, 2017*⁸² were enacted by the Cabinet Secretary in exercise of the powers conferred by Section 149(6)⁸³ of the Mining Act, 2016. These Regulations shall apply to holders of mining licences requiring them to maintain a complete, up to date and accurate register of all its immovable and movable assets.⁸⁴

These regulations, if fully enforced, can be a useful tool in fighting corruption and tax evasion by the mining companies as they seek to promote accountability and transparency on the income and expenses incurred by these companies. These Regulations, alongside other transparency and accountability measures and practices are useful for developing countries such as Kenya, where non-declaration or under declaration of profits by the multinationals has been happening. They can however work well where the authorities involved work with different stakeholders such as the revenue collecting agencies to get the actual figures.

5.3 Regulating the Extractives Industry in Kenya: Challenges and Prospects

<https://www.nation.co.ke/lifestyle/smartcompany/Are-Kwale-residents-expecting-too-much/1226-1690904-nb7rqyz/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Mulehi, A., “How it looks to live near mining sites – Kwale,” (Natural Resources Alliance of Kenya, Oct 17, 2018). Available at <https://kenra.or.ke/how-it-looks-like-to-live-near-mining-sites-kwale/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁸¹ *Rodgers Muema Nzioka & 2 others v Tiomin Kenya Limited* [2001] eKLR, Civil Case 97 of 2001; *Mui Coal Basin Local Community & 15 others v Permanent Secretary Ministry of Energy & 17 others* [2015] eKLR, Constitutional Petition Nos 305 of 2012, 34 of 2013 & 12 of 2014 (Formerly Nairobi Constitutional Petition 43 of 2014) (Consolidated); *In the Matter of the National Land Commission* [2015] eKLR, Advisory Opinion Reference 2 of 2014.

⁸² *Mining (Use of Assets) Regulations, 2017*, Legal Notice No. 80 of 2017, Laws of Kenya.

⁸³ The Cabinet Secretary shall prescribe Regulations on the use of the assets.

⁸⁴ *Mining (Use of Assets) Regulations, 2017*, Regulations 3 & 4.

5.3.1 The Mining Sector in Kenya

It is estimated that Africa hosts 30% of the earth's mineral reserves, including 40% of gold, 60% of cobalt, and 70% of platinum deposits, and produce about 30% of the world's gold, 70% of the world's platinum, 28% of the world's palladium, and 16% of the world's bauxite.⁸⁵ In addition, Africa also produces (yearly, in thousand metric tons) 205,056 of hard coal, 67,308 of nickel-bearing ores, and 29,174 of iron bearing ores, as well as 595,507 kg of gold-bearing ores.⁸⁶ The extractive or mining industries generally have long been touted as key to anchor 'development' or 'economic growth' to alleviate poverty in developing countries.⁸⁷

Despite this, African countries have largely exhibited low levels of development and poor standards of living.⁸⁸ This has been attributed to various factors including exploitative multinational corporations, lack of expertise and corruption, and African countries negotiating unfavourable mining development agreements, with the result that the Continent has received inadequate returns for its mineral wealth.⁸⁹

At the continental level, the *Africa Mining Vision*⁹⁰ is expected to address most of these challenges if not all. Despite this Vision document, most of the African countries still struggle with making the mineral resources work for them, in uplifting the lives of their people.⁹¹

⁸⁵ Abuya, W.O., "Mining Conflicts and Corporate Social Responsibility in Kenya's Nascent Mining Industry: A Call for Legislation," In *Social Responsibility*, IntechOpen, 2018, pp. 61-81, at p.63. Available at <https://www.intechopen.com/books/social-responsibility/mining-conflicts-and-corporate-social-responsibility-in-kenya-s-nascent-mining-industry-a-call-for-1> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁸⁶ Ibid, p.63.

⁸⁷ Murombo, T., "Regulating mining in South Africa and Zimbabwe: Communities, the environment and perpetual exploitation," *Law Env't & Dev. J.*, 9 (2013): 31, at p.33.

⁸⁸ African Union, *Assessment of the Mining Policies and Regulatory Frameworks in the East African Community for Alignment with the Africa Mining Vision*, p. 2. Available at <https://repository.uneca.org/bitstream/handle/10855/23538/b11580379.pdf?sequence=1> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁸⁹ Ibid, p.2; Ezekwe sili, O.K., "Harnessing Africa's natural resources to fight poverty," *Daily Nation*, Wednesday April 15 2009. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/oped/opinion/440808-560566-gnl8o6z/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁹⁰ African Union, *Africa Mining Vision: "Transparent, equitable and optimal exploitation of mineral resources to underpin broad-based sustainable growth and socio-economic development"*, (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), February, 2009). Available at https://www.uneca.org/sites/default/files/PublicationFiles/africa_mining_vision_english.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁹¹ See generally, Abuya, W.O., "Mining Conflicts and Corporate Social Responsibility in Kenya's Nascent Mining Industry: A Call for Legislation," In *Social Responsibility*, IntechOpen, 2018; African Union, *Assessment of the Mining Policies and Regulatory Frameworks in the East African Community for Alignment with the Africa Mining Vision*, op cit.; Kimani, M., "Mining to profit Africa's people," *Africa Renewal* 23, no. 1 (2009): 4-5; Bush, R., "Conclusion: mining, dispossession, and transformation in Africa," In *Zambia, mining, and neoliberalism*, pp. 237-268. Palgrave Macmillan, New York, 2010. Available at https://www.sahistory.org.za/sites/default/files/file%20uploads%20/alastair_fraser_miles_larmer_zambia_mining_anbook4you.pdf#page=260 [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Murombo, T., "Regulating mining in

Kenya is no exception as it has a number of mineral deposits albeit in smaller amounts, which, as already pointed out, have not contributed much to the country's GDP as would be expected. The communities are also yet to boast of any significant benefits from the mining activities going on within their regions.⁹²

Notably, GDP from Mining in Kenya is estimated to have increased to 12527 KES Million in the fourth quarter of 2018 from 12313 KES Million in the third quarter of 2018. GDP from Mining in Kenya averaged 8963.05 KES Million from 2009 until 2018, reaching an all-time high of 12906 KES Million in the first quarter of 2018 and a record low of 4195 KES Million in the first quarter of 2009.⁹³ According to the *Mining and Minerals Policy, Sessional Paper No. 7 of 2016*, as at 2016, the sector was contributing 0.8 percent to gross domestic product (GDP) per annum. The contribution to GDP was expected to increase to three (3) percent by 2017 and ten (10) percent by 2030 according to the Medium Term Plan (MTP) II (2013-2017).⁹⁴

While these statistics paint a hopeful picture with the figures increasing over the last ten years, there is still a lot of room for not only growth in these figures but also positive contribution of the mining sector to the lives of the ordinary citizens especially those to be found within the localities where such mining takes place. Indeed, the discovery of such minerals as the titanium deposits products in the Coastal region gives hope to the expectation of a brighter future for the sector and country at large.⁹⁵ Reserves for Titanium and Niobium, both found in the Coast region, are projected to be worth Sh9

South Africa and Zimbabwe: Communities, the environment and perpetual exploitation," *Law Env't & Dev. J.* 9 (2013): 31.

⁹² Ndemo, B., "Kenya's mineral resources could pull millions out of poverty," *Daily Nation*, Monday June 24 2019. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/oped/blogs/dot9/ndemo/2274486-5169428-990fwj/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Economic and Social Rights Centre (Hakijamii) (Kenya), *Titanium mining benefit sharing in Kwale County: HAKIJAMII comprehensive analysis of the law and practice in the context of Nguluku and Bwiti*, September, 2017. Available at <http://www.hakijamii.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/Titanium-mining-benefit-sharing.pdf> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; cf. Base Titanium, "Response to Hakijamii's Draft Report on Base Titanium's Impacts on the Community," 25th August, 2017. Available at https://www.business-humanrights.org/sites/default/files/documents/Hakijamii%20Base%20Response%20Final%20-%202017%2008%2028_0.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; see also Masinde, J., "Are Kwale residents expecting too much?" *Daily Nation*, Tuesday February 12 2013. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/lifestyle/smartcompany/Are-Kwale-residents-expecting-too-much/1226-1690904-nb7rqyz/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁹³ Trading Economics, "Kenya GDP from Mining," available at <https://tradingeconomics.com/kenya/gdp-from-mining> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁹⁴ Republic of Kenya, *Mining and Minerals Policy, Sessional Paper No. 7 of 2016*, p. 1. Available at http://www.mining.go.ke/images/PUBLISHED_MINING_POLICY_-_Parliament_final_.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁹⁵ Michira, M., "The billions buried under Kenyan soil," 2nd May, 2017. Available at <https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/business/article/2001238312/the-billions-buried-under-kenyan-soil> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

trillion, and Sh3.8 trillion for the estimated 750 million barrels, according to Tullow Oil's 2017 projections.⁹⁶

As already stated, there are Regulations that were made by the Cabinet Secretary seeking to ensure that the mining activities do not only go on smoothly but also that they benefit the local communities even as they contribute to the national development agenda. These Regulations are meant to streamline the mining sector in the country by ensuring that some of the main provisions in the Mining Act 2016 are fully and efficiently implemented. Notably, some of these Regulations such as the *Mining (Use of Local Goods and Services) Regulations, 2017*; *Mining (Employment and Training) Regulations, 2017* are meant to directly empower the local communities by promoting job creation and market for locally produced goods.

While these Regulations mean well for the local communities and local industries, a lot still needs to be done to ensure that the environment favours the implementation of such Regulations. For instance, the Regulations on use of local goods and services require that the holder of a licence, its contractors and sub-contractors shall, to the maximum extent possible, when purchasing goods and procuring services required with respect to operations or any-activity to be conducted under a licence, give first priority to- materials and goods made in Kenya; and services provided by citizens of Kenya or entities incorporated and operating in Kenya or owned and controlled by Kenyans: *provided that such goods and services are equal in quality, quantity and price to, or better than, goods and services obtainable outside of Kenya.*⁹⁷ This proviso stands to defeat the purpose of these Regulations because, as it may be proved through statistics, there are many factors of production that may, and have indeed, been making locally produced goods more expensive when compared to imported ones. Thus, as long as investors can prove that they can source such goods and/or services at more competitive prices or those with better quality, they will easily bypass the requirements of these Regulations. The manufacturing sector and other factors affecting the local production of goods and services may thus need to be fixed before these Regulations can effectively be implemented.

Unless capacity is built across all stages of mineral extraction right from minerals agreements' negotiations all the way to the actual extraction of these resources, then Africa, including Kenya, will continue to lag behind in development despite its rich deposits in minerals.

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ *Mining (Use of Local Goods and Services) Regulations, 2017*, Regulation 5.

5.3.2 Oil and Gas sector in Kenya

Kenya's oil and gas sector is a nascent one with the actual discovery of oil and gas reserves having been made only in the year 2012 after many years of exploration.⁹⁸ The UK-based Tullow Oil, in partnership with Africa Oil, a Canadian oil and gas company, made discoveries in two separate blocks of the Lokichar Basin in the sparsely populated northern interior.⁹⁹

The oil and gas sector is mainly governed by the Petroleum Act, 2019¹⁰⁰ which was enacted to provide a framework for the contracting, exploration, development and production of petroleum; cessation of upstream petroleum operations; to give effect to relevant articles of the Constitution in so far as they apply to upstream petroleum operations, regulation of midstream and downstream petroleum operations; and for connected purposes.¹⁰¹ The 2019 Act came into effect on 28 March 2019, repealing the Petroleum (Exploration and Production) Act of 1984. The Act is to apply to all upstream, midstream and downstream petroleum operations being carried out in Kenya.¹⁰²

The Act empowers the Cabinet Secretary to negotiate, award and execute a petroleum agreement, on behalf of the national government, in the form prescribed in the Schedule to the Act.¹⁰³ The Act requires the contractor to submit to the Authority reports on— all geological, geochemical, geophysical surveys, drilling, completion and production data and any other information in accordance with the petroleum agreement and regulations made under this Act; the rates and volume of petroleum produced, its composition including test production and the recovery of petroleum in connection with formation testing; the volumes and other results of production monitoring as well as monitoring procedure; and the use, injection, venting and flaring of natural gas or petroleum which information shall be based on metering.¹⁰⁴

⁹⁸ National Oil, "Wells Drilled," available at <https://nationaloil.co.ke/wells-drilled/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

⁹⁹ Oxford business Group, "Kenya sees increased oil and gas reserves, and a shift in energy consumption," available at <https://oxfordbusinessgroup.com/overview/supply-and-demand-market-factors-seem-rise-tandem-increased-reserve-findings-and-growing-domestic> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁰⁰ Petroleum Act, Act No. 2 of 2019, Laws of Kenya.

¹⁰¹ *Ibid*, Preamble.

¹⁰² Sec. 3, Petroleum Act, 2019.

¹⁰³ Sec. 18, Petroleum Act, 2019.

¹⁰⁴ Sec. 45, Petroleum Act, 2019.

However, information obtained under section 45 relating to any matter shall not be published or otherwise disclosed to a third party without prior consent in writing from the person from whom the information was obtained.¹⁰⁵

Under the Act, it is the duty of every contractor to furnish the Cabinet Secretary and the Authority as the case may be at such times and in such form and manner, such information as the Cabinet Secretary and the Authority may in writing require.¹⁰⁶ A person who refuses to furnish the information requested under section 47 or who makes a false statement or a statement which he has reason to believe is untrue, to the Cabinet Secretary, and to the Authority, as required under this Act, commits an offence and shall, on conviction, be liable to a fine of not less than twenty million shillings or to a term of imprisonment of not less than five years or both.¹⁰⁷

The disclosure of information is a requirement for all stages namely upstream, midstream and downstream. The *Petroleum Act 2019* also has local content requirements on petroleum operations meant to create jobs and requiring the procurement of locally available goods and services.¹⁰⁸ However, the cost of such local content should be at the prevailing market rate. This is aimed at encouraging the procurement of local content, while ensuring that projects remain fiscally viable.

The Act provides that the contractor shall comply with financial and fiscal obligations in the implementation of the petroleum agreement under this Act and any other written law.¹⁰⁹ They are to pay to the National Government all taxes, relevant fees and levies in such manner as may be prescribed by both the petroleum agreement and any other relevant laws.¹¹⁰

The Act also provides for revenue sharing among the National Government, county governments and the local communities.¹¹¹ The *Petroleum Act, 2019* also includes a Model Production Sharing Contract ("Model PSC")¹¹² to be used by the Cabinet Secretary when entering into a petroleum agreement.¹¹³ The Act defines the specific minimum contents of the model PSC.¹¹⁴

¹⁰⁵ Ibid, Sec. 46.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid, Sec. 47.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid, Sec. 48.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid, Sec. 50.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid, Sec. 53(1).

¹¹⁰ Sec. 53(2), Petroleum Act, 2019.

¹¹¹ Sec. 57 & 58, Petroleum Act, 2019.

¹¹² https://www.ketraco.co.ke/opencms/export/sites/ketraco/learn/maps/Legal_Documents/Model_PSC_2015.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹¹³ Schedule to the Act.

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

Notably, some of the provisions in this Act seek to address issues similar to those that fall under the concern of EITI.

5.4 Promoting Open and Accountable Management of Extractives in Kenya: Implementing the Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative

5.4.1 Introduction

Extractive Industries is a term that is often used to describe nonrenewable resources, such as oil, gas and minerals.¹¹⁵ It is estimated that Africa alone is home to about 30% of the world's mineral reserves, 10% of the world's oil, and 8% of the world's natural gas.¹¹⁶ Over the years, and with the recognition of the potentially positive and negative effects of the extractives, there has been an evolution at the international level to establish hard and soft rules to govern the impacts of the extractive industries.¹¹⁷

The extractives sector comes with not only high hopes for the average citizen in a country but also emergence of groups of people and cartels that seek to exclusively benefit from such resources at the expense of everyone else. This may lead to conflicts due to the secrecy surrounding their extraction and lack of accountability from the government and companies involved in the extraction activities.¹¹⁸ Some of the identified main drivers of extractive industries-related conflicts causes are: poor engagement of communities and stakeholders; inadequate benefit-sharing; excessive impact on the economy, society and the environment; mismanagement of funds and financing war; inadequate institutional and legal framework; and Unwillingness to address the natural resources question in peace agreements.¹¹⁹

In the last few years, Kenya has joined the list of countries with oil and gas extractives after the discovery of oil and gas deposits in the Turkana region.¹²⁰ Apart from the oil

¹¹⁵ United Nations Interagency Framework Team for Preventive Action, "Extractive Industries and Conflict," *Toolkit And Guidance For Preventing And Managing Land And Natural Resources Conflict*, 2012, p.6. Available at https://www.un.org/en/land-natural-resources-conflict/pdfs/GN_Extractive.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹¹⁶ The World Bank, "Extractive Industries: Overview," available at <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/extractiveindustries/overview> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹¹⁷ Van Alstine, J., "Transparency in resource governance: The pitfalls and potential of "new oil" in Sub-Saharan Africa," *Global Environmental Politics* 14, no. 1 (2014): 20-39, at p. 20.

¹¹⁸ United Nations Interagency Framework Team for Preventive Action, "Extractive Industries and Conflict," *Toolkit And Guidance For Preventing And Managing Land And Natural Resources Conflict*, 2012. Available at https://www.un.org/en/land-natural-resources-conflict/pdfs/GN_Extractive.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹¹⁹ Ibid, p.7.

¹²⁰ Tullow Oil, "About Tullow in Kenya," available at <https://www.tulloil.com/operations/east-africa/kenya> [Accessed on

and gas resources, the other notable mining activities in the country include: Soda ash; magnesite; fluorspar; titanium; diatomite; gold; and carbon dioxide, among others.¹²¹

This section seeks to appraise Kenya's extractives industry against the Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative with the aim of determining how far the country has gone in achieving the ideals promoted by the initiative.

5.4.2 Extractives Industries Transparency Initiative: Background and Overview

The Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) is considered as an international hallmark of the efforts to promote better extractive-sector management and improved societal development in natural resource-rich countries.¹²²

This is meant to strengthen public and corporate governance, promote understanding of natural resource management, and provide the data to inform reforms for greater transparency and accountability in the extractives sector.¹²³

Currently, there are about 52 implementing countries, and the EITI is supported by a coalition of government, companies, and civil society.¹²⁴

Some authors have particularly recommended EITI for African countries involved in oil, gas and minerals extraction for the fact that the extractive industry sector and natural resources has been associated with a curse instead of a blessing for a lot of African countries and thus partly because of lack of transparency in the sector.¹²⁵ Experience in countries such as Norway, Canada, Botswana and Ghana points to the fact that extractives can be effectively managed to contribute to sustainable economic growth. However, in other parts of the world including Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), South Sudan, and the Central African Republic (CAR), there is evidence to suggest that extractives if not well managed can be a curse leading to conflict.¹²⁶

16/1/2020]; United Nations, "Greasing the wheels of Kenya's nascent oil and gas sector," 18 July, 2018, available at <https://www.unenvironment.org/news-and-stories/story/greasing-wheels-kenyas-nascent-oil-and-gas-sector> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹²¹ Extractives Baraza, "Mining: History of Mining in Kenya," available at <https://extractives-baraza.com/resources/overview-of-kenyas-extractive-industry/mining/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹²² Lujala, P., "An analysis of the Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative implementation process," *World Development* 107 (2018): 358-381 at p. 358.

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ Ibid.

¹²⁵ Open Government Partnership, "Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative (EITI)," 18th June 2018. Available at <https://www.opengovpartnership.org/temp-commitments/05-extractive-industry-transparency-initiative-eiti/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹²⁶ Oiro Omolo, M.W. & Mwabu, G., (eds), *A Primer to the Emerging Extractive sector in Kenya: resource bliss, Dilemma or Curse*, (Institute of Economic Affairs, November 2014), p.2. Available at www.ieakenya.or.ke/downloads.php?page=1487576975.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

According to the proponents, to make sure that revenue from the industry contributes to sustainable development, there is need for a tool that tracks revenue collection and where such revenue goes. EITI is considered to be such a tool as it provides information to different stakeholders and citizens.¹²⁷ This is because, availability of information on revenue transparency will help citizens appreciate how much money the government receives from the sector and how that money contributes to national budget and translating to service delivery.¹²⁸

The EITI is based on a number of principles which were a result of a diverse group of countries, companies and civil society organisations who attended the Lancaster House Conference in London (2003) hosted by the Government of the United Kingdom. They agreed on a Statement of Principles to increase transparency over payments and revenues in the extractive sector.¹²⁹

Of relevance to this section is the requirement that the government should issue an unequivocal public statement of its intention to implement the EITI. The statement must be made by the head of state or government, or an appropriately delegated government representative.¹³⁰ It is not an easy task to achieve as noted in reference to the experience of other implementing jurisdictions. For instance, despite support and effort put into implementation of the EITI Standard, it has been noted that many participating countries are slow to fully implement it. Some countries, such as Guinea, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), and Kazakhstan, took almost a decade after having officially committed to implementing the EITI Standard before becoming fully compliant members.¹³¹ In fact, in some countries, attempts at EITI implementation have totally failed. Such was the case in Bolivia where the interest failed even before the commitment stage since EITI was seen as a neoliberal instrument and thus not in accord with the ideological position of the government.¹³²

5.4.3 Accountability and Transparency in Benefit Sharing: Avoiding the Resource Curse

a. The Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing) Bill, 2018

¹²⁷ Open Government Partnership, "Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative (EITI)," 18th June 2018.

¹²⁸ Ibid.

¹²⁹ EITI International Secretariat, "The EITI Standard 2019: The Global Standard for the Good Governance of Oil, Gas and Mineral Resources," Edition 1, 17 June 2019, p.6. Available at https://eiti.org/sites/default/files/documents/eiti_standard2019_a4_en.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹³⁰ Ibid, p.9.

¹³¹ Lujala, P., "An analysis of the Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative implementation process," *World Development* 107 (2018): 358-381 at p. 358.

¹³² Ibid.

The *Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing) Bill, 2018*¹³³ seeks to establish a system of benefit sharing in resource exploitation between resource exploiters, the national government, county governments and local communities; and for connected purposes. The proposed legislation essentially seeks to provide a legislative framework for the establishment and enforcement of a system of benefit sharing in natural resource exploitation between natural resource exploiters, the national government, county governments and local communities and designates the Commission for Revenue Allocation to oversee the same.¹³⁴

Notably, the legislation shall apply to the following natural resources— sunlight; water resources; forests, biodiversity and genetic resources; wildlife resources; industrial fishing; and wind.¹³⁵

The legislation, if enacted, will also amend the Mining Act 2016 by amending section 83 thereof in order to review the royalties payable.¹³⁶

While the pending legislation will have a wide application and touching on the various types of natural resources, it is worth pointing out that the suggested amendment on the mining Act 2016 will have a huge bearing on the proceeds of mining activities in the country, if passed. The same seeks to ensure that all the interested stakeholders will have a share of the accruing benefits. The Bill has been pending for over five years due to the contentious issue of benefit sharing between national and county governments, amongst other issues.

The Benefit Sharing Bill addresses some important aspects and as pointed out in the *Africa Mining Vision 2009*, the state's ability to optimise the leasing (licensing) of its natural resource assets is concentrated at the outset (conclusion of the exploitation contract) as it is difficult to fundamentally renegotiate contracts at a later stage without sending negative signals to investors on the certainty of contracts, with resulting increased negative investment risk perceptions.¹³⁷ The Mining Vision thus recommends that it is therefore important to identify all the critical resource linkages at the outset (in the resource exploitation contract/lease/license), even if the local economy is not yet in a position to take advantage of such opportunities.¹³⁸

These are some of the issues that the country's legislative and institutional framework on extractives is trying to capture through enactment of laws and regulations. However,

¹³³ Kenya Gazette Supplement No.130 (Senate Bills No.31).

¹³⁴ Memorandum of Objects and Reasons, Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing) Bill, 2018.

¹³⁵ Clause 3, Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing) Bill, 2018.

¹³⁶ Clause 19, Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing) Bill, 2018.

¹³⁷ African Union, *Africa Mining Vision 2009*, p.17. Available at https://au.int/sites/default/files/documents/30995-doc-africa_mining_vision_english_1.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹³⁸ Ibid.

despite such efforts, implementation of these laws and regulations is doubtful. For instance, while there are regulations seeking to empower the local people on the extractives by equipping them with skills and expertise for technology transfer, there have been damning reports that the government agencies responsible for overseeing this are not carrying out their mandate.

Kenya's Petroleum Ministry is on the spot for failing to utilize millions of shillings set aside for training Kenyans on petroleum operations despite the country facing a severe skills shortage.¹³⁹

Empirical studies by other scholars have concluded that good institutional governance - specifically, a strong public voice with accountability, strong political stability, good regulations, and powerful anticorruption policies tend to conduce a positive relationship between natural resource richness and economic development.¹⁴⁰

This is even clearer in the case of Nigeria where it has been reported that, despite the enactment of various acts, the culture of impunity and corruption has continued to occupy the country's oil industry and poverty reduction remains elusive.¹⁴¹ However, this does not mean that Nigeria is not an implementing country of EITI. In 2019, Nigeria was rated as having made satisfactory progress overall with implementing the EITI Standard.¹⁴² Notably, the EITI Board points out that even if a country is found making satisfactory or meaningful progress, it does not indicate whether there is corruption in the country or not. It simply means that the country has put into practice significant aspects of all EITI Requirements and thus has sufficient mechanisms of public disclosure of natural resources.¹⁴³ EITI membership and implementation alone is not enough.

As already pointed out above, the issues affecting the extractives sector in Kenya are therefore not only limited to those related to modes of benefit sharing. There has been a

¹³⁹ Tubei, G., "Kenya's Petroleum Ministry is on the spot for failing to utilize millions meant for training Kenyans on Petroleum operations despite massive skills shortage," *Business Insider*, July 16, 2019. Available at <https://www.pulselive.co.ke/bi/finance/millions-meant-for-training-kenyans-on-petroleum-operations-gather-dust-in-local/384gf52> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁴⁰ Zeynalov, A., "Do Sufficient Institutions Alter the Relationship between Natural Resources And Economic Growth?" *MPRA Paper* 46850 (2013), at p. 11. Available at https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2413867 [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁴¹ Poncian, J., & Kigodi, H. M., "Transparency initiatives and Tanzania's extractive industry governance," *Development Studies Research* 5, no. 1 (2018): 106-121, p. 108.

¹⁴² EITI, "The Board agreed that Nigeria has made satisfactory progress overall with implementing the EITI Standard," 27.02.2019; Reference: 2019-20/BP-42. Available at <https://eiti.org/BD/2019-20> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁴³ EITI, "How We Work," <https://eiti.org/about/how-we-work#upholding-the-standard-internationally-validation>

general lack of openness, transparency and accountability as far as the mining activities are concerned.¹⁴⁴

Such situations may have informed the provisions in the *Petroleum Act 2019* which provides under section 49 (5) that any contract is a public document and the Government shall have the right to publish and keep it publicly available. Despite this forward looking and commendable provision on accountability and transparency, we are yet to see the publication of such contracts touching on oil and gas agreements in the country.¹⁴⁵ It is estimated that so far, out of the 44 Production Sharing Contracts signed by the government of Kenya, only 10 have been publicised.¹⁴⁶ In addition, as far as accessibility of information is concerned, it has been observed that the government of Kenya maintains an open data portal and has to some extent availed information on it on some of the ongoing projects. However, key information regarding fiscal terms, negotiations and payments is missing on the sites.¹⁴⁷ While there are many legal and regulatory framework covering contracts, exploration and production, it has rightly been pointed out that the legal framework on revenue collection, revenue allocation and social and economic spending is skeletal at best or is completely non-existent.¹⁴⁸ In addition, the inclusion and involvement of civil societies, non-governmental organisations and other stakeholders in the transparency and accountability framework is also missing as part of independent oversight across the value chain.¹⁴⁹

Transparency through public disclosure of the Production Sharing Agreements and other contracts that the government has signed with mining, oil and gas companies builds citizen confidence in the institutions overseeing the governance of the sector and assists in managing expectations.¹⁵⁰ In addition, mining, oil and gas resources are owned by the

¹⁴⁴ Wahome, M., “Kenya denies IMF access to secret mining agreements,” *Business Daily*, Sunday, July 21, 2013. Available at

<https://www.businessdailyafrica.com/economy/Kenya-denies-IMF-access-to-secret-mining-agreements/3946234-1922406-qjn73nz/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Jamah, A., “Stakeholders blame ‘secrecy clause’ to graft in Kenya mining sector,” *Standard Digital*, 19th Oct 2013. Available at <https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/article/2000095810/stakeholders-blame-secrecy-clause-to-graft-in-kenya-mining-sector> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁴⁵ See generally, Odote, C., “Release information on all extractives,” *Business Daily*, Sunday, June 30, 2019. Available at

<https://www.businessdailyafrica.com/analysis/columnists/Release-information-on-all-extractives/4259356-5177330-vwfkao/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁴⁶ Kidunduhu, N., Transparency keeps resource curse at bay, *Business Daily*, Wednesday, August 7, 2019. Available at <https://www.businessdailyafrica.com/analysis/ideas/Transparency-keeps-resource-curse-at-bay/4259414-5227226-13y169t/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁴⁷ Ibid.

¹⁴⁸ Ibid.

¹⁴⁹ Ibid.

¹⁵⁰ Makore, G., “Kenya’s New Government and Imperatives for Extractives Governance Reform,” *Oxfam*, Wednesday, Feb 14, 2018. Available at <https://kenya.oxfam.org/latest/blogs/kenya%E2%80%99s-new-government-and-imperatives-extractives-governance-reform> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

citizens and are merely managed in trust by the government. Citizens, therefore, have a right to information regarding how their resources are managed.¹⁵¹ Transparency initiatives in the extractive industries have also made it possible for governments and citizens to engage in the governance of the sector where some governments such as Liberia, Sao Tome, Nigeria, Mongolia, and Ghana have used the EITI to either engage citizens in policy dialogue about resource utilization or governance issues of the extractive industries.¹⁵²

5.5 Kenya's Extractives Industry: Achieving the Dream

The extractives industry in Kenya holds high hopes for the Kenyan people with not only increased revenues but also lowered cost of living as the prices of petroleum products have a significant effect on the cost of essential commodities in the country.¹⁵³ Some of the mechanisms that are meant to enhance the economies of the national, county governments and communities through benefit sharing include but not limited to: direct investment in projects that benefit the people, jobs and employment creation and technology transfer amongst others. Notably, this is in line with one of the EITI principles that the prudent use of natural resource wealth should be an important engine for sustainable economic growth that contributes to sustainable development and poverty reduction.

In recognition of the fact that the benefits of resource extraction occur as revenue streams over many years and can be highly price dependent, the current legislation seeks to peg revenue sharing on the profits accrued.¹⁵⁴

There is hardly any publicly available information on the important aspects that shed light on the status of the revenues from the extractives industry. Its only recently when the President mentioned that the first batch of oil had been exported, and there was mention of the amount exported or its value.¹⁵⁵ The details of such deals remain few.

In a bid to achieve greater transparency, Kenya needs to reconsider its stand on the EITI. Adopting and enforcing the EITI principles on financial transparency may bring greater levels of practice of accountability by government to all citizens for the stewardship of revenue streams and public expenditure as well as the companies or contractors

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

¹⁵² Poncian, J., & Kigodi, H. M., "Transparency initiatives and Tanzania's extractive industry governance," *Development Studies Research* 5, no. 1 (2018): 106-121, p. 109.

¹⁵³ Munyua, J., & Ragui, M., "Drivers of instability in prices of petroleum products in Kenya," *Prime Journal of Business Administration and Management (BAM)* 3, no. 3 (2013): 919-926.

¹⁵⁴ Petroleum Act 2019, sec. 36-39.

¹⁵⁵ Presidential Strategic Communication Unit, "Kenya in Sh1.3bn oil export deal," *Daily Nation*, Thursday, August 1, 2019. Available at <https://www.nation.co.ke/news/Kenya-joins-list-of-oil-exporters/1056-5219572-qkp633z/index.html> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

involved. In order for the communities and the public at large to experience positive impact from the proceeds of oil, gas and minerals in the country, there is a need for high standards of transparency and accountability in government operations and in the contractors' business.

Contracts in the extractives sector are shrouded in mystery with most African countries usually being conned by multinationals involved in the exploration, exploitation and extraction of the resources, the first steps towards failure in tracking revenues.¹⁵⁶

Thus, even as the country needs to embrace and implement the EITI standards, there is also a greater need to build capacity in its people who will be in charge of drafting and implementing the extractives industry contracts. The Government of Kenya has a responsibility to adopt frameworks that are consistent with the prevailing social, economic, political and cultural circumstances in the country so as to facilitate the development of the oil and gas industry.¹⁵⁷

Extractives industry has promoted socio-economic development in other African countries without falling into the trap of resource curse. For instance, Botswana, which is neither a member state nor an implementing country of EITI, has extractive mineral industries that have played a crucial role in the development of the country. Through proper management of its resources and thus achieving a mineral-led economic growth, the country has been transformed from one of the poorest countries in the world at the time of independence in 1966 to an upper-middle income country.¹⁵⁸ Botswana mainly exports diamonds, as the world's largest producer in value terms, as well as copper and nickel.¹⁵⁹

Kenya can learn a lot from the case of Botswana and other countries that have managed to use their mineral resources to promote development through open, accountable and transparent management of the extractives.

¹⁵⁶ Welimo, R., "Legal professionals trained on negotiating contracts in extractives industry," Kenya Broadcasting Corporation, August 5, 2019. Available at <https://www.kbc.co.ke/legal-professionals-trained-on-negotiating-contracts-in-extractives-industry/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁵⁷ Kenya Civil Society Platform on Oil & Gas, "Setting the Agenda For The Development Of Kenya's Oil And Gas Resources – The Perspectives Of Civil Society," Aug 11, 2014. Available at <http://kcspong.org/setting-the-agenda-for-the-development-of-kenyas-oil-and-gas-resources-the-perspectives-of-civil-society/> [Accessed on 16/1/2020]; Poncian, J., & Kigodi, H. M., "Transparency initiatives and Tanzania's extractive industry governance," *Development Studies Research* 5, no. 1 (2018): 106-121, p. 108.

¹⁵⁸ Jefferis, K., "The role of TNCs in the extractive industry of Botswana," *Transnational corporations* 18, no. 1 (2010): 61-92 at p.61.

¹⁵⁹ *Ibid*, p.61.

5.6 Conclusion

Since minerals and hydrocarbons are finite resources, developing countries rich in these resources seek for strategies to harness the opportunities created with the extractive industries to support sustainable economic development.¹⁶⁰ The EITI Requirements are minimum requirements and implementing countries are encouraged to go beyond them where stakeholders agree that this is appropriate.¹⁶¹

However, this should be implemented alongside the domestic laws governing the sector as they will come in handy in addressing the other issues such as promoting public participation and consultations¹⁶², curbing corruption, promoting fair and equitable benefit sharing for conflict avoidance and security, sound environmental management and governance, empowering communities and enhancing the general welfare of all.

6. Making the Blue Economy Work-Tapping into the Blue Economy for Sustainable Development

6.1 Introduction

This section discusses these challenges and suggests ways through which Kenya's Blue Economy can be unlocked to boost national development agenda. Partly based on the recently concluded first ever Global Sustainable Blue Economy Conference held in Nairobi, Kenya in November 2018¹⁶³, this section explores ways in which Kenya can tap into its diverse blue resources, with the aim of drawing valuable lessons for Kenya and making recommendations on what the country can do to maximize on these outcomes and achieve sustainable livelihoods for its people and national economic development in general.¹⁶⁴

¹⁶⁰ Claudine Sigam and Leonardo Garcia, *Extractive Industries: Optimizing Value Retention In Host Countries*, UNCTAD/SUC/2012/1 (New York and Geneva, 2012), p. 1. Available at https://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/suc2012d1_en.pdf [Accessed on 16/1/2020].

¹⁶¹ EITI International Secretariat, "The EITI Standard 2019: The Global Standard for the Good Governance of Oil, Gas and Mineral Resources," Edition 1, 17 June 2019, p.9.

¹⁶² *Hassan and 4 others v KWS*, (1996) 1KLR (E&L) 214; *Mada Holdings Ltd t/a Fig Tree Camp v County Council of Narok*, HC Judicial Review No. 122 of 2011, [2012] eKLR; *Meza Galana and 3 others v AG and 2 Others*, HCCC No. 341 of 1993, [2007] eKLR; *Cortec Mining Kenya Limited v Cabinet Secretary Ministry of Mining & 9 others* [2015] eKLR, Environment and Land Case 195 of 2014; *Mui Coal Basin Local Community & 15 others v Permanent Secretary Ministry of Energy & 17 others* [2015] eKLR, Constitutional Petition Nos 305 of 2012, 34 of 2013 & 12 of 2014 (Formerly Nairobi Constitutional Petition 43 of 2014) (Consolidated); *Tata Chemicals Magadi Limited v County Government of Kajiado & 2 others* [2019] eKLR, Petition 2 of 2019; *Lake Naivasha Friends of the Environment v AG and 2 others*, HC Petition No. 36 of 2011, [2012] eKLR.

¹⁶³ Conference on the Global Sustainable Blue Economy, held at the Kenyatta International Convention Centre, Nairobi from 26th to 28th November 2018. Available at <http://www.blueeconomyconference.go.ke/> [Accessed on 17/1/2020].

¹⁶⁴ Guleid, M., "True value of the blue economy to Kenya," *Standard Digital*, 29th Nov 2018. Available at <https://www.standardmedia.co.ke/article/2001304390/true-value-of-the-blue-economy-to-kenya> [Accessed on 17/1/2020].

The section critically analyses the challenges hampering harnessing of these resources, how they can be surmounted and recommends measures within the policy, legal and institutional framework to assist Kenya effectively harness these resources.

6.2 Blue Economy: The Definition and Scope

The World Bank defines ‘blue economy’ in the following terms: "sustainable use of ocean resources for economic growth, improved livelihoods, and jobs while preserving the health of ocean ecosystem."¹⁶⁵ Thus, according to the World Bank, the “blue economy” concept seeks to promote economic growth, social inclusion, and the preservation or improvement of livelihoods while at the same time ensuring environmental sustainability of the oceans and coastal areas.¹⁶⁶

Scholars have argued that the linkage between the *blue economy*, economic growth, and ocean and coastal resource conservation should be clarified by highlighting the following: The *blue economy* encompasses all economic activities with a direct dependence on the ocean or coastal and marine resources; it also includes marine education and research as well as activities of the public sector agencies with direct coastal and ocean responsibilities (e.g., national defense, coast guard, marine environmental protection, etc.); the ocean generates economic values that are not usually quantified, such as habitat for fish and marine life, carbon sequestration, shoreline protection, waste recycling and storing, and ocean processes that influence climate and biodiversity; and new activities are also evolving over the recent years, such as desalination, marine biotechnologies, ocean energy, and seabed mining.¹⁶⁷

Despite the existence of these resources and their potential benefits to Kenya’s economy, harnessing them has been beset with major challenges, as discussed in the next section of this paper.

¹⁶⁵ The World Bank, Infographic: What is the Blue Economy? June 6, 2017, available at <http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/infographic/2017/06/06/blue-economy> [Accessed on 17/1/2020].

¹⁶⁶ World Bank and United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, *The Potential of the Blue Economy: Increasing Long-term Benefits of the Sustainable Use of Marine Resources for Small Island Developing States and Coastal Least Developed Countries*, World Bank, Washington DC, 2017, p.2. Available at <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/26843/115545.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y> [Accessed on 17/1/2020].

¹⁶⁷ UNDP, “Leveraging the Blue Economy for Inclusive and Sustainable Growth,” *Policy Brief, Issue No: 6/2018*, April, 2018, op. cit., p.2; See also *Report On The Global Sustainable Blue Economy Conference 26th – 28th November 2018, Nairobi, Kenya*, Prepared By SBEC Technical Documentation Review Committee At A Retreat Held At Lake Naivasha Simba Lodge, Kenya, December 5th – 9th 2018.

6.3 Towards a Sustainable Blue Economy for Economic and Social Development: Challenges and Prospects for Kenya

6.3.1 Achieving Sustainable Blue Economy in Kenya: Challenges

The Eastern Africa region faces challenges of illegal and unregulated fishing, piracy and armed robbery, maritime terrorism, illicit trade in crude oil, arms, drug and human trafficking and smuggling of contraband goods; degradation of marine ecosystems through discharge of oil, the dumping of toxic waste, illegal sand harvesting and the destruction of coral reefs and coastal forests.¹⁶⁸ Kenya also suffers from fragmented management of the coastal zone, lack of capacity and technical know-how, lack of capital, minimal participation by citizens, incoherent benefit sharing regime and biodiversity loss, amongst others.¹⁶⁹

Furthermore, Kenya is confronted with border disputes, the dispute with Somalia over the maritime boundary¹⁷⁰, over a potentially lucrative triangular stretch of 100,000square kilometers offshore territory that is about 370 kilometers from the coastline, believed to be home to huge oil and gas deposits.¹⁷¹ Through these challenges, Kenya loses resources to foreign exploitation due to lack of capacity and knowhow as well as degraded and dwindling resources within its internal waters, attributable to environmental degradation, as already highlighted. Notably, the country's marine fisheries are primarily exploited by foreign fishing vessels which rarely land or declare their catches in the country, thus depriving the country of much needed revenue and processing jobs.¹⁷²

Statistics have shown that fisheries, which Kenya has only focused on both for domestic and export markets, accounting for only about 0.5 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and generate employment for over two million Kenyans through fishing, boat building, equipment repair, fish processing, and other ancillary activities.¹⁷³ Despite

¹⁶⁸ UNDP, "Leveraging the Blue Economy for Inclusive and Sustainable Growth," *Policy Brief, Issue No: 6/2018*, April, 2018, op. cit., p.5.

¹⁶⁹ See United Nations, Kenya: Common Country Assessment, United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Kenya: 2018-2022, January 2018. Available at <http://ke.one.un.org/content/dam/kenya/docs/unct/Kenya-%20Common%20Country%20Assessment%20%202018.pdf> [Accessed on 17/1/2020].

¹⁷⁰ Maritime Delimitation in the Indian Ocean (Somalia v. Kenya).

¹⁷¹ UNDP, "Leveraging the Blue Economy for Inclusive and Sustainable Growth," *Policy Brief, Issue No: 6/2018*, April, 2018, op. cit., p.5.

¹⁷² USAID, "The Importance of Wild Fisheries For Local Food Security: Kenya," p.1. Available at https://www.agrilinks.org/sites/default/files/resource/files/kenya_file.pdf [Accessed on 17/1/2020].

¹⁷³ UNDP, "Leveraging the Blue Economy for Inclusive and Sustainable Growth," *Policy Brief, Issue No: 6/2018*, April, 2018, op. cit., p.5.

this, the Kenya Maritime Authority (KMA) estimates the annual economic value of goods and services in the marine and coastal ecosystem of the *blue economy* in the Western Indian Ocean is over US\$22 billion with Kenya's share slightly over US\$4.4 billion (20%) with the tourism sector taking the lion's share of over US\$4.1 billion.¹⁷⁴ Therefore, the full economic potential of marine resources has not been exploited, yet Kenya has a maritime territory of 230,000 square kilometers and a distance of 200 nautical miles offshore.¹⁷⁵ Kenya has not yet invested in this potentially lucrative area thus occasioning loss of income and opportunities for the Kenyan people. It is also a potential solution to the food insecurity problem in Kenya through maximizing on the seafood harvesting.¹⁷⁶

For Kenya to benefit fully from these resources there must be conscious efforts aimed at tackling the highlighted challenges related to environmental sustainability, maritime security and inclusive development.

6.3.2 Tapping into the Blue Economy Resources: The Way Forward

There have been positive steps, albeit slow ones, in tapping into these vast resources. For instance, in the recent years, there have seen a shift in approach, where there has been an integrated approach as reflected in the renaming of the Department of Fisheries as the Department of Fisheries and Blue Economy in June 2016 and the establishment of a Blue Economy Implementation Committee in January 2017.¹⁷⁷

During the Blue Economy Conference, there was emphasis on the need to improve the health of the oceans, seas, lakes, and rivers and the ecosystems which are under increased threats and in decline in many countries and regions across the globe.¹⁷⁸

One of the challenges facing exploitation of the blue resources in Kenya is the lack of capital. Kenya can enter into mutually beneficial partnerships and networks for joint investments in projects, financing, technology development and transfer and capacity building, among others that will help it build capacity for exploitation of its resources. Funding mechanisms would not only build capacity for the experts but also facilitate the community's efforts to venture into this area of economy.

¹⁷⁴ Ibid, p.5.

¹⁷⁵ Ibid, p.5.

¹⁷⁶ USAID, "The Importance of Wild Fisheries For Local Food Security: Kenya," op. cit.

¹⁷⁷ Benkenstein, A., "Prospects for the Kenyan Blue Economy," South African Institute of International Affairs, Policy Insights 62, July, 2018, p.1.
Available at https://saiaa.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/saia_spi_62_benkestein_20180718.pdf [Accessed on 17/1/2020].

¹⁷⁸ *Report on the Global Sustainable Blue Economy Conference 26th – 28th November 2018, Nairobi, Kenya*, p.4.

In addition to the foregoing, there is a need for conscious efforts aimed at curbing pollution of the water bodies. Farmers especially those in highlands should continually be sensitized on the need for cautious and minimal use of farming chemicals that are likely to adversely affect the water bodies and the living resources therein.

There is also a need for the various communities to be supported and sensitised on the need to venture into seafood business both as a source of food as well as a source of income.

6.4 Conclusion

Kenya can reap big from the Blue Economy. It can harness the blue economy resources to achieve sustainable development and specifically address questions of eradication of poverty, provision of food security and generally raise the people's standards of living.

7. Enhancing Benefit Sharing from Natural Resources Exploitation

7.1 Introduction

The role of government in establishing a framework to manage and invest revenues derived from oil, gas, and mining projects and indeed all natural resources is crucial to ensure that the sector contributes positively to the economy and livelihoods.¹⁷⁹ Most private-sector investors realize that projects that are good for the host country and communities, and whose benefits are perceived to be shared reasonably, are less likely to face disruption, renegotiation, or even expropriation.¹⁸⁰

Effective Natural Resources Management (NRM) contemplates the use, access of resources to preserve and conserve for the good of all generations.¹⁸¹ The NRM role is bestowed upon the state but with duty on cooperation from everyone to ensure that there is sound use of the natural resource.¹⁸² Thus, it is necessary to take care of natural resources to ensure that the benefits that accrue undoubtedly serve the present and the generations to come.¹⁸³ The issue of benefit sharing has been a great challenge.¹⁸⁴

¹⁷⁹ Lohde, L.A., *The Art and Science of Benefit Sharing in the Natural Resource Sector*, (International Finance Corporation, February 2015), p. 11. Available at http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/8e29cb00475956019385972fbd86d19b/IFC_Art+and+Science+of+Benefits+Sharing_Final.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CACHEID=8e29cb00475956019385972fbd86d19b [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁸⁰ Ibid.

¹⁸¹ Child, B., et al, *Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE Programme: Natural Resource Management by the People*. (1997) IUCN-ROSA Environmental Issues Series No. 2

¹⁸² See Article 69, Constitution of Kenya 2010.

¹⁸³ See United Nations, *World Economic and Social Survey 2013: Sustainable Development Challenges*, E/2013/50/Rev. 1, ST/ESA/344. Available at

This section reflects on equitable benefit sharing in the context of the emerging extractive industry in Kenya. The discourse thus goes beyond reliance on extractive industries to encourage communities on how best they can overcome the perennial problems of economic underdevelopment and consequently, poverty.

7.2 Extractive Industries Resources: The New Canaan for Kenya?

In the year 2012, the then Kenya's President Hon. Mwai Kibaki announced the discovery of oil in Turkana County.¹⁸⁵

Expanding extractive industries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, is characterized by increasing levels of political, social, technical and environmental risk.¹⁸⁶ Changes brought about by extractive investment can have negative social impacts, such as rapid urban growth, physical and economic displacement of communities, weakening of traditional social structures, new conflicts, and even impoverishment.¹⁸⁷ Sudan, Democratic Republic of Congo and Nigeria are just but few examples of African states that have gone on internal armed conflict because of their rich natural resources.¹⁸⁸ In Democratic Republic of Congo, the war has largely impacted on the environment and native wildlife. Parties to armed conflicts have resorted to occupying natural habitats thereby scaring animals away. Further, the illegal trade of minerals bars communities from benefiting from its resources.¹⁸⁹

<https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/2843WESS2013.pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].; See also Kibert, C.J., 'The Ethics of Sustainability,' available at <http://rio20.net/wp-content/uploads/2012/01/Ethics-of-Sustainability-Textbook.pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁸⁴ Ochola, O.W., et al (eds), *Managing Natural Resources for Development in Africa: A resource Book*. IDRC, 2010. Available at <http://www.gbv.de/dms/zbw/646005146.pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁸⁵ Kagwe, W., 'Kenya strikes new oil well, doubles estimates,' *The Star*, 4 July 2013. Available at <http://allafrica.com/stories/201307040991.html> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].; Liloba, H., 'Kenya: Tullow Hits another Oil Field,' *East African Business Week* (Kampala), 9 July, 2013. Available at <http://allafrica.com/stories/201307100096.html> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁸⁶ Alstine, J.V., et al, *Resource Governance Dynamics: The Challenge Of 'New Oil' In Uganda*, *Resources Policy*, Vol. 40, 2014, pp.48–58, p. 48.

¹⁸⁷ Lohde, L.A., *The Art and Science of Benefit Sharing in the Natural Resource Sector*, (International Finance Corporation, February 2015), op cit. p. 55.

¹⁸⁸ Samndong, R.A. & Nhantumbo, I., *Natural resources governance in the Democratic Republic of Congo: Breaking sector walls for sustainable land use investments*, (International Institute for Environment and Development Country Report, February 2015), p. 11. Available at <http://pubs.iied.org/pdfs/13578IIED.pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁸⁹ See 'Diamonds in Sierra Leone, A Resource Curse?' available at <http://erd.eui.eu/media/wilson.pdf> [Accessed on 22/05/2016]; Kinniburgh, C., 'Beyond "Conflict Minerals": The Congo's Resource Curse Lives On,' *Dissent Magazine*, Spring 2014, available at <https://www.dissentmagazine.org/article/beyond-conflict-minerals-the-congos-resource-curse-lives-on> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].; Free the Slaves, 'Congo's Mining Slaves: Enslavement at South Kivu Mining Sites,' *Investigative Field Report*, June 2013. Available at <https://www.freetheslaves.net/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/Congos-Mining-Slaves-web-130622.pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

There is conflicting literature on the potential of extractive industries capacity to promote national development. It has been observed that proponents of resource-led development, argue that the inflow of foreign direct investment (FDI) into the country and a model of export based growth will provide jobs, economic growth and ultimately, poverty reduction.¹⁹⁰ However, for many resource rich developing countries pursuing this model, the reality has been low economic growth, environmental degradation, deepening poverty and, in some cases, violent conflict.¹⁹¹

There have been renewed hopes of ‘spurred economic growth and development’ in Kenya as a result of the recently discovered oil resources in the country.¹⁹² Turkana County has been documented as one of the Counties with the highest level of poverty in Kenya.¹⁹³ The distrust between local communities around the region against each other¹⁹⁴ has led to constant conflicts as well as cross border conflicts.¹⁹⁵ The conflict is largely sparked by livestock rustling, harsh climate and boundary dispute. Due to low literacy levels,¹⁹⁶ other communities have subsequently been employed as locals had no skills for drilling and seismic work.¹⁹⁷

While there are prospects of ‘real’ development in the region, the foregoing averments in the international arena affirm that the expected development may not be realized or

¹⁹⁰ Alstine, J.V., et al, Resource Governance Dynamics: The Challenge of ‘New Oil’ In Uganda, op cit, p. 48.

¹⁹¹ Ibid, p. 48.

¹⁹² See Institute for Human Rights and Business, ‘Human Rights Risks and Responsibilities: Oil and Gas Exploration Companies in Kenya,’ *Background Paper*, 2013. Available at http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/events/international_law/2015/06/Africa%20Forum/Security1.authcheckdam.pdf [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁹³ *Turkana County –United Nations Joint Programme 2015-2018*, (Executive Office, Turkana County Government, Lodwar, Turkana UN Resident Coordinator Office, Nairobi, Kenya), p. 4. Available at <https://info.undp.org/docs/pdc/Documents/KEN/ProDoc%20Turkana-UN%20Joint%20Programme%20final%205th%20%20March%202015-binder%20%282%29.pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁹⁴ Bollig, M., "Ethnic Conflicts in North-West Kenya: Pokot-Turkana Raiding 1969—1984." *Zeitschrift Für Ethnologie* 115 (1990), pp. 73-90. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25842144>. [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁹⁵ Johannes, E.M., et al, ‘Oil discovery in Turkana County, Kenya: a source of conflict or development?’ *African Geographical Review*, Vol. 34, No.2, 2015, pp.142-164, p. 142.

¹⁹⁶ Chikwanha, A.B., ‘The Anatomy of Conflicts in the East African Community (EAC): Linking Security With Development,’ *Keynote speech to Development Policy Review Network-African Studies Institute, Leiden University, the Netherlands, 2007*. Available at <https://www.issafrica.org/uploads/EACANNIE.PDF> [Accessed on 21/01/2020]; See also <http://opendata.go.ke/Education/Percentage-disribution-of-population-15years-by-/jbxify92> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

¹⁹⁷ See Cordaid, ‘Oil Exploration in Kenya: Success Requires Consultation,’ *Assessment of Community Perceptions of Oil Exploration in Turkana County, Kenya*, August 2015, p. 36. Available at https://www.cordaid.org/media/publications/Turkana_Baseline_Report_DEF-LR_Cordaid.pdf [Accessed on 21/01/2020]. See also *Turkana is the least educated, says report*, Daily Nation November 25, 2013. Available at <http://www.nation.co.ke/news/Turkana-is-the-least-educated-says-report/-/1056/2087018/-/vvpnq1z/-/index.html> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].
; Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, *Exploring Kenya’s Inequality: Pulling Apart or Pooling Together?*

may not achieve the desired outcome for the country and specifically the locals.¹⁹⁸ Pegging hopes of development on the extractive resources only may mean that the region remains under-developed or undeveloped for longer as the oil may not turn out as expected. If anything, it may add to the above mentioned problems that characterise the region in question.¹⁹⁹ Failed economies result in conflicts,²⁰⁰ as a result of natural resources bad governance or mismanagement.²⁰¹

Skewed distributions of benefits from natural resources can fuel social exclusion and conflict, threatening sustainability.²⁰² For instance, in the case of Kenya, there have been reports that the Irish oil Firm Tullow, which was allocated the Lokichar Basin oil reserves, has so far incurred \$ 1.5 billion (Kenya Shillings 150 billion) in exploration costs and this amount is to be recovered once production begins.²⁰³ This has led to the fears that in the absence of proper audits by Kenya, explorers such as Tullow Oil may inflate recoverable costs ultimately denying Kenyans the full benefits of their national resource.²⁰⁴ Kenya has in the past been advised that since it has a very short period within which it can maximize benefits from the oil sector before their depletion, it should continue to focus on key sectors such as agribusiness and service sectors.²⁰⁵

7.3 Benefit Sharing: Community Rights and Responsibilities

Equitable benefit sharing can be defined as the access to benefits that accrue from natural resources by stakeholders including indigenous communities.²⁰⁶ The international recognition of the right to benefit from natural resources wealth may be predicated upon such recognised rights of communities as the right to self-

¹⁹⁸ Sigam, C. & Garcia, L., *Extractive Industries: Optimizing Value Retention in Host Countries*, (UNCTAD, 2012). Available at http://unctadxi.org/en/SessionDocument/suc2012d1_en.pdf [Accessed on 21/01/2020]

¹⁹⁹ See Billion, P., *Wars of Plunder: Conflicts, Profits and Politics*, (New York: Columbia University Press, 2012.)

²⁰⁰ Maphosa, S.B., *Natural Resources and Conflict: Unlocking the Economic dimension of peace-building in Africa*. ASIA Policy brief Number 74, 2012.

²⁰¹ Billion, P., *Wars of Plunder: Conflicts, Profits and Politics*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 2012.); See also Wiebelt, M., et al, 'Managing Future Oil Revenues in Uganda for Agricultural Development and Poverty Reduction: A CGE Analysis of Challenges and Options,' (Kiel Working Paper No. 1696, May 2011). Available at <https://www.ifw-members.ifw-kiel.de/publications/managing-future-oil-revenues-in-uganda-for-agricultural-development-and-poverty-reduction-a-cge-analysis-of-challenges-and-options/kap-1696.pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

²⁰² Saboe, N.T., 'Benefit Sharing Among Local Resource Users: The Role of Property Rights,' *World Development*, Vol. 72, pp. 408–418, 2015, p. 408.

²⁰³ Herbling, D., 'Tullow's Sh 150bn Exploration bill Raises Queries on Costing methods,' *Business Daily*, Monday, April 18, 2016 (Nation Media Group Publication No. 2331), pp. 1 & 4.

²⁰⁴ Ibid, p. 1.

²⁰⁵ Ibid, p. 4.

²⁰⁶ Jonge, B., *What is Fair and Equitable Benefit Sharing? Journal on agricultural and environmental ethics*, vol. 24, issue 2, 2011.

determination, right to development and the right of peoples to freely dispose of their wealth and natural resources.²⁰⁷

The principle of equitable benefit sharing is acknowledged in several international environmental and natural resources law instruments²⁰⁸ some of which are highlighted in this section. As a potentially major importer of oil in future,²⁰⁹ the discovery of oil is deemed as a major boost to the Kenyan economy.²¹⁰ The economic value of oil is expected to be high and central to the development of the local community, though it has its benefits and challenges in equal measure.²¹¹ Indeed, it has been reported that the discovery of oil has facilitated infrastructural developments such as schools, health amenities and making the area easily accessible. Within two years of discovery, buildings were erected, human population was recorded at 500% growth in several towns within Turkana County.²¹² This is an indication of the high hopes that have been pegged on the potential benefits that may accrue from this venture. Benefits may take either monetary or non-monetary forms and stakeholders should exploit both forms.

Capacity building within the community ensures that communities become less dependent on the immediate benefits accruing from commercial exploitation of the resources and instead have enduring sources of livelihoods. Research may go a long way in helping communities realise the other forms of investments or economic activities that may be viable within their localities. Thus, communities should not only seek to receive the monetary benefits but should also take advantage by acquiring the relevant skills and investing in businesses or venture that will help them in the long term even after the oil reserves are depleted.

7.4 Legal Framework on Benefit Sharing and Natural Resource Exploitation in Kenya

²⁰⁷ UN General Assembly, *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*, 16 December 1966, United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 999, p. 171, Article 1.

²⁰⁸ *Convention on Biological Diversity; OECD Energy Charter Treaty 1994; Annex to the Nagoya Protocol on Access and Benefit-sharing*; CISDL, 'The Principles of International Law Related to Sustainable Development,' available at <http://cisdl.org/tribunals/overview/principles/1.html> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

²⁰⁹ The 2015 Economic Survey Report by Kenya National Bureau of Statistics.

²¹⁰ <http://www.tradingeconomic.com/kenya/imports> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

²¹¹ BBC (2012, March 26) Kenya oil discovery after Tullow Oil Drilling; The *paradox of plenty* is a fear that may hit the county In comparison to countries in Africa, those which are rich in minerals are the lowest in terms of development.

²¹² Kenya County Fact Sheet, 2014; Kornet, J., 'Oil in the cradle of mankind - A glimpse of Africa's future,' available at <http://www.frontiermarketscompendium.com/index.php/news-commentary/entry/oil-in-the-cradle-of-mankind-a-glimpse-of-africa-s-future> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

The Constitution also outlines the principles of land policy and provides that land in Kenya must be held, used and managed in a manner that is equitable, efficient, productive and sustainable, and in accordance with the laid down constitutional principles.²¹³ Land in Kenya is also classified as public, community or private.²¹⁴ Also noteworthy is the provision that regardless of their location, the Constitution classifies all minerals and mineral oils as defined by law and all rivers, lakes and other water bodies as defined by an Act of Parliament as forming part of public land.²¹⁵

The *Natural Resources (Classes of Transactions Subject to Ratification) Act, 2016*²¹⁶ is meant to give effect to Article 71 of the Constitution of Kenya, 2010 and for connected purposes.²¹⁷ Notably and as already discussed in a previous section, the Act outlines the relevant considerations in deciding whether or not to ratify an agreement.²¹⁸

The proposed legislation *Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing Bill), 2018*²¹⁹ seeks to establish a system of benefit sharing in resource exploitation between resource exploiters, the national government, county governments and local communities, to establish the natural resources benefit sharing authority and for connected purposes. The Act applies with respect to petroleum and natural gas, among other natural resources. The Act provides for guiding principles to include transparency and inclusivity, revenue maximization and adequacy, efficiency and equity and accountability.²²⁰ The legislation proposes setting up a Benefit Sharing Authority which will be mandated to coordinate the preparation of benefit sharing agreements between local communities and affected organizations, and review and where appropriate determine the royalties payable to an affected organization engaged in natural resource exploitation, among other related functions.²²¹

The *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015*²²² amends section 48 of EMCA by inserting subsection (3) to the effect that where a forested area is declared to be a protected area under section 54(1), the Cabinet Secretary may cause to be ascertained, any individual, community or government interests in the land and

²¹³ Art. 60(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

²¹⁴ Art. 61(2), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

²¹⁵ Art. 62(1) (f) (i), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

²¹⁶ Act No. 41 of 2016, Laws of Kenya.

²¹⁷ See also S. 124A, *Environment (Management and Coordination) Act*, No.8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya.

²¹⁸ Sec. 9, *Natural Resources (Classes of Transactions Subject to Ratification) Act, 2016*.

²¹⁹ *Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing) Bill, 2018*, 23rd October, 2018 (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2018), Kenya Gazette Supplement No.130 (Senate Bills No.31).

²²⁰ Clause 4, *Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing Bill), 2018*.

²²¹ Clause 6, *Natural Resources (Benefit Sharing Bill), 2018*.

²²² No. 5 of 2015, Laws of Kenya.

forests and shall provide incentives to promote community conservation.²²³ This is an important clause that can promote forests conservation through the use of incentives. The incentives can be in the form of benefits that accrue to the community from the forests resources.

The Mining Act, 2016²²⁴ provides for accruing benefits in the form of financial and other benefaction to which communities in mining areas are entitled to receive from the proceeds of mining and related activities.

The *Petroleum Act, 2019*²²⁵ provides that the relationship between the Government and an exploration and production company is governed by a Production Sharing Contract (PSC).²²⁶ The PSC stipulates that the exploration and production company gets a share of the oil and gas produced and its share is in the form of oil barrels.²²⁷

Notably, the Act introduces the concept of “local content” which means the added value brought to the Kenyan economy from petroleum related activities through systematic development of national capacity and capabilities and investment in developing and procuring locally available work force, services and supplies, for the sharing of accruing benefits.²²⁸ The local content plan should address- employment and training; research and development; technology transfer; industrial attachment and apprenticeship; legal services; financial services; insurance services; and succession plans for positions not held by Kenyans.²²⁹

The requirement on local content can go a long way in enhancing benefit sharing mechanism in the extractive industry in Kenya, an aspect that was missing or inadequate in the Kenyan framework.

The *National Sovereign Wealth Fund Bill, 2019* is a proposed legislation that seeks to establish the Kenya Sovereign Wealth Fund, to provide institutional arrangements for effective administration and efficient management of minerals and petroleum revenues, and for connected purposes and incidentals thereto.²³⁰ The purpose of the Fund shall be to — insulate expenditure under the budget estimates of the national government from fluctuations in resource revenues; provide finance for infrastructure development priorities to foster strong and inclusive growth and development; and build a savings

²²³ S. 31, *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015*.

²²⁴ Mining Act, No. 12 of 2016, Laws of Kenya

²²⁵ Petroleum Act, No. 2 of 2019, Laws of Kenya.

²²⁶ *Ibid*, sec. 18.

²²⁷ See Muigua, K., et al, *Natural Resources and Environmental Justice in Kenya*, (Glenwood Publishers Limited, August, 2015), pp. 248-251; Petroleum Act, 2019, Schedule.

²²⁸ Sec. 50(1), *Petroleum Act, 2019*.

²²⁹ Sec 50(3) *Petroleum Act, 2019*.

²³⁰ Preamble, *National Sovereign Wealth Fund Bill, 2019*.

base for future generations when minerals and petroleum resources are exhausted.²³¹ This fund will be important in promoting intergenerational and intragenerational equity in natural resource benefits sharing.

The *Community Land Act, 2016* is meant to give effect to Article 63 (5) of the Constitution; to provide for the recognition, protection and registration of community land rights; management and administration of community land; to provide for the role of county governments in relation to unregistered community land and for connected purposes.²³² The Act provides that every member of the community has the right to equal benefit from community land, where equality includes full and equal enjoyment of rights of use and access. This is a form of promoting benefit sharing as far as community land is concerned.²³³

The content of this provision, if fully implemented, is likely to impact positively on the community in ways that ensure that the community becomes self-sustaining as far as livelihood sustenance is concerned through both monetary and non-monetary forms of benefits.

7.5 Lessons from Ghana: Catapulting National Development through Extractive Industries

Ghana is often considered a model of best practice, based on the government's distribution of a proportion of mining rents to mining affected communities.²³⁴ In Ghana's mining sector, the system devised to distribute mining wealth to local level is royalty, with royalty agreements being set at between 3% and 6%, provided directly to the government quarterly, which is the main source of revenue derived by gold mining.²³⁵ The mine revenue is paid to the Large Tax Unit of the Ghana Revenue Authority, which then dispenses the money into the Consolidated Fund. Of this sum, 80% is retained by the government and used for general budget support. 10% is dispensed into the Mineral Development Fund (MDF), which is ostensibly used to help fund public mining sector institutions and for funding ad-hoc flagship projects in mining communities.²³⁶

Decentralization of mining revenue in Ghana is legislated as compensation for mining-affected communities; it is not a dividend or admission that citizens in mining areas

²³¹ *National Sovereign Wealth Fund Bill, 2019*, Clause 5.

²³² Preamble, *Community Land Act, No. 27 of 2016*, Laws of Kenya.

²³³ Sec. 35, *Community Land Act, 2016*.

²³⁴ Standing, A., 'Ghana's extractive industries and community benefit sharing: The case for cash transfers,' *Resources Policy*, vol. 40, 2014, pp.74–82, p. 74.

²³⁵ *Ibid*, p. 75; See S. 25, *Minerals and Mining Act, 2006 (Act 703)*, Laws of Ghana.

²³⁶ *Ibid*, p. 75.

have economic rights to mineral deposits.²³⁷ It is however noteworthy that even in Ghana, it has been observed that as is the case in many countries, the relationship between industrial mining and communities in Ghana is complex and highly contested, because, despite macroeconomic growth fueled by the mining boom, Ghana remains a country with high rural poverty.²³⁸ There have even been instances of misappropriation of mineral benefits distributed through the grassroots leaders, namely, village chiefs who are supposed to ensure that the funds are invested well for the benefit of the communities.²³⁹ The result has been unending poverty despite the presence of resources. Ghana can offer good lessons in terms of models of division, while ensuring that Kenya does not fall into the same problem of misappropriation of funds. Local communities should be also supported and encouraged to diversify their sources of livelihood in a way that ensures sustainability in income and growth for both the communities and the country.

7.6 Nigeria: Resource Curse or Blessing?

There has been documented evidence from the vast majority of resource-rich countries, especially those endowed with depletable natural which suggests that resource riches can be a “curse” rather than a “blessing”.²⁴⁰ One such country is Nigeria, one of the largest economies of the African continent and one of the leading oil producers in the world.²⁴¹ It is estimated that oil accounts for more than 90 percent of the country’s exports, 25 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and 80 percent of government total revenues.²⁴² Notable is the observation that the oil boom of the 1970s led to the neglect of agriculture and other non-oil tax revenue sectors, expansion of the public sector, and deterioration in financial discipline and accountability.²⁴³

While oil exports have fuelled real GDP growth of over 5 per cent a year in Nigeria, the official unemployment rate climbed from 15 per cent in 2005 to 25 per cent in 2011, and youth unemployment rates are estimated to be as high as 60 per cent.²⁴⁴

²³⁷ Standing, A., ‘Ghana’s extractive industries and community benefit sharing: The case for cash transfers,’ op cit, p. 74; See also Ayee, J., et al, ‘Political Economy of the Mining Sector in Ghana,’ *The World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 5730*, July 2011. Available at <http://www.cmi.no/publications/file/4091-political-economy-of-the-mining-sector-in-ghana.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²³⁸ Ibid, p. 75.

²³⁹ Ibid.

²⁴⁰ Tsani, S., Natural resources, governance and institutional quality: The role of resource funds,’ *Resources Policy*, 38(2013), pp.181–195, p. 181.

²⁴¹ See Agbaeze, E. K, ‘Resolving Nigeria’s dependency on oil – The derivation model,’ *Journal of African Studies and Development*, Vol. 7(1), pp. 1-14, January 2015.

²⁴² Ibid, p. 3.

²⁴³ Ibid, p. 2.

²⁴⁴ Africa Progress Panel, ‘Equity in Extractives: Stewarding Africa’s natural resources for all,’ *Africa Progress Report 2013*, p. 31. Available at http://appcdn.acwupload.co.uk/wpcontent/uploads/2013/08/2013_APR_Equity_in_Extractives_25062013_ENG_HR.pdf [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

The source of Nigeria's vast oil wealth is also a site of an ecological disaster that has destroyed livelihoods of farmers and fisher folk in the delta's inlets on a huge scale.²⁴⁵ This is because environmental damage not only affects health and wellbeing but also decimates livelihoods, such as fishing and agriculture that depend upon natural resources.²⁴⁶

Kenya should therefore avoid a scenario where oil exploration result in corruption, human rights abuse and environmental degradation which in turn affects the livelihoods of the people.

7.7 Opportunities: Making Natural Resources Wealth Count

Benefit-sharing mechanisms can be organized along two main axes: a *vertical axis* of benefit sharing across scales from national to local, and a *horizontal axis* of sharing within scales, including within and across communities, households and other local stakeholders.²⁴⁷ Free and prior informed consent of local communities and transparent and equitable benefit-sharing mechanisms can bring affected communities into the mainstream of a natural resource dominant development model.²⁴⁸ Understanding who the key stakeholders are, what their aspirations, concerns and expectations of a project are, and what drives these is important for judging the reasonableness of a benefit sharing settlement and its legitimacy and durability over time.²⁴⁹

The social and economic development is essential to enable a favourable living and working environment.²⁵⁰ Natural Resource Management plays a key role in the conservation of the environment. Human rights remain the obligation of the state to protect and may be done through inclusive decision making processes.²⁵¹

²⁴⁵ Ibid, p. 32; *Wiwa v. Royal Dutch Petroleum, Wiwa v. Anderson, and Wiwa v. Shell Petroleum Development Company*, Centre for Constitutional Rights, *Wiwa et al v. Royal Dutch Petroleum et al.*, available at <http://ccrjustice.org/home/what-we-do/our-cases/wiwa-et-al-v-royal-dutch-petroleum-et-al> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²⁴⁶ Africa Progress Panel, 'Equity in Extractives: Stewarding Africa's natural resources for all,' *Africa Progress Report* 2013, p. 33.

²⁴⁷ Ibid.

²⁴⁸ Talbott, K. & Thoumi, G., 'Common ground: balancing rights and responsibilities for natural resource investments and community development,' 3rd April 2015, available at <https://news.mongabay.com/2015/04/common-ground-balancing-rights-and-responsibilities-for-natural-resource-investments-and-community-development/> [Accessed on 21/1/2020]

²⁴⁹ Lohde, L.A., *The Art and Science of Benefit Sharing in the Natural Resource Sector*, (International Finance Corporation, February 2015), op cit. p. 12.

²⁵⁰ Principle 8, UN General Assembly, *United Nations Conference on the Human Environment*, 15 December 1972, A/RES/2994.

²⁵¹ Aarhus Convention in Access to Information, Public participation in decision making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters 1989 recognizes the nexus between human right and the environment as being essential in the well-being of human beings.

Therefore, while it is important for the state to promote the people's right to benefit from their natural resources as envisaged in international and national legal and human rights instruments, this should be done within the framework of achieving sustainable development. However, it is also important for the Kenyan people to look beyond oil resources in the country and invest in innovation to boost production in other areas such as livestock and agriculture production as well as innovative business investment in creative technologies.

7.7.1 Foundations and Trusts

The approaches taken by Kenya towards resource management, for instance, have been through Foundations, Trusts and Funds initiatives in the energy sector. FTF represent a wider range of financial and institutional framework that channel revenues to local communities. This mode of benefit sharing enable for the operation of government payment, compensation and community investment. The author suggests that they establish a systematic, professional formal approach to development. This has been successful in jurisdictions such as Senegal, Ghana, Australia and Canada.²⁵²

7.7.2 Enhancing Local Accountability and Building Capacity

Communities with more control over access and better common property management regimes play stronger decision making roles.²⁵³ They acknowledge that land-use decision making is inherently a multilevel process since numerous actors are involved both directly and indirectly representing multiple sectors with different roles, interests and incentives.²⁵⁴

Arguably, resource funds (RF) may provide, even to a limited degree, a track record of windfalls.²⁵⁵ It has also been suggested that through CSR and social investment strategies, extractive firms can provide local socio-economic development where the government is unable or unwilling to do so, and thus may help mitigate against the potentially harmful impacts of resource-led growth.²⁵⁶ Notably, the ideal goal is for private sector development interventions to supplement government service provision,

²⁵² Muigua K., et al, *Natural Resources and Access to Environmental Justice in Kenya*, (Glenwood Publishers, Nairobi, 2015).

²⁵³ Myrers, R., et al, 'Benefit sharing in context: a comparative analysis of 10 land-use change case study in Indonesia,' *Infobriefs*, No. 118, May 2015. Available at http://www.cifor.org/publications/pdf_files/infobrief/5585-infobrief.pdf [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²⁵⁴ *Ibid*, p.1.

²⁵⁵ Tsani, S., Natural resources, governance and institutional quality: The role of resource funds,' *op cit*, p. 190; cf. Alstine, J.V., et al, *Resource Governance Dynamics: The Challenge of 'New Oil'* In Uganda, *op cit*, p. 50.

²⁵⁶ Alstine, J.V., et al, *Resource Governance Dynamics: The Challenge of 'New Oil'* In Uganda, *op cit*, p. 50.

to avoid a situation of dependency on the private sector, and not to impact the willingness or ability of the state to develop its capacity.²⁵⁷ However, due to the uncertainties that come with CSR, there may be a need for a framework that is anchored in law to shield it from the uncertainties that come with CSR arrangements. This also increases accountability not only to the local communities but also the government.

7.7.3 Achieving Right to environmental information

Environmental information comprises of information held by authorities, factors that affect the environment, research on the environment, health and safety measures²⁵⁸, and reports on the implementation of environmental legislation and so forth.²⁵⁹ Lack of environmental information regarding conservation and management becomes more technical in undertaking natural resource management.

As far as indigenous communities are concerned, their right to information should be upheld by ensuring that any information needed is received as soon as possible. Enabling access to environmental information forms basis to access environmental justice.²⁶⁰ Communities are also likely to understand the implications of extractive industries on their day to day lives as far as the environment is concerned.

Access to Information Act 2016²⁶¹ was enacted to, inter alia, to give effect to Article 35 of the Constitution of Kenya on the right of access to information. The Act provides that subject to the Act and any other written law, every citizen has the right of access to information held by — (a) the State; and (b) another person and where that information is required for the exercise or protection of any right or fundamental freedom.²⁶² The term ‘information’ is interpreted to include information which is of significant public interest due to its relation to the protection of human rights, the environment or public health and safety.²⁶³

7.7.4 Devolution and Benefit Sharing

The 2010 Constitution requires that services be devolved and both the national and county governments ensure reasonable access to its services so far as it is appropriate.²⁶⁴ Ideally, local communities should be allowed to access natural resources for them to be

²⁵⁷ Ibid.

²⁵⁸ Convention on Environment Impact Assessment in a Transboundary Context, 1991, calls for the establishment of EIA procedures that involves public participation.

²⁵⁹ http://www.citizensinformation.ie/en/environment/environmental_law/access_to_environmental_information.htm[Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²⁶⁰ Muigua, K., *Natural Resources and Environmental justice in Kenya*, op cit; See also Access to Information Act, No. 31 of 2016, Laws of Kenya; See also Art. 35 of the Constitution of Kenya 2010.

²⁶¹ *Access to Information Act*, 2016, Laws of Kenya (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2016).

²⁶² Ibid, S. 4(1).

²⁶³ Ibid, s.2.

²⁶⁴ Article 6, Constitution of Kenya, 2010.

able to uphold their responsibilities for future generations.²⁶⁵ Natural resources are a source of livelihood as they form part of their economic activity. If natural resources are accessed and well managed, they provide for raw materials which are then processed to get products that are sold and thereby generating income. Allowing communities to access natural resources will undoubtedly promote sustainable development.

It is important to make use of the devolved system to empower communities and build capacity through investing accrued benefits in sustainable development projects which will go beyond the lifespan of oil exploration and at the same time uplift the livelihoods of the local people. The County governments are in a better position to identify the most viable and sustainable projects.

7.7.5 Public participation

Public participation allows individuals to express their views on key governmental policies and laws concerning conditions in their communities. Fostering public participation will mean that authorities dispense their constitutional and legislative obligation, positive deviation in terms of contribution and motivation. *In The Matter of the National Land Commission [2015] eKLR*,²⁶⁶ one of the issues that the Supreme Court of Kenya had to deal with was the role and place of public participation in the administration and management of land in Kenya. Mutunga, CJ observed that *public participation was a major pillar, and bedrock of democracy and good governance* (emphasis added).²⁶⁷

The Supreme Court's advisory opinion is an affirmation of the important role that the principle of public participation can play in enhancing people's appreciation of the management of natural resources in the country. Apart from enhancing people's role in management, public participation may promote co-existence among indigenous communities and allow investors to carry out their activities peacefully.²⁶⁸

7.7.6 Addressing Resource capture Phenomenon/Corruption

It has been argued that rent-seeking models assume that resource rents can be easily appropriated hence encouraging bribes, distorted public policies and diversion of public towards favour seeking and corruption.²⁶⁹ Corruption has been termed as a threat to

²⁶⁵ Article 40, United Nations Declaration on the Right of the Indigenous people, 2007; see *Joseph Letuya and 21 others v AG and 5 others ELC civil suit no 821 of 2012*.

²⁶⁶ Advisory Opinion Reference No. 2 of 2014, December 2, 2015.

²⁶⁷ *Ibid*, para. 45.

²⁶⁸ See Yagoub, A.M., 'Public Participation in Natural Resource Management in Sudan'; Mohair, P., *Public Participation and Natural resource Decision Making: the Case of RARE II Decisions*, Utah Agricultural Experiment Station, Journal Paper No. 3282.

²⁶⁹ Tsani, S., Natural resources, governance and institutional quality: The role of resource funds,' *Resources Policy*, 38(2013), pp.181–195, p. 184.

protected human security.²⁷⁰ It calls for global effort to combat corruption.²⁷¹ Resources have fostered corruption, undermined inclusive economic growth, incited armed conflict and damaged the environment.²⁷² For the governments managing significant resource rents, rent appropriation may be preferable when compared to the promotion of wealth creation policies.²⁷³ The argument is based on the preposition that rent appropriation may dominate over wealth generation as it offers immediate economic and political gains. These gains appear quite appealing as they can, arguably, be highly personal, favouring the specific members of the ruling elite.²⁷⁴

7.8 Conclusion

Effective management of these resources and equitable benefit sharing are essential.²⁷⁵ There is need for debate and consensus on how best to manage natural resources and the extractive industry so as to avoid the resource curse and alleviate poverty and promote development.

8. An Integrated Approach to Environmental Management and Conservation for Sustainable Development in Kenya

8.1 Introduction

Natural Resources and the environment in general are central to both the anthropocentric and ecocentric approaches to sustainable development agenda.²⁷⁶ Natural resources law represents a major and perhaps one of the most important regulatory regimes in most countries.²⁷⁷ One of the crucial issues addressed by natural

²⁷⁰ Alao, A., *Natural Resource Management and Human Security in Africa*, in Abass, A., *Protecting Human Security in Africa* (ISBN-13: 9780199578986, Oxford University Press, 2010).

²⁷¹ Lawson, T. R. & Greestein, J., 'Beating the resource Curse in Africa: A global Effort,' *Africa in Fact*, August 2012. Available at <http://www.cfr.org/africa-sub-saharan/beating-resource-curse-africa-global-effort/p28780> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²⁷² Aled, W., et al, *Corruption in Natural Resource Management: An introduction* (Bergen: Michelsen Institute, 2008). Available at <http://www.cmi.no/publications/file/2936-corruption-in-natural-resource-management-an.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²⁷³ Ibid.

²⁷⁴ Ibid.

²⁷⁵ United Nations, Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015, A/RES/70/1.

²⁷⁶ Helen Kopnina, 'Revisiting Education for Sustainable Development (ESD): Examining Anthropocentric Bias Through the Transition of Environmental Education to ESD' (2014) 22 Sustainable Development 73; Guido Montani, 'The Ecocentric Approach to Sustainable Development. Ecology, Economics and Politics' 36; Satish C Shastri, 'Environmental Ethics Anthropocentric To Eco-Centric Approach: A Paradigm Shift' (2013) 55 Journal of the Indian Law Institute 522; Louis Kotze and Duncan French, 'The Anthropocentric Ontology of International Environmental Law and the Sustainable Development Goals: Towards an Ecocentric Rule of Law in the Anthropocene' (2018) 7 Global Journal of Comparative Law 5.

²⁷⁷ Hutter, B.M, 'Socio-Legal Perspectives on Environmental Law: An Overview' in Hutter B.M. (ed), *A Reader in Environmental Law*, (Oxford University Press, 1999) 3, p.4.

resources law is how to avoid harm and serious damage to resources.²⁷⁸ Therefore, policymakers have a variety of approaches available when legislating to enable holistic protection and management of the environment and natural resources.²⁷⁹ These approaches include command and control, market-based approaches, incentives (taxation and subsidies) amongst others. Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) and traditional resource management institutions have also been used with some success in Kenya.²⁸⁰ Ecosystem-based approaches such as Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) or River basin management, integrated coastal zone management (ICZM) and integrated management of land and other resources are other approaches to NRM.²⁸¹

Notably, the relationship between development and environment is central to the sustainable development concept.²⁸² At the United Nations Sustainable Development Summit on 25 September 2015, world leaders adopted *the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, which includes a set of 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to end poverty, fight inequality and injustice, and tackle climate change by the year 2030.²⁸³ While various groups define sustainability differently, where some restrict it to environmental sustainability and others include broader issues affecting human life, the most common one sees sustainability as the requirement to maintain the capacity to provide non-declining well-being over time.²⁸⁴

It is therefore, in recognition of the central role of the environment in human wellbeing that this section explores the various approaches aimed at facilitating effective environmental governance that balances the foregoing aspects.

These approaches are to be applied as complementary tools in natural resource management. They are not mutually exclusive as they overlap with one another in their

²⁷⁸ Gunningham, N. & Sinclair, D., 'Designing Smart Regulation,' in Bridget M. Hutter (ed), *A Reader in Environmental Law* (Oxford University Press, 1999), p.305.

²⁷⁹ *Ibid*, p.305.

²⁸⁰ See generally, Measham, T.G. & Lumbasi, J., "Success factors for Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM): lessons from Kenya and Australia." *Environmental Management*, Vol. 52 (3), 2013, pp. 649-659.

²⁸¹ See Feeney, C. & Gustafson, P., "Integrating Catchment and Coastal Management-A Survey of Local and International Best Practice," *Prepared by Organisation for Auckland Regional Council, Auckland Regional Council Technical Report 2009/092*, 2010.

²⁸² 'Theories of Economic Development,' p. 14. Available at www.springer.com/cda/content/document/cda_downloadaddocument/9789812872470-c2.pdf?SGWID=0-0-45-1483317-p177033406 [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

²⁸³ United Nations Development Programme, 'Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs),' available at <http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/mdgoverview/post-2015-development-agenda.html> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

²⁸⁴ Neumayer, E., 'Sustainability and Well-being Indicators,' Research Paper No. 2004/XX, (UNU World Institute for Development Economics Research (UNU-WIDER), March 2004, p.1. Available at <http://www.lse.ac.uk/geographyAndEnvironment/whosWho/profiles/neumayer/pdf/SustainabilitywellbeingArt..pdf> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

application.²⁸⁵ Command and control and market-based mechanisms can be used in a synergetic manner such that while broader environmental objectives are set by public authorities, the methods of achieving those objectives are determined by the business fraternity.²⁸⁶ Some argue that ²⁸⁷ while market-based mechanisms are seen to extend the freedom to the market players, in command and control mechanisms, the benefits are said to flow to the consumers due to government intervention. Further, the government will always play its role of granting rights, imposing responsibilities, and extend, restrict, or eliminate privileges, while the market conservatives argue that once there is efficient market then the free play of the market forces will allocate resources to their highest valued uses and governments should therefore stay away.²⁸⁸

8.2 Who Speaks for Nature? Entrenching the Ecocentric Approach in Environmental Management in Kenya

8.2.1 Introduction

Much of the debates revolving around sustainable development agenda have evolved around how environmental and natural resources can be harnessed in a way that puts man in the middle of such activities, that is, an anthropocentric approach. An anthropocentric approach focuses mainly on meeting the need of human beings at the expense of a system that values the environment and ecological health, that is, an ecocentric approach.

The human rights-based approaches provide a powerful framework of analysis and basis for action to understand and guide development, as they draw attention to the common root causes of social and ecological injustice.²⁸⁹ Human rights standards and principles then guide development to more sustainable outcomes by recognizing the links between ecological and social marginalization, stressing that all rights are embedded in complex ecological systems, and emphasizing provision for need over wealth accumulation.²⁹⁰ There is an overemphasis on anthropocentric approach at the expense of an ecocentric approach that puts a greater emphasis on environment and ecological health.

²⁸⁵ Blanco, E. & Razzaque, J., *Globalisation and Natural Resources Law: Challenges, Key Issues and Perspectives*, (Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, 2011), p. 106; See also Miller, B. W. & Morissette, J. T., "Integrating research tools to support the management of social-ecological systems under climate change," *Ecology and Society*, Vol. 19, No. 3, 2014, Art. 41.

²⁸⁶ Hanks, J.P., "Self-Regulation and Co-Regulation-Cost-effective Policy Options for Industrial Sustainable Development," in *Industries and Enforcement of Environmental Law in Africa-Industry Experts Review Environmental Practice*, (UNEP/UNDP Joint Project on Environmental Law and Institutions in Africa), pp.48-58.

²⁸⁷ Swaney, J.A., "Market versus Command and Control Environmental Policies," *Journal of Economic Issues*, Vol. 26, No. 2, Jun., 1992, pp. 623-633, p. 624.

²⁸⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁸⁹ Fisher, A.D., 'A Human Rights Based Approach to the Environment and Climate Change' *A GI-ESCR Practitioner's Guide*, March 2014.

²⁹⁰ *Ibid.*

This section discusses Kenya's approach to environmental conservation and protection and makes a case for a more ecocentric approach.

8.2.2 Ecocentric Approaches to Environmental Management

The *World Charter for Nature*²⁹¹ points out that mankind is part of nature and life depends on the uninterrupted functioning of natural systems which ensure the supply of energy and nutrients. Furthermore, civilization is rooted in nature, which has shaped human culture and influenced all artistic and scientific achievement, and living inharmony with nature gives man the best opportunities for the development of his creativity, and for rest and recreation.²⁹²

Ecocentric approaches to environmental management explore such themes as combating climate change, impact of resource extraction, environmental health, and environmental conservation for the sake of the Mother Nature.²⁹³ The ecocentric approach to environmental management and governance advocates for the conservation of the environment as a matter of right and not merely because of the benefits that accrue to the human beings.²⁹⁴

Under the ecocentric approach, there is a moral concern for nature.²⁹⁵ Some scholars have rightly argued that we should give legal rights to forests, oceans, rivers²⁹⁶ and others-called "natural objects" in the environment-indeed, to the natural environment as a whole.²⁹⁷

²⁹¹ UN General Assembly, *World Charter for Nature*, 28 October 1982, A/RES/37/7.

²⁹² *Ibid*, Preamble.

²⁹³ See generally, Muigua, K., *Nurturing Our Environment for Sustainable Development*, (Glenwood Publishers Limited, 2016).

²⁹⁴ See generally, 'Species Extinction Is a Great Moral Wrong' (Elsevier Connect). Available at <<https://www.elsevier.com/connect/species-extinction-is-a-great-moral-wrong>> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

²⁹⁵ See Carter, A., "Towards a multidimensional, environmentalist ethic," *Environmental Values* 20, no. 3 (2011): 347-374.

²⁹⁶ The Guardian, "New Zealand River Granted Same Legal Rights As Human Being," March 2017. Available at

<https://www.theguardian.com/world/2017/mar/16/new-zealand-river-granted-same-legal-rights-as-human-being> [Accessed on 21/1/2020]; The Guardian, "Ganges and Yamuna rivers granted same legal rights as human beings," available at <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2017/mar/21/ganges-and-yamuna-rivers-granted-same-legal-rights-as-human-beings> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²⁹⁷ See generally, Stone, C.D., "Should Trees Have Standing--Toward Legal Rights for Natural Objects." *S. CAL. L. REV.* 45 (1972): 450; cf. Varner, G.E., "Do Species Have Standing?" *Environmental Ethics*, Volume 9, Issue 1, Spring 1987, pp. 57-72.

8.2.3 Environmental Management Approaches in Kenya: Prospects and Challenges

Environmental management and governance in Kenya mainly focuses on achieving sustainable development, where development is interpreted as having several dimensions which include: Economic development; Human development; and Sustainable development.²⁹⁸

It is thus evident that while there are attempts aimed at conserving the environment, much of the efforts seem to be directed at anthropocentric approach that seeks to meet the needs of human beings and the general developmental needs of the country.

8.2.4 Entrenching the Ecocentric Approach in Environmental Management in Kenya

The anthropocentric approach mostly adopted by most of the existing legal instruments in Kenya and indeed much of the sustainable development agenda debates create the false impression that the environment should only be protected for the convenience of human beings.²⁹⁹ However, a better approach should incorporate both anthropocentric and ecocentric ideals for better incentives.

There is a need for more emphasis while coming up with laws to ensure that there are measures that are geared towards protecting the aspects of nature whose benefits are not obvious to the human beings, if at all.

Some of the challenges that the country is experiencing such as degradation of natural forests and dwindling water catchment areas would become a thing of the past if people understand that the earth has intrinsic value and right to be protected from climate change and degradation.

If human beings view themselves as part of the nature, and not merely as conquerors of the nature with a right to use or even plunder the earth resources, then respect for the environment is likely to increase as well as entrenchment of environmental ethics where people take care of the environment without necessarily doing it as a reaction to laws on environment in the country.³⁰⁰

It is important that the country integrates both anthropocentric and ecocentric approaches to environmental conservation and protection. All beings are interdependent

²⁹⁸ Bellù, L.G., 'Development and Development Paradigms: A (Reasoned) Review of Prevailing Visions,' (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, May 2011), p.3. Available at http://www.fao.org/docs/up/easypol/882/defining_development_paradigms_102EN.pdf [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

²⁹⁹ They focus on eliminating poverty and other social ills afflicting the human society in Kenya.

³⁰⁰ Ojomo, P.A., "Environmental Ethics: An African Understanding," *African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology* 5, no. 8 (2011): 572-578.

and every form of life has value regardless of its worth to human beings.³⁰¹ For instance, without the bees, pollination of plants would be almost impossible, and without plants animal lives would be jeopardized. A sustained and secure environment is also useful for the regeneration of resources.³⁰²

These organisms may not speak for themselves and it is important that human beings take them into consideration when exploiting environmental and natural resources. They should be a voice for the voiceless. There is an increased need for the policy makers and legislators to ensure that any laws, plans, policies and other legal instruments are geared more towards ensuring that environmental conservation and management efforts reflect ecocentric approaches.

8.3 The Neglected Link: Safeguarding Pollinators for Sustainable Development in Kenya

8.3.1 Introduction

The prevailing debate on sustainable development the world over mainly revolves around minimizing adverse human impact on the environment as part of maximizing accruing Ecosystem Services. However, one area of biological diversity conservation that has received little or no attention, especially under the current Kenyan environment and natural resources laws, is the plant-pollinators' community that plays an indispensable role in natural resources and environmental regeneration for ecosystem Services.

Globally, biodiversity loss has been attributed to various factors, including, habitat loss, pest invasion, pollution, over-harvesting and disease.³⁰³ Pollination services are provided both by wild, free-living organisms and by commercially managed bee species. Bees are considered the predominant and most economically important group of pollinators in most geographical regions.³⁰⁴ Past reports carried in the Kenyan local dailies have highlighted the problem, asserting that Kenyan farmers are driving bees,

³⁰¹ *World Charter for Nature*, Principle 1.

³⁰² *Ibid*, Principle 2.

³⁰³ Wilcove D.S, Rothstein J, Dubow A, Phillips and Losos E., "Quantifying threats to imperiled species in the United States", *BioScience*, 48, 1998, pp. 607-615 (As quoted in Kluser, S., Neumann, P., Chauzat, M.P., Pettis, J.S., Peduzzi, P., Witt, R., Fernandez, N. and Theuri, M., *Global honey bee colony disorders and other threats to insect pollinators*, (United Nations Environmental Programme, 2010), p.1. Available at https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Peter_Neumann5/publication/305160493_Disorders_of_bee_colonies_around_the_world_and_other_threats_to_insect_pollinators/links/5783b17208ae37d3af6c005c/Disorders-of-bee-colonies-around-the-world-and-other-threats-to-insect-pollinators.pdf [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁰⁴ Kluser, S., Neumann, P., Chauzat, M.P., Pettis, J.S., Peduzzi, P., Witt, R., Fernandez, N. and Theuri, M., *Global honey bee colony disorders and other threats to insect pollinators*, op cit., p. 1.

wasps, butterflies and other pollinators to extinction, consequently threatening food supply.³⁰⁵ Despite this, there is arguably inadequate evidence demonstrating Kenya's commitment to protect these important organisms as part of biodiversity conservation, and ultimately, achieving the right to food security for all, as guaranteed under the Constitution of Kenya 2010³⁰⁶.

The inadequacy or lack of legal responses to pollinators' protection in the Kenyan environmental and natural resources laws has had adverse effect on the pollinators, and arguably, their protection is currently based on a general approach to environmental conservation for provision of ecosystem services. Pollinators are part of the biodiversity and, if any measures geared towards biodiversity conservation are to succeed, they must include pollinators.

8.3.2 Pollinators as Key Players in Environmental Conservation Discourse: The Neglected Link

Pollinators are important for the provision of ecosystem services.³⁰⁷ Pollination is vital to the ecosystems and to human societies and the health and wellbeing of pollinating insects is considered as crucial to life, be it in sustaining natural habitats or contributing to local and global economies.³⁰⁸

Biotic pollination is meant to be a symbiotic process in which both the animal pollinators and the plants benefit in terms of food for the former and pollination process for the latter.³⁰⁹ This discourse is thus meant to address the factors and practices that adversely affect this mutual relationship between the two groups.

Considering that 'plants serve as air and water filters, are an indispensable part of the water cycle, prevent erosion of valuable soil re-sources, and give us numerous foods, fibers, and medicines, pollinators are considered as critical to biodiversity, ecosystem services, agricultural productivity, world economies, and human quality of life'.³¹⁰ Any

³⁰⁵ "Bees, butterflies face extinction, threatening Kenya food production," *Business Daily Africa*, Monday, April 18, 2016 16:36. Available at <http://www.businessdailyafrica.com/economy/Bees-butterflies-face-extinction-threatening-Kenya-food/3946234-3164704-xvcgld/index.html> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁰⁶ Constitution of Kenya, 2010, Art. 43.

³⁰⁷ Dolf de Groot, 'Protecting natural capital for human wellbeing and sustainable development,' *Science for Environment Policy – A Weekly News Alert*, Special Issue: Ecosystem Services, Issue 20, May 2010, p.1. Available at http://ec.europa.eu/environment/integration/research/newsalert/pdf/20si_en.pdf [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁰⁸ Kluser, S., Neumann, P., Chauzat, M.P., Pettis, J.S., Peduzzi, P., Witt, R., Fernandez, N. and Theuri, M., *Global honey bee colony disorders and other threats to insect pollinators*, op cit., p. 2; See also generally, Ollerton, J., Winfree, R. and Tarrant, S., "How many flowering plants are pollinated by animals?" *Oikos*, Vol.120, No., 2011, pp.321-326.

³⁰⁹ Ibid.

³¹⁰ San Luis Obispo County, 'Pollinator Information & Resources', op cit., p.1.

threats to these animal-pollinators therefore threaten the whole chain of natural provision of ecosystem services.

8.3.3 Protection of Pollinators: the Legal, Institutional and Policy Framework

Internationally, the 1992 *Convention on Biological Diversity*³¹¹ was adopted during the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, with the objective of conservation of biological diversity.³¹² While the Convention does not specifically mention pollinators, it accords "Biological diversity" a broad definition to mean 'the variability among living organisms from all sources including, inter alia, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part: this includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems'.³¹³

Pollinators are thus covered under these broad definitions as part of the biodiversity to be protected and conserved under the Convention. The Convention outlines under Article 6 thereof state obligations on the general measures for conservation and sustainable use of the biological diversity within their territories.³¹⁴

The *Agenda 21*³¹⁵ also contains provisions under section 15 thereof on the conservation of biological diversity. Agenda 21 specifically acknowledges that our planet's essential goods and services depend on the variety and variability of genes, species, populations and ecosystems.

The *Aichi Biodiversity Target 7* seeks to ensure that, by 2020, areas under agriculture, aquaculture and forestry are managed sustainably, ensuring conservation of biodiversity.³¹⁶

The *Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act 1999*³¹⁷ (EMCA) calls for conservation of 'biological diversity'.³¹⁸ Notably, EMCA provides for conservation of biological resources in situ and ex-situ.³¹⁹

³¹¹ United Nations Environment Programme, *Convention on Biological Diversity*, 1760 UNTS 79; 31 ILM 818 (1992), United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 1760, p. 79.

³¹² *Convention on Biological Diversity*, Art. 1.

³¹³ *Convention on Biological Diversity*, Art. 2.

³¹⁴ *Ibid.*, Art. 6. General Measures for Conservation and Sustainable Use Each Contracting Party.

³¹⁵ *Agenda 21* (A/CONF.151/26, vol.II), adopted by the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development on 14 June 1992.

³¹⁶ Aichi Biodiversity Targets - Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), <https://www.cbd.int/sp/targets/> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³¹⁷ *Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act*, Act No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya [Revised Edition 2012 [1999]]; See also the *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015* (Amendment Act, No. 5 of 2015, which was enacted to amend the Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act, 1999.

³¹⁸ *Ibid.*, sec. 2.

³¹⁹ *Ibid.*, sec. 51; sec. 53(1).

Other provisions in EMCA that are germane to protection of pollinators relate to standards of pesticides and toxic substances.³²⁰ EMCA further provides for the registration of the pesticide or toxic substance, before importing, manufacturing, processing or reprocessing of pesticides or toxic substance.³²¹

Kenya's *National Environment Policy 2012* rightly points out that 'the main human activities contributing to environmental degradation in Kenya include unsustainable agricultural land use, poor soil and water management practices, deforestation, overgrazing, and pollution'.³²² 'These activities contribute a great deal to degradation of the country's natural resources such as land, fresh and marine waters, forests and biodiversity threatens the livelihoods of many people. They undermine the sink function of the environment which operates through such processes as nutrient recycling, decomposition and the natural purification and filtering of air and water.'³²³

All the foregoing national laws and policy instruments have some issues that may affect pollinators in their implementation, but notably, most of them hardly mention pollinators.³²⁴ There is no dedicated law that is meant to protect the pollinators and currently, their protection can only be done within the framework of all the above laws.

8.3.4 Safeguarding the Future: Addressing the Challenges Affecting Pollinators

It has rightly been pointed out that insect pollinators of crops and wild plants are under threat globally and their decline or loss could have profound economic and environmental consequences.³²⁵ Specifically, insect pollinators are believed to face growing pressure from the effects of intensified land use, climate change, alien species, and the spread of pests and pathogens; and this has serious implications for human food security and health, and ecosystem function.³²⁶

There is need to avert the danger facing pollinators, and this can be achieved through various ways. While some require radical change in management approaches, others require all stakeholders to work closely and also include other relevant but often ignored groups in implementing decisions.

i. Ecosystem Services Approach to Pollinators Conservation

³²⁰ *Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act, 1999*, sec. 94.

³²¹ *Ibid.*, sec. 94(1).

³²² Republic of Kenya, *National Environment Policy 2012*, (Government printer, 2012, Nairobi), para. 2.1.

³²³ *Ibid.*, para. 2.2.

³²⁴ See also the *Wildlife Conservation and Management Act, No.47 of 2013*, Laws of Kenya; See also the *Wildlife Conservation and Management (Protection of Endangered and Threatened Ecosystems, Habitats and Species) Regulations, 2017*, Legal Notice No. 242 of 2017.

³²⁵ Vanbergen, A.J., "Threats to an ecosystem service: pressures on pollinators," *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, Vol.11, No. 5, 2013, pp.251-259.

³²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 251.

Studies have indicated that ecological restoration is likely to lead to large increases in both biodiversity and ecosystem services, offering a potential win-win solution if the two goals are combined in restoration projects.³²⁷

To effectively protect animal pollinators, there is a need to entrench biodiversity management and conservation approaches that eliminate or reduce human activities which pose risks to these organisms. There is also need to empower communities in ways that give them alternative means of making a living for social sustainability as opposed to relying on environment only as well as enabling them make informed decisions that would contribute positively to environmental sustainability.³²⁸

The *Environmental Management and Coordination (Conservation of Biological Diversity and Resources, Access to Genetic Resources and Benefit Sharing) Regulations, 2006*³²⁹, coupled with other laws, if effectively implemented, would go a long way in ensuring that environment-degrading activities that adversely affect pollinators are reduced or eliminated.

ii. Reduction or Effective Control of Pesticide Use

Pest control practices such as Integrated Pest Management that enhance natural pest controls are believed to be effective to reduce or eliminate the use of Pesticides (herbicides, insecticides, fungicides), while at the same time, they greatly benefit pollinators which may be heavily impacted by pesticides.³³⁰ It has been suggested that adoption of integrated pest management (IPM) programs can limit pesticide usage to times of economic damage and spraying at certain times in the pest and crop life cycles, through which pest control can be maximized and amount of pesticide used minimized.³³¹ This calls for closer working relationship between farmers and the agricultural extension services officers for sensitisation and education on the same.

³²⁷ Rey Benayas, J.M., Newton, A.C., Diaz, A. & Bullock, J.M., 'Enhancement of Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services by Ecological Restoration: A Meta-Analysis,' *Science*, Vol.28, No.325, 2009, pp. 1121-1124. (As quoted in Dolf de Groot, 'Improved biodiversity and ecosystem services go hand-in-hand,' *Science for Environment Policy – A Weekly News Alert*, Special Issue: Ecosystem Services, Issue 20, May 2010, p.5.)

³²⁸ Muigua, K., "Realising the Right to Education for Environmental and Social Sustainability in Kenya," available at <http://www.kmco.co.ke/attachments/article/139/REALISING%20RIGHT%20TO%20EDUCATION%20FOR%20ENVIRONMENTAL%20AND%20SOCIAL%20JUSTICE%20IN%20KENYA-%202022nd%20October%20edited.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³²⁹ Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act, No. 8 of 1999, Legal Notice No. 160 of 2006.

³³⁰ Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations, "Pollination Services for Crop Production: Managing Ecosystem Services for Productive and Healthy Agroecosystems," available at <http://www.fao.org/3/a-at109e.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³³¹ Kings River Conservation District (KRCd), "Agricultural Management Practices," available at http://www.krkd.org/water/water_quality/ag_mgt_practices.html [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

Incentives should be offered to farmers to restore pollinator-friendly habitats, including flower provisioning within or around crop fields and elimination of use of insecticides by adopting agroecological production methods.³³² Additionally, conventional farmers are advised to be extremely cautious in the choice, timing, and application of insecticides and other chemicals.³³³ Agriculture is believed to pose many threats to insect pollinators such as changes in land use, loss and fragmentation of habitat, introduction of exotic organisms, modern agricultural practices, and pesticide use.³³⁴

The Pest Control Products Board established under the Pest Control Act is empowered to: assess and evaluate pest control products in accordance with the provisions of the regulations made under the Act; consider applications for registration of pest control products and to make recommendations thereon to the Minister; and advise the Minister on all matters relating to the enforcement of the provisions of this Act and regulations made thereunder.³³⁵ Such a Board ought to closely work with the scientific and technology community and the general public especially the agricultural and pastoral communities in order to reduce or eliminate the use of harmful pesticide products, as a way of minimizing destruction of pollinators and their habitats.

The Board should also have representatives in agricultural trainings and seminars in order to sensitize farmers on any outlawed or potentially dangerous pesticides that have broad spectrum effect on pollinators.

iii. Environmental Education, Awareness and Ethics

If empowered through education, people are able to make their own decisions especially in matters relating to exploitation of natural resources, Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) and other matters that touch on development but have a bearing on the environment and the livelihoods of the people.³³⁶ The local communities would be able to actively engage potential investors in ensuring environmental sustainability. Principles of public participation in governance and environmental democracy³³⁷ as envisaged in the current Constitution of Kenya becomes easier to implement.

³³² Nicholls, C.I. & Altieri, M.A., "Plant Biodiversity Enhances Bees and Other Insect Pollinators in Agroecosystems: A Review," *Agronomy for Sustainable development*, Vol.33, No. 2, 2013, pp.257-274 at p. 257.

³³³ *Ibid.*, p.257.

³³⁴ *Ibid.*, p.258.

³³⁵ *Ibid.*, Sec. 5 & 6.

³³⁶ Heila Lotz-Sisitka, H.L., et. al., *Africa Environmental Education and Training Action Plan 2015-2024: Strengthening Sustainable Development in Africa*, (United Nations Environment Programme, January, 2017), p.1.

³³⁷ See Article 69 of the Constitution of Kenya; For a more detailed discussion, see also Muigua, K. & Musyimi, P.N., 'Enhancing Environmental Democracy in Kenya,' available at http://www.kmco.co.ke/attachments/article/81/072_Envntal_Dem_Kenya.pdf.

iv. Use of Scientific Research and Traditional Knowledge

Continuous scientific research on the effects of various agricultural practices on biodiversity conservation is key in any efforts geared towards protecting animal pollinators. There is need for concerted efforts from the Government agencies concerned with agriculture and scientific research to work closely with the International Centre of Insect Physiology and Ecology (ICIPE) to address some of the problems facing these important players for the realisation of sustainable development agenda.

Arguably, such communication between the scientific and technological community and the policy and lawmakers would go a long way in coming up with policies and laws that are more responsive to the need to protect pollinators.

The Convention on Biological Diversity Secretariat recommends that one of the ways of implementing the Aichi Biodiversity Target 7 would be incorporating customary use of biodiversity by indigenous and local communities, which can often offer lessons of wider applicability and could be enhanced by increasingly delegating governance and management responsibility to the local level.³³⁸ Traditional knowledge can play a critical role in eliminating some of the problems affecting animal pollinators such as excessive use of pesticides. Traditional farming and conservation practices can go a long way in reducing the use of pesticides in crop production. The general public and specifically the agricultural communities would also benefit from closer working relationships between them and the government agencies to appreciate how some of the traditional practices in farming can be incorporated into their modern farming practices as a way of reducing the use of harmful chemicals in crop production as well as discarding some of the destructive farming practices.

The knowledge can also be used together with scientific knowledge to come up with agricultural crops that are fairly resistant to some pests thus reducing the indiscriminate use of pesticides. Some of the traditional farming practices coupled with relevant scientific knowledge can also go a long way in achieving elimination or lower pollution levels on the farm or used in wider areas including, indigenous knowledge of soil management, agricultural practices, animal husbandry, irrigation system, crop breeding, harvesting and storage which have been traditionally used successfully and in a sustainable manner.³³⁹

³³⁸ Convention on Biological Diversity Secretariat, "TARGET 7 - Technical Rationale extended (provided in document COP/10/INF/12/Rev.1)," op. cit.

³³⁹ Thakuria, G., 'Traditional Knowledge for Sustainable Development: A Geographical Analysis,' *International Journal of Research in Applied, Natural and Social Sciences*, Vol. 2, Issue 9, Sep 2014, 39-44, p.42.

v. Addressing Climate Change

Scholars have rightly suggested that climate change may be one of the biggest anthropogenic disturbance factors imposed on ecosystems today.³⁴⁰ These studies have concluded that climate change affects plants, pollinators and their interactions through increased temperatures, disturbances on rainfall pattern and other many environmental changes, including alteration in the native biodiversity and trophic relationship which result in lower the production of crops.³⁴¹

The *Agenda 2030 on Sustainable Development* urges countries to take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts.³⁴²

8.4 Conclusion

The quest for sustainability and sustainable development requires integrating economic, social, cultural, political, and ecological factors.³⁴³ As indicated above, the various management mechanisms have relevance in the management of natural resources in the Kenyan context. If effectively applied, the result would be the realisation of environmental justice and sustainable use of resources. In addition, a hybrid approach which harnesses the positive attributes of each perspective, while minimizing the negative aspects of each, is also suggested as the most appropriate approach going forward. All the approaches discussed this section have a place in sustainability debate. An integrated approach to natural resources and environmental management is the way to go in order to attain sustainable development.

9. Strengthening the Environmental Liability Regime in Kenya for Sustainable Development

9.1 Introduction

Environmental liability has been defined as an obligation which may result in future payments for the enterprise, due to past events or to compensate a third party harmed by environmental damage by the company.³⁴⁴ Liabilities incurred accrue from either legal obligations, such as rehabilitation of land, a fine or compensation as a result of court decision, or from contractual obligations arising out of company's internal commitment to environmental safeguards.³⁴⁵ Environmental liability stems from the states' desire and

³⁴⁰ Pudasaini, R., et al., "Effect of climate change on insect pollinator: a review," *New York Science Journal*, Vol. 8, No.3, 2015, pp.39-42 at p.40.

³⁴¹ Ibid.

³⁴² United Nations, *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, Goal 13.

³⁴³ Gallopin, G., 'A systems approach to sustainability and sustainable development,' op cit., p.7; See also Goodland, R., 'The Concept of Environmental Sustainability,' *Annual review of ecology and systematics*, Vol. 26, 1995, pp.1-24, at p. 4.

³⁴⁴ Nuta, F. M., & Nuta, A. C., "Environmental Liabilities Accounting: A Review of Some Standards and Guidelines," *Journal of Public Administration, Finance and Law* 2, no. 2 (2012): 47-51, at p.47.

³⁴⁵ Ibid, at p.47.

responsibility to not only ensure the protection of the right to clean and healthy environment but also the fact that the environment is considered to be the main reservoir for most of the resources necessary for realisation of economic and social rights.³⁴⁶

On a general scale, it is believed that environmental hazards are responsible for an estimated 25% of the total burden of disease worldwide, and nearly 35% in regions such as sub-Saharan Africa.³⁴⁷ In this regard, addressing the effects of the environment on human health is considered to be essential if we are to achieve the goal of health for all.³⁴⁸

Despite the progressive Kenyan Constitution making great strides in promoting environmental conservation and protection³⁴⁹, there is still no evidence of strict environmental culpability in cases of environmental damage, with many of the environmental restoration and protection initiatives being left to the state.³⁵⁰

It is against this background that this section examines the status of the environmental liability regime in Kenya and makes some recommendations on how enforcement and compliance with environmental standards can be enhanced as a step towards realising sustainable development in the country.

9.2 Environmental Liability under the International and Regional Environmental Legal Framework

Article 2 (1) of the *Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer*³⁵¹ outlines some of the States' general obligations towards the ozone layer. This Convention mainly advocates for preventive and control measures by States implemented through cooperation.

The *1972 Stockholm Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment* under Principle 13 deals with the issue of compensation for damage to victims of environmental damage.

³⁴⁶ See generally, Muigua, K., *Reconceptualising the Right to Clean and Healthy Environment in Kenya*, Paper Presented at the side event at the 3rd United Nations Environment Assembly held in Nairobi, organized by the UoN School of Law & the Centre International de Droit Comparé de l'Environnement (CIDCE), at the UoN School of Law on Friday 1st December 2017.

³⁴⁷ Health and Environment Linkages Initiative – HELI, *Health and Environment Linkages Initiative*, available at <http://www.who.int/heli/en/> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

³⁴⁸ Higenbottam, N., 'Nurse's Role as an Environmental Activist,' p.2. Available at <http://www.theluminaryproject.org/downloads/Essay%20Contest%20Higenbottam.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁴⁹ See Section Five of the Constitution, Part 2 (Articles 69-72).

³⁵⁰ Article 69 of the Constitution of Kenya 2010.

³⁵¹ United Nations, *Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer*, Vienna, 22 March 1985, United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 1513, p. 293. Kenya is a signatory to the Convention.

The *Rio Conference on Environment and Development from 1992* not only established the basic principles of civil protection of basic ecological values, but also the precautionary principle, all based on the recommendations of the Brundland Commission.³⁵²

The *Montreal Protocol*,³⁵³ an international Treaty, aims to regulate the production and use of chemicals that contribute to the depletion of Earth's ozone layer. The Protocol sets limits on the production of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, and related substances that release chlorine or bromine to the ozone layer of the atmosphere.³⁵⁴

*Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal*³⁵⁵ affirms that States are responsible for the fulfillment of their international obligations concerning the protection of human health and protection and preservation of the environment, and are liable in accordance with international law.³⁵⁶ Also relevant is the *Minamata Convention on Mercury*³⁵⁷ is a global treaty to protect human health and the environment from the adverse effects of mercury.³⁵⁸

The International Court of Justice, in the 1997 case concerning the *Gabcikovo-Nagymaros Project* (Hungary and Slovakia)³⁵⁹, held that the corpus of international law which relates to the environment now consists of the general obligation of states to ensure that activities within their jurisdiction and control respects the environment of other states or areas beyond national control.

The *Aarhus Convention*³⁶⁰ provides that each Party should make appropriate practical and/or other provisions for the public to participate during the preparation of plans and programmes relating to the environment, within a transparent and fair framework, having provided the necessary information to the public..³⁶¹ This Convention affirms the central role of the principle of public participation in environmental assessment.

³⁵² Krstinić, D., Bingulac, N., & Dragojlović, J., "Criminal and civil liability for environmental damage," op. cit., at p. 1167.

³⁵³ Montreal Protocol and (London Amendment) on Substances that Deplete the Ozone layer, 1522 UNTS 3; 26 ILM 1550 (1987). Kenya is a signatory to the Protocol.

³⁵⁴ Arts. 2A-I.

³⁵⁵ Basel, 22 March 1989, 1673 UNTS 126; 28 ILM 657 (1989). Kenya is a signatory to the Convention.

³⁵⁶ Preamble.

³⁵⁷ 16 August 2017, No. 54669. Adopted in 2013 in Japan, entered into force in 2017.

³⁵⁸ https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-17§ion=27&clang=_en [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁵⁹ *Gabcikovo-Nagymaros Project* (Hungary/Slovakia), Judgment, 1. C. J. Reports 1997, p. 7.

³⁶⁰ UNECE, *Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters* (the Aarhus Convention), 1998

³⁶¹ *Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters*, Art. 7.

9.3 Environmental Liability under Kenya’s Legal Framework: The (In) Adequacy

Under the Fourth Schedule to the Constitution, the National and County Governments have shared responsibilities when it comes to environment and natural resources.

The foregoing functions all contribute in one way or the other to creation of a clean and healthy environment.³⁶² The two government levels should work together to facilitate a coordinated, multisectoral approach for effectiveness discharge of their environmental responsibilities.

9.3.1 Environmental Management Tools in Kenya

While some approaches seek to rely on a human rights approach to environmental conservation and protection, there are other regulatory approaches to achieving environmental protection and public health that are not rights-based. These include economic incentives and disincentives, criminal law, and private liability regimes which have all formed part of the framework of international and national environmental law and health law.³⁶³ This section discusses some of these approaches in reference to Kenya’s environmental laws. It is however worth pointing out that while most of these tools are provided for and enforced through the *Environmental Management and Coordination Act (EMCA)*³⁶⁴, there are corresponding provisions and requirements under the various sectoral laws on water³⁶⁵, land³⁶⁶, forests³⁶⁷, mining³⁶⁸, public health³⁶⁹, agricultural production³⁷⁰ and energy³⁷¹ sectors, among others. Their wordings may be different but they are mainly concerned with health and environmental protection while carrying out various activities or laying out relevant infrastructure. They also define penalties and other remedies in case of violation of set rules and regulations.

a. Civil Liability Against State and Private persons

³⁶² Article 42, Constitution of Kenya 2010 (Government printer, Nairobi, 2010).

³⁶³ Shelton, D., ‘Human Rights, Health and Environmental Protection: Linkages in Law and Practice: A Background Paper for the WHO,’ p. 3. Available at http://www.who.int/hhr/information/Human_Rights_Health_and_Environmental_Protection.pdf [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁶⁴ *Environmental Management and Coordination Act (EMCA)*, Act No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya; See also *Environmental Management and Coordination (Amendment) Act*, 2015).

³⁶⁵ *Water Act, No. 43 of 2016*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁶⁶ *Land Act, No. 6 of 2012*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁶⁷ *Forests Management and Conservation Act, No. 34 of 2016*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁶⁸ *Mining Act, No. 12 of 2016*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁶⁹ *Public Health Act, Cap 242*, Laws of Kenya; *Health Act, No. 21 of 2017*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁷⁰ *Agriculture, Fisheries and Food Authority Act, No. 13 of 2013*, Laws of Kenya; *Fisheries Management and Development Act, No. 35 of 2016*, Laws of Kenya; *Crops Act, No. 16 of 2013*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁷¹ *Energy Act, No. 1 of 2019*, Laws of Kenya.

Civil law protection is enforced through sanctions as a mechanism of coercion against a person or entity that causes damage, with the aim of achieving and bringing the property or other personal non-material goods to the state in which they were before threat or disturbance.³⁷² Notably, civil law sanctions relating to protection of the environment are grouped on the basis of their function: *preventive sanctions, natural restitution and compensatory and reparatory sanctions* (emphasis added).³⁷³

The Constitution of Kenya guarantees the right to a clean and healthy environment, which includes the right—to have the environment protected for the benefit of present and future generations through legislative and other measures, particularly those contemplated in Article 69; and to have obligations relating to the environment fulfilled under Article 70. It defines duties and obligations for both the state and every person.

b. Criminal Liability in Environmental Matters

Criminal law enforces the protection of society from crime, so that the most favorable protection of the environment is achieved in this way.³⁷⁴

The *Environmental Management and Coordination Act (EMCA), 1999*, provides for criminal liability in environmental matters under various sections.³⁷⁵

Part XIII of EMCA on environmental offences carries more elaborate provisions on criminal liability in environmental matters.³⁷⁶

c. Environmental Impact Assessment

Environmental Impact Assessment means a systematic examination conducted to determine whether or not a programme, activity or project will have any adverse impacts on the environment.³⁷⁷

Effective Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) may provide an opportunity for public scrutiny and participation in decision-making; introduce elements of

³⁷² Krstinić, D., Bingulac, N., & Dragojlović, J., "Criminal and civil liability for environmental damage," *Economics of Agriculture* 64, no. 3 (2017): 1161-1176, 1163.

³⁷³ *Ibid.*, at p. 1163.

³⁷⁴ Krstinić, D., Bingulac, N., & Dragojlović, J., "Criminal and civil liability for environmental damage," *Economics of Agriculture* 64, no. 3 (2017): 1161-1176.

³⁷⁵ S. 118, EMCA.

³⁷⁶ Environmental Management and Co-ordination Act, Act. No. 8 of 1999, Part XIII Ss. 137-146.

³⁷⁷ *Environmental Management and Co-Ordination Act*, No 8 of 1999 (Government Printer, Nairobi, 1999), s.2; Al Ouran, N.M., 'Analysis of Environmental Health linkages in the EIA process in Jordan,' *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences*, Vol. 4, No. 7, 2015, pp. 862- 871, p. 862.

independence and impartiality; and facilitate better informed judgments when balancing environmental and developmental needs.³⁷⁸

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is one of the tools for environmental management, a procedure for evaluating the likely impact of a proposed activity on the environment. Its object is to provide decision-makers with information about the possible effects of a project before authorizing it to proceed.³⁷⁹

The *Environment (Management and Conservation) Act (EMCA) 1999*³⁸⁰ provides for the use of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) in environmental management and conservation efforts.

EIA can be a powerful tool for keeping the corporates including Multinational Corporations (MNCs) operating in the country in check. However, the general public should be empowered through more involvement in the same to ensure that the EIAs achieve their objectives.

This is the only way that the affected sections of population appreciate the use of EIAs and also ensure that such exercises are not mere formalities on paper but are utilised fully for the protection of the right to clean and healthy environment.³⁸¹

d. Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA) and Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA)

One of the conceptual definitions of SEA is a process directed at providing the proponent (during policy formulation) and the decision-maker (at the point of policy approval) with a holistic understanding of the environmental and social implications of the policy proposal, expanding the focus well beyond the issues that were the original driving force for new policy.³⁸²

The objectives of the Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) process are to provide for a high level of protection of the environment and to promote sustainable

³⁷⁸ Birnie, P. & Boyle, A., “*International Law and the Environment*”, (2nd ed. Oxford University Press, 2002), p.131-132; See also Muigua, K., ‘Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) in Kenya,’ available at <http://www.kmco.co.ke/attachments/Art./109/A%20Paper%20on%20Environmental%20impact%20assessment.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁷⁹ Birnie, P. & Boyle, A., *International Law and the Environment*, (2nd ed., Oxford University Press, 2002), p.131-132.

³⁸⁰ Act No. 8 of 1999, Laws of Kenya.

³⁸¹ Jenje, B., ‘MP to compensate families injured by lead poison ‘if guilty’,’ *Daily Nation*, Wednesday, April 29, 2015, available at <http://www.nation.co.ke/news/politics/MP-to-compensate-families-injured-by-lead-poison-if-guilty/-/1064/2701594/-/15u9ivl/-/index.html> [Accessed on 15/1/2020]; See also Chege, M. W., *et al*, ‘Lead contamination of traditional hand-dug wells in parts of Kwale County, Kenya,’ *International Journal of Physical Sciences*, Vol. 8, No.17, 9 May, 2013, pp. 835-839.

³⁸² Brown, A.L. & Thérivel, R., ‘Effective methodologies: Principles to guide the development of strategic environmental assessment methodology,’ *op cit*, at p. 184.

development by contributing to the integration of environmental considerations into the preparation and adoption of specified policies, plans and programmes.³⁸³

Thus, it may be said that Strategic environment assessment is all about ensuring that public policy, programmes and plans are compliant with sound environmental management. Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA) is an effective environmental management tool since it integrates the social issues that are likely to emerge and not just the environmental considerations.³⁸⁴

Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) has been hailed as a key means of integrating environmental and social considerations into policies, plans and programs, particularly in sector decision-making and reform, and the World has even demonstrated its commitment to promoting the use of SEA as a tool for sustainable development.³⁸⁵

While Kenya's parent Environmental Act (EMCA) was initially silent on SEA, the same was introduced via the *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015* (Amendment Act 2015).³⁸⁶ It has been posited that the establishment of Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) in Kenya was ostensibly in recognition of the fact that the existing Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) tool was unable to respond to environmental integration needs at strategic levels of decision-making.³⁸⁷

The Amendment Act 2015 amended EMCA by introducing section 57A (1) which provides that all Policies, Plans and Programmes for implementation should be subjected to Strategic Environmental Assessment.³⁸⁸

The *Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003*³⁸⁹ also provide for SEA and interprets it to mean the process of subjecting public policy, programmes and plans to tests for compliance with sound environmental management.³⁹⁰ The Regulations also require the Government and all the lead agencies to incorporate principles of strategic environmental assessment in the development of sector or national policy.³⁹¹

³⁸³ Ibid; See also the *Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003*, Legal Notice 101 of 2003, Regulations 42 & 43.

³⁸⁴ Notably, the *Energy Act, No. 1 of 2019*, Laws of Kenya, section 107 (1) (2)(d); s. 57A(1), *Environmental Management Co-ordination (Amendment) Act 2015*.

³⁸⁵ The World Bank, 'Strategic Environmental Assessment,' September 10, 2013, available at <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/environment/brief/strategic-environmental-assessment> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁸⁶ *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, No. 5 of 2015*, Laws of Kenya.

³⁸⁷ Mutui, F.N., 'The Development and Practice of Strategic Environmental Assessment (Sea) in Kenya,' *European Scientific Journal*, October 2013, vol.9, No.29, pp. 165-185, p. 166.

³⁸⁸ S. 42, *Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Amendment) Act, 2015*.

³⁸⁹ Legal Notice No. 101 of 2003.

³⁹⁰ *Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003*, Legal Notice No. 101, Regulation 2.

³⁹¹ Ibid, Regulation 42(3); 43 (1).

The Constitution captures all the elements of SEA such as public participation and sustainable development and calls for an integrated approach to environmental and development agenda.

Applied as a systematic process, SEA leads to more pro-active decision making in support of sustainable development, ensuring that ethical principles are considered in policy, plan and programme making and different paths on how to achieve overall goals and objectives can be mapped out.³⁹²

e. Environmental Audits and Monitoring

The Constitution of Kenya requires the State to establish systems of environmental impact assessment, environmental audit and monitoring of the environment.³⁹³ An initial environmental audit and a control audit are conducted by a qualified and authorized environmental auditor or environmental inspector who is an expert or a firm of experts registered by NEMA. In the case of an ongoing project NEMA requires the proponent to undertake an initial environmental audit study to provide baseline information upon which subsequent environmental audits shall be based. The proponent shall be issued with an acknowledgement letter and an improvement order where necessary.³⁹⁴

The *Environment (Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003*³⁹⁵ provide the necessary guidelines on the procedure.

Arguably, NEMA, as it is currently, is still facing challenges in discharging its mandate and there is a need to work closely with the county governments in order to be in touch with what is happening across the country.³⁹⁶

f. Implementation of Principles of Sustainable Development

The principles of sustainable development as captured in EMCA³⁹⁷ include: the principle of public participation in the development of policies, plans and processes for the management of the environment; the principle of international co-operation in the

³⁹² Fischer, T.B., 'Strategic environmental assessment in post-modern times,' op cit, at p. 163.

³⁹³ Constitution of Kenya, 2010, Art. 69(1) (f).

³⁹⁴ The Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003. Available at https://www.nema.go.ke/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=27&Itemid=167 [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

³⁹⁵ Environmental (Impact Assessment and Audit) Regulations, 2003, Legal Notice 101 of 2003, Laws of Kenya (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2003).

³⁹⁶ See *Johnson Kamau Njuguna & another v Director of Public Prosecutions* [2018] eKLR, Judicial Review No 9 of 2018.

³⁹⁷ EMCA, S. 3(5).

management of environmental resources shared by two or more states; the polluter-pays principle; and the pre-cautionary principle.

There is a need to actively engage the communities in environmental management and conservation in order to help in the implementation of these principles. With the communities empowered, then it is possible to hold to account those who flout environmental laws, be they entities or individuals. It is easier to engage a community that feels a sense of belonging than one that feels sidelined by the state actors.

9.4 Enhanced Environmental Enforcement and Compliance for Sustainable Development in Kenya

Environmental protection is inherent in the concept of sustainable development, as is a focus on the sources of environmental problems rather than the symptoms.³⁹⁸ While the existing laws seem to put great emphasis on enforcement of environmental responsibilities, there is little evidence of actual promotion of deterrence under the current environmental liability regime in Kenya.

Proper apportionment of environmental liability in the country will go a long way in ensuring that all stakeholders, both public and private play their role in achieving sustainable development agenda. Investing in compliance and enforcement of environmental laws benefits the public by securing a healthier and safer environment for themselves and their children.³⁹⁹

Strengthening environmental compliance and enforcement requires renewed efforts by individuals and institutions everywhere. Government officials, particularly inspectors, investigators, and prosecutors, must exercise public authority in trust for all of their citizens according to the standards of good governance and with a view to protecting and improving public well-being and conserving the environment.⁴⁰⁰ The judiciary has a fundamental contribution to make in upholding the rule of law and ensuring that national and international laws are interpreted and applied fairly, efficiently, and effectively.⁴⁰¹

Concerted efforts from all the stakeholders, including the general public can ensure that the compliance and enforcement framework in place is used to promote and safeguard

³⁹⁸ Ibid, para. 50.

³⁹⁹ International Network for Environmental Compliance and Enforcement (INECE), 'The Importance of Environmental Compliance and Enforcement for Sustainable Development for the Rio+20 Conference,' *op cit*, p.2.

⁴⁰⁰ Ibid.

⁴⁰¹ Ibid.

the right to clean and healthy environment as envisaged in the Constitution and environmental laws.

9.4.1 Encouraging Proactive Corporate Environmental Compliance

It has rightly been pointed out that virtually all companies face the possibility of environmental liability costs and as such, it is imperative for the management to make at a least a general estimate of their company's potential future environmental liability be it from legally mandated cleanup of hazardous waste sites or from lawsuits involving consumers, employees, or communities.⁴⁰² The gathered information, it is argued could be useful in the following ways: encourage defensive and prudent operations and waste reduction; improve manufacturing, waste disposal and shipping practices; negotiate and settle disputes with insurance carriers; influence regulators and public policy makers; determine suitable levels of financial resources; reassess corporate strategy and management practices (think green); articulate a comprehensive risk management program; improve public relations and public citizenship; and assess hidden risks in takeovers and acquisitions.⁴⁰³

It is advisable for companies and organisations to engage in proactive environmental risk management as part of their strategic plans in order to avoid costly environmental liability mistakes.

9.4.2 Due Diligence/Cultivating Environmental Ethics

Kenyans have a role to play in achieving the ideal of a clean and healthy environment.⁴⁰⁴ There is need to cultivate a culture of respect for environment by all, without necessarily relying on courts for enforcing the same.⁴⁰⁵ The citizenry should be able to practise preventive measures while allowing the courts to come in only in cases of violation of environmental standards. Developing environmental ethics and consciousness can be enhanced through adopting participatory approaches to conservation and management of environment and its resources.⁴⁰⁶ Dissemination of information and knowledge in meaningful forms can also enhance participation in decision-making and enhance appreciation of the best ways of protecting and conserving the environment.⁴⁰⁷

⁴⁰² Schoemaker, P. J., & Schoemaker, J. A., "Estimating environmental liability: Quantifying the unknown," *California Management Review*, Vol.37, no. 3 (1995): 29-61, at p.29.

⁴⁰³ *Ibid*, at pp. 29-30.

⁴⁰⁴ Article 69(2), Constitution of Kenya.

⁴⁰⁵ Preamble, Constitution of Kenya.

⁴⁰⁶ Article 69(2), Constitution of Kenya.

⁴⁰⁷ See generally, Muigua, K., *Realising Environmental Democracy in Kenya*, available at <http://kmco.co.ke/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/REALISING-ENVIRONMENTAL-DEMOCRACY-IN-KENYA-4th-May-2018-1-1.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

There is, therefore, a need to encourage voluntary compliance with environmental regulations, by the general public. This can be achieved through creating public awareness on the impacts of unsustainable and environment-degrading production and social activities, while providing sustainable alternatives. Incentives and disincentives can also be offered to encourage people to discard unsustainable methods of production and other activities that contribute to the degradation of the environment. Environmental rules that reward environmental leadership, build on best practices, and ensure a level playing field are more likely to succeed in securing compliance.⁴⁰⁸

The same should include change of attitude by the general public. The current generation has a responsibility and an environmental liability to ensure that future (unborn) generations have their future guaranteed (*Oposa et al. v. Fulgencio S. Factoran, Jr. et al (G.R. No. 101083) (199)*).⁴⁰⁹

9.4.3 Environmental Insurance

Environmental insurance is one of the tools that is used in environmental management. However, EMCA does not have provisions touching on the same. In addition, Kenyan insurance firms are yet to popularise environmental insurance services. It is suggested that this is a service that they should take up especially in light of the sustainable development agenda. However, all is not lost as a few of the insurance providers have packages on environmental impairment liability, such as the AIG Kenya Insurance Company whose package covers: third-party bodily injury; third-party property and environmental damage; and clean-up costs for pollution conditions, both on site or while migrating from site.⁴¹⁰ Environmental law practitioners may also advise their clients on the possibility of taking up environmental liability insurance.

There is a need to popularize environmental insurance in the country for both medium and huge companies to shield them against environmental liability which could turn out to be too costly.⁴¹¹

⁴⁰⁸ International Network for Environmental Compliance and Enforcement (INECE), 'The Importance of Environmental Compliance and Enforcement for Sustainable Development for the Rio+20 Conference,' p.2, available at <http://www.uncsd2012.org/content/documents/332INECE%20Submission%20Rio%20Compilation%20Document.pdf> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

⁴⁰⁹ Ibid.

⁴¹⁰ <https://www.aig.co.ke/commercial/products/liabilities/environmental-impairment-liability> [Accessed on 21/1/2020].

⁴¹¹ Smith Jr, T.T., "Environmental Damage Liability Insurance—A Primer," *The Business Lawyer* (1983): 333-354, at p.336.

9.5 Conclusion

The environment should be accorded some right, independent of the human beings. The constitutional recognition of this position in Kenya should give the law makers, courts and other stakeholders an incentive and clear authority to take strong action to protect the environment.

Strengthening the environmental liability regime in Kenya is necessary in order to enable the country to have a clean and healthy environment and to achieve sustainable development.

10. Mainstreaming Traditional Ecological Knowledge in Kenya for Sustainable Development

10.1 Introduction

‘Environmental mainstreaming’ has been defined as the informed inclusion of relevant environmental concerns into the decisions of institutions that drive national, local and sectoral development policy, rules, plans, investment and action.⁴¹² The section thus looks at how traditional environmental knowledge can be mainstreamed not just in the agricultural sector but all areas that have an environmental aspect within them.

Africa has a rich and highly diverse array of natural resources. It also has traditional communities’ knowledge and environmental governance practices that have been practised over centuries before the advent of colonialization.⁴¹³ This was a reflection of the cumulative body of knowledge and beliefs handed down through generations by cultural transmission and the relationship of the local people with their environment.⁴¹⁴ Traditional knowledge incorporates belief systems that play a fundamental role in a people’s livelihood, maintaining their health, and protecting and replenishing the environment.⁴¹⁵

From international law to domestic laws, has been a realisation of the critical role that traditional knowledge has played over the centuries especially among indigenous and local communities. This is especially pronounced within the sustainable development discourse. As early as 1970s and 80s, there were attempts at mainstreaming traditional

⁴¹² Dalal-Clayton, D. B., & Bass, S., *The challenges of environmental mainstreaming: Experience of integrating environment into development institutions and decisions*, No. 1. IHeD, 2009.

⁴¹³ African Regional Intellectual Property Organization, available at <http://www.aripo.org/index.php/services/traditional-knowledge> [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁴¹⁴ Ibid.

⁴¹⁵ Ibid.

environmental knowledge in policy, law and action plans as a way of promoting sustainable development.⁴¹⁶

Despite the international recognition of the rights of these communities to be consulted and involved in decision-making processes that directly affect their livelihoods, countries around the world continue to disregard such rights with adverse effects on the ability of the affected communities to fight poverty and realise the right to self-determination. The global call for application of Free, Prior, And Informed Consent (FPIC) in resource extraction and management is generally meant to address the abuse of the rights of indigenous peoples worldwide including: indigenous land rights, recognition of and respect for culture, the right to economic participation, to a livelihood and to a clean environment, among others.⁴¹⁷

Food security depends, *inter alia*, on sustainable management of natural resources and the environment since in many indigenous communities, natural resources are the principal sources of their staple food.⁴¹⁸ Environmental sustainability comes with sound environmental decision-making. This is supposed to be an all-inclusive process that involves not only the formal decision-makers but also communities. These communities are a rich source of traditional knowledge that includes environmental knowledge.

10.2 Traditional Environmental Knowledge: Relevance to the Environment and Natural Resources Management

Traditional knowledge has been broadly defined as a cumulative, collective body of knowledge, experience, and values held by societies with a history of subsistence.⁴¹⁹ The term is not to be limited to a specific technical field, and may include agricultural, environmental or medical knowledge, and knowledge associated with genetic resources.⁴²⁰

Traditional knowledge or traditional ecological knowledge is believed to represent experience acquired over thousands of years of direct human contact with the environment.⁴²¹ A growing recognition of the capabilities of ancient agriculturalists, water engineers and architects led to increased appreciation of ethnoscience, ancient and contemporary, which paved way for the acceptability of the validity of traditional

⁴¹⁶ WCED, *Our common future: Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development*, G. H. Brundtland, (Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1987.

⁴¹⁷ Owen, J.R. and Kemp, D., "'Free Prior and Informed Consent', Social Complexity and the Mining Industry: Establishing A Knowledge Base," *Resources Policy*, Vol.41 (2014): 91-100., at p. 92.

⁴¹⁸ *The Rome World Food Summit*, Commitment No. 3.

⁴¹⁹ Ellis, S.C., "Meaningful consideration? A review of traditional knowledge in environmental decision making," *Arctic* (2005): 66-77, at p. 66.

⁴²⁰ *Ibid.*

⁴²¹ Inglis, J., ed., *Traditional ecological knowledge: concepts and cases*, IDRC, 1993, at p. 1.

knowledge in a variety of fields.⁴²² One of the fields that embraced the use of traditional knowledge is the environment.

Traditional ecological knowledge is also seen as bound up with “indigenous stewardship method,” which is defined as the “ecologically sustainable use of natural resources within their capacity to sustain natural processes.”⁴²³ Proponents of traditional knowledge maintain that it can offer contributions to environmental decision making from a broader scope of environmental values, practices, and knowledge.⁴²⁴

The resilience of indigenous peoples and local communities, as sustained by their cultural systems which have adapted to local ecological niches over long timeframes, and the detailed and broad knowledge they have of adaptation, is affected negatively by the loss of land, ecosystem capacity, and alienation of culturally significant places, migration and losses in livelihoods.⁴²⁵ They are thus interested parties when it comes to efforts towards achieving sustainable development and should thus be included.⁴²⁶

There are two recognised practical methods for encouraging the use of traditional knowledge in environmental decision-making. The first one includes those methods that are based on official recognition of traditional knowledge, followed the development of rules of procedure for the use of knowledge by institutions of authority. In this “top-down” approach, the structures of governance are constructed accommodate traditional knowledge, but the knowledge itself is not fostered or sought out.⁴²⁷ The second category increases the capacity of indigenous people to bring traditional knowledge to bear on policies and procedures governance and regulation. This “bottom-up” approach is characterized by initiatives designed to encourage learning and transmission of traditional knowledge at community level, as well as developing the means communicate this knowledge within the structures processes of environmental governance.⁴²⁸

⁴²² Ibid, p.2.

⁴²³ Whyte, K.P., "On the role of traditional ecological knowledge as a collaborative concept: a philosophical study," *Ecological processes*, Vol.2, no. 1 (2013): 7, at p.3.

⁴²⁴ Ellis, S.C., "Meaningful consideration? A review of traditional knowledge in environmental decision making," *Arctic* (2005): 66-77, at p. 67.

⁴²⁵ Crawhall, N., 'Indigenous knowledge in adaptation: conflict prevention and resilience-building,' *Conflict-sensitive Adaptation: Use Human Rights to Build Social and Environmental Resilience, Brief 10*. (Indigenous Peoples of Africa Co-ordinating Committee and IUCN Commission on Environmental, Economic and Social Policy, 2014), p. 2. Available at http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/tecs_csa_10_indigenous_knowledge_in_adaptation_crawhall.pdf [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁴²⁶ Ibid, p.8.

⁴²⁷ Ellis, S.C., "Meaningful consideration? A review of traditional knowledge in environmental decision making," *Arctic* (2005): 66-77, at p.67.

⁴²⁸ Ibid, p.67.

10.3 International and National Legal Framework on Traditional Environmental Knowledge

10.3.1 International Framework on Traditional Environmental Knowledge

The *Convention on Biological Diversity* recognizes the importance of indigenous and local communities to the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity.

The *United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples*,⁴²⁹ provides that indigenous peoples have the right to maintain, control, protect and develop their cultural heritage, traditional knowledge and traditional cultural expressions, as well as the manifestations of their sciences, technologies and cultures, including human and genetic resources, seeds, medicines, knowledge of the properties of fauna and flora, oral traditions, literatures, designs, sports and traditional games and visual and performing arts.⁴³⁰

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) opines that the promotion and protection of traditional and local food and agricultural knowledge will require international, intercultural and interdisciplinary approaches, communication and cooperation.⁴³¹

10.3.2 National Legal and Institutional Framework on Traditional Environmental Knowledge

The Constitution of Kenya provides that culture is the foundation of the nation and the cumulative civilization of the Kenyan people and nation.⁴³² Specifically, it obligates the State to, *inter alia*, recognise the *role of science and indigenous technologies in the development of the nation*, and, recognise and protect the ownership of indigenous seeds and plant varieties, their genetic and diverse characteristics and their use by the communities of Kenya (emphasis added).⁴³³ Further, with respect to the environment, the State is obligated to protect and enhance intellectual property in, and indigenous knowledge of, biodiversity and the genetic resources of the communities.⁴³⁴ The State should not just protect the indigenous knowledge but should also actively promote the

⁴²⁹ 61/295. *United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples*.

⁴³⁰ *United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples*, Art. 31(1).

⁴³¹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), *FAO and traditional knowledge: the linkages with sustainability, food security and climate change Impacts*, 2009, p.9.

⁴³² Art. 11(1), Constitution of Kenya 2010.

⁴³³ *Ibid*, Art. 11(2) (b) & (3) (b).

⁴³⁴ *Ibid*, Art. 69(1) (c),.

use of this knowledge for environmental protection and conservation for sustainable environment.

It is also noteworthy that most of the principles of sustainable development are similar to the traditional practices of indigenous communities in Kenya as far as application of indigenous ecological knowledge is concerned. Such principles as precautionary principle are a reflection of the unwritten principles on environmental management that have existed for generations across indigenous cultures. These communities considered themselves and their cultural ecological practices as part of the ecosystem hence adopted both anthropocentric and ecocentric approaches when dealing with environmental and natural resource management.⁴³⁵ It has been acknowledged by some government officials that resettling traditional forest-dwelling communities in their natural habitats can play an important role in restoring the country's forest cover.⁴³⁶ This is because such people have the traditional skills needed to help the Government conserve the forests.⁴³⁷ These communities ensured conservation of the wildlife resource through cultural and social bonds, and traditional practices. Sacred beliefs centred on certain wildlife species ensured that conservation principles became part of their way of life.⁴³⁸

One way of implementing the constitutional obligations on the state to protect and enhance intellectual property in, and indigenous knowledge of, biodiversity and the genetic resources of the communities is to incorporate it with the scientific knowledge and involving these communities and helping them appreciate all the foregoing principles of natural resource management for realisation of sustainable development agenda. These principles are both international and cultural.⁴³⁹

⁴³⁵ See generally, Muigua, K., *Harnessing Traditional Knowledge for Environmental Conflict Management in Kenya*, available at <http://www.kmco.co.ke/attachments/article/175/Traditional%20knowledge%20and%20conflict%20management-25%20April%202016.pdf> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴³⁶ Kibet L., 'Swazuri reveals plans to recognise forest settlers,' *The Standard*, Thursday, July 28, 2016 (The Standard Group, Nairobi, 2016), p. 2.

⁴³⁷ Ibid.

⁴³⁸ Republic of Kenya: Ministry of Forestry and Wildlife, *National Wildlife Conservation and Management Policy, 2012*, p.2.

⁴³⁹ See *Protection of Traditional Knowledge and Traditional Cultural Expressions Act, 2016*, No. 33 of 2016, (Government Printer, Nairobi, 2016).

10.4 Kenya's Environmental and Natural Resources Laws: Challenges and Prospects

As already highlighted in the previous section, formal recognition of traditional knowledge has existed in Kenya's laws for some time.⁴⁴⁰ However, this has not marked an increase or even efforts to promote any meaningful or active utilisation of the knowledge held by communities for management of environmental problems in the country. There has been what mostly seems like promoting use of formal and western knowledge at the expense of the traditional one. As a result, communities feel sidelined as they are neither involved in decision-making and management practices and are also expected to respond to the government's directives without any inclusion. This has especially been exemplified by the Government's efforts at conservation and management of forests and the associated resources.⁴⁴¹ During evictions, people have been accused of illegal logging and clearing of forests for settlement and farming.⁴⁴²

In the case of *Joseph Letuya & 21 others v Attorney General & 5 others* [2014] eKLR⁴⁴³, the Court observed that: "quite apart from the special consideration that needs to be given to the Ogiek community as a minority and indigenous group when allocating forest land that this court has enunciated on in the foregoing, this court also recognizes the unique and central role of indigenous forest dwellers in the management of forests.

The Maasai peaceful co-existence with wildlife is however not without challenges especially when environmental co-management is practised. It has been observed that although Maasai knowledge is evoked in conservation planning proposals, Maasai participation as knowledgeable actors in conservation activities on their lands remains extremely limited.⁴⁴⁴ This is compared to situations throughout the world where environmental co-management is said to be taking place between scientists and local

⁴⁴⁰ Muigua, K., *Nurturing Our Environment for Sustainable Development*, Glenwood Publishers, Nairobi, 2016; Muigua, K., *Harnessing Traditional Knowledge for Environmental Conflict Management in Kenya*, available at <http://www.kmco.co.ke/attachments/article/175/Traditional%20knowledge%20and%20conflict%20management-25%20April%202016.pdf> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁴¹ Soi, C., "Kenya to evict thousands to protect Mau forest," *Al Jazeera News*, 14 March 2019. Available at <https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2019/03/kenya-evict-thousands-protect-mau-forest-190314165702863.html> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁴² Murage, G., "CS Tobiko to order second phase of Mau evictions," *The Star*, 16 July 2019. Available at <https://www.the-star.co.ke/news/2019-07-16-cs-tobiko-to-order-second-phase-of-mau-evictions/> [Accessed on 22/01/2020]; Vidija, P., "Rift Valley MPs turn wrath on Tobiko over Mau evictions," *The Star*, 29 July 2018. Available at <https://www.the-star.co.ke/news/2018-07-29-rift-valley-mps-turn-wrath-on-tobiko-over-mau-evictions/> [Accessed on 22/01/2020]. Per Hon. Isaac Ruto, former Governor of Bomet County.

⁴⁴³ ELC Civil Suit No. 821 of 2012 (OS).

⁴⁴⁴ Goldman, M., "Tracking wildebeest, locating knowledge: Maasai and conservation biology understandings of wildebeest behavior in Northern Tanzania," *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space* 25, no. 2 (2007): 307-331, at p.308.

communities.⁴⁴⁵ Thus, while some instances seem to support and recognise the use of traditional knowledge, there has not been consistency. There is a need to mainstream traditional environmental knowledge for environmental management and governance in Kenya.

10.5 Mainstreaming Traditional Ecological Knowledge in Kenya's Environmental Governance Framework

Traditional knowledge may contribute to improved development strategies in several ways such as by helping identify cost-effective and sustainable mechanisms for poverty alleviation that are locally manageable and locally meaningful; by a better understanding of the complexities of sustainable development in its ecological and social diversity, and helping to identify innovative pathways to sustainable humandevelopmental that enhance local communities and their environment.⁴⁴⁶

Recognition and active utilisation of communities' traditional environmental knowledge can create a viable channel for communities to appreciate government's efforts ineffective environmental governance through promoting sustainable use of the environment and its resources.⁴⁴⁷

It has been argued that 'while trust and community are equally necessary in addressing complex environmental problems, building institutions that foster knowledge and trust, participation and community, is one of the greatest challenges confronting today's human societies'.⁴⁴⁸

It is important to point out that while policy and legal framework is necessary, it cannot alone guarantee achievement of environmental justice for communities. The law alone cannot enforce the common interest and thus it needs community knowledge and support, which entails greater public participation in the decisions that affect the environment. This is best secured by decentralizing the management of resources upon which local communities depend, and giving these communities an effective say over the use of these resources. It will also require promoting citizens' initiatives, empowering people's organizations, and strengthening local democracy'.⁴⁴⁹

Environmental justice is based on the human right to a healthy and safe environment, a fair share to natural resources, the right not to suffer disproportionately from

⁴⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁴⁶ African Regional Intellectual Property Organization, *op cit*.

⁴⁴⁷ Mohammad, N., 'Environmental Rights for Administering Clean and Healthy Environment towards Sustainable Development in Malaysia: A Case Study,' *International Journal of Business and Management*; Vol. 9, No. 8; 2014, pp. 191-198 at p.192.

⁴⁴⁸ Jasanoff, Sheila, "The dilemma of environmental democracy," *op cit.*, at 65.

⁴⁴⁹ Brundtland, GH, *Our Common Future: report of the World Commission on Environment and Development*, Oxford University, 1987, A/RES/42/187, para. 77.

environmental policies, regulations or laws, and reasonable access to environmental information, alongside fair opportunities to participate in environmental decision-making.⁴⁵⁰ In Africa, environmental justice mostly entails the right to have access to, use and control over natural resources by communities.⁴⁵¹

Traditional knowledge, coupled with other forms of knowledge can enhance predicting and preventing the potential environmental impacts of development, as well as informing wise land-use and resource management especially within the local community setups.⁴⁵² Proponents of traditional knowledge maintain that it can offer contributions to environmental decision making from a broader scope of environmental values, practices, and knowledge.⁴⁵³

Traditional knowledge can be used at the local level by communities as the basis for making decisions pertaining to food security, human and animal health, education, natural resource management and other vital activities.⁴⁵⁴ Exploring the community's knowledge and knowledge of people dealing with agriculture, is crucial to determine their norms, values, and belief in regards to their activities, particularly in the area of water and land management.⁴⁵⁵

Incorporating provisions recognising traditional environmental knowledge in national environmental laws is commendable but just marks the first step towards mainstreaming such knowledge into effective environmental governance. There is need for actively and meaningfully involving communities in utilising traditional environmental knowledge to practice sustainable production methods. Where they do not perceive a danger to their livelihoods, these communities are likely to embrace development projects and are also not likely to turn to unconventional ways of protecting their livelihoods.⁴⁵⁶

⁴⁵⁰ Scottish Executive Social Research, *Sustainable Development: A Review of International Literature*, (Scottish Executive Social Research, 2006), p.8. Available at <http://www.gov.scot/resource/doc/123822/0029776.pdf> [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁴⁵¹ Obiora, L., "Symbolic Episodes in the Quest for Environmental Justice," *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol.21, No. 2, 1991, p. 477.

⁴⁵² Ellis, S.C., Meaningful Consideration? A Review of Traditional Knowledge in Environmental Decision Making,' *Arctic*, Vol. 58, No. 1 (March 2005), p. 66–77 at p. 67.

⁴⁵³ *Ibid* at p. 67.

⁴⁵⁴ Gorjestani, N., 'Indigenous Knowledge for Development: Opportunities and Challenges,' in Twarog, S. & Kapoor, P. (eds), 'Protecting and Promoting Traditional Knowledge: Systems, National Experiences and International Dimensions,' (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 2004), UNCTAD/DITC/TED/10, pp. 265-272 at p. 265. Available at http://unctad.org/en/docs/ditcted10_en.pdf [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁴⁵⁵ Retnowati, A., et al, 'Environmental Ethics in Local Knowledge Responding to Climate Change: An Understanding of Seasonal Traditional Calendar *Pranoto Mongso* and Its Phenology in Karst Area of Gunung Kidul, Yogyakarta, Indonesia,' *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, Vol. 20, 2014, pp. 785 – 794 at p. 787.

⁴⁵⁶ Muigua, K., *Nurturing Our Environment for Sustainable Development*, Glenwood Publishers, Nairobi – 2016.

10.5 Conclusion

One way of protecting and enhancing the use of traditional environmental knowledge in environmental management, while ensuring meaningful inclusion and participation of local communities, is integrating it into the environmental governance framework as this will help achieve sustainable development as contemplated in the sustainable development agenda. Combining western scientific knowledge which forms the bulk of *formal laws, policies and programmes with traditional environmental knowledge for the purpose of improving natural resources and environmental management is important for inclusive and participatory approaches to environmental management* (emphasis added). The implication would be that environmental scientists and policy professionals, indigenous and non-indigenous, should focus more on creating long term processes that allow for the implications of different approaches to knowledge in relation to stewardship and management priorities to be responsibly thought through.⁴⁵⁷ This will improve cooperative environmental and natural resources stewardship and management between indigenous and non-indigenous institutions.⁴⁵⁸

11. Effective Environmental Management and Governance for Peace Building in Kenya

11.1 Introduction

SDG Goal 16 of the *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*⁴⁵⁹ seeks to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.⁴⁶⁰ The *Agenda* also rightly points out that there can be no sustainable development without peace and no peace without sustainable development. The *Agenda* recognizes the need to build peaceful, just and inclusive societies that provide equal access to justice and that are based on respect for human rights (including the right to development), on effective rule of law and good governance at all levels and on transparent, effective and accountable institutions.⁴⁶¹

It is against this background that this section discusses the fundamental principles underlying environmental governance and links the same to peacebuilding. The discussion is based on the hypothesis that there exists a link between the state of environmental governance and the peace building in any country.

⁴⁵⁷ Whyte, K.P., "On the role of traditional ecological knowledge as a collaborative concept: a philosophical study." *Ecological processes*, Vol.2, no. 1 (2013): 7, p. 2.

⁴⁵⁸ Ibid, p. 3.

⁴⁵⁹ UN General Assembly, *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, 21 October 2015, A/RES/70/1.

⁴⁶⁰ Goal 16,

⁴⁶¹ Target 35, *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*.

11.2 Environmental Governance: Theories and Conceptualisation

11.2.1 Theories and Conceptualisation of Environmental Governance

There exist different definitions of the term ‘governance’ by various scholars. Governance has been defined as a system for shaping behaviour to socially useful ends, involving many participants serving various roles. Those involved in this system include government officials, legal authorities, self-governing organisations and non- government actors such as citizens, industry stakeholders, those being governed and those who are affected by governance.⁴⁶²

Environmental Governance has been defined as the means by which society determines and acts on goals and priorities related to the management of natural resources. This includes the rules, both formal and informal, that govern human behavior in decision-making processes as well as the decisions themselves. Appropriate legal frameworks on the global, regional, national and local level are also considered to be a prerequisite for good environmental governance.⁴⁶³

‘Governance of natural resources’ has been used to mean the interactions among structures, processes and traditions that determine how power and responsibilities are exercised, how decisions are taken, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say in the management of natural resources – including biodiversity conservation...⁴⁶⁴ The concept of ‘good governance’ includes accountability and is built on “fundamental human values and rights, including fairness, equity and meaningful engagement in and contribution to decision making.”⁴⁶⁵

It is arguable that environmental governance in any country is only as effective as the general governance framework in place. Environmental governance does not operate in a vacuum but also relies on the effectiveness of the general governance in a given country.

⁴⁶² Martin, P., Boer, B. and Slobodian, L., (Eds.), *Framework for Assessing and Improving Law for Sustainability* IUCN, Gland, Switzerland, 2016, xii + 126 pp at p. 1. Available at https://www.iucn.org/sites/dev/files/framework_for_assessing_and_improving_law_for_sustainability.pdf [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁶³ IUCN, Environmental Law: Governance and MEAs, available at <https://www.iucn.org/theme/environmental-law/our-work/governance-and-meas> [Accessed on 21/01/2020].

⁴⁶⁴ IUCN Resolution 3.012 on Governance of natural resources for conservation and sustainable development adopted in Bangkok, Thailand in 2004. Available at https://portals.iucn.org/library/sites/library/files/resrecfiles/WCC_2004_RES_12_EN.pdf [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁴⁶⁵ Ibid.

11.2.2 Role of Law in Environmental Governance and Management

The law contains anticipatory mechanisms to ensure that natural resources are properly distributed, conserved and protected well into the future. Since law is the key instrument for transforming societal goals and aspirations into practice, its role is vital in interweaving environmental interests into the scheme of economic development. Law sets substantive norms, establishes decision-making institutions and processes, and provides mechanisms for accountability and conflict-resolution.⁴⁶⁶

It has rightly been argued that law reflects the combined result of the many viewpoints, values, knowledge systems, information types, and power struggles that come into play in its making and is thus inherently integrative. Law reflects the values of society.⁴⁶⁷

Law creates rights, duties, powers, establishes institutions and procedures, and the basic principles on how people are to interact with each other and with natural resources. Further, the economic and financial interests that drive most of the decisions concerning natural resources are also reflected in the law.⁴⁶⁸

The system depends upon norms that may be translated into formal or informal rules, and upon organisations and institutional arrangements to implement these norms. Governance systems vary between communities, and change over time, and they intersect. Nation-state governance intersects with private sector approaches, such as voluntary commitments or supply chain standards, and with traditional and indigenous norms and practices for conserving and using the natural world.⁴⁶⁹

In Kenya, there are intricate and detailed frameworks and sectoral laws in place to ensure proper conservation and protection of natural resources.⁴⁷⁰

The key weaknesses that have made the law seem not to be playing its intended role in natural resources management are the complex institutional set ups, differing and overlapping mandates and organizational cultures of state agencies created to manage natural resources. Laws also provide for differing management and enforcement methods over similar resources thus creating conflict between agencies, as well as, between agencies and communities living with the resources.⁴⁷¹

⁴⁶⁶ Martin, P., Boer, B. and Slobodian, L., (Eds.), *Framework for Assessing and Improving Law for Sustainability* IUCN, Gland, Switzerland, 2016, at p. 1.

⁴⁶⁷ Cosens, B.A., Craig, R.K., Hirsch, S.L., Arnold, C.A.T., Benson, M.H., DeCaro, D.A., Garmestani, A.S., Gosnell, H., Ruhl, J.B. and Schlager, E., "The role of law in adaptive governance," *Ecology and society: a journal of integrative science for resilience and sustainability* 22, no. 1 (2017): 1, p.1.

⁴⁶⁸ Moore, P., et al, *Natural Resource Governance Trainers' Manual*, (IUCN, RECOFTC, SNV, Bangkok, Thailand, 2011), p. 119.

⁴⁶⁹ Ibid, at p. 1.

⁴⁷⁰ See Muigua, K., Kariuki, F., Wamukoya, D., *Natural Resources and Environmental Justice in Kenya*, Glenwood Publishers, Nairobi, 2015.

⁴⁷¹ See Muigua, K., Kariuki, F., Wamukoya, D., *Natural Resources and Environmental Justice in Kenya*, Glenwood Publishers, Nairobi, 2015.

What is required is a strengthened and clear framework law that gives proper attention to all sectors of natural resources as well as inclusive of all stakeholders for effective management.

11.3 Peace Building: Meaning and Scope

11.3.1 Meaning and Scope of Peace Building

The term 'peace' is related to the well-being of any person. It is a generally accepted value. In most cultures it is a type of desideratum linked to harmony, tranquillity, cooperation, alliance, well-being, and agreement.⁴⁷² Notably, 'peace is not just the absence of violence, it is much more.'⁴⁷³ Peace may be classified into positive peace or negative peace. Negative peace is the absence of violence or the fear of violence while positive peace is the attitudes, institutions and structures, that when strengthened, lead to peaceful societies.⁴⁷⁴

Positive peace is considered as a true, lasting, and sustainable peace built on justice for all peoples. The concept of positive peace involves the elimination of the root causes of war, violence, and injustice and the conscious attempt to build a society that reflects these commitments. Positive peace assumes an interconnectedness of all life.⁴⁷⁵

In a negative peace situation, it may not see conflict out in the open, but the tension is boiling just beneath the surface because the conflict was never reconciled. The concept of negative peace addresses immediate symptoms, the conditions of war, and the use and effects of force and weapons.⁴⁷⁶

The scope and context of this section is limited to discussing the connection between positive peace and environmental management and how effective environmental governance can be used as one of the tools geared towards achieving positive peace. Negative peace is just to be treated as a byproduct of the efforts aimed at positive peace.

Peacebuilding is about dealing with the reasons why people fight in the first place and supporting societies to manage their differences and conflicts without resorting to violence. It involves a broad range of measures, which can take place before, during and after conflict. They aim to prevent the outbreak, escalation, continuation and recurrence

⁴⁷² Spring, Ú.O., "Peace and Environment: Towards a Sustainable Peace as Seen from the South." In *Globalization and Environmental Challenges*, Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2008, pp. 113-126.

⁴⁷³ Galtung, J., "Violence, peace, and peace research," *Journal of peace research*, Vol. 6, no. 3 (1969): 167-191.

⁴⁷⁴ Herath, O., "A critical analysis of Positive and Negative Peace," (2016), p.106. Available at <http://repository.kln.ac.lk/bitstream/handle/123456789/12056/journal1%20%281%29.104-107.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y> [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁴⁷⁵ Herath, O., "A critical analysis of Positive and Negative Peace," (2016), p.106.

⁴⁷⁶ *Ibid*, pp.106-107.

of conflict.⁴⁷⁷ Peacebuilding approaches can also be geared towards either ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ peace.⁴⁷⁸

11.3.2 Role of Law in Peace Building

Conflict is grounded in social, structural, cultural, political and economic factors as seen from the foregoing pillars, since depreciation in one increases chances of conflict in a particular society.⁴⁷⁹ Some scholars have also argued that peaceful nations are better equipped through their attitudes, institutions and structures to respond to external shocks. This can be seen with internal peace correlating strongly to measures of inter- group cohesion and civic activism, which are key proxies that indicate the ability of societies to resolve internal political, economic, and cultural conflicts as well as being able to respond to external shocks.⁴⁸⁰

Peace is statistically associated with better business environments, higher per capita income, higher educational attainment and stronger social cohesion.⁴⁸¹ Better community relationships tend to encourage greater levels of peace, by discouraging the formation of tensions and reducing chances of tensions devolving into conflict.⁴⁸²

Peacebuilding approaches and methods are geared towards ensuring people are safe from harm, have access to law and justice, are included in the political decisions that affect them, have access to better economic opportunities, and enjoy better livelihoods.⁴⁸³ It is thus arguable that while the law may have in place structures directly meant to bring about negative peace by stopping violence through various mechanisms, all the legal structures meant to address the socio-economic factors listed above have a bearing on achievement of positive peace.

It has rightly been argued that many root causes and drivers of conflict such as discrimination and marginalization, unequal distribution of public goods and services,

⁴⁷⁷ International Alert, “What is Peace Building?” Available at <https://www.international-alert.org/what-we-do/what-is-peacebuilding> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁷⁹ Maiese, M., ‘Social Structural Change,’ in G. Burgess & H. Burgess (eds), *Beyond Intractability*, (Conflict Information Consortium, University of Colorado, Boulder, July 2003), available at <http://www.beyondintractability.org/essay/social-structural-changes> [Accessed on 22/1/2020]; See also Maiese, M., ‘Causes of Disputes and Conflicts,’ in G. Burgess & H. Burgess (eds), *Beyond Intractability*, (Conflict Information Consortium, University of Colorado, Boulder, October, 2003), available at <http://www.beyondintractability.org/essay/underlying-causes> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁸⁰ Institute for Economics and Peace, ‘Pillars of Peace: Understanding the key attitudes and institutions that underpin peaceful societies,’ IEP Report 22, p. 5. Available at <https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/169569/Pillars%20of%20Peace%20Report%20IEP.pdf> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁸¹ Ibid, p. 2.

⁴⁸² Ibid, p. 6.

⁴⁸³ Ibid.

corruption, impunity and lack of accountability stem from or are exacerbated by the absence of the rule of law.⁴⁸⁴

Also notable is the assertion that peacebuilding is done collaboratively, at local, national, regional and international levels. Individuals, communities, civil society organisations, governments, regional bodies and the private sector all play a role in building peace. Peacebuilding is also a long-term process, as it involves changes in attitudes and behaviour, and institutional norms.⁴⁸⁵ The law can be useful in contributing to the change in institutional norms as well as shaping the changes in attitudes and behaviour.

The rule of law is seen as a framework for the peaceful management of conflict because of its defining features: laws establishing the operating rules of society and therefore providing reliability, justice and stability in the society; norms defining appropriate societal behaviour; institutions able to resolve conflicts, enforce laws, and regulate the political and judicial system; laws and mechanisms protecting citizens' rights.⁴⁸⁶ It is thus worth noting that this makes the law an important ingredient in the process of peace building, whether positive peace or negative peace.

11.4 Nexus between Environmental Governance and Peace Building

Debates about the relationship between the environment and peace building focus on how environmental problems, like resource scarcity and climate change, are likely to create or exacerbate conflict. Some scholars have opined that the environmental governance of a system based on participation, accountability, and equity ensures the broad political social and economic issues of the marginalized sections of the society are addressed.⁴⁸⁷

Environmental scarcities have had great adverse effects on populations, including violent conflicts in many parts of the developing world.⁴⁸⁸ These conflicts are especially expected to be more devastating in poor societies since they are less able to buffer

⁴⁸⁴ IDLO, "Sustaining Peace, Building Justice: Discussion Note," available at <https://www.idlo.int/system/files/event-documents/IDLO%20IN%20-%20Sustaining%20Peace-Building%20Justice%20NO%20CONTACTS.PDF> [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁴⁸⁵ International Alert, "What is Peace Building?" Available at <https://www.international-alert.org/what-we-do/what-is-peacebuilding> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁸⁶ Peace Building Initiative, "Introduction: Justice, Rule of Law & Peacebuilding Processes, 2009" available at <http://www.peacebuildinginitiative.org/indexe33f.html?pageId=1844> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁸⁷ Nafees, A., "The Role of Civil Society Institutions in Environmental Governance in India: Post-colonial Context and Human Rights Challenges in the Environmental Justice," *International Journal of Legal Studies and Research*, Special Issue-June 2018, pp. 16-39, at p. 16.

⁴⁸⁸ Homer-Dixon, T.F., "Environmental scarcities and violent conflict: evidence from cases," *International security* 19, No. 1 (1994): 5-40 at p. 6.

themselves from environmental scarcities and the social crises they cause.⁴⁸⁹ The role of natural resources in conflict has also been a focus of many authors. The two approaches that have been proposed to explain the role of natural resources in conflict include scarcity (sometimes called the neo-Malthusian view) and abundance.⁴⁹⁰ Under the scarcity theory, it is argued that rapid population growth, environmental degradation, resource depletion, and unequal resource access combine to exacerbate poverty and income inequality in many of the world's least developed countries, and such deprivations are easily translated into grievances, increasing the risks of rebellion and societal conflict."⁴⁹¹

Those who view abundance as a problem argue that it is resource abundance, rather than scarcity, that is the bigger threat to create conflict, often referred to as the "resource curse"—corruption, economic stagnation, and violent conflict over access to revenues.⁴⁹² For instance, it has been pointed out that for many resource rich developing countries, there have been cases of low economic growth, environmental degradation, deepening poverty and, in some cases, violent conflict.⁴⁹³

Communities expect that availability of environmental goods and services in their region will improve their livelihoods by 'real' development, which may not always be the case.⁴⁹⁴ Poor and low economic development⁴⁹⁵ and consequently, failed economies result in conflicts,⁴⁹⁶ as a result of environmental and natural resources' bad governance or mismanagement.⁴⁹⁷

It is thus evident that any peacebuilding efforts that do not factor in streamlining environmental and natural resources governance are bound to fail as they would not capture the very basic needs of the communities in question: satisfaction of their socio-economic needs with minimal or no struggle.

⁴⁸⁹ Ibid., p.6.

⁴⁹⁰ United States Institute of Peace, *Natural Resources, Conflict, and Conflict Resolution*, A Study Guide Series on Peace and Conflict For Independent Learners and Classroom Instructors, 2007, p.8.

⁴⁹¹ Ibid., p.8.

⁴⁹² United States Institute of Peace, *Natural Resources, Conflict, and Conflict Resolution*, A Study Guide Series on Peace and Conflict For Independent Learners and Classroom Instructors, 2007, p.8.

⁴⁹³ Alstine, J.V., et al, Resource Governance Dynamics: The Challenge Of 'New Oil' In Uganda, *Resources Policy*, Vol. 40, 2014, pp.48–58, p. 48.

⁴⁹⁴ Sigam, C. & Garcia, L., *Extractive Industries: Optimizing Value Retention in Host Countries*, (UNCTAD, 2012). Available at http://unctadxiii.org/en/SessionDocument/suc2012d1_en.pdf [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁹⁵ See Billion, P., *Wars of Plunder: Conflicts, Profits and Politics*, (New York: Columbia University Press, 2012).

⁴⁹⁶ Maphosa, S.B., *Natural Resources and Conflict: Unlocking the Economic dimension of peace-building in Africa*. ASIA Policy brief Number 74, 2012.

⁴⁹⁷ Billion, P., *Wars of Plunder: Conflicts, Profits and Politics*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 2012.); See also Wiebelt, M., et al, 'Managing Future Oil Revenues in Uganda for Agricultural Development and Poverty Reduction: A CGE Analysis of Challenges and Options,' (Kiel Working Paper No. 1696, May 2011). Available at <https://www.ifw-members.ifw-kiel.de/publications/managing-future-oil-revenues-in-uganda-for-agricultural-development-and-poverty-reduction-a-cge-analysis-of-challenges-and-options/kap-1696.pdf> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

11.5 Building Lasting Peace through Effective Environmental Governance

The 2030 SDGs Agenda maintains that while the causes of conflict vary widely, the effects of climate change only exacerbate them. Climate-related events such as drought threaten food and water supplies, increase competition for these and other natural resources and create civil unrest, potentially adding fuel to the already-disastrous consequences of conflict. Thus, investing in good governance, improving the living conditions of people, reducing inequality and strengthening the capacities of communities can help build resilience to the threat of conflict and maintain peace in the event of a violent shock or long-term stressor.⁴⁹⁸

The Constitution of Kenya, 2010 provides for both the state and personal obligations in respect of the environment.⁴⁹⁹ This provision emphasizes the need for incorporation of good governance practices in the management of natural resources. These good governance practices should demonstrate democracy in terms of accountability and transparency.⁵⁰⁰ The law is a necessary part of the solution to sustainability challenges.⁵⁰¹ This section offers some recommendations that go beyond the law in enhancing environmental governance as one of the prerequisites for successful peace building in the country.

11.5.1 Use of Alternative Dispute Resolution Mechanisms to Enhance Public Participation in Environmental Conflict management

The Constitution of Kenya, 2010 encourages the application of traditional dispute resolution mechanisms in land conflicts.⁵⁰² The *Environment and Land Court Act*, 2011 empowers the Court to adopt and implement, on its own motion, with the agreement of or at the request of the parties, any other appropriate means of alternative dispute resolution including conciliation, mediation and traditional dispute resolution mechanisms in accordance with Article 159(2) (c) of the Constitution.

Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) mechanisms have the potential to create forums for engaging the various stakeholders in environmental matters and subsequently

⁴⁹⁸ United Nations, *The Sustainable Development Goals Report, 2018*, p.15. Available at <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/files/report/2018/TheSustainableDevelopmentGoalsReport2018-EN.pdf> [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

⁴⁹⁹ Art. 69 Constitution of Kenya 2010.

⁵⁰⁰ Art. 69(1) (d).

⁵⁰¹ Martin, P., Boer, B. and Slobodian, L., (Eds.), *Framework for Assessing and Improving Law for Sustainability* IUCN, Gland, Switzerland, 2016, at p.ix.

⁵⁰² Art.67 (2) (f); Article 159(2), Constitution of Kenya.

address any underlying tension or feelings of marginalization. This can go a long way in creating more peaceful societies.

11.5.2 Inclusive and Participatory Approaches to Environmental Governance and Management

The *UN Conference on Environment and Development, Agenda 21*⁵⁰³ under section 23 calls for full public participation by all social groups, including women, youth, indigenous people and local communities in policy-making and decision-making. It is in recognition of the fact that unless all these groups are equitably and meaningfully involved in the decision making policies, especially those on sustainable development, then the Government efforts would either fail or prove inadequate.

Kenya's approach to environmental governance and natural resources management has largely been sectoral and informed by the command and control approach. The Constitution of Kenya captures the need for concerted efforts of all, in the duty to conserve and sustainably manage the environment, since the same does not only lie against the State but also every individual person. In relation to the foregoing obligations, the Constitution places a duty on every person to cooperate with State organs and other persons to protect and conserve the environment and ensure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources.⁵⁰⁴

Governance structures for all sectors, including environmental sector, should be built around the national values and principles of governance as enunciated in the Constitution of Kenya.⁵⁰⁵

As already pointed, people who feel meaningfully engaged in governance matters are more likely to appreciate the process and also keep peace even when resources are scarce. Local people should be actively engaged in governance matters especially those that directly affect their livelihoods.⁵⁰⁶

11.5.3 Inclusive Education for Sustainable Livelihoods and Societies

There exists several regional legal instruments which promote the right to education for all.⁵⁰⁷ At the international level, education is treated as a fundamental human right and

⁵⁰³ United Nations Conference on Environment & Development Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 3 to 14 June 1992.

⁵⁰⁴ Art. 22(1), Art. 42, Art. 69(2), Constitution of Kenya.

⁵⁰⁵ Art. 10(2), Constitution of Kenya.

⁵⁰⁶ United Nations Development Programme, *Local Governance In Fragile And Conflict-Affected Settings: Building a Resilient Foundation for Peace and Development*, A UNDP how-to guide, 2016.

⁵⁰⁷ *The American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man* (1948), Article XII, Article XXXI; See also the *Protocol 1 to the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms* 1952;

essential for the exercise of all other human rights. It is said to be a right that promotes individual freedom and empowerment and yields important development benefits.⁵⁰⁸

The international and regional framework calls on governments to fulfill their obligations both legal and political in regard to providing education of good quality for all, and to implement and monitor more effectively education strategies since education is conceived as a powerful tool by which economically and socially marginalized adults and children can lift themselves out of poverty and participate fully as citizens.⁵⁰⁹ In the Kenyan case of *Michael Mutinda Mutemi v Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education & 2 others*⁵¹⁰, the Court affirmed the governments' international obligation to ensure the realisation of right to education within the available resources.

Education has a great role to play in peace building efforts and effective environmental both of which are important components of sustainable development. This realisation forms the basis of SDG Goal 4 which provides that State Parties should ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.⁵¹¹

This section contemplates two forms of education namely: "environmental education" and "environment-based education". Environmental education has been defined as a process that allows individuals to explore environmental issues, engage in problem solving, and take action to improve the environment, thus enabling individuals develop a deeper understanding of environmental issues and have the skills to make informed and responsible decisions.⁵¹²

On the other hand, environment-based education focuses on educational results: using the environment to engage students in their education through "real-world" learning experiences, with the goals of helping them achieve higher levels of academic success as well as an understanding of and appreciation for the environment.⁵¹³ By applying environmental education to real-life problems, children are also given authentic opportunities to provide service for their communities and solve local problems.⁵¹⁴

The *African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights* (1981), Article 17; See also the *Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the African Child* (1990).

⁵⁰⁸ UNESCO, 'The Right to Education', visit <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/right-to-education/> [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁵⁰⁹ Ibid.

⁵¹⁰ [2013] eKLR, Petition No. 133 of 2013.

⁵¹¹ Goal 4.7, *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*.

⁵¹² United States Environmental Protection Agency, 'What is Environmental Education?' available at <http://www2.epa.gov/education/what-environmental-education> [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁵¹³ California Department of Education, 'The Case For Environmental Education: Education and the Environment/ Strategic Initiatives for Enhancing Education in California', 2002, p. 5.

⁵¹⁴ Ibid, p. 6.

Education empowers individuals for full development of human personality, and participation in society through acquisition of knowledge, human values and skills. The right to education has close linkage with the right to development, and is a powerful tool in poverty reduction strategies.⁵¹⁵ The need for promoting the right to education arises from the fact that the younger generation will need to acquire this basic education while having environmental education inculcated therein. The older generation will also need to have access to education, which education takes various forms especially when it comes to environmental education, including traditional knowledge.

If empowered through education, people are able to make their own decisions especially in matters relating to exploitation of natural resources and environmental management tools. Environmental education gives people the voice and enables them appreciate the available information on environment.⁵¹⁶

There is a great need to ensure that appreciation and concern for the environment are instilled during the early years of development. Indeed, article 29(1) (e) of the *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (1989) states that States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to, *inter alia*, the development of respect for the natural environment.

There is a close link between environmental degradation, lack of environmental justice and democracy, poverty and low levels of education among the citizenry, and provision of education is the crucial first step towards their elimination.⁵¹⁷

11.6 Conclusion

Peace building in any country is desirable, and so is effective environmental and natural resources governance and management. The two concepts are arguably joined at the hip and both are at the core of the 2030 Agenda on sustainable development.

This section has discussed the various ways that the two are related and demonstrated how they cannot be treated as mutually exclusive if any efforts towards achieving either are to bear any fruits.

While putting in place, any peace building policies, policy makers and other stakeholders ought to have the bigger picture in mind-effective environmental and natural resources governance must first be achieved as these resources are central in

⁵¹⁵ UNESCO (2008), 'The Right to Education', p.2.

⁵¹⁶ See generally UNESCO, 'Educating for a Sustainable Future: A Transdisciplinary Vision for Concerted Action', EPD-97/CONF.401/CLD.1.November 1997.

Available at

http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_a/popups/mod01t05s01.html [Accessed on 22/1/2020].

⁵¹⁷ UNESCO, 'Educating for a Sustainable Future: A Transdisciplinary Vision for Concerted Action', EPD-97/CONF.401/CLD.1.November 1997. Available at

http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_a/popups/mod01t05s01.html [Accessed on 22/01/2020].

realisation of socio-economic rights of citizens. When these rights are largely achieved for all in any country, then it becomes easier to talk about and also achieve peace. Enhancing Environmental governance for peacebuilding in Kenya is a necessity that cannot be ignored in the quest for sustainable development.

12. Conclusion

This paper has offered a detailed discussion on some topical issues on adopting an integrated approach to environmental management in Kenya. Section one has critically discussed the general role of law in environmental governance and management. This is in recognition of the fact that law is a necessary tool, in not only spelling out the environmental rights of the citizens, but also laying out the State's and citizenry's duties towards sustainable environmental management and conservation. The role of law also means that courts, which are the primary custodians of the law, have a huge role to play in not only ensuring that environmental rights of every individual are protected and upheld but also meting out punishment to those who violate environmental laws as part of guaranteeing access to environmental justice.

The Constitution of Kenya calls for a collaborative approach in environmental and natural resources governance and management, within the framework of the national values and principles of governance. In recognition of the important role played by corporations in the society and their contribution to the economic development, the paper has also discussed the contribution of corporations in promoting sustainable environmental and natural resources management as far as their environmental liability is concerned. The corporations are also expected to contribute positively towards improving the livelihoods of the people. The paper has analysed both positive and negative duties of these corporations in relation to environmental sustainability.

The paper also dedicates a whole section on the general environmental liability regime in the country as an important aspect of environmental management and measures geared towards achieving the sustainable development agenda.

The discourse recognises the important role that the citizenry can play, in line with the constitutional principles in achieving sustainable environmental management in Kenya, and as a result, has explored such themes as environmental democracy which is meant to empower the general public and enable them to meaningfully participate in environmental management.

Considering that Kenya is still at a nascent stage in exploring its extractives industry, the paper has substantively discussed the implications of these activities not only on the environment but also on the lives of communities.

The theme of benefit sharing in natural resources and environmental goods also features across the paper as an acknowledgement of the fact that these resources form the backbone of many communities' livelihoods and measures must thus be put in place to

ensure that there are some benefits that accrue to them. The State is supposed to manage these resources in trust for the people and must therefore ensure that they get to benefit from them in a bid to improve their living standards.

It is in the spirit of promoting meaningful inclusion and public participation that the theme of indigenous knowledge as a tool for promoting communities' participation features prominently in the paper. There is a need for the stakeholders to ensure that there is a complimentary application of the indigenous ecological knowledge alongside the scientific knowledge. The use of indigenous ecological knowledge not only makes the communities own and appreciate the government's efforts in environmental management and conservation, it also enables the government to tap into the positive aspects of such community knowledge. Furthermore, local people are the custodians of traditional systems and are therefore well informed about their own situations, their resources, what works and what does not work.⁵¹⁸ Traditional knowledge on environment should therefore be treated as equally important as the mainstream forms of environmental education in their role of achieving environmental sustainability.

It is also important to note that there are diverse resources within the country, ranging from the dryland resources to those that are to be found within the ocean and other large water bodies. The blue economy holds the potential for diversification of the sources of the much needed income not only for the government but also for improving the lives of communities living around these areas. There is thus a need to invest in the sector.

This paper calls for an integrated approach to environmental and natural resources management in Kenya in order to ensure that the various approaches to resource management are not only applied efficiently but also that the various aspects of the environment such as the flora and fauna are well taken care of. An integrated approach will also be important in addressing such challenges as pollution which poses one of the greatest threats to environmental sustainability. An integrated approach will also ensure that anthropocentric approaches coupled with ecocentric approaches strike a balance in safeguarding environmental, social and economic interests of the country.

When the needs of all interested parties and stakeholders are taken care, peacebuilding efforts become easy to fulfill. Conflicts and disputes are mainly caused by either inadequacy of environmental and natural resources required to meet the basic needs of people as well as marginalization of some groups which may be in the form of 'resource capture' by the elites in the society.

It is the high time that the state agencies recognised that sectoral approaches to environmental and natural resources management that is devoid of meaningful public participation may not only lead to the perennial conflicts associated with natural resources but may also mean that the realisation of sustainable development agenda as

⁵¹⁸ United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) (2005), 'Revitalizing Traditional Knowledge: A Compilation of Documents and Reports from 1997 – 2003', UNCCD, Bonn, Germany. 150 pp. at p. 11.

envisaged under the different international environmental legal instruments and domestic laws may remain a pipe dream. With the ever increasing competing needs for the natural and environmental resources, an integrated approach to the management of these resources that involves the state agencies, civil society, corporations and communities will not only actualize environmental ideals as conceived in the *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*⁵¹⁹ which is a plan of action for people, planet and prosperity, but will also be useful addressing social challenges such as poverty, food security and peace, among others for a sustainable society.

It is vital that we effectively manage the environment to ensure survival of the current and future generations. We all deserve a clean and healthy environment. Securing our destiny is our noble responsibility.

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⁵¹⁹*Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015, [without reference to a Main Committee (A/70/L.1)], Seventieth session, Agenda items 15 and 116, 21 October 2015.

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Securing Our Destiny through Effective Management of the Environment is a book written in an articulate and concise language to present a call for the management of the environment in an effective manner that enhances sustainable development. It analyses how effective management of Natural Resources and the Environment in Kenya can be achieved. The argument that runs across the text is that there is a need to have effective environmental management in Kenya using an integrated approach that involves all stakeholders and cuts across disciplines, regions and ecosystems.

The book comprehensively covers topical issues on adopting an integrated approach to environmental management in Kenya.

It has twelve chapters which advocate for effective management of environmental and natural resources in Kenya. The main running themes include Sustainable Development, Public Participation and inclusivity, Environmental Democracy, Environmental Justice, Indigenous Ecological Knowledge, Social Justice, Environmental Rights, Role of Law in Environmental Management and Governance; Peacebuilding and Entrenching Environmental Rule of Law in Kenya, among others. These are key issues in not only achieving effective environmental management but also the sustainable development agenda. The discourse also calls for the inclusion of all the stakeholders as a way of minimising conflicts as well as entrenching environmental ethics among all interested parties.

If the needs of all interested parties and stakeholders are taken care of, achieving lasting peace as well as sustainability in all sectors of the economy will become a reality. It is necessary to move away from the sectoral approaches in addressing environmental and natural resources management in order to achieve holistic sustainability. Securing our destiny through effective management of the environment is indeed possible.

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