The Quest for Socioeconomic Development in Kenya: A Review of the Impact of Public Infrastructure on the Voyage

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Abstract: This study is focused on “The impact of public infrastructure on sustainable socioeconomic development in the context of Coexistence and Shared Common Future; Transport and Communication; Creativity and Social Innovation; Living Standards and Social Equity”. The paper highlights the merits and the challenges that diminish the stakeholders' expectations. The methodology used in this study is an in-depth review of existing literature on the roles of public infrastructure on socioeconomic reforms from various parts of the world. The study established that reliable, adequate and quality infrastructure (transport, energy, water and telecommunication) attract FDIs which in turn help in revitalizing economic strides. Oil and wind exploitation infrastructures in Northern Kenya provide local communities with employment opportunities, water, electricity and improved transport. Increased pollution in oil-sites proximities also featured in the findings as a retrogressive impact. This paper also adds to the available literature a more expanded concept of public infrastructure-Socioeconomic nexus that can encourage a holistic model of studying socioeconomic development in the context of the dynamics of the global geo-political system. It places the agenda of socioeconomic development to the affinity of the governance structures to public infrastructure.

Keywords: Public infrastructure, Socioeconomic Development, Coexistence and Shared Common Future, Transport and Communication, Creativity and Social Innovation, Living Standards and Social Equity

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

The World Economic Situation & Prospect-WESP, (2019) envisioned that infrastructure plays a critical role in the transformation of global economy. The call to the least developed countries (LDCs) is to invest strategically on socioeconomic reform assets: rural infrastructure development; improved management of public resources and social protection programmes; supportive education and employment policies. The United Arab Emirates (UAE) within 44 years has evolved from a subsistence economy into an innovation-driven economy characterized by a high-mass consumption society (Pedro A., 2016). On the new path to economic strides, the Chinese’s investment share of economic activity became biased and increasingly drifted the focus on infrastructure and heavy industry translating into real output of 9.6 per cent per annum GDP measured in constant prices, a remarkable growth by any standard (Garnaut, R., et al., 2018). The noticeable ascent in performance of Africa economies is an inference to good macroeconomic policies, progress in structural reforms especially in infrastructure development and generally sensible policy frameworks (ADB, 2018).

Through the Kenya’s Strategy Paper (CSP) 2014-18, the government articulate the intents of job creation based on: Enhancing physical infrastructure to foster all-inclusive socioeconomic progress and identifying and nurturing skills commensurate to emerging labour market for economic transformation.

1.2. The Concept of Development

The term “development” is a dynamic concept that has continually evolved in the minds of researchers from: economic growth to economic development and now to socioeconomic development (Litwiński, M., 2017). The contemporary understands development as a process whose output aims at improving the quality of life and increasing the self-sufficient capacity of economies that are technically more complex and depend on global integration (Remeny, 2004). Accordingly, the most acknowledged development indicator is the Human Development Index (HDI) which integrates different categories of socio-cultural, economic, ecological and political development of particular areas (UNDP, 2015 & WB, 2015).

1.3. The Tripartite Domains of Socioeconomic Development

Socioeconomic development has become an increasingly critical agenda for debate among leaders in government, business, and civil society. To sum it up, socioeconomic development is all inclusive and caters for all economic, social and environmental aspects founded on the bedrock of sustainability. The tripartite descriptive of socioeconomic as used in this study seeks to present socioeconomic development in a more holistic stance in terms of perspectives described as domains.

(i) The Economic Domain of Development: Sound economic activities aims at allocating the scarce resources to their “utmost utility value” for optimization of goods and service
production. Desire for economic growth and development is therefore an old account that human civilization has been struggling with for centuries. Following formal research in business quests, public infrastructure has continually proved to be agents of socioeconomic development. According to Bondarenko, (2016) the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is an economic indicator that represents the total market value of the goods and services produced by a country’s economy during a specific period of time. It includes all final goods and services that are produced by economic agents located in that country. Economic activities that do not pass through market transactions and have no market prices are difficult to include in the GDP accounting system, yet markets do not account for all economic activities implying that the measure of GDP is not enough alone.

(ii) The Social Domain of Development: Social Development focuses on the need to “put people first” in development processes. It promotes social inclusion of the poor and vulnerable by empowering people, building cohesive and resilient societies, and making institutions accessible and accountable to citizens (World Bank, 2019). From social perspective, human development is a process of enlarging people’s choices, the most critical of which are to lead a long and healthy life, to be educated and to enjoy a decent standard of living. The complementary choices include political freedom, guaranteed human rights and self-respect (HDR, 1990). The Human Development approach is assertive on policies that expand opportunities for people to lead meaningful lives. Economic growth is a means towards this end, not an end in itself. As an all-inclusive objective, the approach gained prominence with the publication of UNDP’s first Human Development Report (HDR) in 1990. The status of human social wellbeing in a society is estimated from calculation of Human Development Index (HDI). HDI is a composite index focusing on three basic dimensions of human development: the ability to lead a long and healthy life, measured by life expectancy at birth; the ability to acquire knowledge, measured by mean years of schooling and expected years of schooling; and the ability to achieve a decent standard of living, measured by gross national income per capita. Poverty in socioeconomic terms is viewed as a measure of levels of deprivation of the basic needs that a person, household or community requires to have a basic standard of living.

(iii) The Environmental Domain of Development: According Bedrich M. et al., (2011), the term Environmental sustainability was probably first coined by scientists at the World Bank (WB) and the term “environmentally responsible development” was used (WB, 1992). Then, “environmentally sustainable development” was employed (Serageldin & Streeter, 1993) and finally, the concept of environmental sustainability was developed (Goodland, 1995). Environmental sustainability seeks to improve human welfare by protecting the sources of raw materials used for human needs and ensuring that the sinks for human wastes are not exceeded, in order to prevent harm to humans. Goodland’s conceptualization of environmental sustainability fits into the resource–limited ecological economic framework of limits to growth. It defines the limit for us to satisfy our current needs without compromising the quality of environment or ecosystem so that it remains equally capable of supporting the future generations too (Sara E., 2018). The Kenya Vision 2030 for example is an inception based on three pillars namely: the economic pillar, the social pillar and the political pillar. The social pillar seeks to build “a just and cohesive society with social equity in a clean and secure environment”. The political pillar aims at realizing a democratic political system founded on issue-based politics that respects the rule of law, and protects the rights and freedoms of every individual in the Kenyan society. These pillars are anchored on infrastructure development, public sector reform and macroeconomic stability (ADB, 2014).

1.4. Public infrastructure

Public infrastructure refers to facilities, systems and structures that are owned and operated by the government on behalf of the public. It includes all essential systems and facilities that facilitate the smooth flow of all economic activities and enhance the people’s standard of living. It comprises of basic facilities such as roads, railways, bridges, ports, ferries, housing, marketing facilities, water supply, electricity, health facilities, schools, recreational facilities and telecommunications. According to the World Economic Forum, extensive and efficient infrastructure is a key determinant of the location of economic activity and the types of sectors or activities that can develop in a particular economy. Infrastructure has the potential to drive economic growth through higher employment, higher trade, better health, education and poverty alleviation. It is therefore imperative that significant investments be made in the sector in order for the country to reap the benefits that are worthwhile (World Bank, 2014). For purpose of the construct of this study, public infrastructure are broadly branded into four depending on their core functionality: Economic Public Infrastructure, Social Public Infrastructure, Recreational Public Infrastructure and Environmental Public Infrastructure. Comparatively, Wanjiru, G. (2016) in her study categorized them into two; economic and social infrastructure. Economic infrastructure refers to telecommunications, roads, irrigation and electricity systems while social infrastructure comprises water supply, sewerage systems, hospitals and school facilities.

1.5. Contextual Outlook of Socioeconomic Development

Public Infrastructure-Socioeconomic Nexus in this study consider from a practical perspective applicability of: Coexistence and Shared Common Future; Transport and Communication; Creativity and Social Innovation; Living Standards and Social Equity
1.5.1. Coexistence and Shared Common Future

Coexistence and focus on shared common future is a societal pull towards a sustainable socioeconomic development. Peace is an intentional outcome of choice for community to coexist within a common vision. Peace, rule of law and governance are inter-related and are critical to nurturing sustainable socioeconomic development. Conflict devastations in countries where they occur spill into neighbouring countries as well. The infamous World War I & II and widespread political violence of one type or another resulted in mass killings, genocide, or ‘ethnic cleansing’ that took the lives of an estimated 170 million people between 1900 and 1987 (Rummel J, 1997). In the 40-year period from 1948 to 1988, the UN had just 15 peacekeeping operations around the world. In the ten-year span from 1989 to 1999 however, that number jumped to 35 (USIP, 2001). The civil war in Mozambique during the 1980s, resulted in the death of nearly one million people. It brought extreme brutality against civilians, widespread sexual violence against women, and the displacement of at least six million people, including more than 1.5 million who crossed international borders. The invasion of the DRC by Rwanda and Uganda in 1998 led to the death of 4 million people. The 20-year conflict in Sudan left more than two million people dead by 2005 and more than 400,000 Sudanese pouring into refugee camps (UND, 2007).

National and regional integration policies and programmes are now dominant inclusions in governments of most developing countries as a strategy for lasting coexistence. Kennedy M. & Maxwell D., (2016) define national integration as a process of unifying a society with intents of making it a harmonious entity based on the agreed order mutually generated by its members defined by their terms of equity. Economic survival at increased scale is inviting regional cooperation and integration across the world. The Asia-Pacific Region Bangkok Declaration on Regional Economic Cooperation and Integration (RECI) in 2013 focuses heavily on the “seamless connectivity” component of RECI, particularly on transport, energy and information and communications technology (ICT) infrastructure. RECI has turned Asia-Pacific region to a major destination and source of investment flows, which has served to further boost regional integration (UN-ESCAP, 2017).

The shared-future phenomenon includes a clean and safe environment for human and the general biotic community. It is ironical that every economic speculation carries with them the “In The Long-Run” connotation yet it is factual that we are staring at “A Threatened Future” (WCED, 2011). Human communities are preoccupied with strides to prosperity with little regard to the impacts the economic activities have on the contemporary and future environment. Some consume the Earth’s resources at a rate that would leave little for future generations while others consume far too little and live with the prospect of hunger, unhygienic state, diseases and expectancy of early death. During the inauguration of Belt and Road Forum for International Cooperation in Beijing On 14–15 May 2017 attended by leaders from 29 countries, the concept of Community of Common Destiny (CCD) was presented by President Xi Jinping as the China’s new Diplomatic Merchandise (Denghua Z., 2017).

1.5.2. Transport and Communication

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has revolutionized connections of people through all social strata and connections of firms of all scales within and across countries. The past few decades have witnessed significant growth in the use of information and communications technology (ICT) infrastructure as a mechanism for development in many countries (Bollou, 2010; Shirazi, 2010). Acknowledgement of the link between telecommunication and economic growth is on the increase. Telecommunications facilitate coordination of information flow, provide opportunities for increased efficiency of interaction and coordination, thereby inducing the success level of economic activities (Ricketts, 2002). Alleman et al. (2004) on the one hand asserts that a modern telecommunication infrastructure is not only essential for domestic economic growth, but also a criterion for competitive advantage in terms of global economy. The effect of increased ICT is well registered in enhanced globalization enabling virtual markets and cashless financial transactions among traders in different countries leading to intra-regional cooperation and improved trade (Garofalakis, C. & Koskeris, 2006). Intra-regional trade is important because it can stimulate productive capacity and competitiveness through exposing domestic industries to intra-regional competition (UNECA, 2010). Regional trade creates an enlarged regional economy from small and not necessarily equal national economies thereby promoting growth and socio-economic development (WTO, 2001).

Apart from effective flow of information, ease of mobility and transport is a prerequisite for faster socioeconomic development. With emergence of globalization, travel of human capital and freight of economic goods and services is no longer a luxury but an inevitability. Economies that are in pursuance of competitive advantage have responded to the need of extensive and intensive transport system. Joko P. et al., (2016) observes that the European countries in their league as developed economies, through the European transport strategy in its 2011 White Paper consolidated to an agenda of transport system that enhances competitiveness. The term competitiveness as frequently used in The World Economic Forum yearly reports with reference to economic ventures at a country’s level, is a conjoint definition of all the set of institutions, policies, and factors that determine the level of productivity of a country (Schwab & Sala-i-Martín, 2012). European Commission (2018) on mobility and Transport strongly advocated transport as a fundamental sector of the economy. It forms an arterial of the economic flows from which 1.2 million private and public companies in the EU, employing around 10.5 million people and providing goods and services to citizens and businesses in the EU and its trading partners thrives. The impacts of substantial
investments in Transport Infrastructure in Sub-Saharan and South Asian countries is pointedly appealing to recognition (Abdul Q., 2019). This phenomenon is characterized by High Volume Transport (HVT) corridors and networks comprising arterial, main roads and railways that form the National Transport Backbone, which connects the smaller feeder road and rail links. One such corridor region in Bangladesh (Dhaka-Chittagong corridor) which generates almost 50% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and handles about 85% of international maritime trade (Dhaka, Bangladesh, 2015).

In Kenya, the Nairobi-Thika highway is a trunk road that links the Kenya’s capital Nairobi to Somalia and Ethiopia. The Northern Corridor is the transport corridor linking the Great Lakes Countries of the Democratic Republic of Congo, Burundi, Rwanda, and Uganda from the port of Mombasa in Kenya. The saying “all roads lead to Rome” as used since the Middle Ages (500-1500) symbolizes Rome as the capital city of Roman Empire of utmost significance in the European history. An elaborate road-network radiated outward from this capital. A revisit of that era puts Rome at that time as the epicentre of the world power. (Gichaga, F. 2017). It was therefore of necessity for neighborhoods to have links with “Rome” in order to tap power from the source for purposes of socio-economic development. The linkages were products of road network projects and water transport system as railway and air transportation had yet to be developed. It can be concluded that the socio-economic development of the Roman neighborhoods was a derivative of their linkages to Rome. Roads to date may therefore be considered a major catalyst to socio-economic development and that neighborhoods in the proximity of centre of power, such as capital cities enjoy relatively higher socio-economic development (Gichaga, F. 2017).

1.5.3 Creativity and Social Innovation

Mark J., (2008) observes that creative economy is embraced as one of today’s most popular remedies for ailing cities. The creative economy is defined as the sum of economic activity arising from engagement of a highly educated and skilled segment of the workforce encompassing a wide variety of creative individuals—like artists, architects, computer programmers, university professors and writers from a diverse range of industries such as technology, entertainment, journalism, finance, high-end manufacturing and the arts. The logic in this formation is that, the intentional convergence of the “creative class” to a region will generate jobs and tax revenue, a trickle down of benefits to all citizens. Public policy promoting the creative economy carries with it two serious flaws: the misperception that culture and creativity is a product of individual genius rather than collective activity and a willingness to tolerate social dislocation in exchange for urban vitality or competitive advantage. The creative economy literature has examined a wider set of industries in which “creativity” is viewed as an asset that spur to productivity. The term “creative economy” appeared in 2001 in John Howkins’ book about the relationship between creativity and economics. UNCTAD (2008) defined creative economy as an evolving concept based on creative assets potentially generating economic growth and development. It can foster income generation, job creation and export earnings while promoting social inclusion, cultural diversity and human development. It also embraces economic, cultural and social aspects interacting with technology, intellectual property and tourism objectives. Creative economy is a set of knowledge-based economic activities with a development dimension and cross-cutting linkages at macro and micro levels to the overall economy. It is a feasible development option calling for innovative, multi-disciplinary policy responses and inter-ministerial action at the heart of the creative economy are the creative industries. With the increasing knowledge intensity of the contemporary economy and the need for innovation to maintain competitive advantage, it has become imperative for countries to tap into their vast reserves of creativity (UNCTAD, 2008). In many advanced economies, the creative economy is now recognized as a leading sector in generating economic growth, employment and trade. In Europe for instance, the creative economy generated a turnover of €654 billion in 2003, increasing 12 per cent faster than the overall economy.

The protracted outlook of economic development has continued to agitate more technical terms like “Social Innovation”. The sociologist Zapf (1989) defines social innovations on the basis of modernization theory quite generally as new societal practices, especially new forms of organizing and new forms of regulating new lifestyles that change the direction of social change, solve problems better than former practices and are worth being imitated and institutionalized (Zapf 1989). This concept was further refined by another sociologist, Gillwald who defines social innovations as societal achievements that, compared with already established solutions, provide improved solutions that are to a lesser extent defined by their absolute novelty more than by their consequences (Gillwald, 2000). The economists Pol & Ville (2009), viewed ‘social innovation’ as comprising of several overlapping meanings, including concepts such as institutional change, social purposes and the public good (Pol & Ville 2009). Based on these, they suggest defining social innovation as any new ideas with the potential to improve either the macro-quality of life (quality of life in relation to a group of individuals) or the quantity of life (Pol & Ville, 2009). To add to this polygonal conceptualization, psychologist Mumford characterizes social innovations as the generation and implementation of new ideas about how people should organize interpersonal activities or social interactions to meet one or more common goals (Mumford, 2002). In the current economic dispensation, social innovations are revolutionizing the tactics of resolving wide-reaching societal challenges such as social inequality, poverty, pollution, energy provision, unemployment, and health care. From a global perspective, Ruby P., Jelena S., & Sunny L. (2019) considered “Social Innovation in an Interconnected World” in which the social aspect of innovation examine the
various stakeholders and the objectives that drive organizations and individuals in their pursuit for new solutions to problems that hinder social progress. Based on analysis of the scientific innovation literature, the definition of ‘social innovation’ may be viewed as the effort, method, result or change initiated by collaborative actions (Stefan N., 2011). The concept of social innovations explicitly includes the development of skills and competencies, as well as networking activities. (Schumpeter’s, 1949; Pot & Vaas, 2008).

1.5.4. Living Standards and Social Equity

Human deprivation as an economic vice focuses on inadequacy or lack of goods, services, social relations, physical or social environment and resources needed for human life encapsulated in one term “poverty”. Social disparities on the other hand is a manifestation of unevon or unequal distribution of available resources to a society. JRF (2013) defines poverty as the situation where "a person’s resources mainly the material resources are not sufficient to meet minimum their needs including social participation". World Bank in one of its definitions emphasizes more specific conditions such as “malnutrition”, “illiteracy” and “disease”, while also mentioning “human decency” (Coudouel et al., 2002). Some of these aspects may of course be more relevant to poor countries than to the UK, although their impact (e.g., via mortality and educational opportunities of the poor) is still noticeable. Poverty is a challenge facing all countries. Eliminating poverty is an ideal that humanity constantly pursues. The international community has never stopped the attempt to alleviate or eliminate poverty (Mani et al., 2013; Haushofer and Fehr, 2014; Zhang et al., 2015; Tollefson, 2015). Among the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the first is to end poverty in all its forms everywhere.

It has become generally accepted worldwide that the measurement of poverty has gradually changed from one-dimensional measurement of income or consumption poverty to multidimensional measurement of education, health and standard of living (Alkire and Santos, 2014; Alkire et al., 2017). Globally, remarkable achievements in poverty alleviation have been made due to global, regional, national and local joint efforts (Sachs, 2008; Alkire and Foster, 2011; United Nations (UN), 2015). The number of people worldwide living on less than $1.90 a day has decreased from 1.8 billion in 1990 to 0.776 billion in 2013 (World Bank Group, 2017). China’s development-oriented poverty reduction program is an important component of the world’s poverty reduction efforts.

Norman, L. & Jamele, R. (2016) observe that the central government of Peru responds to poverty and social disparity of people in the mining community by transferring 50% of the taxes levied on mining companies to local governments, a sharing scheme, called the Mining Canon. The sharing agreement developed in the spirit decentralization, enable the Local Governments in the producing regions obtain large rents derived from mining activity. Despite the substantial decline in poverty in Peru both in urban and rural areas and the generous fiscal transfers, the expansion of mining production has been accompanied by rising social tensions. In 2009 for example, the Office of the Ombudsman reported 268 social conflicts in Peru, of which 38 percent were related to mining activities.

1.6. Problem Statement

Peace is a unique resource required for socioeconomic development and sustainability. Runaway peace ushers in a state of insecurity which hardly share a platform with investment for development. History harbours enough regrets of economies that were brought down by human conflicts. The 20th and early part of the 21st century witnessed widespread violent conflict at global scale due to unresolved politically instigated brawls within and between nations. The two world wars took the lives of millions of people and destroyed the economies of dozens of countries in Europe and Asia (UNDP, 2007). Johan Galtung in 1974 coined the term “structural violence” to describe the social process that occurs when people are not fulfilling their development potential as human beings. He explained this in terms of service-delivery related displeasures such as health, education or fora for voicing their concerns by representation, with perception that other groups enjoy their rights fully (Galtung J., 1974). If unchecked structural violence can act as a catalyst for conflict. Infrastructure-related social conflicts are complex and numerous: inadequate or poor infrastructure, state-centered infrastructure that lead to displacement of communities often cause distress, mega infrastructure altering ecosystems and affecting livelihoods of local communities are always meted with persistent resistance among many others.

The need to possess superior capabilities in communication and mobility is now of essence than ever before as nations and regions scramble for limited stalls in the global market. Human travels and freight of economic commodities is on the increase and the win remains a reserve for those who are investing more on innovation in efficient transport system. People in organizations with global transactions travel more hence desire for improved safety, comfort and speed in the choice of transport means within their resource abilities. The dispatch of economic goods especially perishable agricultural products to the widely spread market demands efficient transport system.

While enhanced human mobility and physical movement of economic goods is the desired fundamental criterion for operating in the expansive world market, real time flow of information revitalizes the dynamics of the global market. E-commerce is taking over and through advertisement and electronic money transfers, virtual markets exist in the digital domain, in which complete transactions without physical interaction between buyers and sellers take place at different levels through digital interactions supported by
communication technologies. Global trade belongs to those who have access to superior Tele-Communication infrastructure and capabilities to innovate on the application of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) which is limitless in scope. Kenya is hampered by a myriad of economic challenges which include but not limited to ill-establishment and maintenance of transport and communication infrastructure due to inadequate capital and political instability in neighbouring countries such as Somalia.

The social wellbeing of humanity attracted remote priority in the past economic epochs. In most business formations, human beings were considered as factors of production belonging to the same description with furniture, machinery and the like. The contemporary business ideology now accommodates the significance of human rights and motivation as the promissory note for sustained market acceptability. Human beings are carriers of intelligence, an antecedent of innovations; the game-changer in business operations. Economies that have made significance strides in development have discovered the importance of investing and harnessing the mental capabilities of their citizens through research and safeguarding innovations for the good of the nation by facilitating patent rights to native owners of the innovations. Social innovation rather than individual innovation is more desirable in economic terms. It is helping to solve some of the world’s most pressing problems with new solutions such as fair trade, distance learning, mobile money transfer, restorative justice, and zero-carbon housing (Kevin C. & Ernest N., 2013). In the process of creating solutions, it also transforms the value system, basic practices, resource distribution and social power structures. Prudent application of social innovation in a diverse society yields a type of economic growth that enhance continuous harmony rather than damage human relationships and wellbeing (Mulgan G. et al., 2006). Good as it sounds many efforts to implement social innovation have not reached their full potential due to a variety of challenges inherent in implementation process (Aarons G. et al., 2011). Social innovation in Kenya is still below expectation as indicated by low investment in scientific research and innovation.

Poverty is an unfortunate narrative when it is used economic terms. It is a status with limited or no privileges to acquisition of basic needs. It is implicitly a human-deprived status implying that one finds oneself in poverty because circumstances dictate so. The difference between governments that empathize with the dire living standards of their citizens and those who don’t is judged by the level of poverty. Economies, even those that came up recently have intentionally succeeded in reducing the poverty level in their citizens. Infrastructure development is key to mobilizing people to walk-out-on poverty by redirecting them to put time into use in activities that generate a favourable economic swing. Rania A., (2010) observes that for developing countries especially among the poor households, more time is spent on unpaid production activities such as cooking, collecting water, fuel wood and free goods for household uses.

In the absence of basic infrastructure and lack of durable household appliances, time is further spent on routine daily household functions such as transporting goods and people to their destination (Rania A., 2010). As the saying goes “Time is Money”, superior infrastructure surely translates on increase of the monetary value of human activities per unit time. At a global scale, poverty is one of the major challenges facing humanity today. The attack on poverty was spearheaded by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) set by the United Nations with the first goal being eradication of extreme poverty and hunger by the year 2015 (UNDP, 2010). Kenya is rated one of the most unequal countries in sub-Saharan Africa with 46% of people living in poverty according to UNICEF. According to Lotta L. (Director of Natverkstan), the Kenyan government shows low, if any, interest in putting sustainable programs and incentives in place. Corruption is still a problem which the state has deliberately failed to respond to. This has stalled government spending for intended courses like infrastructure development and service provision a situation characterized by “White Elephant Projects” or “Non-Started Projects” with falsified accounts of completion.

1.7. Objectives of the Study

The general purpose of this study is to churn the literature available on the impact of public infrastructure on socioeconomic development and present the blend of findings relevant to the contemporary knowledge chasers. The specific objectives on the other hand seek is to shed light on the impact of infrastructure on socioeconomic development with view of the society wellness in terms of: Coexistence and Shared Common Future; Transport and Communication; Creativity and Social Innovation; Living Standards and Social Equity.

II. THEORETICAL REVIEW

The prerogative of this study is literature evaluation on the impact of Public Infrastructure on Development in terms of economic, social and environmental dimensions. The use of the term development to refer to national economic growth emerged in the United States of America (USA) at the start of the 1940s and is association with the key American foreign policy concern: how to divert newly independent states from being allies to the communist Soviet bloc (Encyclopedia Britannica). Inspired by this concern, the USA enlisted its social scientists to study and devise ways of promoting capitalist economic development and political stability in what was termed the developing world. Development theory therefore refers to the research and writing that resulted from this effort. “Development Theory by itself has little value unless it is applied to translate into results and improves people’s lives” (Todaro, 2000)
2.1 Modernization Theory

Prateek G. (2010) observed that, modernization theory is fundamentally the study of the process of social evolution and the development of societies. Modernization Theory has been defined as a theory that uses a systematic process in transitioning underdeveloped countries to a classier level of development (Reyes, 2001). It is perceived to be a US-European-centric standard model of development. The Modernization Theory advocates for cultural transformation motivated and guided by formal institutional structures in non-industrialized countries. Modernization Theory explains inequality within or between states by identifying different values, systems and ideas held by different nations (Martinussen, 1997). Rapley, (2002) observes that the theory gained more recognition in the late 1950s when it proved to be a better alternative to the North American political scientists’ following the emerging failures of many of the proposed approaches by the development economists of that dispensation. Modernization Theory prioritizes the significance of political development in building a climate that is conducive to sound economic standing and is in favour of social and cultural reforms. The theory is apt for political development, but also can be used for any liberal theories of modernization that appeared after 1945 targeting Third World nations (Berger, 2004). It is an ordinary believe that emergence of Modernization Theory was the freedom of Third World countries from colonization and the strategies employed during the Cold War by Western countries in order to prevent these countries from being controlled by communists (Haque, 1999).

Theories of Modernization, according to Chase-Dunn (2000), considers as more significant the leverage of modern technology, development of institutions and labour habits that correspond to industrial production. In addition, they also reflect on the impact of modern beliefs on people, families and society as a whole. According to Reyes (2001) Modernization Theory, development can be segmented into five phases identified as: Traditional society; Characterized by a limited range of production. Preconditions for take-off; The first steps for advancement from traditional society. The take-off stage; The rise of new industries with the application of new industrial techniques, The road to maturity; Widespread application of technology and The age of mass consumption; Provision of extensive private consumption like durable goods, and an extension of power internationally for the nation (Rostow 1962).

It is notable that as countries moved to the age of mass consumption, they sought development aid and foreign support (Guilhot, 2005). Attached to these supports were expectations of democratization on the part of the developed countries providing aid. This relatively conservative understanding emanated from a domineering U.S. belief in the rights of human beings. Despite all aforesaid, Modernization Theory ignores the particular concerns of developing countries because the main objectives of the accounting systems based on the developed country model are to satisfy the needs of shareholders. The true state of many developing countries is that few enterprises have private shareholders, investment decisions are often not made on financial grounds and the market for information is relatively underdeveloped and imperfect. The role of accounting systems in developing countries is therefore seen as inevitably being the adoption of those from developed countries. This failure to take account of the unique characteristics and concerns of developing countries is the main weakness of the theory and limits its applicability to this study.

2.2 Globalization Theory

Globalization is commonly used as a shorthand way of describing the spread and connectedness of production, communication and technologies across the world. What is generally called globalization involved the extension of distinct relations of ideological, economic, military, and political power across the world. Concretely, in the period after 1945 this means the diffusion of ideologies like liberalism and socialism, the spread of the capitalist mode of production, the extension of military striking ranges, and the extension of nation-states across the world, at first with two empires and then with just one surviving (Mann, 2013). Anthony, G. (2009) wrote that “thirty years ago, the term globalization was relatively unknown, but today it seems to be on the tip of everyone's tongue. Globalization refers to the fact that we all increasingly live in one world, so that individuals, groups and nations become ever more interdependent”. It is frequently used as an economic term to denote the acceleration of the interconnections in the global economy in the last few decades, and the related phenomenon of the rise of both relatively open international financial markets and global corporations (Barnett & Cavanagh, 1994; Khor, 2002). Globalization is a theory of development (Reyes, 2001a) that uses a global mechanism of greater integration with particular emphasis on the sphere of economic transactions. It is a US-Europe-centric positive model of development whose feature is the spread of capitalism around the globe. The focus of Globalization Theory is communications global interconnectivity, with the resultant linkages directed at cultural and economic factors in communication systems. Globalization Theory attempts to explain inequality by identifying cultural and economic factors in global connection, Reyes (2001) claims that there are two major meanings of the word “Globalization” where one deals with the word as an event that occurs causing interdependence of different countries of the world in different aspects of communication, trade, and finance. The other meaning applied to the concept of Globalization considers it as a theory of economic development with the assumption of widespread unification among different countries. This integration is believed to have an effective influence on the development of economies and on the improvement in social indicators.

Globalization in a wider sense is also includes degrees of change in theories. Zineldin (2002) states, that Globalization
has transformed the theory concerning development effort and its different definitions, liberalizing emergence of formulations and definitions which are specific to the unique prevailing situations in every developing country. From this viewpoint Globalization theory can therefore be construed as a theory of economic development which provides constructive suggestions about the ways in which developing countries can achieve the positive, beneficial effects of developed countries. According to Zineldin (2002), however, one can witness the problems that have been produced by Globalization in developing countries. He traces the origin of such problems to developing countries competing rather than cooperating with each other.

III. REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

3.1 Public Infrastructure link to Coexistence and Shared Common Future

The survival of human community is anchored in the spirit of interconnectedness, interdependency and shared existence. One’s value to the community depends primarily on how far their feelings, thoughts and actions are directed towards promoting the good of their fellows. The health of a society thus depends quite as much on the independence of the individuals composing it as on their close social cohesion. Abuse of communication channels can sow seeds of discord which may mature to confrontational conflicts as was seen in Rwanda. Albert Einstein said; “Kindness, our shared existence and life’s highest ideals”. The most effective cementing factor of social cohesion is peace and therefore effort to secure and sustain peace is noble corporate venture. Eesha P. & Sharmiladevi J. (2018) observe that 24 people per minute—this is the number of people that flee their homes fearing persecution and war, in hopes of a better and safer place elsewhere. This number translates to 34,000 people per day. This means, every day, 34,000 new people gain the status of Locally Displaced Persons (LDPs) or refugees. It is in the interest of this study at this point to dispense views of a few scholars. Kristellys Z. (2010) sought to demonstrate the potentials of development projects in promoting reconciliation and peace building in Hyderabad city (India).

The Aman Shanti Community Development Projects were administered with the focus on programs and activities to foster peace while developing the community. The Women’s Unit of the programme caters for activities such as: tailoring, arts and crafts training, self-help groups, and income generating activities among others. The Inter-Faith Primary School includes: regular classes up to 4th standard, nutrition programs, play for peace programs, parents’ meetings to motivate them to get involved in the peace process, and picnics. Health Clinics include: regular clinic, specialized health camps, referral services, and health talks. The Inter-Faith Programs comprise: inter-faith festival celebrations, inter-faith politics, capacity-building & conflict transformation, and general and social awareness. These programs have effectively enabled the women from the affected communities contribute significantly to peace-building initiatives in their communities (Rajeswari, 2003). The fact that these projects were built purely around a community development strategy in order to achieve peace clearly demonstrates how community development strategies are peace building strategies in and of themselves.

Since 2001, Afghanistan has received billions of dollars for development projects from the United States and its Western allies. Many have criticized the effectiveness of these funds because of the level of political corruption and the frustration of many large-scale development efforts caused by the Taliban insurgency (Tavernise, 2009). However, there is a valley in the province of Badakhshan in northeast Afghanistan called Jurm where people have taken charge of themselves. The main tool of community development is the formulation of structured village councils. They have been using their “village councils and direct grants as part of an initiative called the National Solidarity Program, introduced by an Afghan ministry in 2003. Bringing development to Afghans is a strategy for countering insurgency aimed at drawing people away from the Taliban and building popular support for the Western-backed government by showing that it can make a difference in people’s lives.

The intentional use of community development in Jurm has translated into progress in conflict resolution through community discussions and joint visioning. The outcomes of these projects include the building of a girls’ high school improving literacy among women in the village of Fargamanch raising enrollment of girls by 65% since 2004. Health status went up with 3,270 families acquiring access to clean tap water in their homes. Corruption has gone down as the village councils act as a check for corruption. Lastly, technological advances have afforded a better life quality for villagers as growing modernization has allowed televisions to broadcast the outside world into villages and for phone networks to cover more than 80 percent of the province, which is triple what that figure was in 2001 (Tavernise, 2009). The community building approaches, organizing and empowerment as evident disapprove of superior approach to large-scale development approach which has continually failed. This in support of the statement—never start a project that is not backed by all members of the community, or it will fail.

The Arab-Non Arab Sudanese conflict for 11 years since 1956 caused death of many Sudanese and degenerated to the point of recruiting child-soldiers. Shortly after warring factions signed the contentious Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in January 2005, World Vision South Sudan developed a project, the Disaster Preparedness and Local Capacities for Peace (DIPLCAP) program, to address the needs of remote communities, specifically the issues of service delivery, peace building, disaster preparedness and livelihood development. This project addressed the needs of peace building and disaster preparedness, as well as livelihoods in the communities of Mayendit, Tonj East and Rumbek North. Its
objective captured: improved access to functional community services in both Mayendit and Tonj East and strengthening of disaster preparedness and community livelihoods systems. According to evaluation carried out, much of the issues addressed by asset-based community development in this post-conflict region were not fully or appropriately addressed. The justification was that the projects arose out of the needs of the community, thus leading to the conclusion that DIPLCAP took more of a needs-based development approach. The improper use of a sustainable community development strategy, that of asset-based community development, within post-conflict communities made room for unforeseen failures and little improvement in establishing permanent peace, in so far as that peace was intended to be established through the development projects. An intentional use of a community development approach when moving forward with development projects in these communities is certain to build sustainable peace, as there is an inherent sensitivity to conflict in the asset-based community development approach. The issues address within the conflict resolution element of community development helps mitigate conflict.

3.2 Public Infrastructure link to Transport and Communication

Convergence between Information and Communications Technologies (ICT), in particular the Internet, and its related applications, has enabled low-cost dissemination of information in developing economies. The literature on general ICT infrastructure and its impact on growth are steadily growing. There is some recent literature that shows that the Internet has changed the markets by allowing more efficient search. Similar to other infrastructure, investing in telecommunication will increase the demand for the goods and services used in their production and increase total national output. The impact of telecommunications on growth was first found by Andrew Hardy (Hardy, 1980) based on data from 45 countries, with the largest effect of telecommunication investment on GDP found in the least developed economies and the smallest effect, in the most-developed economies. Garbade & Silber (1978), observes that the telegraph and Transatlantic cable led to efficient markets everywhere by narrowing inter market price differentials. Bayes et al. (1999) noted that, the average prices of agricultural commodities were higher in villages with phones than in villages without phones. Eggleston et al (2002), show how basic telecommunication infrastructure can create a “digital platform” making markets efficient through information dissemination to isolated local residents and improve the living standards of the world’s poor, which in turn accelerates growth. It is evident from empirical data that, there is no doubt regarding the fact that most of the developing economies have leapfrogged in cellular telephony as a quick and inexpensive way of increasing telecom penetration. Transport infrastructure on the other hand is key to mobility of persons and commodities to and fro markets. It may be defined as an integral part of the transport system of any city or state (Oksana S. & Irina K., 2016). In connection with the development of society and intensification of international relations due to the globalization processes, the importance of transport as a factor for economic and social development has enhanced. Various aspects of the activities related to the development of transport infrastructure have increasingly become the objects of scientific researches. Transportation as an economic factor is a measure of economic activity and at the same time transportation is a reflection of economic activity. Governments seeks the best approaches in the change of governance and ownership in infrastructure sectors. In infrastructure procurement, cost overruns and delays are the commonest causes of failed public infrastructure projects. In infrastructure management, overemployment in passenger and freight operations and unsatisfactory service levels were associated with State Owned Enterprises. Makovšek and Veryard (2016) provide a review of concerns with regard to public infrastructure governance.

3.3 Public Infrastructure link to Creativity and Social Innovation

In economic terms, a descend from the global view point to localized concerns, isolating specificities and distinctiveness of countries and recognizing their cultural and economic differences in order to capture their real needs in the context of their surrounding environment (UN-Creative Economy, 2010). It is of essence to explore how the interplay between creative capacities, trade, investment and technology translate into a vibrant creative economy able to contribute to economic prosperity and poverty reduction. Economic creativity may be seen as a dynamic process leading towards innovation in technology, business practices, marketing, etc., and is closely linked to gaining competitive advantages in the economy (UN-Creative Economy, 2010). The figure below summarises the interrelationship between scientific, artistic and economic creativity.
The term “Creative Economy” emerged in 2001 in John Hawkins’ book about the relationship between creativity and economics (UN-Creative Economy, 2010).

The term “social innovation” was introduced by Schumpeter J., (1939) to describe a process of creative destruction leading to the emergence of new combinations of resources in business, political and cultural environments. Thus, social innovations are new combinations of practices (along with combinations of products, technologies, etc.). There have been many subsequent attempts to define the term “social innovation. Social innovations can be broadly described as “the development of new concepts, strategies and tools that support groups in achieving the objective of improved well-being” (Dawson P. & Daniel L., 2010). As Schumpeter J., (1942) defines innovation as a new combination of new elements (the introduction of a new good, the introduction of a new method of production, the opening of a new market, the conquest of a new source of supply of raw materials and carrying out of the new organization of any industry) which were not seen in any previous economic system.

In May 2013, the World Economic Forum convened a cross-industry initiative to examine the ability of digital infrastructure to keep pace with the fast-rising demand being put on it, with a focus on developed markets. Several names have been given to this: network effects, collective intelligence, and hyper connected societies. Social innovation popped in as paradigm in the economic arena that is increasingly attracting the interest of research, companies and policy makers (Andrew & Klein, 2010). The introduction of the social to innovation and vice versa, is considered from multiple research perspectives, embracing social science and economic literatures, as well as in the socio-political practice (Brooks, 1982; Andrew & Klein, 2010).

To align infrastructure reforms for promotion of social innovation, states have started to compliment legislation with internal infrastructure development to support socially innovative practices. For example, some states have created offices, initiatives, or social innovation task forces to better promote or respond to these endeavors (Stephanie B., Marcie P. & Christina P., 2014). The Ohio Entrepreneurship Initiative was launched as a partnership between the Governor’s Office of Faith-Based and Community Initiatives and the Department of Development’s Entrepreneurship and Small Business Department to increase social entrepreneurship across the state and offer trainings, support, and resources to emerging entrepreneurs. As a matter of general overview, social innovation arises from public dissatisfaction with existing conditions and with concern about the gap between conditions of privilege and conditions of want. An additional challenge comes from the fact that social innovation is often inter-sectorial or cross-sectorial and very often multilevel. Social innovation can produce major public savings and improvement of people’s quality of life through better public policy, fostering better social, economic, environmental and cultural outcomes on the ground.

3.4 Public Infrastructure link to Living Standards and Social Equity

William A. (2016) maintains that infrastructure development has long been championed as the panacea for poverty and by extension a gap-stopper of social disparities. Existing literature suggests the existence of a positive relationship between economic growth and infrastructure investment. Other research on poverty alleviation has focused on empowerment, or increasing the number of poor people who participate in decision-making processes through access to infrastructure including transportation. Estache, Foster, & Wodon (2002) examined the relationship between Latin America, infrastructure reforms and poverty alleviation. After reviewing data on both macro- and microeconomic connections between infrastructure reform and poverty alleviation, they concluded that privatized infrastructure development tended to alleviate poverty if the poor could afford to participate in the benefits (access to jobs, etc.). Stivastava & Shaw (2013) analyzed the effects of different forms of public investments on growth and rural poverty in various Chinese provinces and concluded that road infrastructure had the largest impact on poverty as compared to rural education, telecommunications, irrigation, agricultural research and development, power generation, and targeted poverty alleviation. Developing economies in sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and South America severe deprivation is still a way of life to majority of the citizens. It is ironical that while more than 2.5 billion people cling to survival on less than $1-2 a day the chief beneficiaries of globalizations enjoy tremendous advancements in health, education and living standards (John F. & James H., 2009). Over 40 per cent of the world’s population face the threat of severe poverty. It is alarming that this bracket is distributed in marginalized parts of developing countries characterized by perennial conflicts, insecurity and adverse environmental conditions. In Kenya, North Eastern and North Rift regions which fall within the arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) harbour such populations. ASALs constitute about 80 per cent of the Kenya’s land mass; and about 10 million people and 70 per cent of the national livestock herd are found in ASALs (GoK, 2006). Mwaniki et al. (2007) notes that the majority of the people in this area depend on relief aid from government and NGOs. Competition for scarce resources coupled with cultural practices such as cattle rustling has led to infiltration of illicit arms from neighbouring countries such as Southern Sudan, Somalia, Ethiopia and Northern Uganda. These conflicts have led to loss of life and property and aggravated poverty in the region estimated to be about 65 per cent (GoK, 2003). To address these and other socioeconomic challenges, the GoK launched the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation aimed at poverty reduction, employment creation and enhanced decentralized development through provision of the necessary infrastructure including roads among others (GoK, 2003).
IV. DISCUSSION

Empirical evidence presents a number of ways in which public infrastructure catalyzes socioeconomic development. According to Carol T., Nelson W., & George K. (2016), reliable, adequate and quality infrastructure attract (FDI) which help in modernizing the economy. FDI is a tactful measure of reducing the financial gap experienced in the country. FDI net inflows in Kenya for the period 2007-2018 is depicted in the figure below.

Chakrabarti (2003) also observes that quality infrastructure, labour costs, trade tariffs and barriers, trade openness and balance, exchange rate, economic growth and tax regimes are significant determinants of FDI inflow, though, the level of significance was found to vary with regions and income cohorts hence. Nyaosi (2011) established that infrastructure affects FDI inflows significantly and these findings were similar to those of Calderon (2009), Mwega (2009), UNCTAD (2005) and World Bank (2009). Carol T., Nelson W., & George K. (2016) in their study considered economic factors (transport infrastructure (TI), energy infrastructure (EI), communication infrastructure (CI), economic growth (EG) and exchange rate (ER)), social factors (water and waste management infrastructure (WWI), wage (W)) and political factors (security (SE) and openness to trade (O)), the regression error (e) and (t) is the year. The econometric model was specified in a multiplicative form as:

\[ FDI_t = \beta_0 T_I t^{\beta_1} E_t^{\beta_2} C_I^{\beta_3} W WI_t^{\beta_4} E G_t^{\beta_5} E R_t^{\beta_6} S E_t^{\beta_7} W_t^{\beta_8} O_t^{\beta_9} e \]

Where the estimated equation becomes:

\[ \ln FDI_t = \beta_0 + T_I t^{\beta_1} + \ln E_t^{\beta_2} + \ln C_I^{\beta_3} + \ln W WI_t^{\beta_4} + \ln E G_t^{\beta_5} + \ln E R_t^{\beta_6} + \ln S E_t^{\beta_7} + \ln W_t^{\beta_8} + \ln O_t^{\beta_9} + \epsilon_t \]

The findings implied that: TI, CI, WWI, ER, EG and O positive effect on FDI inflows, EI having a positive but insignificant effect. Labour costs and insecurity have a negative effect on FDI inflows although the effect is insignificant. As a strategy, the government should increase air transport (passengers and freight), more kilometres of tarmacked roads, more kilometres of rail line, modernization of ports and airstrips, increase broadband Internet connectivity, increase export of ICT goods and services, increase mobile cellular subscriptions, improve water availability and access and implement proper waste disposal in urban areas.

Kidake, (2015) examined the relationship between infrastructure and FDI in Kenya using time series data from 1980 to 2015 applying the Vector Error Correction Model estimation techniques. It was established that infrastructure led to an increase in FDI stocks in the long run at 99% confidence level. An Increase in infrastructural components by 1% increases FDI inflows by 0.316 at the 90% confidence level. This is affirmed by the Granger Causality test which established that Infrastructure Granger Causes FDI significantly. The VECM model on the other hand showed that FDI affected infrastructural development in the long run as well as in the short run. In the short run, a one percent increase in the amount of FDI stocks impacts infrastructure by 0.617, at 90% level of confidence. Janpeter S., Raphael L. & Jürgen S. (2018) explored the benefits and externalities for the local communities living in close proximity to the oil and wind exploitation infrastructure in Northern Kenya. The findings confirmed that oil and wind exploitation infrastructure provide local communities with employment opportunities, water, electricity and improved transport. Increased pollution in oil-sites, land degradation following full scale exploitation of oil and human conflicts are in the expectation list of the findings. Malpractices such as land grabbing and perceived under-compensating for land has impacted negatively on the often emotive highly contested issues of land use, land rights and access to land in the region.

Using causality analysis between infrastructure expenditure and economic growth in Kenya with labor introduced into the framework as a control variable, Samuel C. & Strike M., (2016) showed that there is bidirectional causality between economic growth and infrastructural development. It further showed that innovations in economic growth were important in explaining the behavior of infrastructure in the long run and that economic growth is driven by good quality as well as sufficient infrastructure, implying that the economic growth of Kenya is anchored on infrastructure development and therefore appealing for increased investment. The study therefore urges the government to focus more on improving transport, communication and power supplies infrastructure by committing more funds.

The AFDB, (2014) presented a comparative study on economic growth where Kenya was the focal participant with findings given in the table below.
The survey however established that corrosion of iron sheets within the neighborhood is linked to acidic rains resulting from the evaporation of highly concentrated brine water from the salt lagoons. Clearance of mangrove forests and other agricultural crops such as the coconut and cashew nut plants to pave way for construction of salt lagoons has affected micro-climate of the area leading to increased local temperatures and reduction in rainfall in the area. Effect of mining on the water quality and availability is also regarded as the most significant impact of a salt farming in the region depriving the residents of their right to clean water access. Purchase of water for domestic use from the same salt manufacturers continually impoverished them. Other social related challenges include: family conflicts, increased rate of immorality, school drop outs for employment opportunities, human displacement, increased cases of insecurity, alcoholism and child delinquency.

Based on the Global Competitiveness Report (GCR) 2012-2013, Maake A., (2015) elicited indices for Quality of Overall Infrastructure (QOI) as well as Indices for Quality of Roads (QR), Quality of Railroads Infrastructure (QRI), Quality of Port Infrastructure (QPI) and Quality of Air Transport Infrastructure (QATI). The GCR report considered 144 economies of the world categorized into three blocks; 1st World, East African Community, BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa) as sampled and presented in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Quality of Overall Infrastructure (QOI)</th>
<th>Quality of Roads (QR)</th>
<th>Quality of Railroad Infrastructure</th>
<th>Quality of Port Infrastructure</th>
<th>Quality of Air Transport Infrastructure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Rank/144</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Rank/144</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st World</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. K.</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Africa Community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRICS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>4.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>S. Africa</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: World Economic Forum (WEF), 2012

Gordon O., et al. (2013) from a study on socioeconomic problems in salt mining observe that salt farming in Magarini District-Kenya generates enormous profits at the expense of social and ecological wellness in contrary to Rio+20-Agenda 21. The company officials interviewed registered a positive contribution of the salt mining to development of the greater Magarini District through CSR activities which include employment, roads, fisheries and growth of market centers due to increased business opportunities, schools, educational scholarships, health centers and water supply.
With focus on Kenya, the following summary on infrastructure indices in terms of value and ranking can be extracted from the table above: QOI: 4.0 (81/144), QR: 3.9 (72/144), QRI: 2.5 (72/144), QPI: 3.8 (81/144) and QATI: 4.8 (65/144). QOI value and ranking for France (a developed economy) and Kenya are 6.4 (38/144) and 4.0 (80/144) respectively which translates to a gap of 2.4 (60%). Similarly, the two economies decipher infrastructure gap in Kenya in specific areas as follow; QR: 2.6 (66.7%), QRI: 3.2 (380%), QOI: 1.6 (42.1%) and QATI: 1.4 (29.2%). In view of the Kenya’s ranking in position 80 out of 144 economies in terms of quality of infrastructure, the situation portrays a below average performance. It is apparent that the ability of the Kenya’s economy to compete and flourish effectively is hinged on the quantity quality of infrastructure. This therefore summons the effort of the government to strategically cause reforms that are geared towards increasing quality infrastructure to enhance the investment climate with intention of attracting FDI inflows. Policy on continuous maintenance, repair and rehabilitation of infrastructure should be well formulated and implemented. It is of interest to note that the factors that interplay to contribute to infrastructure gaps in developing economies like Kenya include: poor stakeholder coordination, poor funding, poor maintenance, repair and rehabilitation of the existing infrastructure, lack of comprehensive and integrated infrastructure policy framework, gross inefficiencies in the use infrastructure funds, inadequate control in execution of infrastructure, misuse of infrastructure facilities and lack of adequate research and development (R&D) in contemporary infrastructure.

Abel A., (2013) maintains that Infrastructure generates facilities, services and system needed for businesses that consequently translate to economic growth of a nation. The intensity of infrastructure has a direct impetus on the bearing of competitiveness of a country’s local and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). Extensive and efficient infrastructure is critical for ensuring effective functioning of the economy as it determines the location of the economic activity and the kind of activities or sectors that can develop in a particular economy. Well-developed transport infrastructure: quality roads, sea ports and air transport decreases the effect of distance between regions, integrating the national market and connecting it at low cost to markets in other countries and regions. Transport is also key in allowing workers to arrive on time at their workplace.

Economies need an electricity supply free of interruptions and shortages for effective operations in factories, hotels, offices and shops. Finally, a solid and extensive telecommunications network is needed for rapid and free flow of information. In today’s world fast and efficient communication is necessary for businesses to work well. In the last nine years Kenya has made remarkable strides in development of infrastructure, so it can position itself to be the preferred destination for business investment in East Africa (Abel A., 2013).

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

There is reliable evidence from this study that public infrastructure affects socioeconomic development in a multifaceted way. Reliable, adequate and quality infrastructure attract (FDI) which help in modernizing the economy. Other factors such as economic growth (EG), exchange rate (ER), and wage (W) and political factors: security (SE) and openness to trade (O) also have a positive on FDI. Increase in infrastructural components upsurges the confidence of investors and lowers the risk of investments. More FDI foreign positively correlate with the economic growth rate. Empirical observation has established that infrastructure led to an increase in FDI stocks in the long run at 99% confidence level. An Increase in infrastructural components by 1% increases FDI inflows by 0.316 at the 90% confidence level. On the other hand, in the short run, a one percent increase in the amount of FDI stocks impacts infrastructure by 0.617, at 90% level of confidence. According to Nyaosi, (2011), FDI brings financial resources to the host countries, provides new technologies and enhances the efficiency of existing technologies. He further notes that, it facilitates access into export markets, thereby playing an important role in strengthening the export capabilities of domestic economies. The communities in the proximities of oil sites and wind-mill power generators benefits from employment opportunities, water, electricity and improved transport and if not checked may take the confrontational direction. Increased pollution in oil-sites, land degradation following full scale exploitation of oil and human conflicts are in the expectation list of the findings in the same venture.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on conclusion made above, this study offers a number of recommendations suitable to researchers and governments in the light of infrastructure utility for socioeconomic development. Since economic policies allowing free investment and trade are key determinants of FDI inflows, it is recommended that the government should adopt policies supporting international trade by remove tariff barriers on imported inputs. Enough EAI practices and stakeholder involvement is of essence in any economic investment to mitigate on pollution from dust and exhaust emission, waste accumulation, oil spillages, noise and vibrations from equipment and locomotives. Malpractices such as land grabbing (real or imagined) and perceived under-compensating for land and discrimination in job distribution as raised in the oil and wind investment ventures in Northern Kenya impacts negatively on the emotions of the community, despite the fact that the investments have come. The governments of developing countries are expected to intentionally and willingly put to check the corruption vices. Infrastructure should be carefully delivered with deliberate intents of minimizing possibility of killing economies of other
places e.g. constructions of roads and railways should consider old towns.

REFERENCES


