



PROFILE OF WOMEN'S SOCIO- ECONOMIC STATUS IN KENYA

INSTITUTE OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS - KENYA

JUNE 2008

Published by:

INSTITUTE OF ECONOMIC AFFAIRS

5th Floor, ACK Garden House

1st Ngong Avenue

P.O. Box 53989

Nairobi- 00200

Tel: 254-20-2717402, 2721262

Fax: 254-20-2716231

Email: admin@ieakenya.or.ke

© Institute of Economic Affairs, 2008
First Published in 2008

ISBN: 9966-7183-3-8

Table of Contents

	<i>Page</i>
<i>Abbreviations and Acronyms</i>	<i>i</i>
<i>Acknowledgements</i>	<i>ii</i>
<i>Abstract</i>	<i>iii</i>
1.0 Introduction	1
2.0 Literature Review	4
3.0 Methodology and Scope of Work	8
4.0 Review of Gender Related Policies, Interventions and Legal Framework	10
5.0 Socio-Economic Status of Women in Kenya	15
5.1. Population Distribution	15
5.2. Households by Sex of Household Head and Region, 2005/06	17
5.3. Poverty and Gender	18
5.4. Participation in Education and Economic Activities	20
5.4.1. Access to Education Opportunities	20
5.4.2. Access to Employment	27
5.4.3. Enterprise Ownership	30
5.4.4. Financial Services	32
5.4.5. Women Representation in Decision Making	34
5.5.5. Judicial Service Establishments	37
5.4.6. Gender and Status of Health Indicators	38
5.4.7. Gender Dimensions in Domestic Violence	39
6.0 Implications for Women Wellbeing	41
7.0 Policy Suggestions and Agenda for Reform	46
8.0 Conclusions and Research gaps	51
8.1. Conclusion	51
8.2. Research Gaps	51
References	53

List of Tables

	Page
Table 1: Population Distribution by Age and Sex, 2005/06 (Million)	16
Table 2: Distribution of households by Sex of Household Head and Region, 2005/06	17
Table 3: Poverty Measure by Selected Socio-Economic Groups.....	19
Table 4: Pre-Primary Schools Gross Enrolment by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006	21
Table 5: Primary Schools Gross Enrolment by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006.....	22
Table 6: Primary Schools Gross Enrolment Rate by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006.....	23
Table 7: Primary Schools Net Enrolment Rate by Sex, 2005 – 2006	24
Table 8: Secondary Schools Gross Enrolment Rate by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006	25
Table 9: Secondary Schools Enrolment by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006	26
Table 10: Enrolment in Tertiary Institutions.....	27
Table 11: Highest Level of Education 2005/06 (percentage)	27
Table 12: Wage Employment by Industry and Sex, 2005 and 2006, '000'	29
Table 13: Proportion of Persons Operating Enterprises by Sex and Region, 2005/06.....	31
Table 14: Access to Credit Services, 2006 (%age)	33
Table 15: Proportion of Women in Political and Major Institutions, 2006	35
Table 16: Proportion of Women in Judicial Service Establishments, 2006	37
Table 17: Major Health Indicators, 2003.....	38
Table 18: HIV & AIDS Prevalence Rate from Surveillance Sites	38
Table 19: Summary of Key Indicators (in percentage unless otherwise stated)	41
Box 1: Recent Laws and Bills which directly affect women in Kenya.....	10

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ASALs	Arid and Semi arid Lands
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
EFA	Education for All
ERS	Economic Recovery Strategy
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GOK	Government of Kenya
GPI	Gender Parity Index
KDHS	Kenya Demographic and Health Survey
KIHBS	Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
PRSP	Poverty Reduction strategy paper
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific Cultural Organisation

Acknowledgements

The Institute of Economic Affairs (IEA) would like to acknowledge the invaluable work done by Ms. Eldah Onsomu (*lead researcher*) in the research and preparation of this study. In addition, we would like to recognize the sacrifice and the efforts from various groups that made this study a success. Firstly, our sincere gratitude goes to various stakeholders whose contributions from the inception of the study to peer review meetings served to further shape the study. In particular Ms. Wanjiku Wakogi of Heinrich Boll Foundation (HBF), Mr. Monyoncho Maina of Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS), Mr. Charles Kioko of Mombasa Legal Rights, Ms. Hulda Ouma of Society for International Development (SID), Ms. Mary Frances Lukera of FIDA-K, Ms. Christine Muyoka of Women's Link, R. Misati of Kenya Institute of Public Policy and Research Analysis (KIPPRA), Dr. Regina Karega and Ms. Jeniffer Chege of Gender Commission, Ms. Christine Njeru of Wildaf, Mr. Titus Katembu of European Union Kenya (EU-K) and Mr. Billington Mwangi of Pathway Development Institute.

Secondly, we are also grateful to the IEA staff particularly Ms. Margaret Chemengich (Chief Executive) Mr. Kwame Owino, Ms. Thitu Mwaniki, Mr. John Mutua, Mr. Raphael Muya, Ms. Miriam Omolo, Mrs. Katindi Sivi Njonjo, Mr. Abraham Rugo, Mrs. Wangui Ndeto and Ms. Mary Odongo for their insightful input through in-house reviews and during peer review meetings. On the other hand, we appreciate the IEA's support staff for their support in the administrative and logistical side of the undertaking this study. Furthermore, special thanks go to Ms. Irene Kinuthia for proof reading and editing the study in readiness for publication.

Last but not least, the IEA is indebted to the Heinrich Boll Foundation (HBF) for their financial assistance without which this study could not have been carried out. In addition, we would like to appreciate their regular feedback and the working relationship that we have built in undertaking projects geared towards the advancement of gender equity and equality in Kenya.

Abstract

Various national, regional and international conventions and documentation have emphasised that enabling the population, regardless of gender to actively participate in social and economic wellbeing is critical for long-term and sustainable social, political and economic development of any society. In Kenya, gender equity has taken centre stage resulting in the development and enactment of various legal and policy interventions including enactment of the National Commission on Gender and Development Act in 2003 and subsequent establishment of the National Commission on Gender and Development in November the same year; introduction of gender desks in key parastatals and police stations; the introduction of the women's enterprise fund; the passing of the National Policy on Gender and Development in 2006 and the 30% presidential decree on affirmative action in public appointments, among others. Although, females constitute 51% of the population in Kenya, gender disparities are still persistent in most sectors. This study presents a socio-economic profile of women in Kenya. The analysis shows that there is low female representation in post primary education, formal employment, enterprise ownership outside wholesale and retail trade, and political decision making processes.

Gender inequalities can be attributed to limited access and control over productive resources, access to financial services, insufficient access to education, lack of skill, limited access to technology, cultural impediments and other constraints limiting employment options and participation in decision making. All these serve to seriously constrain women's ability to effectively participate in and benefit from economic development.

Policy interventions towards removing barriers to general female well-being include economic and knowledge empowerment, increasing access to financial services, employment and participation in decision making. This will also require design and implementation of programmes to transform gender related norms and behaviour in relation to care, work and responsibilities. Awareness programmes will require pre- and/or co-requisite transformation of mindsets within Government, decision makers, young girls and boys, men and even women themselves on the gender consequences of policies and programmes in the country. A more wholesome approach based on genuine political willingness, involvement of religious, media, family units, private sector agencies and civil societies in intense action oriented activism in transforming and nurturing positive attitudes and appreciation of unique roles played by women is recommended.

1

Introduction

Gender equality is important for both intrinsic and instrumental reasons. It affects social harmony and society's wellbeing in various dimensions. It involves policy dimensions in all areas including education, poverty, labour, financial markets, political and economic empowerment, institutions and overall economic development. Gender equality enhances prospects of achieving both international and national commitments such as Millennium Development Goals, Education for All, Convention on the Education of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Vision 2030, 2003-2007 Economic Recovery and Employment Creation Strategy, poverty reduction and sustainable development either directly and or indirectly. Gender inequality on the other hand undermines economic growth and social development. This is particularly true among less developed economies where women are often constrained from having equal access to social and economic capital such as employment, political, financial and social services. Consequently empowering women and enabling them to actively participate and contribute to social, economic and political activities is important for sustainable development.

The country's commitment to addressing gender equity and inequalities can be traced in both international and national policy commitments. The third and fifth Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) underscore the need for gender parity especially in education and access to social, economic and political opportunities, by 2015. As a result the country has put in place various policies and interventions including legislation, female specific policies, plans and programmes aimed at addressing specific gender gaps or forms of discrimination. Such interventions include affirmative action, promoting girl child education, economic empowerment through introduction of the Women Development Fund.

Most of the policy interventions targeting elimination of gender gaps are however not consistently documented and they are not informed by data or statistics. Moreover, the status of female population with respect to distributions of opportunities in various economic, social and political dimensions is scantily documented. This study therefore presents an assessment of the current situation and position of women in Kenya with respect to various political and socio-economic standing. A review is presented on the extent to which the country's national priorities, policy documents [Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), Economic Recovery Strategy (ERS) and forthcoming Vision 2030] accord female population their rightful place in the society and nation as a whole. Besides, when it comes to international conventions like the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), women are expected to play a key role in contributing towards meeting most of these goals on poverty reductions, mortality and morbidity reduction, environmental protection among other goals. As a result, an enhanced fact book complete with a compilation of all the available, recent and relevant statistics on socio-economic status of women would go a long way to inform policy intervention on women issues and provide a framework for monitoring participation of women in various sectors of the economy.

This study provides a sound gender-disaggregated database which differentiates population groups according to factors such as regional location, socio-economic, access to opportunities in education, enterprises and economic services, among others. The overall objective of the study is to assess status of women in Kenya and provide baseline data and information on profile of women in the economic processes. The fact book will go a step further and explain policy interventions that need to be put in place in order to reduce gender disparities. The specific objectives are as follows:

- a) Provide an assessment of the socio-economic profile of women in Kenya
- b) Analyse impact of gender related policies in Kenya
- c) Identify barriers to general women wellbeing in the country
- d) Identify policies and interventions for enhanced participation of women in development and
- e) Identify areas for further research on women matters.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: Section 2 presents some literature review and evidence of gender disparities while section 3 provides study methodology. Section 4 addresses legal and policy initiatives on gender in the country. Section 5 focuses on detailed assessment of gender profile in Kenya. Challenges and barriers to general wellbeing of women is presented in section 6 followed by policy suggestions on enhancing women participation in development in section 7. Conclusion and research gaps are presented in section 8.

2

Literature Review

Various theories have been used to contextualise the gender¹ inequality aspect. This ranges from socialisation theory to hierarchical gender prescriptions. Risman (1998) identified three distinct theoretical traditions that help understand sex and gender. The first difference focuses on gendered-selves, that is, whether sex differences are due to biology or socialisation. This focus is on the individual level of analysis encompassing social identities in which case men mature to be competitive and work oriented while women mature to become nurturing, person oriented and child centered. In terms of gender, the socialisation theory suggests that children are taught to behave a certain way according to their sex. Boys are taught to be masculine and girls to be feminine. For example, parents will often buy boys trucks or army toys and for girls, they will buy dolls and playhouse sort-of toys.

According to Risman(1998), the second tradition focuses on how social structure creates gendered behaviour. This approach argues that men and women behave differently because they fill different positions in institutional settings, work organisations and families, that is, they take on different gendered roles.

A third theoretical underpinning is the interaction perspective, which emphasises contextual issues such as cultural expectations and taken-for-granted situational meanings. According to Risman (1998), this concept implies that an individual is expected to create differences that are neither inevitable nor essential. This gender differences can therefore be interpreted to mean legitimatisation of inequality, as what is female in a patriarchal system is devalued (Daniels 1987; Kynaston 1996). This argument finds support in similar studies in which case

¹ Gender is defined as socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities and attributes that a given society consider appropriate for men and women. Sex refers to biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women. Female and male are sex categories while masculine and feminine are gender categories. Gender can not be defined by one's anatomy. Gender is not categorised as male or female. Gender differs from a classification based on sex in that there is little evidence to suggest that gendered differences are biologically inevitable (while sexual differences are largely biologically determined). Gendered differences are only sociologically inevitable.

there is often less than efficient investment in girls because the returns are perceived to accrue to another family after marriage (Dollar and Gatti 1999)

The hierarchical view expounds on gender inequalities and their linkages to development. The foundations of the hierarchical theory are grounded in Amartya Sen's arguments. Amartya Sen (1999), equated development to freedom, in which case Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is not an ultimate goal but rather the freedoms associated with it: freedom to exchange goods and labor, freedom to make choices and influence one's life, freedom to live longer, and freedom to choose to get education. Based on this context, restrictions on owning property, saving or borrowing, or making labor contracts would qualify as disincentives to growth, while freedom to exercise these activities would be associated with economic growth. Thus gender inequality, considered as a hierarchical view of gender relations, with men above women, and women regarded as inferior and less valuable by virtue of their sex, is growth retarding (Mikkola 2005). The argument is that gender equality expressed in an equal valuing and provision of opportunities for both genders enhances development in all spheres.

Mikkola (2005) further argues that Gender hierarchy shows in family, inheritance laws and customs, valuations of women's work as opposed to men's work, and the power to make decisions in society, family, church and social networks. It shows in the opportunities available for development, education, health and nutrition. It shows in violence and in general invisibility of the women's work. The hierarchy is generally acceptable by both genders, and is not normally questioned. It is general enough to apply across nations, cultures and time periods with the underlying presumption that changes in the status of women will become apparent in development only over a longer time period.

Other studies have focused on the resultant effects of the socially defined roles distinguishing masculinity and femininity. Most of these studies have mainly documented Gender Based Violence (GBV). According to the UN (1993), violence against women should be understood within the context of women's and girls' subordinate status to men and boys in society. While both women and men experience violence, evidence suggests that the risk factors, patterns,

and consequences of violence against women are different from violence against men. Many cultures have beliefs, norms and social institutions that legitimise and therefore perpetuate violence against women (Heise et al., 1999). Guedes (2004) argues that violence against women can not be separated from the norms, social structures and gender roles that influence women's vulnerability to violence.

Major findings of research indicate that in many parts of the world, it is considered both a right and even an obligation for men to physically chastise their wives in the face of perceived transgressions. Women are taught to be submissive and obedient to their partners, and a man's honour often depends on his ability to control his wife's behaviour. Most of the cultural norms in the communities where GBV is rampant not only encourage male violence against women but also serve to entrap women in violent relationship by teaching them that violence is normal and deserved. Another common norm, that family affairs should be kept private and that outsiders should not intervene, isolates women from potential sources of support. According to these studies, health consequences of GBV range from physical injury and chronic pain syndromes to mental and emotional depression, such as anxiety and depression to fatal outcomes, including suicide and homicide.

There is also mounting empirical evidence indicating that women as political decision makers make different choices than men do. According to Chattopadhyaya and Duflo(2001), who collected data on both men and women councillors in India, women invest more in infrastructure relevant to them, like water, fuel, roads, while men who have access to good paying jobs invest more in education with a preference for boys. The different choices women in leadership make also explain why higher rates of female participation in Government is associated with lower levels of corruption (Dollar, Fisman and Gatti 1999).

Previous studies both in developed and developing countries show that a girl's education is important for the welfare of the family and future development. Most of the empirical studies as summarised in Schultz (2002) indicate that increased schooling of the mother is associated

with larger effects on child health, schooling and adult productivity than increased schooling of the father.

Other theories on gender inequality on education and its impact on growth have been developed based on the selection-distortion factor. According to this theory expounded by Dollar and Gatti (1999), if one believes that boys and girls have similar distribution of innate abilities, gender inequality in education must mean that less able boys than girls get the chance to be educated and that the average innate ability of those who get educated is lower than it would be the case if boys and girls received equal education.

Literature on the role of financial services with gender dimensions such as by Aghion and Morduch (2005) point out that group lending and peer borrowers often practiced in micro finance institutions deter domestic violence and provide a way for women to save by keeping money away from their husbands. Most of these theoretical underpinnings are manifested in the socio-economic status of women in developing economies, Kenya included.

3

Methodology and Scope of Work

The study uses both qualitative and descriptive techniques in analysing secondary data and information on gender issues in Kenya. Analysis of policies and interventions affecting women and whether they are informed by statistics on the situation of women in Kenya is also presented. Available and relevant sex disaggregated statistics on both the women demographic and their access to and control of resources was compiled.

3.1. Data Types and Sources

First and foremost the study analyses the social status/demographic characteristics of women using the sex disaggregated household data as provided by the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) 2005/06, Economic Survey and Statistical Abstract. This covers various gender disaggregated demographic characteristics by spatial population distribution, by region and age group where data is available. A descriptive analysis of this data illuminates the social status of women relative to the men in Kenya and subsequently an assessment of the average woman nationally and regionally.

3.2. Scope of the Study

Study was to provide a snapshot of women's standing in Kenya using the most recent data, as at 2005/06. Main indicators discussed include access and control of resources like in education, employment and enterprise ownership, financial services (e.g. credit services), participation in decision making e.g. political participation, among others. The analysis enabled identification of gaps that can be addressed through policy prescription. This study was restricted to the relevant and available data and information on access and control of resources as at 2005/06.

3.3. Data Analysis

The study analyses the social economic and demographic characteristics of women using the sex disaggregated household data as provided by the Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) 2005/06 and other existing sources of information. This allowed for extraction of core themes related to the objectives and overall goal of the study. Processed data was subjected to tabulation and graphs. This enabled categorisation of socio-economic characteristics of women, including access to and control of resources for economic production like in education, employment and enterprise ownership, financial services (e.g. credit services), participation in decision-making e.g. political participation, among others. Analysis was restricted to the relevant information available on the selected indicators.

4

Review of Gender Related Policies, Interventions and Legal Framework

Kenya, like many African societies is a patriarchal society. Although there are still many gender related challenges facing the country, a few strides in form of policy developments and enactment of key legislation have been undertaken in the recent past geared at gender equality and protection. These include the Sexual Offences Act; the passing of Gender Policy Bill and a Presidential Decree of 30% affirmative action in terms of formal appointees to public posts. The country is also committed to international conventions such as Millennium Development Goals, Education for All, and CEDAW. Box 1 presents summary of Laws and Bills which affect women.

Box 1: Recent Laws and Bills which Directly Affect Women in Kenya

<i>Legal Framework</i>	<i>Year Published/enacted</i>	<i>Details</i>
Criminal Law Amendment Act	Published April 2000 and enacted	Removes the inconsistencies between penalties for sexual offences against minors and women. It includes a section to protect the identity of a victim while giving evidence of abuse.
Equity Bill	Published 2002	Aims at eliminating all forms of social and economic discrimination and promotes equity of access and opportunity for all persons. It also outlaws all forms of sexual harassment in the private and public sectors.
Affirmative Action Bill	Published October 2000	Seeks to improve representation for marginalised groups in society including women and people with disabilities.
Domestic Violence (Family Protection) Bill	Published 2001	Aims to protect victims of domestic violence and gives courts power to remove abusive partners from the family home. However, nowhere in this bill is physical abuse considered to be assault and nowhere is marital rape considered possible. Police are given wide discriminatory powers in bringing charges against perpetrators.

Legal Framework	Year Published/enacted	Details
National Commission on Gender and Development Act	Enacted 2002	Seeks to establish a Commission to ensure gender mainstreaming in national development processes.
Children's Act	Enacted 2002	Provides domestic legal status for certain rights of the girl-child, bans forced early marriages and makes it a criminal offence to circumcise a girl below the age of 18 years.
National Commission on Human Rights Act	Enacted 2002	Transforms the 1966 Standing Committee on Human Rights into a Commission with powers to independently investigate and redress violations of human rights.
Public Officers Ethics Bill	Enacted 2003	Outlaws all forms of sexual harassment in Public Sector.
Constitution of Kenya Review Act 2001 Draft Constitution	Published September 2002	Led to development of a Draft Constitution that includes affirmative action provision in respect to elective and appointive Government bodies; equity before the law through a strengthened bill of rights; ensuring women have legal access to and control over property including land; outlaws harmful cultural practices.
Sexual Offences Act	Enacted 2006	Focuses on sexual offences.

Source: Johnston, Seth-Smith and Beacham (2003)

Although most issues that affect women and girls are addressed in the above legal frameworks, only a few legislations have been enacted. This is attributed to delays in debate, long legislation processes and limited commitment to ensure that legislation that give women equal opportunities in society are given parliamentary priority. Although the Government has articulated a strong commitment to achieving gender equity, this is yet to be demonstrated through effective enactment and implementation. It is also probable that many of the Bills will await the re-writing, passing and enactment of the New Kenya Constitution. A few bills are worthy emphasizing.

Enactment of Sexual Offences Act: This legislation is a major step in containing sexual harassment in Kenya. This legislation provides penalties for sexual offences and it goes beyond the penal code. However, apart from the work of civil societies, the Sexual Offences Act has not been adequately disseminated to law enforcement officers and relevant justice system

agents. It should be noted that it is the responsibility of Government, civil society and other campaign organs to communicate to her citizens of any new laws enacted. This can partly be achieved through the Sexual Offences Act Task force, mandated to monitor and ensure effective implementation of the act. Other current initiatives include preparation of national policy on Female Genital Mutilation (FGM)/Sexual offences within the Ministry of Gender.

Ban on Female Genital Mutilation (FGM): Although some communities are still secretly practicing FGM, the Government of Kenya (GoK) has made gigantic policy efforts towards arresting this problem. A committee was set up under the co-ordination of the Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services whose mandate is to provide policy direction and develop new initiatives related to FGM besides implementing the National Action Plan on FGM. However, FGM is not a criminal offence for women above 18 years rendering them vulnerable to negative cultural practices.

Establishment of Family Court: In 2001, a family court division was established in Nairobi. This was mainly meant to install privacy when family related cases were being reported in the courts. However, there is need to establish similar courts in other parts of the country including the rural areas and informal settlements where most of the poor households are located. Moreover, even the family court in Nairobi lacks the capacity in terms of infrastructure to handle the numerous cases filed in the court.

Political Parties Act: In 2007, the political parties' Act was passed and provides for 50% chance women representation in party nominations. However, during the previous elections for instance, women were faced with various challenges ranging from physical and verbal violence, especially during the political campaigns.

Further to the legal provisions in Box 1, in 2005, the Task Force on Laws relating to women made the following recommendations aimed at increasing women participation in civil service: i) adopt affirmative action policies within public departments and ensure adequate women participate in top leadership civil service and to constitute 40 to 50% of

the positions ii) increase proportion of women in civil service senior management iii) improve women's terms of work taking into consideration special needs and multiple roles played by women in both productive and reproductive areas iv) mount sensitisation and awareness targeting young women in career selection in order to eliminate gender disparities in career and professional choices v) provide financial and education assistance to encourage women pursue higher education; on-the-job training; internship and exchange programmes. There are also sector specific policy reforms aimed at women empowerment and representation in political, economic and social development. Some of these include policies aimed at enhancing women participation in education and economic activities.

Education: Education sector interventions aim at promoting girl child participation in education through provision of scholarships and bursaries; expansion and improvement of physical infrastructure in schools including sanitary facilities; construction of boarding schools in Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASALs); provision of water and sanitation facilities to create conducive and gender responsive environments in schools particularly in ASALs (GoK, 2005a and GoK, 2005b). There are also specific interventions such as establishment of Starehe Girls Centre (targeting marginalised girls), Keriri University and targeted cash transfers.

However, although some of these interventions have led to impressive access gains, gender disparities both in participation, progression and performance in some regions at primary education level still persist. There are also glaring gender disparities at post primary levels especially in technical and science oriented courses at tertiary level.

Introduction of Women Enterprise and Development Fund: The women enterprise fund was initiated in December, 2006 by the GoK as an initiative towards reducing poverty through economic empowerment of women. The GoK allocated KShs.1 billion in the 2007/2008 financial year for the women enterprise fund. This fund is meant to enhance entrepreneurship among women. The fund will allow women to borrow money to engage in

businesses and other activities at very reasonable interest rates without the requirements of cumbersome sureties and other bureaucratic processes.

However, the impact of this initiative will only be effective with improved innovation and participation of women in entrepreneurial activities and effective management of the fund. Regional equity issues should also be clearly spelt out in the manner of disbursement and management of these funds. Moreover, it should be noted that not all women are in need of these funds thus appropriate targeting strategies particularly singling out poor, single and unemployed mothers, widows, HIV&AIDS widows will enhance the effectiveness of this women enterprise fund.

It is noted that there is an advisory board meant to ensure transparent and efficient management of the fund. However, its effectiveness largely depends on the criteria used in appointing the advisory board. An independent body de-linked from political patronage should manage the fund if its effectiveness is to be realised. The fact that financial intermediaries will be used to disburse funds may appear transparent but it is still open to abuse because of the fact that it will target qualified women entrepreneurs. What criteria will be used to identify qualified women entrepreneurs? This is a major challenge of the implementation process of this policy, considering that over half of women in Kenya especially in the rural areas are illiterate and there is absence of credit information bureaus in Kenya.

Other relevant reforms include finalisation of the Gender policy; establishment of the Gender Commission and establishment of gender desks in Government Ministries, Parastatals and Police Stations, women specific Police Stations. There have also been amendments to the Employment Act, Marriage Act and Married Women Properties Act.

5

Socio-Economic Status of Women in Kenya

Men and women tend to have different socio-economic profiles within an economy in terms of the positions they occupy, the activities they engage in and their overall economic status. In this regard, economic growth and development will not obviously benefit men and women equally. In this context, gender inequality acts as a constraint to growth and poverty reduction as evidenced by emerging macroeconomic analysis on Africa (Latigo, *not dated*). This inequality is especially in access to a wide range of economic, human and social capital assets that comprises key poverty dimensions in Africa.

This section presents demographic characteristics of men and women based on Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) data and other relevant information sources. The indicators discussed include demographic characteristics, gender and poverty and access to socio-economic opportunities.

5.1. *Population Distribution*

In 2006, there were slightly more female than male in Kenya, with the former constituting 50.5% of the total population. The sex ratio (female to male) is 1.03. However, there are disparities across age groups. For instance, there are more female than male in age groups 25-29 (1.11), 35-39 years (1.19) and between 60-64 years (1.14). There is however gender parity at age groups 30-34, 50-54, and 65-69. The age distribution also shows that although more men than women are born, women depict higher survival rates and hence higher life expectancy levels compared to men (See Table 1).

Table 1: Population Distribution by Age and Sex, 2005/06 (Million)

Age group	Male, Million	Female, Million	Total, Million	Sex Ratio	% Male	% Female	% Total
0-4	2.61	2.57	5.18	0.99	7.30	7.20	14.50
5-9	2.59	2.56	5.15	0.99	7.30	7.20	14.50
10-14	2.27	2.30	4.57	1.02	6.40	6.50	12.90
15-19	2.30	2.27	4.57	0.98	6.50	6.40	12.90
20-24	1.64	1.78	3.42	1.09	4.60	5.00	9.60
25-29	1.27	1.41	2.68	1.11	3.60	4.00	7.60
30-34	1.04	1.04	2.07	1.00	2.90	2.90	5.80
35-39	0.75	0.89	1.64	1.19	2.10	2.50	4.60
40-44	0.68	0.79	1.47	1.16	1.90	2.20	4.10
45-49	0.58	0.61	1.19	1.06	1.60	1.70	3.30
50-54	0.45	0.45	0.91	1.00	1.30	1.30	2.60
55-59	0.39	0.36	0.75	0.91	1.10	1.00	2.10
60-64	0.26	0.29	0.55	1.14	0.70	0.80	1.50
65-69	0.22	0.22	0.45	1.00	0.60	0.60	1.20
70-74	0.18	0.14	0.32	0.80	0.50	0.40	0.90
75+	0.24	0.27	0.51	1.14	0.70	0.80	1.50
Total	17.46	17.96	35.41	1.03	9.10	50.50	99.60

Source: KIHBS, 2005/6

About 42% of the Kenya's population is 14 years or less and 0.3% are over 64 years old. This implies over 45% of the population depends on 55% of the population who are of a

productive group aged between 15 and 64 years. The relatively high dependence ratio creates a lot of pressure on social and economic development and more particularly on women who to a large extent have to provide basic needs for their families. On the other hand, the young population is likely to demand more social services such as health, education and social security.

Potential dependency management response could involve improving productivity among women involving investing on long-term assets and efficient management of population structures linked to production systems and provision of social amenities.

5.2. Households by Sex of Household Head and Region, 2005/06

Majority of the household heads as indicated in Table 2 provided below are headed by men, portraying the patriarchal nature of Kenyan Societies. However, Nyanza province (36.2%) has the highest number of female headed households, followed by Central province (30.8%) and Western (30.6%). Overall 30.9% and 23% of the rural and urban households are headed by female members, respectively.

Table 2: Distribution of households by Sex of Household Head and Region, 2005/06

Province	Household heads (Millions)			Percentage	
	Male	Female	Total	% Male	% Female
Nairobi	0.6	0.1	0.7	80.8	19.2
Central	0.7	0.3	1.0	69.2	30.8
Coast	0.4	0.2	0.6	74.1	25.9
Eastern	0.7	0.3	1.1	69.0	31.0
North Eastern	0.1	0.1	0.2	70.3	29.7
Nyanza	0.6	0.4	1.0	63.8	36.2
Rift Valley	1.2	0.4	1.6	73.7	26.3
Western	0.5	0.2	0.8	69.4	30.6
Total	5.0	2.0	7.0	71.1	28.9
<i>Rural</i>	<i>3.6</i>	<i>1.6</i>	<i>5.2</i>	<i>69.1</i>	<i>30.9</i>
<i>Urban</i>	<i>1.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>77.0</i>	<i>23.0</i>

Source: KIHBS, 2005/06

This poses a fundamental challenge on poverty levels among the poor female headed households especially in Nyanza province. It is thus critical to empower women to efficiently support their households through enhanced access to credit, education and employment opportunities.

5.3. Poverty and Gender

Poverty has gender dimensions especially in patriarchal societies where men are expected to play a critical role as providers. Table 3 presents data on poverty measures by selected socio-economic characteristics. Although the overall poverty incidence declined from 56% in 2000 to about 47% in 2005/06, the poverty headcount was higher among women in both rural (50%) and urban (46%) areas. The ratio for male-headed households (48.8%) was slightly lower than for female-headed households (50%). However previous studies have shown that gender inequality is a product of a patriarchal structure, which in turn is one of the causes of poverty. Thus it implies that a situation where 50% of households are female headed in an environment which has not adequately empowered women in decision making and resource utilisation, is likely to perpetuate poverty.

No wonder, as shown in Table 3, female-married (*defacto* women headed households) recorded almost same levels of poverty prevalence, depth and severity of poverty as *de-jure* women-headed households. *Defacto* women-headed households refers to households where the male house heads are temporarily absent over a long period of time while *de-jure* women-headed households do not have an adult male spouse. Although poverty prevalence among all the socioeconomic groups in urban areas is lower than that for rural areas, female headed households exhibit higher poverty incidence in both rural (50%) and urban (46.2%) areas. Male headed households in rural and urban areas had lower incidence of poverty at 48.8% and 30% respectively (see Table 3).

Table 3: Poverty Measure by Selected Socio-Economic Groups

Socioeconomic variable	Headcount $Pa=0$ Adult Equivalent		Poverty Gap $Pa=1$ Adult Equivalent		% of population		Contribution to poverty $Pa=0$ Adult Equivalent	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Sex of HH Head								
Male	48.8	30.0	17.1	9.8	72.5	77.3	72.0	68.9
Female	50.0	46.2	18.7	16.8	27.5	22.7	28.0	31.1
Marital status								
Male married	49.4	31.0	17.1	10.1	69.3	67.8	69.6	62.4
Male other	37.6	23.0	15.8	7.8	3.2	9.5	2.5	6.5
Female married	50.0	43.6	19.3	15.5	11.1	6.2	11.3	8.0
Female other	49.9	47.2	18.4	17.3	16.5	16.5	16.7	23.1
Education								
None	65.5	68.7	27.5	31.4	26.2	8.9	34.8	18.1
Primary	51.5	47.9	17.1	16.6	49.0	33.7	51.3	47.9
Secondary	27.2	22.0	7.7	5.6	23.1	48.4	12.8	31.6
University	9.5	1.5	3.5	0.2	0.7	7.0	0.1	0.3
Other	26.0	4.6	9.2	2.0	0.6	1.2	0.3	0.2
Overall Rural	49.1	33.7	17.5	11.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: KNBS, 2007

Notes: Poverty headcount index ($Pa=0$) measures poverty incidence. It represents the proportion of population that cannot afford to purchase the basic basket of goods and services as measured by the food and overall poverty lines. Poverty gap index ($Pa=1$) measures the depth of poverty. That is, how much poorer the poor person is relative to the poverty line. Poverty gap is computed by adding up all the expenditure shortfalls for the poor (ignoring the non-poor) relative to poverty line divided by total population; hence measure of resources required to eradicate poverty.

Considering relationship between education level and poverty, it is evident that education has positive effect on poverty reduction, to the extent that the level of education of the household head is inversely related with the incidence and depth of poverty. The incidence of poverty is 68.7% for household heads with no education in urban areas compared with 22% for those with secondary education and 1.5% poverty incidence for households with university

education. Thus efforts should be continually advanced to increase access to education opportunities as it plays a critical role in poverty reduction, both among men and women.

5.4. Participation in Education and Economic Activities

Gender and socio-economic background of any population has linkage to participation in any economic activities, and the effects vary across socioeconomic groups and regions. Specific issues of concern relate to the unequal or disadvantaged position of women as compared to men and by extension girls as compared to boys in education and economic activities including employment and access to financial assets. Education for All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) goals, underscore importance of achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with specific focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to, and achievement in basic education of good quality (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation - UNESCO, 2003). To achieve these targets, countries have to develop feasible and informed strategies to improve participation of both male and female citizens in various socioeconomic activities including education.

In the education sector, some of the policy initiatives relevant to the achievement of gender parity include making basic education affordable to all households through the introduction of fully subsidised public primary education starting 2003, and the recently introduced Free Day Secondary Education and subsidised boarding secondary education starting January 2008. This initiative has led to high primary gross enrolment, recorded at 7.63 million pupils (48% Female) in 2006 having risen from 6.1 million pupils in 2002 (49% female) (Government of Kenya, *not dated*). Detailed analysis of the status of female students in education follows.

5.4.1. Access to Education Opportunities

Access to educational opportunities is defined using such indicators as Gross Enrolment Rate (GER), Net Enrolment Rate (NER) and Gender Parity Index (GPI). GER represents total number of pupils/students, regardless of age, enrolled in a given level of education as a proportion of total population of the respective level's target school age population. In this case 3-5 years for pre-primary, 6-13 years for primary and 14-17 years for secondary school

level. Net enrolment is a measure of the pupils/students of respective age group as a proportion of respective school age population. GPI is the ratio of female to male students at any given education level. Pre-primary level of education refers to the 1 to 3 years pupils attending school before standard 1, primary cycle covers standard 1 to standard 8 while secondary education covers Form 1 to Form 4.

Access to pre-primary education: The gross enrolment in pre-primary schools was 325,208 pupils (49% girls) in 2005 and 330,326 pupils (48% girls) in 2006. Analyses at provincial level (see Table 4) indicate substantial gender and regional disparities in access to pre-primary education. In 2006 for instance, North Eastern Province recorded the lowest GPI of 0.66, followed by Western Province (0.77) implying that there were 66 and 77 female pupils for every 100 male students enrolled in the respective provinces. Other provinces recorded near gender parity index of over 0.90 in 2006.

Table 4: Pre-Primary Schools Gross Enrolment by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006

PROVINCE	2005				2006			
	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI
Coast	9,328	9,924	19,252	1.06	9,498	10,085	19,583	1.06
Central	5,095	5,938	11,033	1.17	5,143	5,985	11,128	1.16
Eastern	4,517	4,130	8,647	0.91	4,591	4,192	8,784	0.91
Nairobi	119,774	108,587	228,360	0.91	121,752	110,223	231,975	0.91
Rift Valley	8,782	8,299	17,081	0.94	8,930	8,426	17,356	0.94
Western	10,118	7,765	17,884	0.77	10,302	7,891	18,193	0.77
Nyanza	9,735	9,763	19,498	1.00	9,895	9,910	19,804	1.00
North Eastern	2,082	1,371	3,452	0.66	2,114	1,390	3,504	0.66
Total	169,431	155,777	325,208	0.92	172,225	158,102	330,326	0.92

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics

Access to primary education: Analysis at provincial levels shows prevalent gender and regional gaps in primary education participation. North Eastern Province recorded the lowest Gender Parity Index of 0.51 implying there are only 51 girls for every 100 boys enrolled. The cultural preferences in education choice influence parents, communities, and pupils. In Coast Province, the Gender Parity Index was 0.87 and 0.89 in 2005 and 2006,

respectively. In Nairobi Province, the Gender Parity Index was 1.01 % of the total enrolment in 2006 (see Table 5), implying the province is on right track towards attaining gender equality.

Table 5: Primary Schools Gross Enrolment by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006

Province	2005				2006			
	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI
Coast	312,432	273,111	585,543	0.87	316,710	283,331	600,041	0.89
Central	461,122	442,516	903,638	0.96	447,090	435,339	882,429	0.97
Eastern	704,135	675,774	1,379,909	0.96	698,718	679,492	1,378,210	0.97
Nairobi	118,985	118,872	237,858	1.00	117,085	117,734	234,819	1.01
Rift Valley	1,007,356	943,878	1,951,235	0.94	1,025,745	972,532	1,998,277	0.95
Western	574,739	569,233	1,143,972	0.99	560,419	562,138	1,122,557	1.00
Nyanza	682,982	641,257	1,324,239	0.94	677,004	657,592	1,334,597	0.97
North Eastern	50,647	25,469	76,116	0.50	53,806	27,376	81,182	0.51
Total	3,912,399	3,690,112	7,602,511	0.94	3,896,578	3,735,535	7,632,113	0.96

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics Section

On primary participation rates, the overall Gross Enrolment Rate of boys (109%) was higher than that of their female counterparts (105%), in 2005 and 2006. North Eastern province again recorded lowest GER of 27.6% (20.5% for girls) followed by Nairobi Province at 40.1%.

Table 6: Primary Schools Gross Enrolment Rate by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006

Province	2005			2006		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Coast	95.7	84.4	90.1	101.3	91.5	96.4
Central	106.9	102.7	104.8	103.4	100.8	102.1
Eastern	126.0	124.4	125.2	127.3	126.0	126.6
Nairobi	35.9	38.2	37.0	38.8	41.6	40.1
Rift Valley	117.8	109.9	113.8	115.9	108.9	112.4
Western	148.2	134.2	140.9	141.3	130.9	135.9
Nyanza	127.7	120.8	124.2	128.9	126.5	127.7
North Eastern	34.1	20.7	28.0	33.4	20.5	27.6
Total	109.9	104.4	107.2	109.3	105.5	107.4

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics Section

Table 7 presents primary NER across provinces. In 2006, the lowest (24.3%) was recorded in North Eastern province while Nyanza Province recorded the highest NER (97.8%). National primary NER was 86.5%, implying about 13% of the primary education school age population are not in school.

Table 7: Primary Schools Net Enrolment Rate by Sex, 2005 – 2006

Province	2005			2006		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Coast	75.1	73.3	74.2	72.3	71.2	71.8
Central	87.9	87.0	87.4	83.0	83.0	83.0
Eastern	94.9	93.8	94.3	96.9	95.8	95.3
Nairobi	39.2	40.9	40.1	31.2	34.7	32.9
Rift Valley	87.9	85.3	86.6	91.8	89.8	90.8
Western	99.1	94.6	96.8	99.1	94.6	96.8
Nyanza	98.4	97.2	97.8	98.4	97.2	97.8
North Eastern	26.6	18.8	23.0	27.6	20.3	24.3
National	83.8	82.6	83.2	86.5	86.5	86.5

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics Section

Some of the deterrent factors in girls' access to primary education in North Eastern Province include long distance to schools which disadvantage girls due to other home care activities, cultural bias in favour of boys, early marriages and associated parental responsibilities leading to dropouts, heavy workload for female pupils at household level, high poverty incidence and unfavourable schooling environment that does not favour girls especially at adolescent stage (Onsomu, Kosimbei and Ngware, 2006). The gender disparities in Nairobi Province can be attributed to the poor socioeconomic and environmental conditions in the informal settlements (slum areas); where close to 60% of the urban population live.

Access to secondary education: According to data presented in Table 8, the Gross Enrolment Rate increased from 29.5% (27.2% for female) in 2005 to 32.2% (29.9% for female) in 2006. This requires deliberate efforts to increase access to secondary education for all secondary school going age population and female students in particular. This is particularly due to the unique challenges they face including but not limited to early marriages, prevalence among parents in some communities to educate boy child compared to girl child, cost of secondary education, among others.

Table 8: Secondary Schools Gross Enrolment Rate by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006

Province	2005			2006		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Coast	20.6	18.3	19.4	25.9	20.7	23.3
Central	42.6	42.8	42.7	48.3	47.6	47.9
Eastern	33.8	32.3	33.0	36.0	33.7	34.8
Nairobi	23.8	17.2	20.4	25.2	17.5	21.4
Rift Valley	29.0	24.2	26.6	34.3	28.1	31.2
Western	32.2	27.1	29.6	31.5	28.6	30.1
Nyanza	35.8	26.3	31.0	37.7	28.7	33.2
North Eastern	6.4	3.2	4.9	8.6	3.6	6.1
National	31.3	27.2	29.3	34.6	29.9	32.2

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics Section

The Gender Parity Index was 0.89 in 2005 and 2006 implying for every 100 male students there are 89 female students (Table 9). However, like primary education, North Eastern Province recorded the lowest GPI of 0.35 followed by Nairobi (0.76) and Nyanza (0.78) provinces, with only Central province recording a GPI of 1.01. The low enrolment of girls in North Eastern and Nairobi and Nyanza provinces can be attributed to retrogressive cultural factors and limited opportunities especially in Arid and Semi-arid Lands (ASALs) and urban informal settlements. In Central Province, boys could be involved in child labour and hence low school enrolment. These disparities in access to primary education have implications on post-primary education and performance levels for female students compared to male students. Thus policy interventions should vary for the various districts with emphasis on increasing boys' enrolment in Central Province and affirmative action for girls in all the other provinces.

Table 9: Secondary Schools Enrolment by Province and Sex, 2005- 2006

Province	2005				2006			
	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI	Boys	Girls	Total	GPI
Coast	25,286	23,538	48,824	0.93	31,791	26,682	58,473	0.84
Central	89,437	92,173	181,610	1.03	101,449	102,693	204,142	1.01
Eastern	87,779	85,812	173,591	0.98	93,696	89,822	183,518	0.96
Nairobi	15,939	12,596	28,536	0.79	16,851	12,843	29,694	0.76
Rift Valley	111,435	95,462	206,897	0.86	132,143	111,005	243,149	0.84
Western	62,743	55,307	118,051	0.88	61,662	58,676	120,337	0.95
Nyanza	97,250	73,307	170,557	0.75	102,702	80,280	182,982	0.78
North Eastern	4,287	1,797	6,084	0.42	5,778	2,007	7,786	0.35
Total	494,157	439,992	934,149	0.89	546,072	484,008	1,030,080	0.89

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics Section

Access to tertiary education: On the basis of overall enrolment, female students in tertiary education increased between 2005 and 2006 with gender parity (1.01) having been attained in primary teacher colleges. Table 10 indicates that women constitute 49% and 39% of enrolment in technical institutions and universities respectively. Gender Parity Index was 0.95 and 0.64 in technical institutions and universities respectively. Further, there are considerable disparities among universities depending on programmes, with arts-based courses consistently having high female students' representation. In general, enrolment for female students decreases at the higher levels of education perhaps due to the social and cultural retrogressive factor. The fact that transition to university education is still low requires targeted interventions on education retention in order to achieve higher women representation. The effects of low women survival in education system are also evident in the labour market structure where women are under represented in most major sectors (see Table 12).

Table 10: Enrolment in Tertiary Institutions

	2005				2006			
	Male	Female	Proportion Female	GPI	Male	Female	Proportion Female	GPI
Primary Teacher Colleges	11069	11266	50%	1.02	11268	11352	50%	1.01
Technical Institutions	36070	34442	49%	0.95	36541	34626	49%	0.95
Universities	58805	33511	36%	0.57	68345	43884	39%	0.64

Source: GOK, 2007

Highest level of education: According to data presented in Table 11, most of the household heads (86.4%) in the KIHBS 2005/6 sample had completed primary education. About 25% (23.3% for female) had completed secondary education and 1.2% (0.7% female) university education. This situation depicts the low progression across levels and hence need to develop strategies aimed at promoting access to post primary education, for both male and female students.

Table 11: Highest Level of Education 2005/06 (percentage)

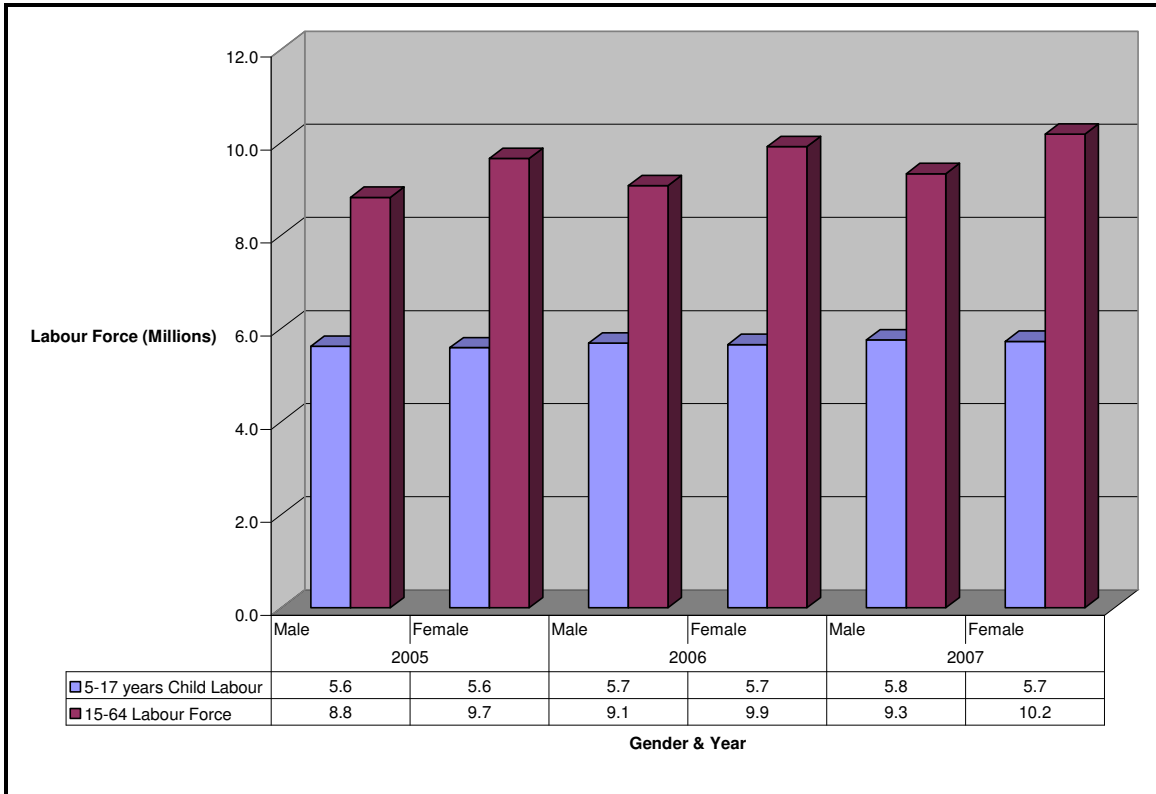
	Pre-Primary	Primary	Secondary	University	None	Other	Total Count
Male	9.4	86.6	26.7	1.6	3.5	0.5	13,278,704
Female	9.7	86.2	23.3	0.7	3.7	0.5	12,722,716
National	9.5	86.4	25.0	1.2	3.6	0.5	26,001,421

Source: KIHBS, 2005/06

5.4.2. Access to Employment

Employment is a major avenue for increasing incomes and consequently economic wellbeing. It is the primary asset at the disposal of the poor and hence main transmission mechanism through which the poor, both men and women can benefit from growth. In 2007, the Kenya labour force is estimated at 19.5 million people (52% female) who are aged 15-64 years. In addition, 11.5 million children (50% female) are involved in child labour.

Figure 1: Labour Force by Gender (Millions), 2005/06



Source: Economic Survey, 2007

Table 12 shows that female workers constitute 30% of the overall wage employment and they have the highest representation in educational services employment (45%). Women are also least presented in such sectors as building and construction (7%), manufacturing (18%), electricity and water (18%).

Table 12: Wage Employment by Industry and Sex, 2005 and 2006, '000'

Industry	Male		Female		Total		% Female 2006
	2005	2006*	2005	2006*	2005	2006	
Agriculture and Forestry	246.1	248.8	81.3	85.8	327.4	334.6	26%
Mining and Quarrying	4.5	4.7	1.2	1.3	5.7	6	22%
Manufacturing	204.3	208.1	48.2	45.7	252.5	253.8	18%
Electricity and Water	16.7	15.9	3.6	3.6	20.3	19.5	18%
Building and Construction	73.2	74.6	5	5.3	78.2	79.9	7%
Trade, Restaurants and Hotels	128.6	134.5	47.1	51.4	175.7	185.9	28%
Transport and Communications	91.6	105.1	23.3	27.8	114.9	132.9	21%
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate & Business services	64.7	66.2	22.6	24.2	87.3	90.4	27%
Community, Social and Personal services							
Public Administration	87.1	84.6	56.2	52.7	143.3	137.3	38%
Education Services	185.7	188.7	152.7	152.4	338.4	341.1	45%
Domestic Services	58.5	60.9	42	42.4	100.5	103.3	41%
Other Services	99.8	104.1	68.8	69.6	168.6	173.7	40%
Total	1260.8	1296.2	552	562.2	1812.8	1858.4	30%
Total of which: Regular	995.8	1033.5	394.7	405.7	1390.5	1439.2	28%
Casual	265	262.7	152.3	156.5	417.3	419.2	37%
Teachers Primary	95,107	90,241	75,926	72,752	171,033	162,993	44%
Teachers Secondary	30,957	25,442	16,478	14,961	47,435	40,403	35%

Source: GOK, 2007; * Provisional

There are also evident gender disparities in teaching profession. Between 2005 and 2006, the aggregate number of primary school teachers in schools reduced from 171,033 in 2005 to 162,993 (44% female) in 2006. Male teachers in the profession dominated both the primary (56%) and secondary teaching force (65 percent).

The low participation of women in productive employment activities in major sectors can be attributed to factors that curtail women's mobility in economic domain and conflicting role mainly domestic and reproductive responsibilities and constraining nature of occupations where domestic responsibilities cannot be easily combined with economic activity. Another constraining factor could be limited access to required skills especially during the undertaking of education and training programmes. Unfounded beliefs about women's aptitudes, skills and dispositions, and reproductive responsibilities could also work to hinder women participation in some production sectors.

5.4.3. Enterprise Ownership

Economic empowerment for any population is the cornerstone for sustainable development owing to direct contribution to production systems. This includes participation in such sectors as agriculture, mining, manufacturing, construction, transport, trade, finance, social services, among others.

Table 13 presents data on proportions of persons operating various enterprises in 2005/06. Although women operate 54% of the total enterprises in the country, they dominate wholesale and retail, rural manufacturing and urban agriculture sectors alone. Men are well represented in such sectors as urban manufacturing (71%), transport (73%), financial services (80%) and social services (69%). The proportion of men representation is even higher in urban areas. For instance, 99% and 91% of persons operating construction and transport enterprises, respectively, in urban areas are men.

Table 13: Proportion of Persons Operating Enterprises by Sex and Region, 2005/06

		Kenya	Rural	Urban
Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	Male	50.3%	50.5%	43.5%
	Female	49.7%	49.5%	56.5%
	Total count	148,085	143,435	4,649
Mining & Quarrying	Male	79.2%	80.7%	54.3%
	Female	20.8%	19.3%	45.7%
	Total Count	15,196	14,301	895
Manufacturing	Male	48.4%	42.7%	70.9%
	Female	51.6%	57.3%	29.1%
	Total count	239,326	191,515	47,812
Construction	Male	53.3%	0.0%	99.4%
	Female	46.7%	100.0%	0.6%
	Total count	3,472	1,608	1,864
Transport, storage, communication	Male	72.5%	65.4%	91.1%
	Female	27.5%	34.6%	8.9%
	Total count	18,869	13,663	5,206
Wholesale/Retail Trade	Male	39.3%	39.6%	38.6%
	Female	60.7%	60.4%	61.4%
	Total count	1,536,114	1,004,598	531,516
Finance/Insurance Services	Male	80.3%	80.3%	80.2%
	Female	19.7%	19.7%	19.8%
	Total count	54,036	32,612	21,424
Electricity/gas/water	Male	83.7%	81.0%	84.7%
	Female	16.3%	19.0%	15.3%
	Total count	28,579	7,414	21,165
Community/Social services	Male	69.0%	77.1%	61.1%
	Female	31.0%	22.9%	38.9%
	Total count	145,272	71,600	73,673
Not Classified	Male	44.9%	42.3%	48.0%
	Female	55.1%	57.7%	52.0%
	Total count	120,036	65,424	54,612
Total	Male	46.0%	43.7%	45.5%
	Female	54.0%	56.3%	54.5%
	Total count	2,360,742	1,513,558	741,392

Source: KIHBS, 2005/6

This may be depicting the masculinity perception associated by some of such enterprises requirements. However, women should be equally supported to effectively participate in major production sectors through improved access to land, financial services, education and skills empowerment.

5.4.4. Financial Services

Access to financial services is critical for economic empowerment of any population and it varies across gender. This includes levels of savings, access to credit, insurance services and remittances. Experiences and evidence from other countries, for instance, point out that loosening of economic constraint imposed on women can have immense consequences on development. This includes the success of micro-finance institutions such as the Grameen Bank that provides small loans for women to start a business of their own (Morduch 1999). There was greater success reported by the Graham Bank which increased the share of women from 44% to 75% in recognition of the role of women in development. Pitt and Khandker (1998) indicate that micro credit taken by the woman rather than the man of the household increases women's non-land assets and children's education and doubled women's expenditure than if the credit was given to the husband.

A similar model has been initiated by Equity Bank in Kenya that is targeting women. The Equity Bank launched a branch specifically for women in Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) sector in June, 2007. The Equity Bank's line of credit targets legally constituted community groups with a good history. Such groups mainly composed of women receive loans without security. The group members act as guarantors for such loans. The Equity bank also undertakes a six week business training for new community groups composed of women. Other related facilities are provided by Kenya Women Finance Trust (KWFT) and Kenya Rural Enterprise Programme (KReP).

According to the recent study on Financial Sector Deepening (2007) in Kenya, more women (51.1%) tend to save compared to male counterparts (48.9%). Taking into account education

levels, 44.6 % of those with primary and secondary education are able to save (see Table 14). However, the savings levels vary across age groups with population aged 25-34 (31%) being the highest savers and those aged 18-24 years (14.6%), being the lowest savers. This is expected given the fact that the latter age group is expected to be undertaking tertiary education and a limited number are in labour force. Further, some young people have no gainful employment and consequently low or no savings.

Savings levels are equally low among the aged population especially due to either loss of wage employment after retirement and/or high levels of financial commitment including direct capital investments.

Table 14: Access to Credit Services, 2006 (%age)

Category	Level	Base currently have savings product service (N=2,220)	Base currently have a credit service (N=1,353)	Base ever had a loan/credit service but not currently (N=345)	Base never had credit service (N=2,516)	Base using insurance services (N=296)	Base received remittances in last 12 months (N=768)	Base sent remittances in last 12 months (N=718)
Gender	Male	48.9	50.1	52.9	46.7	50.1	50.1	62.5
	Female	51.1	49.9	47.1	53.3	49.9	49.9	37.5
Education	None	10.4	13.5	12.9	19.4	13.5	13.5	3.6
	Primary	44.6	46.0	38.3	46.9	46.0	46.0	32.9
	Secondary+	44.6	40.0	48.8	33.3	40.0	40.0	62.8
	No Response	0.4	0.5	0	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7
Age	18-24	14.6	17.7	11.4	24.2	17.7	17.7	21.2
	25-34	30.9	31.7	32.0	28.3	31.7	31.7	38.6
	35-44	22.3	23.1	20.3	18.8	23.1	23.1	19.4
	45-54	14.7	14.2	15.8	12.6	14.2	14.2	12.8
	55+	17.6	13.3	20.5	16.1	13.3	13.3	8.0

Source: Financial Sector Deepening, Kenya 2007

However, the proportion of the population currently accessing credit facility reflects an equal gender split. In 2005/6 about 50.1% of the population that had access to credit services were male and 49.9% were female. However, a small margin, only 47.1% of female population had ever had a loan and/or credit facility. About 13.5% of credit users had no formal education. About 12.9% of those with no education had ever had access to credit and had ever accessed credit services respectively. The low access to land and lack of collateral constrain access to business credit. According to World Bank (2004), only 1% of land titles are held by women while 5-6% is held jointly.

Within the 25-34 population age group, about 31.7% reported to have credit facility during the time of the survey. About 32 % of the same age group had had a credit facility in the past. The same trend is observed in terms of base of population who have ever used insurance services. About 50.1% and 49.9% of those who had used insurance facilities were male and female, respectively.

Another financial facility is remittances, either from outside the country or within the country. According to the 2007 Financial Sector Deepening study for Kenya, internal money transfers exceeded international remittances and that money transfer is common from urban to rural areas. Close to 63% of those who sent remittances within the 12 months as indicated in the survey were male and 37.5% were female. Interestingly, about 50.1% of those who received remittances were male while 49.9% were female.

5.4.5. Women Representation in Decision Making

Representation of both men and women in decision making processes is critical for effective implementation of policies that affect the general population. This includes participation in Government organs, civic positions and senior Government positions, among others. Overall, a negligible proportion of women are represented in senior and middle level policy formulation and implementation processes despite the substantial number of women in

communities. This form of structure contributes to the limited gender sensitivity in policy process including roles and needs of women.

A comparison between 2003 and 2006 indicate that the number of female Ministers declined from 3 to 2 against a total of 32; even if the number of women Assistant Ministers increased from 4 to 6, still it is a mere 13% compared to male representation. In other public service representations such as the level of provincial administrations, women were not represented at all by January, 2006 while at the District Commissioners administrative unit, the number of women actually reduced from 3 in 2003 to 2 in 2006 representing a mere 2.8%.

However, despite the fact that females constitute 51% of the population, they constituted 8% of Members in National Assembly during the 9th parliament; 6% of Ministers; 13% of Assistant Ministers; 3% of District Commissioners; 20% of District Officers; 13% of Councilors and 21% of Deputy Secretaries (Table15).

Table 15: Proportion of Women in Political and Major Institutions, 2006

Rank	Men	Women	Total	% Women
Ministers	32	2	34	6%
Assistant Ministers	40	6	46	13%
National Assembly	204	18	222	8%
Ambassadors/High Commissioners	29	11	40	28%
Permanent Secretaries	25	5	30	17%
Provincial Commissioners	8	0	8	0%
District Commissioners	69	2	71	3%
Deputy Secretaries	77	21	98	21%
Councilors	2,460	377	2,837	13%
District Officers	359	88	447	20%

Source: National Commission on Gender and Development, 2006

These glaring gender disparities in major decision making institutions can be attributed to various factors: i) negative stereotypes and socio-cultural attitudes reinforced with strong patriarchal family systems that work against women ii) lack of societal capacity to

accommodate and appreciate women in leadership positions iii) limited financial base to sustain competitive campaigns; physical and emotional intimidation threatening personal security of women iv) low education levels among majority of women and v) lack of interest in political issues among most women, just to mention a few.

To a large extent, there are limited public support systems targeting women political empowerment. Although affirmative action has been entrenched in most Government policies such as education and public service delivery, implementation of the same is limited. Consequently, men have persistently dominated the political scene

In 2002 general elections, 64 (6.1%) out of the 1,257 parliamentary candidates were women. However, only 10 (4.8%) were elected. Another 8 women were nominated by individual political parties in an attempt to increase women representation in parliament. The 18 women represented only 8% of the National Assembly Membership.

During the same period, women represented 13.3% of the civic authorities' positions. However, the ratio is relatively low in relation to that of men. In the judiciary, women represent 38.4% of the judiciary service establishment but there is still room for improvement, in order to attain the 50:50 affirmative action policies.

In the hotly contested 2007 General Elections, there were 269 female candidates out of the 2,548 total parliamentary candidates, up from 44 female aspirants out of the 1,015 legislative aspirants in 2002. However, only 15 women candidates made it to the 10th Parliament after going through campaigns that were marred by violence and other challenges. It is worthy noting however that 50-50 affirmative action was demonstrated in the nomination of women to the 10th Parliament with 6 women out of 12 being nominated. In the 2008 coalition cabinet, there are only 6 (15%) female Ministers out of the total 40 Ministers.

5.5.5. Judicial Service Establishments

Table 16 shows that in 2006, there was no female judge in the Court of Appeal, which is the highest court in Kenya. About 20% of High Court Judges are women while the highest representation of women (44%) is among Resident Magistrates. In total women represent 37% of the judicial service establishments. In 2007, one Lady Justice was appointed to the Court of Appeal.

Table 16: Proportion of Women in Judicial Service Establishments, 2006

	Men	Women	Total	% Women
Chief Justice	1	0	1	0%
Judges of Appeal	14	0	14	0%
High Court Judges	47	12	59	20%
Commission of Assize	2	1	3	33%
Chief Magistrate	9	6	15	40%
Senior and Principal Magistrates	15	11	26	42%
Senior Resident Magistrates	63	38	101	38%
Resident Magistrates	82	64	146	44%
District Magistrates	126	92	218	42%
Chief Kadhi /Kadhis	17	0	17	0%
Total	376	224	600	37%

Source: National Commission on Gender and Development, 2006

Except for Chief Justice, Judges of Appeal, High Court Judges and Chief Kadhi, female representation in the other judicial establishments is above 30%. This is encouraging and can be attributed to the fact that law courses are in the arts category and tend to attract more women. However there is need to consider more women representation in the senior positions.

5.4.6. Gender and Status of Health Indicators

The Government and other stakeholders in the health sector have implemented various initiatives targeted at improving the health of Kenyans, women included. The interventions include Constituency HIV&AIDS Fund, National Insurance Fund, funding of Malaria, HIV&AIDS and Tuberculosis Programmes, and other health related expenditures. This has resulted into progress in such indicators as reduction of HIV&AIDS prevalence to 6.7% in 2007.

Table 17: Major Health Indicators, 2003

<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Life Expectancy at Birth	52.4	60.2
Under Five Mortality rate (per 100,000 births)	122.0	103.01
Infant Mortality Rate (per 1000 live births)	84	67
Total Fertility Rate	N/A	4.9
HIV/AIDS prevalence*	3.5	6.7

Source: KDHS, 2003; * 2007

In 2003 for instance, the under-five mortality rate was 122 for male children and 103 for female children, while the infant mortality rate was 84 per 1000 male children and 67 per 1000 female children.

Table 18: HIV & AIDS Prevalence Rate from Surveillance Sites

<i>Province</i>	<i>Prevalence %</i>			
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male: Female Ratio</i>
Nairobi	10.1	8.0	12.3	1.5
Central	4.1	1.7	6.5	3.8
Coast	5.9	5.0	6.9	1.4
Eastern	2.8	1.1	4.4	4.0
North Eastern	1.4	0.9	1.8	2.0
Nyanza	7.8	6.1	9.6	1.6
Rift Valley	3.8	2.6	4.9	1.9
Western	5.3	4.2	6.4	1.5
Total	5.1	3.5	6.7	1.9

NACC, 2007

The HIV & AIDS prevalence also varies across provinces, with Nairobi recording highest rate of 10.1% (12.3% for female) while North Eastern Province recorded the lowest HIV & AIDS prevalence rate of 1.4% (1.8% for women). The high prevalence in Nairobi followed with Nyanza and Coast provinces can partly be attributed to the urbanisation challenge. This is a confirmation of the assertion that women are more vulnerable to HIV & AIDS infection than men. To a larger extent, women are more susceptible than men to infections in any given heterosexual encounter due to greater area of mucus membrane exposed during sex in women than men, greater quantity of fluids transferred from men to women, higher viral content in male sexual fluids and micro-tears that can occur in vaginal tissue through sexual penetration. Moreover gender norms in many communities allow men to have more than one sexual partners and encourage older men to have sexual relations with younger women which exposes women to more risks of infection. Gender Based Violence in many communities also prevent women from negotiating safer sex

5.4.7. Gender Dimensions in Domestic Violence

The issue of gender related violence takes the form of domestic violence, rape, defilement and incest. According to the Gender Monitoring Unit, between April 2004 and March 2005, a total of 1,483 women were raped while the defilement index indicated that 717 children were abused over a similar period. These figures do not include the unreported cases that occur every day. Although a few cases of rape involving men and young boys have also been reported, the proportion is insignificant compared to that of women and girls.

According to the Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS) 2003, one out of every four women experience violence from husbands with 40% experiencing physical violence and 16% experiencing sexual violence. The same report shows that the major challenge in handling domestic violence has more to do with attitudinal or cultural perceptions than policy. A majority of the respondents, according to the Kenya Gender Data Sheet, 2005 indicate that a husband is justified to beat the wife if she burnt the food or argued with him. While it may be argued that the key issue related to persistence of gender violence is the rate of economic

dependence of women on men, it is also worth noting that due to cultural reasons and the impact on children in case of women who want to end such violence through divorces, even economically independent women persevere and therefore allow the vice of domestic violence to persist.

Domestic violence has locked up potential and opportunities for women who cannot develop themselves because they are afraid of the husband's attitude and reactions. Gender violence also takes the form of emotional abuse and attitudes of indifference. Sometimes it really threatens the family unit and it is an issue that requires urgent crusade and activism if this country is to maintain the social fabric upon which the family unit and hence the society and the economy are rooted.

6

Implications for Women Wellbeing

The foregoing sections indicate that although some progress has been made towards improving women representation in some economic activities, inequalities still exist, which to a large extent constrain the general well-being of women (see Table 19).

Table 19: Summary of Key Indicators (in percentage unless otherwise stated)

Indicator	Female	Male	Difference
Sex Ratio	50.7	49.3	1.4
Household Headship (2005/06)	36.5	63.5	-27.0
Poverty Headcount Rural (2005/06)	50.0	48.8	1.2
Poverty Headcount Urban (2005/06)	46.2	30.0	16.2
Literacy Rate (2005/06)	73.6	84.8	-11.2
Primary NER (2005)	86.5	86.5	0.0
Secondary NER (2005)	20.1	19.4	0.7
Transition to University	37.9	62.9	-25.0
Morbidity Rates (2005/06)	30.1	24.7	5.4
HIV Prevalence (2003)	8.7	4.6	4.1
Unemployment (1999) (numbers)	713,689	537,143	176,546
Monthly Wage Earnings (2003) (KShs.)	5,752	8,440	-2688
Wage Employment (2003)	30.3	69.7	-39.4
Ever accessed credit	47.1	52.9	-5.8
Judicial Service Establishments (number)	224	376	-152.0

For instance, women have a lower literacy rate (74%) than that of men (85%); more men (63%) transit to universities than women (38%); HIV & AIDS is more prevalent among women (8.7%) than men (4.6%) and more men (53%) tend to access credit than women

(47%). This can be attributed to various factors ranging from social, economic and cultural constraints.

Indeed, poverty levels are higher among female population compared to male population. The fact that more male students tend to survive in the education system till university is a critical concern as it works to hinder women representation in high level economic activities including decision making systems and wage employment (30.3%). In the next section, we articulate the main barriers to women participation in economic activities followed with feasible policy interventions.

Retrogressive Social, Cultural and Traditional Values

Social, cultural and traditional practices and unfounded norms deny women various opportunities to effectively participate in production systems. Cultural norms form a major challenge in Kenya. Most Kenyan cultures still regard the place of a woman as being in the kitchen and raising children as part of the reproductive role. This kind of socialisation makes it hard for many men to fathom the idea that they can share the same platform with a woman. Consequently, women are locked out of political representation and hence locking them out of participation in decision making forums. By joining politics, women in such cultures are still considered as breaking the rules that govern gender roles.

Moreover, some traditional practices governing land and livestock ownership, access and control over land, and benefits accruing to land produce tend to favour men compared to women. This to a large extent disadvantages women in accessing credit especially when collateral is required. In 2004 only 1% of land titles in Kenya were held by women and 5-6% was owned jointly.

The political campaigning exercise is very distressful particularly in terms of financial expenditures. Whereas men can mobilise financial resources through several ways including sale of property such as land, women are constrained because property ownership in most communities is dominated by men.

Such beliefs and attitudes, sometimes depending on their intensity in particular regions of the country and the associated consequences determine the voting pattern in Kenya. For example, in the just ended general election of December 2007 where only 15 women were elected out of the 269 who won nomination tickets, 6 women constituting 40% of the elected women to the 10th Parliament are from Rift Valley Province, 3 women each are from Nairobi and Eastern Provinces. Only one woman each was elected from Central and Coast provinces and no woman was elected from Nyanza and Western Provinces.

Associated to the cultural impediments is the vulnerability to violence and insults that often accompany political campaigns. Consequently, women who would otherwise vie for leadership posts are discouraged out of fear and a feeling of inadequacy. It should be noted that in some instances, the violence and insults against women results in loss of life and property, like was recently witnessed where a woman opposition supporter was killed during the election campaigns. Women are often intimidated by insults hurled at them. For instance, the 2007 General elections campaign platform was described as male dominated, tough and intimidating for women candidates. The physical and psychological abuses can be viewed as demeaning and bringing the integrity of women to question so that the male opponents can have an advantage over them.

Limited Access to Post Primary Education

Although gender gap has reduced in primary and secondary education, gender disparities persist in tertiary education (technical and university) and participation rates are equally low at secondary school level. Disparities are also more prevalent among tertiary education programmes with male students dominating such courses as engineering, technology and finance. This contributes to limited knowledge among women to excel in more lucrative sectors such as manufacturing and highly profitable entrepreneurship programmes.

Balancing Productive and Household and Reproductive Responsibilities

Like other parts of the Continent, Women in Kenya face the challenge of balancing between work and family responsibilities. On average women work for 12.9 hours a day compared to

8.2 hours for male counterparts (Mekonnen and Spurling, 1994). Time spent by women in attending to household tasks leaves them with limited time to engage in time-demanding enterprises that in most cases would be located away from the homestead. Perhaps this is the main reason as to why women dominate the wholesale and retail businesses.

Limited Economic Empowerment and Access to Credit

Although close to 50% women currently have access to credit, most of these are from informal savings mechanisms and micro-finance institutions. The main institutions offering credit specifically to women are Kenya Women Finance Trust, Kenya Rural Entrepreneurship Programme, United Women's Savings and Credit Co-operatives Society and the National Association of Self-Employed Women of Kenya. However, most of these institutions are located in urban areas and do not assist women to vertically expand beyond micro-level. Most business women lack training in financial management and entrepreneurship skills. Most women also lack opportunities to fully benefit from international trade since most of their businesses are small and informal. They also lack adequate network systems as very few business associations in Kenya effectively target women.

Property Ownership Constraints

In most communities in Kenya, most of the property is owned by men. This is an obstacle to the welfare of women when they get married and also when they get divorced or in polygamous homes. In the case of a monogamous home, the wife has no control of property especially land. In some communities where commercial farming is practiced, the woman contributes in not only keeping the home and reproductive activities but also in contributing labour for commercial farming. However, the man has control over all these resources. Whatever wealth the man and wife build together belongs to the man. The situation becomes worse if the man divorces the wife, in which case there is no law that ensures equal division of property. It should be noted that the law protects any title deed holder or any person in whose name any property is registered and in most cases such properties are registered in the name of men. Since customary law allows for polygamy, if a man marries a second wife, the first wife loses part or all of the shared property that they have build together for all the years she has

been married to the husband, which is used to cater for the added wife/wives. Without control on property, women are therefore vulnerable to dispossession and they are thus constrained from initiating long-term projects.

7

Policy Suggestions and Agenda for Reform

Some of the policies that have been put in place have yielded positive impact in increasing women participation in higher education levels. However, more needs to be done in most sectors including economic empowerment, access to financial services, employment, participation in decision making and improving data management for use in planning and policy processes, among others.

Design and Implement Programmes to Transform Gender Related Norms and Behaviour in Relation to Care, Work and Responsibilities.

Learning institutions and youth programmes play a critical role in sensitizing youth on gender issues. Education also plays a role in addressing gender disparities through its capability towards enhanced access to education opportunities, and empowerment of women to be able to participate in major economic activities. Parental guidance which is a form of informal education is also critical especially among communities with retrogressive social and cultural effects. Emphasis should be laid on methods of allocation of duties to male and female children such that from the early ages, the children are taught not to discriminate based on sex. Consistent attention has to be paid to violence against women and girls. Such changes may require pre- and or co-requisite transformation of mindsets within Government, decision makers, youth, men and even women themselves on greater awareness of the gendered consequences of policies and programmes in the country. One very effective way that transformation of attitudes and beliefs can be obtained apart from legislation is through wholesome and action oriented political willingness to promote changed attitudes through allocation of resources to public sensitisation Programme geared towards this goal.

Another initiative would include legislation that ensures political parties attain representation 50-50 affirmative target. The country should embrace the notion that qualification, character

content, relevant training and experience, and not gender are the main criteria for effective leadership. Some of the steps in this direction also include campaigns to engage men in gender based issues and informed women empowering fellow women and girls.

Economic Empowerment and Access to Credit

Female population should be encouraged to participate in various economic activities in order to improve their livelihoods. These include enrolment in post-primary education, observing individual health needs and accessing productive income generating activities and/or well paying employment. Introduction of Women's Development Fund is a positive initiative towards economic empowerment of female population, but its implementation needs strong identification and monitoring systems in order for the poor women to equally benefit.

Property Co-Ownership Arrangements

The Government of Kenya, the civil society, human rights bodies and all stakeholders who are pro-affirmative action should embrace a law with arrangements of co-ownership of all the properties acquired by a married couple including the land, during their marriage. Co-ownership arrangements will not only enhance the family unit ensuring stability and productivity but it will also economically and socially empower women and earn them some sense of respect and confidence required for any human being to normally progress and contribute to productivity. This will also ensure women have access to some form of security in the event of accessing financial services such as loans.

Community Policing on Gender Based Violence

The issue of Gender Based Violence is still a major challenge in spite of the Domestic Violence Bill. One way of solving this problem is through community intervention. Through community interventions, it should be within the provisions of the law that any form of gender-based domestic violence is reported by the nearest witness to the nearest authority. In addition, the community should be allowed to directly intervene in an event where such violence is witnessed. Behavioural change communication can play an important role in challenging prevailing beliefs and norms that contribute to the perpetuation of GBV.

Communication strategies can contribute to shifting GBV from a private matter to one that merits public attention and interventions. These include community based education activities that target the entire community. This will facilitate in creation of mechanisms that create a deterrent to aggressors by reducing the community's tolerance to violence and creating an environment where the perpetrators fear being publicly shamed for their actions.

At individual level, changing men's attitudes and behaviours towards Gender Based Violence is an essential strategy. While it is acknowledged that it is a gradual process and a long term goal, it is an essential process without which affirmative action can not be obtained. Such community initiatives could be to involve men advocating for gender equalities as role models to younger men.

Similar initiatives have been carried out in other countries such as Uganda where the Center for Domestic Violence Prevention project embarked on an objective of working closely with a cross-section of community members and leaders in Uganda to change attitudes and behaviours that perpetuate violence against women. In this case, a variety of activities and strategies were used to influence change such as local activism through community theatre and door to door visits; local level advocacy with key stakeholders to promote understanding; using media and public events to bring these issues to the foreground; building capacity of key groups such as police officers and health care workers; developing learning materials with rights-affirming messages and implementing seminars on communication skills with local council leaders who are predominantly men and who receive domestic violence cases

Other initiatives could include working with the youth to have a particular role in changing norms and behaviours before they become deeply ingrained. It may be more feasible to effect changes at a time when norms and behaviours are not as deeply rooted. Adult men have an important role by serving as positive examples to younger men, helping them distinguish GBV as unhealthy behaviour, and publicly challenging norms that deem GBV acceptable (Examples of such programs exist in developed countries such as Founding Fathers Campaign and Coaching Boys into Men Programmes developed by Family Violence Prevention Fund

(Guedes 2004). Similar programmes in India have shown that men's fear of being publicly shamed for the violence they commit serves as an important deterrent. While research and experience of the USA indicate that policies and laws that make violent behaviour more costly to abusers decrease the rates of interpersonal violence. According to Guedes (2004), many developing countries have GBV legislation in place, but male judges and law enforcement agents who can be sympathetic to perpetrators often implement them inappropriately. Thus ensuring that adequate laws and policies exist and that they are properly implemented is as important as modeling gender equitable behaviours. Changing community norms so that peers, community leaders, and extended family provide negative sanctions against violence is also very critical.

Enhance Awareness Campaigns and Affirmative Action

Civil Society, Government, private sector and other relevant organs should step up awareness campaigns on rights for women and policy interventions already in place targeting women. This would enhance their effective participation in the social, economic and political systems. Pro-poor policies and interventions should also target women especially in rural and marginalised areas as appropriate.

Enhance Female Representation in Leadership Positions

These could include:

- a) Implement the affirmative action in all political parties' structures to ensure women progress in campaign processes right from grassroots level to national level
- b) Continually enforce affirmative action on women representation in leadership at a ratio of 50:50 at all levels of leadership
- c) Continually implement strategies in line with policies aimed at mainstreaming gender in political and management positions
- d) Mainstream gender in all political parties' manifestos and in human resource development and employment policy frameworks, both for public and private sectors.

Networking and Proactive Participation

It is important to encouraging women to participate in international and national associations relevant to their individual specialties and business undertakings with a view to sharing experiences and exposing women to both local and international economic opportunities.

Engendering Macro and Micro Economic Policies and Budget Process

Engendering the budget is the best way of meeting the aspirations and needs of the majority of men and women, boys and girls. This would include among others: mainstreaming gender and other cross-cutting issues; review of the impact of the national budget on female population; encouraging women participation in monitoring and evaluating the budget; and integrating issues affecting female population, their needs and priorities. Emphasis should be on budget outputs and outcomes; while moving from line budgeting to a programme/budget approach that integrates gender issues.

Improving Data Management for Effective Planning and Policy Formulation Processes

Improved collection and management of adequately disaggregated data by gender would address the challenge of dearth data required for appropriate in-depth analysis. This requires increased resource allocation to relevant organisations such as Kenya National Bureau of Statistics and Ministries such as education, labour and human resources.

8

Conclusions and Research Gaps

8.1. Conclusion

Enhancing gender equality is critical for any country's development. Despite the fact that women represent 51% of the Kenya population, their representation in post primary education, wage employment, enterprise ownership and decision making processes is limited. They are also adversely affected by such factors as traditional and social practices, poverty and domestic violence, among other challenges. This study presents a profile of women in the major social, economic and political systems. It provides relevant data and information that can influence design and implementation of gender related policies. Improving women profile in all sectors through, among other factors, reducing gender disparities will not only benefit women alone, but also men, children, poor and rich as well. This will also enhance women empowerment and contribute to sustainable economic growth, reduce poverty and social injustices and other forms of inequalities. The budget could also be tailored to address gender issues in order to reduce gender inequalities.

8.2 Research Gaps

Further research is however required as follows:

1. Establish the link between career development of women, education and training.
2. Link between gender inequalities and economic development.
3. Assess levels of female student wastage in the education system (including areas of economic engagement).
4. Following Government commitment on ensuring that 30% of all civil service jobs are reserved for women starting 2005, an audit assessment is required to establish whether 30% of civil service positions especially at middle and senior levels have actually been allocated to women in all the public service bodies including parastatals.
5. Assess efficiency of administrative systems and impact of Women Enterprise and Development Fund in all districts, and constituencies in the country.

6. Establish whether there is a change in handling of sexual offences since the enactment of the Sexual Offences Act.
7. Assess training needs for police officers at the gender desks in police stations and provision of recommendations towards capacity building.
8. Establish what can effectively transform the 'social imposed model' that encourages men to dominate women which in turn constrain them to adequately exploit existing opportunities
9. Undertake detailed analysis on population age distribution, while establishing policy implications of there being more women than men in the 25-29, 35-39 and 60-64 age group categories. What would the population structure mean for employment/labour resource and dependency structures?

References

1. Aghion, B. and Morduch (2005), "The Economics of Micro Finance", MIT
2. Chattopadhyay, R. and E. Duflo(2001), "Women as Policy Makers: Evidence From an India-Wide Randomised Policy Experiment", *NBER Working Paper* , No. W8615
3. Daniels, Arlene K. (1987), "Invisible Work", *Social Problems* 34: 403-415
Dollar, D., R. Fisman and R. Gatti(2001), "Are Women Really the "Fairer Sex?", *Corruption and Women in Government*", *Journal of Economic Behaviour & Organisation*, Vol. 46, pp. 423-429.
4. Dollar, D. and R. Gatti (1999) "Gender Inequality, Income and Growth: Are Good Times Good for Women?" *Policy Research Report on Gender and Development*
5. Edlund, L (1999), "Son Preferences, Sex Ratio and Marriage Patterns", *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 107, No.6 pp. 1275-1304
6. Financial Sector Deepening (2007), "Financial Access in Kenya: Results of the 2006 National Survey". Nairobi: Kenya
7. Gentry, J.W. S. Commuri and S. Jun (2003), "Review of Literature on Gender in the Family", *Academic of Marketing Science Review*, Vol. 2003, No. 1
8. Guedes, A, (2004), "Addressing Gender-Based Violence from the Reproductive Health/HIV Sector: A Literature Review and Analysis", IGWG.
9. Government of Kenya (2005b), "Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (KESSP) 2005-2010. Nairobi: Government Printer.
10. Government of Kenya (2000), "National Gender and Development Policy", Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services
11. Government of Kenya, *not dated*, "Education Statistical Booklet, 1999-2004"
12. Heise, L. et al., (1999), "Ending Violence against Women", *Population Reports*, 27(4), Available at www.infoforhealth.org/pr/11ledsum.shtml
13. Klasen, S. (1999), "Does Gender Inequality Reduce Growth and Development? Evidence from Cross-Country Regressions", *Policy Research Report on Gender and Development, Working Paper Series*, No. 7

14. Kynaston, Chris (1996), "The Everyday Exploitation of Women: Housework and the Patriarchal Mode of Production", *Women Studies International Forum* Vol. 19, No.3, pp. 221-237.
15. Johnston T., Seth-Smith J, and Beacham Cathy (2003), "Kenya: Gender Facts and Figures", Population Communication Africa in Association with Canadian International Development Agency's (CIDA/GESP), Executive Printers.
16. Kenya Demographic Health Survey (2003), Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2007), basic Report on Well-Being in Kenya, ISBN 9966-767-08-8, the Regal Press Kenya Ltd, Nairobi: Kenya.
17. Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) 2005/06, Basic Report. Government of Kenya (2005a), "Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research", Nairobi: Government Printer.
18. Latigo A. A. R. (Year Undated), Key Issues and Challenges for Gender Inclusive African Statistical System. Economic Commission for Africa.
19. Mekoneen S. K and Spurling D (1994), "Raising the Productivity of Women Farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa", World Bank Discussion paper No. 230, Washington DC.
20. Mikkola, A (2005), "Role of Gender Equality in Development", A Literature Review Department of Economics, University of Helsinki, RUESG and HECER
21. Morduch, J. (1999), "The Micro Finance Promise", *Journal of economic Literature*, Vol. 37, No. 4 pp. 1569-1614.
22. Onsomu E. N., Kosimbei G. and Ngware M. W. (2006), "Impact of Gender and Socio-Economic Factors on Learning Achievements in Primary Education in Kenya: Empirical Evidence", KIPPRA Discussion paper 56, Nairobi: Kenya
23. Onsomu E. N., Muthaka D. I., Ngware M. W. and Manda D. K. (2006), "Determinants and Strategies for Expanding Access to Secondary Education in Kenya", KIPPRA Discussion paper 63, Nairobi: Kenya
24. Pitt, Mark and Shahidur, Khandker (1998), "The Impact of Group-Based Credit Programs on Poor Households in Bangladesh: Does the Gender Participation Matter?" *Journal of Political Economy* Vol. 106, No.5 pp. 958-996

25. Risman, B. (1998), "Gender Vertigo: American Families in Transition", Yale University Press.
26. Schultz, P. (2002), "Why Governments Should Invest More to Educate Girls", *World Development*, Vol. 30, No.2 pp. 207-225
27. Sen, Amartya (1999), Development as Freedom, First Anchored Books Edition
28. UN (1993), "UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women", Available at <http://www.rhrc.org/resources/gbv/bib/intr.php>
29. UNDG RCAR 06 (2006), 2006 Resident Co-ordinator Annual Report.
30. UNESCO (2003) "Gender and Education for All: The Leap to Equality", EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/04. Paris: France
31. World Bank (2004), "From Periphery to Centre: A Strategic Country Gender Assessment", Washington DC