REPUBLIC OF KENYA

Kenya 1999 Population and Housing Census

Volume XI
Analytical Report
On
Gender Dimensions

Central Bureau of Statistics
Ministry of Finance and Planning
August, 2002

P.O. Box 30266- 00100
Nairobi, Kenya
Tel: 254-2-333970-6
Fax: 254-2-333030
http://www.cbs.go.ke
E-mail:herufi@treasury.go.ke
director@hazina.cbs.go.ke

Contents

Pg No.

List of Tables III
List of Figures V
List of Figures V
List of Abbreviations VI
List of Abbreviations VI
Foreword VII
Acknowledgement VIII
Chapter 1: Background 1
1.1 Introduction 1
1.2 Objectives 1
1.3 Source and Quality of Data 1
1.4 General Methodology 2
1.5 Key Concepts and Definitions 3
1.6 Gender-Disaggregated Data in Development 4
Chapter 2: The Gender Dimension of Households 6
2.1 Gender Dimension in Distribution if Households 6
2.2 Child-Headed versus Adult-Headed Households 9
2.3 Gender and Size of Households 11
2.4 Households by Tenure (Occupancy Status) 15
2.5 Housing Amenities and Quality 21
2.6 Housing Quality 28
Chapter 3: A Gender Perspective Of Demographic Characteristics 31
3.1 Population Dynamics 31
3.2 Marital Characteristics and Gender 35
3.3 Mortality 40
3.4 Gender Disparities in Life Expectancy at Birth 44
Chapter 4: Gender Dimension Of Education 48
4.1 School Attendance Status and Gender 48
4.2 School Enrolment 58

4.3 Educational Attainment 66
Chapter 5: Participation In Economic Activity and Decision Making 69
5.1 Economic Activity Status 69
5.2 Economically Active Population 71
5.3 Economically Inactive Population 78
5.4: Possible Reasons for Low Participation of Women in Economic Activity 79
5.5 Levels of Gender Development 83
Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations 84
6.1 Summary of Findings 84
6.2 Conclusions 86
6.3 Recommendations 86
References 87
Appendix 1:Kenya 1999 Population and Housing Census Questionnaire 88
Appendix 2:Household Headship by Gender and Province/District 90
Appendix 3 Computation of Housing Quality Index 90
Appendix 4 Population Distribution by Age, Gender and Province 91
Appendix 5: List of Contributors 96

List of Tables

Pg No

Table 2.1: Percentage Female-Headed and Male-Headed Households by Place of Residence, 1989 and 1999 7
Table 2.2: Gender Distribution and Gender Ratios of Household Headship by Region/Province of Residence, 1999 8
Table 2.3: Percentage Distribution of Child-Headed and Adult-Headed Households by Gender of Household Head and Province/ District, 1999 9
Table 2.4: Percentage Distribution of Female-Headed and Male-Headed Households by Number of Persons (Size of Household) 12
Table 2.5: Percentage Distribution of Female-Headed and Male-Headed Households by place of Residence and Number of Persons (Size of Household) 13
Table 2.6: Household Size for Male-Headed and Female-Headed Households by Province and District 14
Table 2.7: State of Tenure for Main Dwelling Unit for Households Enumerated, l999 15
Table 2.8: Percentage Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head, Tenure Status of Main Dwelling unit and Type of Residence 16
Table 2.9: Percentage Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head, Status of Tenure and Province/District of Residence, l999 18
Table 2.10: Gender Gaps in Owner Occupancy Rates, 1999 20
Table 2.11: Distribution of Households by Source of Water 21
Table 2.12: Percentage Distribution of Households by Gender, Source of Water and Province of Residence, l999 23
Table 2.13: Distribution of Households by Main Type of Lighting, 1999 24
Table 2.14: Distribution of Households by Gender, Type of Lighting and Province 25
Table 2.15: Distribution of Households by Type of Cooking Fuel, Gender of Household Head and Province of Residence 26
Table 2.16: Distribution of Households by Type of Waste Disposal and Gender of Household Head and Province 27
Table 2.17: Gender Disparities in the Use of Main Sewer/Tank and Bucket/Bush by Province 28
Table 2.18: Gender Disparities in Quality of Households by Province 29
Table 3.1: Gender Distribution and Sex Ratios by Age, 1999 33
Table 3.2: Gender Distribution and Sex Ratios by Province/District, 1999 34
Table 3.3: Marital Status of Population Aged 12 and Above by Gender and Province of Residence, 1999 36
Table 3.4: Marital Status by Gender and Age, 1999 38
Table 3.5: Singulate Mean Age at Marriage by Gender and Province/District 39
Table 3.6: Trends in Singulate Mean Age at Marriage by Gender, 1962-99 40
Table 3.7: Female Advantage in Under-5 Mortality, 1979-1989 and 1989-1999 42
Table 3.8: Under-5 Mortality Rates for Children by Province/District, 1989-1999 42
Table 3.9: Life Expectancy at Birth and Female Advantage by Provincial/District, 1989-1999 46
Table 4.1: Percentage Distribution of Population Aged 5 Years and Above by Attendance Status, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999 48
Table 4.2: Distribution of Population Attending School by Age Group, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999 50
Table 4.3: Distribution of Population That Left School by Age, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999 50

Table 4.4: Distribution of Population That Never Attended School by Age, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999 50
Table 4.5: Gender Distribution of Those Currently Attending School, 1999 51
Table 4.6 Gender Distribution of Those Who Had Left School, 1999 54
Table 4.7: Gender Ratios and Relative Gender Gaps for the Population That Never Attended School, 1999 56
Table 4.8: Current Enrolment for Those Attending School by Gender and Level, 1999 58
Table 4.9: Enrolment by Gender and Gender Ratios in Enrolment by Province/District, 1999 60
Table 4.10: Scholastic Retardation Rates by Gender, Type of Residence and Province 64
Table 4.11: Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios in Scholastic Progression Rates from Primary to Secondary by Type of Residence 65
Table 4.12: Gender Gaps in Progression Rates from Primary to Secondary by Region/Province 65
Table 4.13: Gender Distribution, Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios for Population With No Education and Primary Education, 1999 66
Table 4.14: Gender Distribution, Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios for Population Which Completed Form 1-4 and Form 5-6, 1999 67
Table 4.15: Gender Distribution and Gender Gaps for Population with University Education, 1999 68
Table 5.1: Age Distribution of Economically Active Population by Gender, 1999 71
Table 5.2: Gender Distribution and Gender Ratios by Type of Economic Activity, Population Aged 15-64 72
Table 5.3: Gender Distribution, Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios for Population Aged 5 Years and Above Working for Pay, 1999 74
Table 5.4: Gender Distribution of Population Aged 15-64 Self-Employed by Age 75
Table 5.5: Percentage Distribution of Self-Employed Population Aged 15-64 by Rural-Urban Residence and by Province, 1999 76
Table 5.6: Distribution of Unemployed Population Aged 15-64 by Gender and Residence 76
Table 5.7: Gender Distribution, Ratios and Gaps for Unemployed Population Aged 15-64 by Province, 1999 77
Table 5.8: Gender Distribution, Gaps and Ratios of Unemployed Population Aged 15-64 By Rural-Urban Residence, 1999 77
Table 5.9: Levels of Education of the Unemployed by Gender and Rural-Urban Residence 78
Table 5.10: Unemployment Rates by Gender (Out of Total Labour Force) 78
Table 5.11: Participation of Men and Women in the National Assembly, 1969-2002 80
Table 5.12: Distribution of men and Women in the Judicial Service, 1996-2002 80
Table 5.13: Local Authorities representation by Gender, 1992 and 1998 81
Table 5.14: Men and Women in Administrative and Diplomatic Ranks, 1998-2002 82
Table 5.15: Gender Development lndices by Province, 1999 and 2001 83

List of Figures

Pg No

Figure 2.1: Household Headship, 1989 and 1999 6
Figure 2.2: Size of Households Enumerated in the 1999 Census by Gender of Household Head 11
Figure 2.3: Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head and Source of Water 22
Figure 2.4: Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head and Type of Lighting 24
Figure 2.5: Types of Cooking Fuel by Gender of Household Head, 1999 25
Figure 2.6: Distribution of Households by Type of Waste Disposal and Gender of Household Head 27
Figure 2.7: Percentage Distribution of Households by Quality and Gender of Household Head 29
Figure 3.1: Population Distributions by Gender, 1969-1999 31
Figure 3.2: Population by Age and Gender, 1999 32
Figure 3.3: Population by Age and Gender, 1989 32
Figure 3.4: Under-5 Mortality Rates, Estimates for 1979-1989 and 1989-1999 Periods 41
Figure 3.5: Life Expectancy for Males and Females by Province, 1999 44
Figure 3.6: Female Advantage in Life expectancy By Province, Kenya, 1999 45
Figure 4.1: Gross Enrolment Ratios at Various Levels, 1999 63
Figure 5.1: Gender Distribution of Population aged 15-65 Years by Economic Status Activity 69
Figure 5.2: Gender Distribution of Kenya Population aged 5 Years and above by Economic Activity Status and Rural-Urban Residence 70
Figure 5.3: Gender Distribution of Population Working for Pay By Type of Residence 72
Figure 5.4: Percentage Distribution of Economically Active Population Aged 15-64 Working for Pay, 1999 73
Figure 5.5: Economically lnactive Population by Gender and Age 79

List of Abbreviations

ASMR	Age Specific Mortality Rate
CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
DFID	Department for International Development
FGC	Female Genital Cutting
GAD	Gender and Development
GDI	Gender Development Index
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GPI	Gender Parity Index International Conference on Population and Development
PPP	Purchasing Power Parities
RoK	Republic of Kenya
SMAM	Singulate Mean Age at Marriage
Std	Standard
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WID	Women in Development

Foreword

The Kenya 1999 Population and Housing Census was the fourth to be carried out since independence and the sixth since 1948 when the first census was conducted in Kenya. It was carried out on a de facto basis with the night of 24/25 August being taken as a reference date under the provision of the Statistics Act (Cap. 112) of the Laws of Kenya and Legal Notice No. 121 of 11th September 1998 and amendment No. 25 of 22nd February, 1999.

The main objective of this census was to collect demographic and socio-economic data required for policy formulation and decision making in planning processes. This objective was emphasized by the 1999 census theme, "Counting Our People for Development". Basic results of the 1999 census were published in Volumes I and II in January 2001. This second set comprising nine analytical reports addresses topics of Fertility and Nuptiality, Mortality, Migration and Urbanization, Population Projections, Education, Labour Force, Housing and Gender Dimensions. Highlights of the demographic indicators are presented in the Population Dynamics monograph.

Preparation of the analytical monographs involved collaborative efforts of both local and external experts, the Population Studies and Research Institute (PSRI), and various government ministries and departments. The monographs were authored under supervision of a lead consultant. The authors and consultants were recruited on competitive basis, ensuring that such persons had adequate knowledge of the subject they were to analyze and were familiar with Kenya demographic data. For the first time, university students in demography were attached to lead monograph authors.

Scanning technology was used for the first time to capture census data. This method reduced the data processing period to a record 6 months. In an effort to achieve internal consistency and minimize errors to acceptable levels, rigorous editing and validation of the data were carried out before analyzing the results. The information presented in these reports is therefore based on more cleaned data sets, and is to be preferred in case there are differences in the results published in Volumes I and II.

This monograph analyses gender dimensions of 1999 census data with a view to identifying gender disparities in various demographic and socio-economic spheres, and the extent to which these may affect future development. The analysis shows there were more females than males in the early ages as shown by high sex ratios at birth. Also, life expectancy for females at birth is on average higher than that of males by 3 years. Females appear to get married at earlier ages than males. Access to education and employment opportunities is in favour of males, indicating that a gender bias still exists in Kenya in terms of access to resources and education.

DR. ADHU AWITI, MP
Minister for Planning
Ministry of Finance and Planning

Acknowledgement

The Kenya 1999 Population and Housing Census, with the theme "counting our people for development", was conducted in August 1999. It was the sixth national census, after those conducted in 1948, 1962, 1969, 1979 and 1989. Provisional results were released in February 2000, and basic reports were subsequently released in two volumes in January 2001 after a rigorous data processing exercise. This monograph is one of the nine that are a culmination of an ambitious, synchronized and all-inclusive in-depth analysis process addressing various topical areas regarding the demographic, social and economic profiles of the Kenyan population.

The census, being an enormous, complex and costly operation, was accomplished through concerted efforts of many organizations, institutions, government ministries and individuals who assisted in a variety of ways to prepare, collect, compile, process, analyze and publish the results. The Government of Kenya, through the Central Bureau of Statistics of the Ministry of Finance and Planning, wishes to thank them all for their inputs into this noble process.

The Government extends sincere gratitude to the development partners, particularly United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Department for International Development (DFID) for providing technical and/or financial support. Very special thanks are extended to UNFPA and DFID for providing further technical and financial support for the compilation and dissemination of the nine monographs, and also to USAID, in collaboration with the United States Bureau of the Census, for supporting further data processing and the compilation of two sets of United Nations style tables and a census data sheet.

Further gratitude is due to the authors of the nine monographs, the technical support staff and other national and international professionals for their commitment and tireless efforts to successfully undertake the in-depth analysis exercise. Last but not least, all Kenyans deserve special thanks for their patience and willingness to provide the requisite information.

We sincerely hope that the data contained in this monograph will be fully utilized in the national development planning process by all stakeholders for the welfare of the people of Kenya.

DAVID S. O. NALO
Director of Statistics
Central Bureau of Statistic

Executive Summary

Population and gender are not new development issues. They were formally included in the global agenda soon after the founding of the United Nations, but consensus building on these matters began with the adoption by the United Nations General Assembly of the Declaration on Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, Resolution 2263 (XXII) on 7 November 1967. Since then, a number of conventions and declarations have appeared, including the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies of 1985, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) of 1994 and the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing) of 1995. The common feature in all these platforms has been the lack of equality and equal partnership for women and men in development, yet gender inequality persists in terms of access to resources for development. Inequality is, therefore, still pervasive and continues to undermine development and prospects of reducing poverty. It places restrictions on women's choices, opportunities and participation, thus lowering their socio-economic status, that of their households and the nation at large.

The Government of Kenya, in its efforts to reduce inequality, has in the past introduced gender mainstreaming in a number of ministries, and is currently in the process of preparing a National Policy Document on Gender and Development, spearheaded by the Women's Bureau. In line with government efforts, it was found necessary to come up with gender-disaggregated data that would highlight the existence or non-existence of gender disparities in various demographic, social and economic spheres, and the extent to which these may affect future development. The results of the 1999 Population and Housing Census show that gender disparities exist for most of the indicators analyzed, but the extent or magnitude of the disparities vary from one region/ province to another and from one district to another as summarized below.

The proportion of female-headed households continued to increase, from 35% in 1989 to 37% in 1999. The majority of the households headed by women were in the rural areas. In terms of facilities, a large proportion of such households did not have access to services and amenities that were enjoyed by quite a large proportion of male-headed households. For example, only 25% of the female-headed households had access to water from piped sources compared to 34% of the male-headed households. While the majority of Kenyans used firewood as cooking fuel, a higher proportion of female-headed households (75%) than male-headed (64%) used this type of fuel. The quality of housing was also lower for a large proportion of the female-headed households in all provinces, with the exception of Nairobi.

Analysis of population composition by gender portrays a country with slightly more women than men. Over 50% of the total population was made up of women. Women also enjoyed a higher life expectancy than their male counterparts. Female life expectancy was estimated at 57 years while that of males was estimated at 54 years. Female children had better chances of survival than male children. While under-5 mortality for female children was 113 per 1000 live births, that of male children was 119, a gap of six deaths per 1000 live births.

Females tended to be disadvantaged in socio-economic aspects that affected their individual development. Females appeared to get married earlier than males across all regions of the country, a factor that influences their education and career pursuits. The singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) for women was 22 years, while that of men was 26 years. This gap was as high as 19 years in parts of Coast province, but as low as 3 years in parts of Eastern and Central

provinces. There were inequalities in school attendance, the majority (62%) of those who never attended school at all being women. This signals a warning that Kenya may have more illiterate women than men. For those attending school, gender disparities in favour of the males were quite apparent. Although the disparities were smaller at primary school level, they were quite significant at secondary and higher levels. The disparities were in favour of the male population so that even at lower levels more boys were enrolled in school than girls. Nevertheless, in some districts in Central, Eastern, Western and Rift Valley provinces, there was a tendency towards gender equality in enrolment at primary level. Embu and Meru Central districts in Eastern province had higher enrolment for girls than boys at secondary school and higher levels of education (including university). Scholastic progression rates from primary to secondary level were higher for the girls (57%) than the boys (55%). Consequently scholastic retardation rates at primary level were higher for the boys (40%) than for the girls (35%). What happens to the girls at the secondary school level is a matter for investigation, as the enrolments for the girls were lower than for the boys. More females than males in Kenya had not completed any level of education. Nationally, fewer females than males had attained secondary school and above.

In terms of economic activity, there were more males than females who were economically active. Females constituted about 48% of the economically active population. Likewise, more females than males were in the category of the economically inactive. Females formed over 60% of this group. More males were also engaged in wage employment than females across all the provinces and districts. In contrast, 57% of the unemployed persons were females.

In conclusion, the analysis revealed the existence of gender disparities in the various socio economic indicators studied, for example the female population was clearly disadvantaged in terms of access to education as well as wage employment, a sign of gender inequality in access to resources and amenities in Kenya. Efforts should therefore be made to correct the gender imbalances to achieve balanced development.

Chapter 1

Background

1.1 Introduction

This volume contains an analysis of the gender dimension of the various demographic and socioeconomic variables analysed using the census data. The census questionnaire (see Appendix I) was used to collect information on the various demographic and socio-economic variables such as education and economic activity. As a new monograph in the census analytical series, it differs from the others because it touches on topics already analysed in the other volumes but specifically highlights the gender issues emerging from the population and housing characteristics. Though the analysis of the population contained in this volume is based on the 1999 Population and Housing Census, some supplementary information from other sources is also included to explain social concepts and situations in the country and to give a clearer picture of gender and development in Kenya.

1.2 Objectives

The overall objective of this volume is to assess the situation of the Kenya population in terms of gender relations by analysing some of the information gathered from the 1999 Population and Housing Census. The specific objectives are to:

- Identify gender disparities and gaps that exist in demographic and socio-economic indicators captured in the census;
- Provide useful information for future policy formulation and development planning;
- Make recommendations for improvement of data collection in future censuses that will enable a more complete compilation of gender statistics.

1.3 Source and Quality of Data

The 1999 Population and Housing Census on which this volume is based provided information on all members of the households enumerated on the night of 24/25 August 1999. The entire analysis was therefore based on the census and, where appropriate, general comparisons with 1989 census figures. However, such comparisons were limited as the census statistical analysis of the gender dimension has not been done in past censuses. Supplementary sources of data have also been used to further explain gender relations using indicators not captured in the census. Some of the information obtained through the census questionnaire on members of the household was not provided by the members themselves, but by other persons present at the time of enumeration. Such situations arose where a member of the household was absent due to night duty on the night of enumeration, where heads of households provided information on behalf of other members. There could therefore be an element of inaccurate reporting on some of the socioeconomic characteristics. It is difficult to assess the degree of inaccuracy for the various indicators used, but imputations done on some socioeconomic indicators, such as education for the 'not stated' category of responses, may indicate some inaccuracy in reporting. Nonetheless, this is not expected to have any significant effect on the final results.

While the information collected in the 1999 Population and Housing Census captured a number of demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the population, the data are limited in terms of the indicators that can be used for computation of summary indices such as the Gender Development Index (GDI). This limits international comparison with other developing countries as well as with the more developed nations. The GDI, for instance, takes into consideration the literacy rates of the male and female population, the income levels in terms of Purchasing Power Parities (PPP) and differences in life expectancy.

The economic activity question also provided very limited information, as persons working for pay were not categorised into their respective professions or types of employment. Therefore, analysis of gender differences in selection of skilled employment was limited. The analysis was limited to those working for pay, those not working for pay in own/family businesses or own/family farms and the unemployed.

1.4 General Methodology

The simplest and most commonly used indicators of gender inequality are relative frequencies (percentages of) males and females compared to the absolute frequencies (total number). For example, out of the total population who have never been to school, what percentage are females, what percentage are males? The assumption here is that female and male populations are virtually equal in most regions, and the ideal situation would be that the proportion of females or males approaches 50%. Lower or higher values indicate inequality in favour of either males or females. Rates and ratios are used to show general disparities by the selected indicators. Where appropriate magnitude of disparities may be assessed in terms of gender ratios, gender gaps and relative gaps especially where one group appears to be significantly disadvantaged.

The gender ratio is similar to that computed in demographic analysis (M/F x 100 or number of males per 100 females) and referred to as sex ratio. However, for gender analysis the female population may also be divided by the male population (F/M x 100) when the issue of focus is to emphasize the position of females relative to those of the males. The rationale for reversing the computation, especially in analysis of socioeconomic characteristics like education and economic activity is based on what one wants to emphasise in the study. The method has been employed in compilation of Gender-Sensitive Statistics, as recommended by the United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 1997). The Gender Ratio, sometimes referred to as Gender Equality Index (GPI), measures the extent of inequality and ranges from 0 to 1 where 0 stands for inequality and 1 stands for equality. When computed as a percentage, that is, F/M x 100, it denotes the number of females per 100 males for any given indicator under study. In this analysis, the ratio will be expressed as a percentage, for ease of interpretation. Gender gap also measures the magnitude of disparities and is computed by the formula F-M. When computed from actual population figures (i.e., Fpop-Mpop), it is referred to as an absolute gap. For the current analysis, gaps in most cases are computed using percentages; hence, units of measurement are percentage points. The gap may be negative or positive, depending on whether the inequality is in favour of males or females.

The relative gaps measure the extent to which interventions are required or how much effort is required to achieve equality between men and women, for example, in the education sphere. The formula is F-M/F x 100, denoting the percentage effort required for a given indicator to achieve

gender equality. The gaps can be in favour of men or women, depending on the indicator being measured.

1.5 Key Concepts and Definitions

Gender is a socio-cultural construct of the society that determines the identity, roles or functions, entitlement and deprivation of women and men in the society. It therefore defines the positions of women and men in their society. It must be differentiated from sex, the biologically-determined state of being a male or a female, which defines the biological differences between girls and boys, men and women. Sex is determined genetically at conception and is unchangeable. Thus, functions or roles related to sex, such as child-bearing by females, are pre-determined, but when a society deprives one sex of some benefits such as access to education on account of their sex, this becomes a gender bias and creates a gender difference. Unlike biological differences which determine functions of male and female sex (common to all species, including wild animals), gender relations and differences are a deliberate construction by the society and govern the way in which the society meets its physical, material, emotional, economic and spiritual needs (Bekele 1997). In this respect, while sex roles are fixed and unchangeable, gender roles are shaped through social interactions as well as the historical and cultural organisation of a given society. The identity and division of labour of men and women in a given society are determined by the members of the society themselves, but will keep changing according to the socio-economic, political and cultural changes taking place over time.

It must be noted that gender issues are not synonymous with women's issues. In talking about gender, researchers try to understand opportunities, constraints and impact of change as they affect both men and women. It is about what men and women do. When considering Gender and Development (GAD), the impact of development on both men and women and their impact in turn on the development process are taken into consideration. It is with this approach to development in mind that this monograph was included in the census analysis. The GAD approach differs from the Women in Development (WID) approach because the latter seeks to focus on the situation of women with the assumption that they have been historically disadvantaged and therefore require specific interventions to bring them at par with the men.

The inequality of men and women is an important factor contributing to their participation in the development process. In the words of Amarya Sen (UNFPA 2000), "the overarching objective of development is to maximise people's capabilities ... to lead the kind of lives they value and have reason to value." Gender inequality means unequal access to resources by men and women and therefore holds back the growth of individuals, development of countries and evolution of societies. As a result, it works to the disadvantage of both, and not women alone. When women occupy a second class status in terms of socio-economic factors, it carries a financial and social cost, thus both men and women and the society in general pay the price. For example, unequal power relations in the household, coupled with reduced or lack of access to reproductive health care, and reduced power in decision making over reproductive functions may increase incidence of maternal mortality from puerperal causes (causes related to pregnancy and childbirth).

At the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) in Cairo in 1994, gender equity and women's empowerment through education were linked to the population

agenda, with gender equity being recognised as central to the attainment of sustainable development.

The concept of gender gaps refers to the differences between women and men in relation to a particular socio-economic or demographic indicator. Gender gaps come about as a result of unequal power relations between women and men. When gender gaps do not exist, then there is equality, which means a balance of power and equal access to resources so that neither of the two is in a position of dominance. It also means that the women have power to influence their destiny and that of their society (Bekele 1997). On the other hand, when gender gaps exist, there is inequality of access, no balance of power and one group is dominant over the other.

1.6 Gender-Disaggregated Data in Development

To understand and assess the contribution of women and men in development and the impact of development on both, it is necessary to provide information on the prevailing situation at any given time. Such information includes who does what, level of access to resources for both, benefits and deprivations for both as imposed by society, and the demographic implications for both as well as the country at large. Analysis of such information is essential for policy formulation and programme planning to ensure equity in resource allocation and a balanced development that benefits all. When gender gaps are identified, planners can develop appropriate strategies to correct imbalances, influence budgetary allocations and generally focus on improved human resource for sustainable development. If gender gaps exist, they should be acknowledged and addressed positively in order to enhance the complementary roles of women and men.

Statistics available in most third world countries have generally focused only on data regarding the situation of women rather than focusing on the situation of women in relation to that of men. Women's roles in their communities are characterised by the separation of male and female spheres and activities, and by lack of access to the political arenas where decisions about development are made. The fact that women represent a powerful human resource in development was first suggested by the WID crusaders. The basis of the WID approach was mainly that women were unnoticed although they perform the major part of the world's labour and in under-privileged conditions. Their work is invisible in national accounting and censuses despite its obvious productive and social worth (UNFPA 1998). In other words, women count but are not counted. Accurate accounting of their contribution to development and social welfare requires gender-specific data. The collection of gender-disaggregated data and the documentation of roles of women are not new. As early as 1975, with the inauguration of the UN Decade for Women, emphasis was placed on disaggregation by sex of all national economic and social statistics to make women's participation visible in both economic and social life. Although Kenya's national statistical office, the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) is making an effort to address this issue, it has made slow progress, as have other departments that provide it with data.

From the foregoing discussion the demand for gender-based statistics is most often generated by organisations concerned with improvement of the status of women than by national statistical offices. In many countries, issues related to equality and development have not yet gained maximum priority. Most of the indicators originally developed by organisations such as the International Research and Training Institute therefore reflect the WID approach rather than the GAD approach. However with the realization that development impacts on women and men

differently, the emergence of the GAD approach indicators has been improved to compare the situation of both, allowing for detailed analysis of the existing gaps. For example, the United Nations Women's lndicators and Statistical Database (WSTAT) of 1999 outlines a list of demographic and socio-economic indicators that can be used. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has also produced a guideline for gender-sensitive education indicators (UNESCO 1997).

In Kenya, gender mainstreaming has already been introduced in some government ministries. However, unavailability of adequate information still hinders proper assessment of women's real situation and their contribution to development. It is in this context that the Women's Bureau, established in 1976 within the Ministry of Culture and Social Services, has made an effort to compile gender statistics monographs from the existing database and used indicators in areas such as health, education and agriculture, among others.

A number of indicators based on gender analytical frameworks that outline approaches to gender analysis have been selected. Such frameworks include the Moser framework, which touches on inadequacies in living conditions such as housing, and ABC of gender analysis, which offers a guideline to identify gender gaps in education. The indicators selected include demographic, household, educational and labour characteristics.

Due to limitations of information collected during the census, the indicators may not be exhaustive in analysing levels of gender development in Kenya. Indicators of gender empowerment, for instance, cannot be derived from the census data. As a result, additional information to explain socio-cultural relationships leading to disparities observed may be obtained from other data sources. Such information includes participation in decision-making bodies, for example, the national assembly and local authorities.

Chapter 2

The Gender Dimension of Households

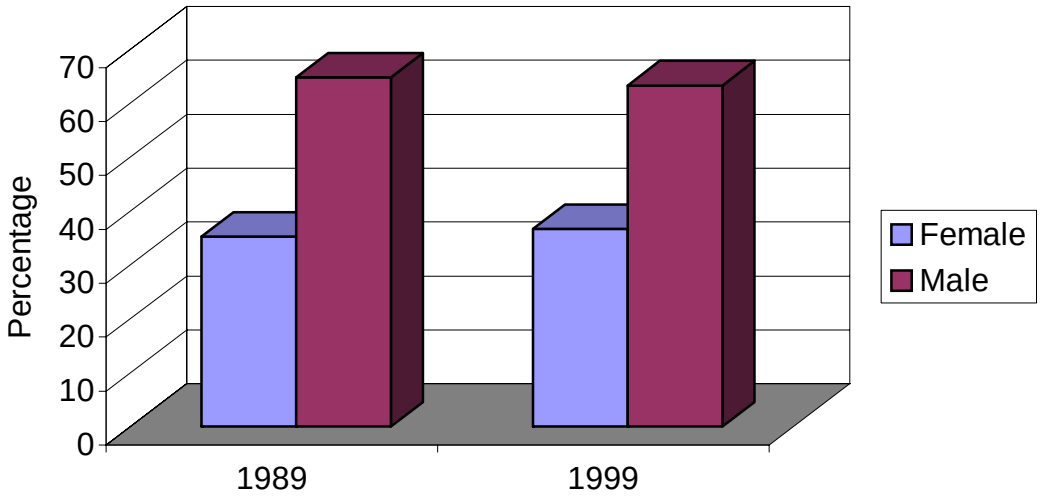
The importance of analysis of the gender dimension of household characteristics lies in the fact that characteristics of households may have a profound influence on the health status of the members and also affect other demographic characteristics such as mortality.

2.1 Gender Dimension in Distribution of Households

2.1.1 Rural-Urban Distribution and Gender

A total of 6,310,268 households were enumerated in the 1999 Population and Housing Census, out of which 75% were rural households and 25% were urban. The number enumerated in 1989 was 4,343,004: 77% of which were rural while 23% were urban. The total number of households therefore increased by 31% from the total number of households enumerated in the 1989 population census. This increase in number of households could be attributed to the increase in population during the 10-year inter-censal period and a better coverage of households in the 1999 Population and Housing Census than in the 1989 census. In terms of gender aspects, 37% of total households enumerated in the 1999 Population and Housing Census were female-headed households, while the remaining 63% were male-headed households (Figure 2.1). Thus, there was an increase in the number of female-headed households during the inter-censal period, though it was small; 35% in the 1989 census compared to 37% in the 1999 census.

Figure 2.1: Household Headship, 1989 and 1999



Among the female-headed households enumerated in the 1999 census, 81% were rural, while 19% were urban. For the male-headed households, 71% were rural, 29% were urban (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Percentage Female-Headed and Male-Headed Households by Place of Residence, 1989 and 1999

Type of Residence	1989			1999		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Urban	15.6	26.3	22.5	19.5	28.7	25
Rural	84.4	73.7	77.5	80.5	71.3	75
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
National	35.2	64.8	100	36.7	63.3	100

2.1.2 Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head and Province of Residence

Table 2.2 compares the female-headed and male-headed households out of the total households across all the provinces of Kenya. The results show that Nyanza province had the highest proportion of female-headed households (with about 44%) Nairobi with about 24% had the lowest. As with any patriarchal society, fewer households were expected to be headed by women. Most of the households were headed by men, which explains why even in the provinces with the highest proportion of households headed by women, the proportions were less than 50% of the total.

Other provinces with notably high proportions of female-headed households compared to male-headed households were Eastern and Western, each with about 40%. The district with the highest proportion of female-headed households was Siaya in Nyanza (about 55%), the result of heavy out-migration, while the district with the lowest was Buret in Rift Valley with about 27%.

The proportions of female-headed households and male-headed households were further analysed using gender ratios. Expressed as a percentage, the value of the gender ratio shows the number of female-headed households per 100 male-headed households (see last column Table 2.2). The analysis revealed that for the entire country there were about 58 female-headed households for every 100 male-headed households. However, there were variations through the provinces. As expected (given the high proportions of female-headed households), ratios were highest in Nyanza where there were 77 female-headed households for every 100 male-headed. Nairobi Province had the lowest ratio value of 32. Coast and North Eastern provinces also showed low values (44 and 45 female-headed households for every 100 male-headed, respectively). More detailed analysis of the constituent districts also identified Siaya with 120 female-headed households for every 100 male-headed households, ranking highest among districts.

Table 2.2: Gender Distribution and Gender Ratios of Household Headship by Province/District of Residence, 1999

Province/ District	Female	Male	Gender Ratio (F/MX100)	Province/ District	Female	Male	Gender Ratio
KENYA	36.7	63.3	57.9	Kisii Central	38.4	61.6	62.2
NAIROBI	24.4	75.6	32.3	Kisumu	41.2	58.8	70.2
CENTRAL	37.7	62.3	60.4	Kuria	38.9	61.1	63.7
Kiambu	33.0	67.0	49.2	Migori	44.9	55.1	81.5
Kirinyaga	33.5	66.5	50.3	Nyamira(Kisii N)	36.9	63.1	58.5
Murang'a	48.2	51.8	93.0	Rachuonyo	47.6	52.4	90.8
Nyandarua	38.8	61.2	63.5	Siaya	54.6	45.4	120.3
Nyeri	40.5	59.5	68.0	Suba	44.6	55.4	80.4
Thika	34.2	65.8	52.0	Bondo	48.9	51.1	94.2
Maragua	42.7	57.3	74.5	Nyando	43.7	56.3	77.8
COAST	30.6	69.4	44.0	RIFT VALLEY	36.3	63.7	57.0
Kilifi	34.6	65.4	52.9	Baringo	41.7	58.3	71.4
Kwale	34.8	65.2	53.4	Bomet	38.7	61.3	63.2
Lamu	30.6	69.4	44.0	Keiyo	33.0	67.0	49.4
Mombasa	23.8	76.2	31.2	Kajiado	37.9	62.1	61.0
Taita Taveta	38.0	62.0	61.3	Kericho	29.1	70.9	41.0
Tana River	36.4	63.4	57.2	Koibatek	33.9	66.1	51.4
Malindi	27.7	72.3	38.2	Laikipia	41.2	58.8	70.0
EASTERN	39.7	60.3	65.9	Marakwet	35.0	65.0	53.9
Embu	31.7	68.3	46.5	Nakuru	36.1	63.9	56.6
Isiolo	44.6	55.4	80.6	Nandi	29.5	70.5	41.9
Kitui	46.7	53.3	87.7	Narok	43.7	56.3	77.7
Makueni	44.3	55.7	79.6	Samburu	41.9	58.1	72.1
Machakos	42.8	57.2	74.8	Trans Mara	40.6	59.4	68.3
Marsabit	46.9	53.1	88.2	Trans Nzoia	32.7	67.3	48.6
Mbeere	41.5	58.5	71.0	Turkana	48.4	51.6	94.0
Meru Central	32.4	67.6	48.0	Uasin Gishu	31.4	68.6	45.7
Moyale	40.6	59.4	68.2	West Pokot	38.3	61.7	62.0
Mwingi	47.4	52.6	90.2	Buret	26.6	73.4	36.2
Meru North	31.6	68.4	46.2	WESTERN	39.7	60.3	65.8
Tharaka	37.1	62.9	59.1	Bungoma	35.4	64.6	54.9
Nithi(Meru S.)	32.1	67.9	47.3	Busia	45.0	55.0	82.0
NORTH EASTERN	31.0	69.0	44.9	Mt. Elgon	30.3	69.7	43.4
Garissa	31.3	68.7	45.9	Kakamega	39.1	60.9	64.1
Mandera	33.4	66.6	50.2	Lugari	40.4	59.6	67.7
Wajir	28.6	71.4	40.1	Teso	37.7	62.3	60.4
NYANZA	43.6	56.4	77.2	Vihiga	44.7	55.3	80.9
Gucha(Kisii S.)	36.1	63.9	56.4	Butere/Mumias	41.0	59.0	69.4
Homa Bay	46.7	53.3	87.7				

2.2 Child-Headed Versus Adult-Headed Households

A household headed by a person aged less than 18 years is by definition a child-headed household. Although there has been a lot of concern over emergence of child-headed households as a result of AIDS-related deaths, the analysis showed that the proportions of child-headed households were still very small when compared to the total number of households enumerated (Table 2.3).

When disaggregated by gender, the results revealed that equal proportions of male and female-headed households were headed by children. Nevertheless, the proportions in both cases were a very small fraction of the total households (less than 1% for male-headed as well as female-headed). Only Nairobi had slightly more, 1.1% of the households being headed by male children. The female-headed households in the same province constituted only 0.8 %; these were probably households where the actual heads were absent on the enumeration night. Table 2.3 also shows the variations within the districts by gender and age

Table 2.3: Percentage Distribution of Child-Headed and Adult-Headed Households by Gender of Household Head and Province/ District, 1999

Province/District	Age of Household Head				All ages
	Less than 18 years old		More than 18 years old		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	
KENYA	0.9	0.9	35.8	62.4	100
Nairobi	0.8	1.1	23.6	74.5	100
CENTRAL	0.6	0.8	37.0	61.6	100
Kiambu	0.6	0.7	32.4	66.3	100
Kirinyaga	0.5	0.6	33.0	65.9	100
Murang'a	0.9	0.8	47.3	51.1	100
Nyandarua	0.7	0.4	38.2	60.2	100
Nyeri	0.6	0.9	39.9	58.6	100
Thika	0.6	0.8	33.6	64.9	100
Maragua	0.7	0.6	42.0	56.7	100
COAST	1.0	1.0	29.7	68.4	100
Kilifi	0.9	0.8	33.8	64.5	100
Kwale	0.9	0.8	33.9	64.4	100
Lamu	1.1	0.7	29.6	68.6	100
Mombasa	0.9	1.1	23.0	75.0	100
Taita Taveta	0.90	1.3	37.2	60.7	100
Tana River	1.8	0.8	34.7	62.7	100
Malindi	1.0	1.0	26.7	71.3	100
EASTERN	0.8	0.8	39.0	59.4	100
Embu	0.3	0.6	31.5	67.5	100
Isiolo	1.8	1.0	42.8	54.4	100
Kitui	0.9	0.9	45.8	52.3	100
Makueni	0.8	0.9	43.6	54.6	100
Machakos	0.8	0.9	42.1	56.2	100
Marsabit	1.7	1.1	45.2	52.0	100

Table 2.3 Continued

Province/District	Age of Household Head				All ages
	Less than 18 years old		More than 18 years old		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Mbeere	0.6	0.7	41.0	57.7	100
Meru Central	0.5	0.6	32.0	67.0	100
Moyale	1.6	0.9	39.1	58.3	100
Mwingi	1.2	1.0	46.3	51.5	100
Meru North	0.6	0.7	31.0	67.6	100
Tharaka	0.7	0.5	36.5	62.3	100
Nithi (Meru S)	0.3	0.3	31.8	67.5	100
NORTH EASTERN	1.0	0.6	29.9	68.5	100
Garissa	1.1	0.7	30.1	68.1	100
Mandera	1.1	0.6	32.2	66.1	100
Wajir	0.9	0.4	27.7	71.0	100
NYANZA	1.0	0.9	42.6	55.5	100
Gucha	0.6	0.91	35.5	63.0	100
Homa Bay	1.3	0.8	45.5	52.4	100
Kisii Central	0.6	0.9	37.8	60.7	100
Kisumu	1.2	1.3	40.1	57.3	100
Kuria	0.9	0.7	38.1	60.3	100
Migori	1.5	0.9	43.5	54.2	100
N.Kisii(Nyamira	0.7	0.9	36.2	62.2	100
Rachuonyo	1.0	0.7	46.6	51.7	100
Siaya	0.9	0.6	53.7	44.7	100
Suba	1.2	0.8	43.5	54.6	100
Bondo	1.1	1.1	47.5	50.4	100
Nyando	0.9	1.0	42.9	55.2	100
RIFT VALLEY	1.0	0.9	35.3	62.8	100
Baringo	1.1	1.1	40.6	57.3	100
Bomet	1.0	0.5	37.7	60.8	100
Keiyo	0.5	0.9	32.5	66.1	100
Kajiado	1.9	1.1	35.9	61.1	100
Kericho	0.6	0.8	28.5	70.0	100
Koibatek	0.6	0.8	33.3	65.2	100
Laikipia	1.3	1.2	39.8	57.7	100
Marakwet	1.0	1.5	34.1	63.5	100
Nakuru	1.0	1.3	35.0	62.6	100
Nandi	0.4	0.5	29.1	70.0	100
Narok	2.2	0.9	41.5	55.5	100
Samburu	2.9	1.1	55.1	40.9	100
Trans Mara	1.4	0.6	39.1	58.8	100
Trans Nzoia	0.7	1.0	31.9	66.4	100
Turkana	0.8	0.5	47.6	51.0	100
Uasin Gishu	0.7	1.0	30.6	67.6	100
West Pokot	0.9	0.7	37.3	61.0	100
Buret	0.4	0.6	26.1	72.8	100
WESTERN	0.8	0.7	38.9	59.6	100
Bungoma	0.7	0.6	34.8	63.9	100
Busia	1.0	0.7	44.0	54.2	100
Mt. Elgon	0.5	0.4	29.7	69.4	100
Kakamega	0.7	0.7	38.4	60.2	100
Lugari	0.8	0.8	39.6	58.8	100
Teso	0.8	0.7	36.9	61.6	100
Vihiga	0.7	0.6	44.1	54.6	100
Butere/Mumias	0.9	0.7	40.0	58.3	100

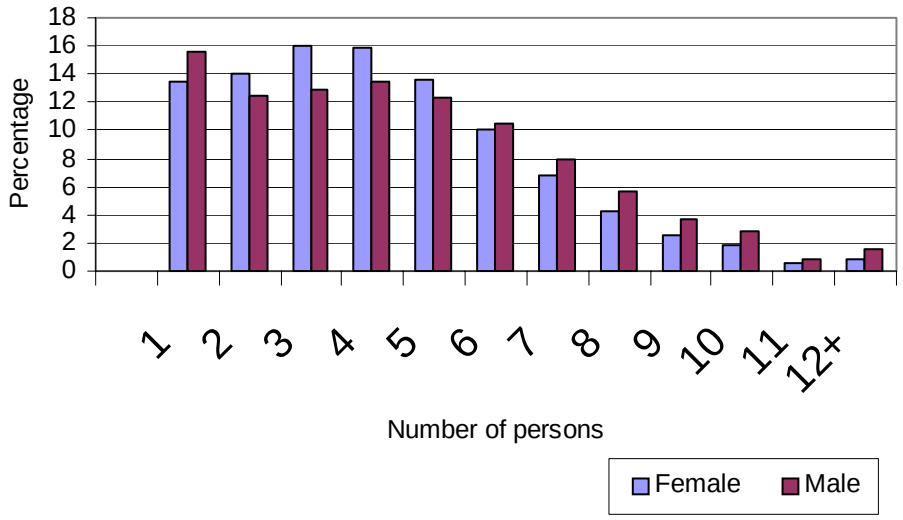
Districts with notable proportions of child-headed households included Mombasa, Taita Taveta, Tana River, Kitui, Isiolo, Marsabit, Kisumu, Laikipia, Bondo, Nakuru and Samburu as they showed higher proportions of child-headed households, most of them female-headed.

2.3 Gender and Size of Households

2.3.1 The National Perspective

Figure 2.2 shows the size of households by gender of household head. About 15% of households in the country were one-person households, that is, where a single person made provision for his /her own food or other essentials without combining with any other person. The remaining 85% were multi-person households, that is, where two or more persons lived together and made common provision for food or other essentials for living (Table 2.4). They may have been related or unrelated individuals or a combination of both.

Figure 2.2: Size of Households Enumerated in the 1999 Census by Gender of Household Head



Among the female-headed households, about 14% were one-person households. A slightly higher proportion of the male-headed households were one-person households (about 16%). However, a higher percentage of female-headed households than male-headed had two to five persons. Very small proportions of households headed by either females or males were large; for instance, only about 1% of female-headed and about 2% of male-headed households had more than ten persons. The size of the gender gaps between male- and female-headed were also small for the multi-person households, most of them in favour of male-headed households, indicated by the negative sign, except those between two and five persons. The implication would be that though gaps were insignificant it was the male-headed households that were likely to be large. For economic reasons, this is expected as households headed by women are generally believed to be the poorest in the

society (U. S Bureau of the Census, 2000), hence may not support as many members as the male-headed households.

Table 2.4: Percentage Distribution of Female-Headed and Male-Headed Households by Number of Persons (Size of Household)

Number of Persons	Female Headed	Male Headed	Gender Gap (F-M)	All Households
1	13.5	15.6	-2.1	14.8
2	14.1	12.5	1.6	13.1
3	16.0	12.9	3.1	14.1
4	15.9	13.4	2.5	14.3
5	13.6	12.4	1.2	12.8
6	10.1	10.5	-0.4	10.4
7	6.8	8.0	-1.2	7.6
8	4.2	5.7	-1.5	5.1
9	2.5	3.7	-1.2	3.3
10	1.8	2.9	-1.1	2.5
11	0.5	0.9	-0.4	0.8
12+	0.9	1.5	-0.6	1.3

2.3.2 Rural-Urban Perspective

Table 2.5 presents the rural-urban dimension of household sizes. The results show that about 11% of the rural households were one-person households. The equivalent proportion for urban households was 26%, an indication that urban households were more likely to be smaller than rural households. This is verified by the fact that while about 60% of the urban households had up to three persons, only 36% of the rural households had the same number.

Table 2.5: Percentage Distribution of Female-Headed and Male-Headed Households by place of Residence and Number of Persons (Size of Household)

No. of Persons per household	Rural			Urban		
	Female-Headed	Male-headed	Total	Female-headed	Male headed	Total
1	11.5	11.0	11.2	22.0	27.3	25.9
2	13.0	9.9	11.1	18.9	19.3	19.2
3	15.7	12.2	13.6	17.7	14.7	15.6
4	16.2	13.8	14.8	14.4	12.4	12.9
5	14.4	13.5	13.9	10.3	9.4	9.6
6	11.0	12.1	11.6	6.7	6.5	6.5
7	7.5	9.6	8.7	4.1	4.2	4.1
8	4.7	6.9	6.0	2.5	2.5	2.5
9	2.8	4.6	3.8	1.5	1.5	1.5
10	2.0	3.6	3.0	1.2	1.2	1.2
11	0.6	1.1	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.3
12+	0.9	1.9	1.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

In terms of gender aspects, one-person households comprised about 11% of female-headed as well as male-headed households in the rural areas compared to 22% of the female-headed households and 27% of the male-headed households in urban areas, Only 2% of female-headed households in the rural areas and 1% in the urban areas had ten persons. This implies that the females living alone in urban areas may have increased the proportions of female-headed households reported in these areas.

2.3.3 Provincial and District Analysis of Households

In analysis of the size of households by gender at provincial and district level, the number persons were grouped into four categories: households with l-3 persons, 4-6 persons, 7-9 persons and over 10 persons, The analysis was done for the national totals, by place of residence and by provinces/districts (Table 2.6).

At provincial level, there were more pronounced differences between male-headed and female-headed households with only 1-3 persons except for Nairobi and Rift Valley where proportions were almost equal (64% of male-headed and 62% of female-headed households in Nairobi had 1-3 persons; in Rift Valley, the equivalent proportions were 40% of male-headed and 39% of female-headed, respectively).

Other provinces had higher proportions of female-headed households than male-headed households with 1-3 persons. Only Coast province had a higher proportion of male-headed households than female-headed households with 1-3 persons. It is not surprising then that the province had one of the highest proportions of female-headed households with more than 10 persons (7%).

Table 2.6: Household Size for Male-Headed and Female-Headed Households by Province and District

Province/ District	Male-Headed				Female-Headed			
	1-3	4-6	7-9	10+	1-3	4-6	7-9	10+
KENYA	41.0	36.3	17.4	5.3	43.7	39.6	13.6	3.2
NAIROBI	63.6	28.3	6.8	1.3	62.1	29.9	6.6	1.4
CENTRAL	43.7	3.4	13.9	2.9	52.3	37.9	9.4	1.5
Kiambu	45.6	39.6	12.5	2.4	53.3	36.7	8.4	1.5
Kirinyaga	41.7	42.8	13.0	2.4	56.1	34.8	7.9	1.3
Murang'a	38.7	42.6	16.0	2.7	48.4	40.7	9.6	1.3
Nyandarua	36.5	39.8	18.4	5.4	42.2	42.2	13.0	2.5
Nyeri	44.8	39.8	13.0	2.4	53.6	37.3	8.0	1.2
Thika	51.8	34.2	11.8	2.5	53.2	35.9	9.4	1.2
Maragua	36.6	41.9	18.0	3.5	48.7	39.4	10.5	1.3
COAST	46.4	29.4	15.5	8.6	40.1	37.0	15.8	7.1
Kilifi	32.4	27.7	21.6	18.3	29.3	36.6	20.9	13.2
Kwale	34.1	33.0	21.3	11.6	32.6	39.6	19.6	8.2
Lamu	42.4	32.3	18.1	7.2	34.0	39.5	19.4	7.1
Mombasa	61.6	26.8	8.4	3.2	55.3	31.4	9.4	3.9
Taita Taveta	49.0	31.6	15.1	4.3	40.4	42.5	13.8	3.3
Tana River	31.7	39.5	21.4	7.4	37.8	42.7	15.8	3.7
Malindi	39.7	27.0	19.1	14.2	37.7	34.8	17.5	10.0
EASTERN	33.3	38.9	21.3	6.5	38.6	41.9	15.9	3.6
Embu	38.0	41.3	16.6	4.1	53.5	35.3	9.5	1.7
Isiolo	39.8	38.8	17.2	4.2	45.5	40.2	11.7	2.6
Kitui	27.7	37.3	26.0	9.0	30.3	44.8	20.1	4.8
Makueni	28.8	34.7	26.5	10.0	29.3	44.0	21.0	5.7
Machakos	35.8	37.3	20.7	6.2	33.1	45.2	17.6	4.1
Marsabit	38.4	43.6	15.0	3.0	56.3	36.7	6.3	0.7
Mbeere	33.2	38.4	25.4	3.9	40.2	39.4	12.3	8.1
Meru Central	39.8	41.8	15.4	3.0	55.1	35.2	8.4	1.3
Moyale	26.8	39.8	24.3	9.1	39.9	42.7	13.1	4.3
Mwingi	29.7	36.1	25.0	9.2	32.4	43.8	19.7	4.1
Meru North	28.4	40.0	23.9	7.7	39.7	41.6	15.6	3.1
Tharaka	30.1	38.1	23.8	8.0	38.7	41.6	16.1	3.6
Nithi(M.South)	34.3	45.6	17.1	3.0	52.2	37.7	8.9	1.2
N. EASTERN	18.5	42.8	29.2	9.5	31.0	44.5	19.2	5.3
Garissa	21.1	42.1	26.7	9.1	31.1	44.0	19.1	5.8
Mandera	19.3	43.8	28.5	8.4	32.6	44.8	18.2	4.4
Wajir	14.8	42.5	31.9	10.8	29.2	44.6	20.3	5.9
NYANZA	35.0	40.0	20.1	4.9	45.6	39.6	12.5	2.3
Gucha(S.Kisii)	25.1	42.7	26.0	6.2	35.8	44.7	16.6	2.9
Homa Bay	35.8	41.9	18.3	4.0	51.4	37.3	9.8	1.5
Kisii Central	29.1	42.2	23.6	5.1	38.0	44.7	14.9	2.4
Kisumu	48.7	33.7	14.0	3.6	48.3	37.4	12.0	2.3
Kuria	24.6	41.4	25.1	8.9	34.4	43.8	17.9	3.9
Migori	35.4	40.4	19.1	5.1	46.2	39.0	12.4	2.4
North Kisii	28.3	41.8	24.3	5.6	35.3	45.2	16.4	3.1
Rachuonyo	31.8	42.7	20.8	4.7	46.8	39.8	11.5	1.9
Siaya	40.2	39.0	17.0	3.8	52.9	35.9	9.5	1.7
Suba	34.8	39.9	19.7	5.6	45.8	38.1	13.3	2.8
Bondo	39.3	39.5	17.3	3.9	51.9	36.0	10.2	1.9
Nyando	40.3	37.3	17.9	4.5	47.8	38.4	11.5	2.3

Table 2.6 Continued

Province/ District	Male-Headed				Female-Headed			
	1-3	4-6	7-9	10+	1-3	4-6	7-9	10+
R. VALLEY	39.7	35.5	18.7	6.1	39.2	41.6	15.4	3.8
Baringo	36.7	34.2	22.4	6.7	41.0	40.9	14.9	3.1
Bomet	24.8	39.4	26.1	9.6	30.6	44.1	20.1	5.2
Keiyo	39.2	32.6	20.7	7.5	37.7	40.7	17.1	4.5
Kajiado	46.5	36.6	13.8	3.1	43.2	42.5	11.9	2.4
Kericho	39.1	35.4	19.1	6.4	36.7	41.4	17.3	4.6
Koibatek	38.1	31.5	21.2	9.2	36.4	39.6	18.4	5.6
Laikipia	46.9	35.8	14.3	3.0	46.1	40.3	11.6	2.0
Marakwet	40.7	34.6	19.7	5.0	40.7	43.2	13.5	2.6
Nakuru	50.8	31.9	13.6	3.7	46.7	38.3	12.4	2.6
Nandi	33.0	36.2	22.3	8.5	34.5	41.6	18.7	5.2
Narok	36.0	39.5	19.4	5.1	33.3	46.6	16.7	3.4
Samburu	35.0	45.0	16.7	3.3	43.2	44.7	10.6	1.5
Trans Mara	28.7	41.2	22.6	7.5	30.4	46.4	18.8	4.4
Trans Nzoia	36.7	34.8	20.4	8.1	34.4	41.4	18.6	5.6
Turkana	21.9	42.1	26.6	9.4	31.8	45.7	17.3	5.2
Uasin Gishu	43.1	32.2	17.6	7.1	39.2	39.2	16.7	4.9
West Pokot	29.6	44.0	21.3	5.1	39.8	43.5	13.9	2.8
Buret	38.1	33.5	19.7	8.0	35.2	40.0	18.8	6.0
WESTERN	33.4	38.7	21.4	6.5	40.6	40.8	15.2	3.4
Bungoma	31.5	38.2	22.4	7.9	38.7	39.9	7.1	4.3
Busia	34.3	40.3	20.1	5.3	46.0	38.9	12.5	2.6
Mt. Elgon	28.6	37.2	24.6	9.6	33.7	40.8	20.1	5.4
Kakamega	34.4	38.0	21.3	6.3	40.6	40.9	15.5	3.5
Lugari	32.1	36.1	23.0	8.8	32.5	41.6	19.9	6.0
Teso	32.7	40.1	21.3	5.9	42.9	39.6	14.5	3.0
Vihiga	33.7	39.5	21.3	5.5	37.8	44.9	14.6	2.7
Butere/Mumias	37.0	39.5	18.9	4.6	46.0	38.9	12.9	2.2

2.4 Households by Tenure (Occupancy Status)

Table 2.7 shows the tenure status of the main dwelling unit for households enumerated in the 1999 census. The dwelling units for the households were either owner-occupied or rented through various arrangements.

Table 2.7: State of Tenure for Main Dwelling Unit for Households Enumerated, I999

State of Tenure	Percentage of Households
Owner Occupied:	
Purchased	3.7
Constructed	65.1
Inherited	2.0
Rented or Provided by:	
Government	1.8
Local Authority	1.0
Parastatal	1.0
Private Company	3.2
Individual	21.4
Other form of Tenure	0.8

It is clear from the results that for the majority of households the main dwelling unit was owner-occupied with most of them having been constructed by occupant (65%), This is expected as about 75% of the households enumerated were rural, and rural houses are usually not rented; most of them are privately owned.

2.4.1 Tenure and Gender of Household Head

Analysis shows that 72% of the female-headed households compared to 61% of male-headed households were owner-occupied dwelling units constructed by owner; hence, there was a major gender disparity in owner-occupied units. A sizeable proportion of households were in premises rented by individuals, about 24% of male-headed and 17% of female-headed households. Percentages for other types of tenure were quite low, for both female-headed and male-headed households, with little or no gender inequality.

2.4.2 Tenure by Rural-Urban Residence and Gender

Analysis of tenure status by type of residence gave a different picture from the national one. As expected, most of the households in rural areas were in owner-occupied premises constructed by owners, while most of the urban households were in dwellings rented by individuals. Slightly more of the female-headed households than male-headed households were likely to be in constructed owner-occupied premises, although the gender disparity was relatively small (Table 2.8). For example, in the rural areas, 85% of female-headed households were in constructed owner-occupied premises compared to 80% of male-headed. In the urban set up, the equivalent percentages were about 18 for female-headed and 13 for male-headed. These statistics imply that females heading households were less likely to be renting houses, hence a greater priority in house ownership.

In urban areas, a higher proportion of male-headed households than the female-headed ones lived in individually rented premises. Although the proportions were relatively small, more of the male-headed households in urban areas were also found in other types of rental premises, for example, in government houses, private company and parastatal-owned houses.

Table 2.8: Percentage Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head, Tenure Status of Main Dwelling unit and Type of Residence

Tenure Status	Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Owner-occupied:				
Purchased	2.5	2.2	8.0	7.7
Constructed	80.1	84.9	12.8	17.7
Inherited	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.4
Rented or provided:				
Government	1.0	0.5	5.3	3.9
Local Authority	0.3	0.3	2.9	3.5
Parastatal	0.6	0.3	2.7	2.3
Private Company	3.8	1.9	3.9	2.9
Individual	9.1	7.2	61.7	58.9
Other	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9

2.4.3 Household Tenure Status at Provincial and District Levels

For ease of analysis at provincial and district level, the tenure status types were classified into two broad categories: owner-occupied and rented. Table 2.9 shows the gender distribution of households categorized across the provinces and districts of Kenya. The percentages were computed out of the total in each gender group, such as the percentage of owner-occupied out of all female-headed households.

Generally, most households in the country were in owner-occupied premises as opposed to rented, though owner occupancy rates were higher for female-headed households than male-headed households in most districts. A case in point was Kisumu district where less than half of male-headed households (48%) were in owner-occupied premises compared to 71% of female-headed households. This means that more of female-headed households were likely to be in owner-occupied as opposed to rented units. It should be noted that owner occupancy rates were low in districts with major cities/towns like Nairobi, Mombasa, Kisumu and Nakuru, where the majority of households lived in rented premises. In Nairobi, for instance, 82% of the male-headed households lived in rented premises, 18% in owner-occupied premises. For the female-headed households, 81% were in rented, 19% in owner-occupied. The conclusion here is that females heading households were in owner-occupied premises where owning houses was affordable, as is the case in rural areas and in smaller towns.

Table 2.9: Percentage Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head, Status of Tenure and Province/District of Residence, l999

Province/ District	Female headed		Male Headed	
	Owner- Occupied	Rented	Owner-occupied	Rented
KENYA	77.9	22.2	67.5	32.5
NAIROBI	19.2	80.8	17.5	82.5
CENTRAL	78.9	21.1	71.3	28.8
Kiambu	63.4	36.6	60.7	39.3
Kirinyaga	80.6	19.4	83.9	16.1
Murang'a	85.6	14.5	86.4	13.6
Nyandarua	841	15.9	80.9	19.1
Nyeri	79.4	20.6	77.0	23.0
Thika	61.5	38.5	50.9	49.1
Maragua	88.9	11.1	87.6	12.4
COAST	69.7	30.3	57.8	42.2
Kilifi	82.9	17.1	76.3	23.7
Kwale	88.6	11.3	83.1	16.9
Lamu	78.5	21.5	71.0	29.0
Mombasa	32.5	67.5	27.9	72.1
Taita Taveta	82.2	17.9	69.8	30.2
Tana River	86.3	13.7	81.4	18.6
Malindi	77.4	22.6	69.6	30.4
EASTERN	87.8	12.2	84.3	15.7
Embu	76.1	23.9	79.1	20.4
Isiolo	79.6	20.4	71.7	28.3
Kitui	93.9	6.1	92.1	7.9
Makueni	91.1	8.9	86.9	13.1
Machakos	85.6	14.4	76.3	23.7
Marsabit	92.6	7.4	88.2	11.8
Mbeere	89.1	10.9	88.0	12.0
Meru Central	78.4	21.6	80.6	19.4
Moyale	83.5	16.5	76.3	23.7
Mwingi	91.9	8.1	88.3	11.7
Meru North	92.6	7.4	90.6	9.4
Tharaka	94.0	6.0	92.9	7.1
Nithi(M.South)	88.2	11.8	90.3	9.7
N. EASTERN	91.6	8.4	91.7	8.3
Garissa	84.4	15.7	85.1	14.9
Mandera	95.3	4.7	94.0	6.0
Wajir	95.0	5.0	95.5	4.4
NYANZA	87.4	12.6	78.7	21.3
Gucha(S.Kisii)	92.2	7.8	91.9	8.1
Homa Bay	87.5	12.5	81.6	18.4
Kisii Central	91.2	8.8	86.3	13.7
Kisumu	70.6	29.3	48.2	51.8
Kuria	92.4	7.6	89.0	11.0
Migori	86.6	13.4	77.3	22.7
North Kisii	88.6	11.4	84.4	16.0
Rachuonyo	91.4	8.6	86.0	14.0
Siaya	92.1	7.9	87.2	12.8
Suba	87.9	12.1	80.6	19.4
Bondo	86.8	13.2	76.3	23.7

Table 2.9 Continued

Province/ District	Female headed		Male Headed	
	Owner- Occupied	Rented	Owner-occupied	Rented
Nyando	87.8	12.2	72.2	27.8
R. VALLEY	77.3	22.7	67.7	32.3
Baringo	91.0	9.0	87.0	13.0
Bomet	94.8	5.2	93.6	6.42
Keiyo	88.0	12.0	82.9	17.2
Kajiado	73.1	26.9	565	43.6
Kericho	75.8	24.2	66.5	33.5
Koibatek	78.3	21.7	71.1	28.9
Laikipia	75.5	24.5	61.0	39.0
Marakwet	93.0	7.0	89.9	10.1
Nakuru	59.0	41.0	49.6	50.5
Nandi	83.3	16.7	74.8	25.3
Narok	83.0	9.5	83.0	17.0
Samburu	82.6	7.6	82.6	17.5
Trans Mara	87.0	8.6	87.0	13.0
Trans Nzoia	66.4	26.5	66.4	33.6
Turkana	87.8	8.4	87.8	12.2
Uasin Gishu	55.8	35.9	55.6	44.1
West Pokot	88.4	8.6	88.4	11.6
Buret	62.3	26.3	62.3	37.7
WESTERN	84.3	12.3	84.3	15.7
Bungoma	81.5	20.0	81.5	18.5
Busia	83.5	12.3	83.5	16.5
Mt. Elgon	89.4	10.0	89.4	10.6
Kakamega	84.8	11.5	84.8	15.2
Lugari	82.8	14.9	82.8	17.5
Teso	83.3	14.0	83.3	16.7
Vihiga	89.5	8.9	89.5	10.5
Butere/Mumias	84.2	9.7	84.2	15.8

Government policy is to empower Kenyans to own good housing in both urban and rural areas. Table 2.10 summarises the magnitude of the differences in proportions of male-headed and female-headed households that were living in owner-occupied premises. The magnitude of the differences is analysed using the gender gap, that is, the difference in percentage points between the female proportions and the male proportions (F-M).

The wider the gap, the greater the differences between female- headed and male-headed households in terms of percentage owner-occupied. Negative values imply higher percentages in owner occupancy in favour of male-headed households. Most of the values across districts were positive, since higher proportions among female-headed households than male-headed were owner-occupied.

Table 2.10: Gender Gaps in Owner Occupancy Rates, 1999

Province/District	Gender Gaps	Province/District	Gender Gaps
KENYA	10.4	Homa Bay	5.9
NAIROBI	1.7	Kisii Central	5.0
CENTRAL	7.7	Kisumu	22.4
Kiambu	2.7	Kuria	3.4
Kirinyaga	-3.3	Migori	9.3
Murang'a	-0.9	Nyamira (Kisii North)	4.2
Nyandarua	3.2	Rachuonyo	5.3
Nyeri	2.4	Siaya	5.0
Thika	10.6	Suba	7.3
Maragua	1.3	Bondo	10.4
COAST	11.9	Nyando	15.5
Kilifi	6.7	R. VALLEY	9.6
Kwale	5.5	Baringo	3.9
Lamu	7.5	Bdomet	1.2
Mombasa	4.6	Keiyo	5.1
Taita Taveta	12.5	Kajiado	16.6
Tana River	4.9	Kericho	9.3
Malindi	7.8	Koibatek	7.2
EASTERN	3.5	Laikipia	14.6
Embu	-3.0	Marakwet	3.1
Isiolo	7.1	Nakuru	9.5
Kitui	1.8	Nandi	8.5
Makueni	1.1	Narok	7.5
Machakos	9.4	Samburu	9.9
Marsabit	4.3	Trans Mara	4.4
Mbeere	1.0	Trans Nzoia	7.1
Meru Central	-2.2	Turkana	3.8
Moyale	7.3	Uasin Gishu	8.3
Mwingi	3.6	West Pokot	3.0
Meru North	2.0	Buret	10.9
Tharaka	1.2	WESTERN	3.4
Nithi(M.South)	-2.1	Bungoma	-1.5
N. EASTERN	-0.1	Busia	3.6
Garissa	-0.7	Mt. Elgon	0.5
Mandera	1.3	Kakamega	3.7
Wajir	-0.5	Lugari	2.3
NYANZA	8.7	Teso	2.7
Gucha(S.Kisii)	0.3	Vihiga	1.7
		Butere/Mumias	6.1

*Percentage female headed and owner occupied – Percentage male headed and owner-occupied

The gender gaps were widest in Kisumu (about 22 percentage points) and Kajiado (about 17 percentage points). However, in districts like Kirinyaga, Murang'a, Embu, Meru South, Garissa, Mandera and Bungoma, the gender gaps were small and negative in value (in favour of more male- headed households). Slightly more male-headed lived in owner-occupied houses than female-headed households.

2.5 Housing Amenities and Quality

Household members require essential services such as water, cooking and lighting fuel as well as some method of waste disposal for a dwelling unit to be habitable. The presence or absence of these services and the quality of material used for constructing the dwelling units to a large extent determine the overall quality of housing.

2.5.I Main Source of Water for Households

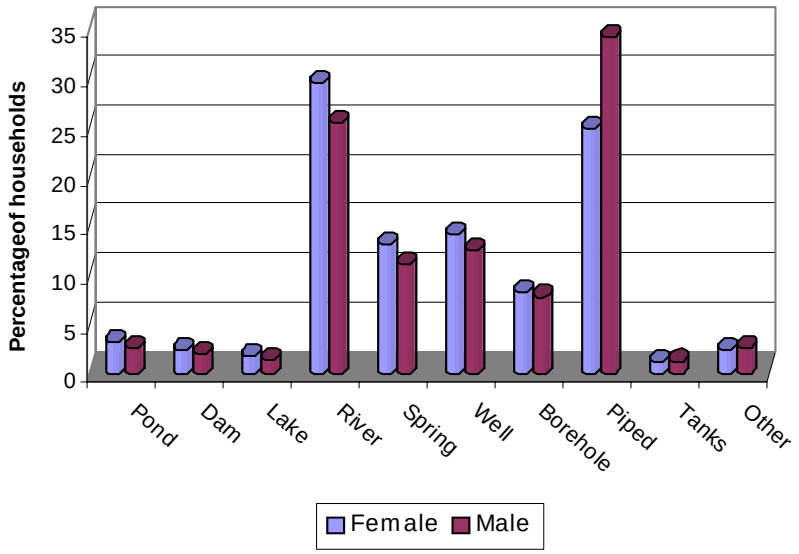
Scarcity of water at household level is a source of poor household hygiene and which increases the household members' vulnerability to disease and possible death. Prevention of such undesirable consequences depends on the access of the households to safe drinking water within reasonable distance of the household. While no information was collected on distances, information on the various sources of water for the households was collected in detail. Results of the analysis (Table 2.11) indicate that access to safe drinking water was still an elusive goal for much of the population at the time of the 1999 census.

Table 2.11: Percentage Distribution of Households by Source of Water

Water Source	Urban	Rural	Total
Pond	0.6	3.4	2.7
Dam	0.3	2.7	2.1
Lake	0.6	1.7	1.4
River	4.6	34.3	26.9
Spring	1.7	15.0	12.0
Well	4.3	16.0	13.1
Borehole	5.5	8.7	7.9
Piped	77.7	15.1	30.7
Tanks/Jabias	0.9	1.2	1.2
Others	3.8	1.9	2.4
Total	100	100	100

The major sources of water for households in the country were piped (31%), rivers (27%), wells (13%) and springs (12%). It is therefore clear that the percentage with access to safe drinking water (piped) was quite low. In fact, all unsafe sources combined accounted for about 69% of the household sources of water, urban households being more advantaged. About 78% of them had access to water from piped sources compared to only 15% of the rural households whose main source was the river. The river and piped sources continued to be the leading sources of water even when the households were analysed by gender of household head (Figure 2.3). As in the national picture, access to safe sources (piped) was still considerably low because only about 25% of the female- headed and 34% of the male- headed households had access to water from piped sources. The other common sources, that is, river, well and spring, which are not considered safe, were even more prevalent among female-headed than male-headed households. The implication here is that female-headed households were less likely to have access to safe sources of water than male-headed households.

Figure 2.3: Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head and Source of Water



Analysis at provincial level showed very little variation in this trend (Table 2.12). Across the provinces, female-headed households were still disadvantaged in terms of access to safe sources of drinking water with the exception of Nairobi. In Nairobi, females heading households may be of higher socio-economic status than their rural counterparts. The analysis revealed that in all the other provinces, lower proportions of female-headed households had access to piped sources than male-headed households. Yet when other unprotected sources were considered, the proportions among female-headed households were higher. This means that higher percentages of female-headed households were likely to obtain water from these unsafe sources than male-headed households.

Table 2.12: Percentage Distribution of Households by Gender, Source of Water and Province of Residence, I999

Source of Water/ Province	Female-Headed	Male-Headed	Total	Source of Water/ Province	Female Headed	Male-Headed	Total
NAIROBI				NORTH EASTERN			
Pond	0.2	0.3	0.3	Pond	4.9	4.7	4.8
Dam	0.1	0.1	0.1	Dam	7.9	9.3	8.8
Lake	0.1	0.1	0.1	Lake	0.1	0.1	0.1
River	0.2	0.2	0.2	River	15.6	13.2	13.9
Spring	0.2	0.2	0.2	Spring	0.6	0.8	0.7
Well	0.2	0.3	0.3	Well	33.8	36.6	35.7
Borehole	1.7	1.6	1.6	Borehole	19.8	21.6	21.1
Piped	93.9	93.7	93.7	Piped	9.0	6.4	7.2
Tanks/Jabias	0.9	1.1	1.0	Tanks/Jabias	1.3	1.3	1.3
Others	2.5	2.4	2.5	Others	7.1	6.0	6.3
Total	100	100	100	Total	100	100	100
CENTRAL				NYANZA			
Pond	1.4	1.3	1.3	Pond	6.5	4.9	5.6
Dam	1.4	1.4	1.4	Dam	1.3	1.0	1.1
Lake	0.2	0.2	0.2	Lake	7.3	7.0	7.1
River	40.4	36.1	37.7	River	34.1	31.8	32.8
Spring	3.3	2.9	3.0	Spring	23.0	25.0	24.0
Well	12.7	13.1	12.9	Well	7.6	7.3	7.4
Borehole	7.6	9.1	8.5	Borehole	10.4	8.9	9.5
Piped	28.6	31.6	30.5	Piped	6.6	10.4	8.7
Tanks/Jabias	2.6	2.4	2.4	Tanks/Jabias	0.5	0.7	0.6
Others	1.9	2.0	2.0	Others	2.8	3.1	3.0
Total	100	100	100	Total	100	100	100
COAST				RIFT VALLEY			
Pond	5.6	4.7	5.0	Pond	3.4	2.9	3.1
Dam	6.9	5.0	5.6	Dam	3.0	2.1	2.4
Lake	0.6	0.6	0.6	Lake	0.7	0.7	0.7
River	13.0	9.6	10.6	River	35.8	34.2	34.8
Spring	2.2	1.9	2.0	Spring	8.1	7.6	7.8
Well	10.9	10.7	10.8	Well	17.0	14.6	15.5
Borehole	6.3	6.5	6.4	Borehole	8.1	7.6	7.8
Piped	49.3	55.0	53.3	Piped	19.7	26.1	23.8
Tanks/Jabias	0.9	0.9	0.9	Tanks/Jabias	1.5	1.5	1.5
Others	4.4	5.1	4.9	Others	2.8	2.7	2.7
Total	100	100	100	Total	100	100	100
EASTERN				WESTERN			
Pond	1.7	1.5	1.6	Pond	1.2	1.2	1.2
Dam	3.3	2.7	3.0	Dam	0.1	0.1	0.1
Lake	0.2	0.2	0.2	Lake	0.6	0.6	0.6
River	31.8	31.2	31.4	River	21.3	20.8	21.0
Spring	9.9	8.7	9.2	Spring	40.0	37.0	38.0
Well	23.2	18.6	20.4	Well	14.4	15.3	14.9
Borehole	4.9	4.9	4.9	Borehole	13.2	13.3	13.3
Piped	23.3	30.1	27.4	Piped	8.6	10.8	9.9
Tanks/Jabias	0.7	0.8	0.7	Tanks/Jabias	0.3	0.4	0.4
Others	1.1	1.2	1.2	Others	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	100	100	100	Total	100	100	100

2.5.2 Type of Lighting for Households

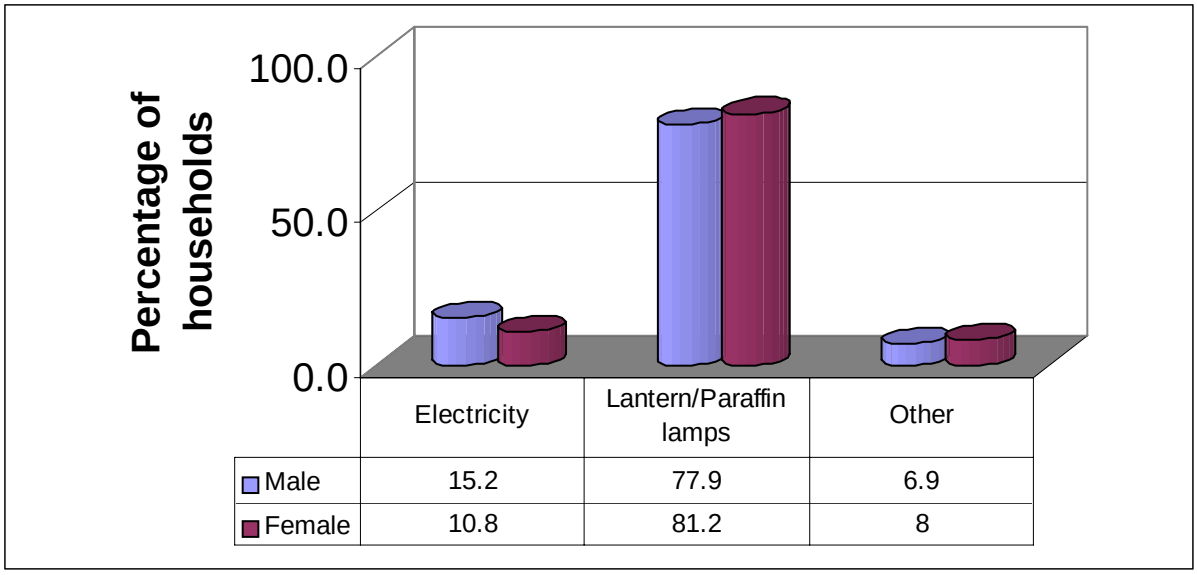
Analysis of households by type of lighting indicated that the main type of lighting at national level was paraffin lamps (Table 2.13). More than three-quarters of households in Kenya used paraffin lamps for lighting and only about 14% used electricity. In the urban areas, electricity was more common (42%), although the lantern/paraffin lamp still remained the main source of lighting for 55% of households.

Table 2.13 : Percentage Distribution of Households by Main Type of Lighting, 1999

Type of Lighting	Kenya	Rural	Urban
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Electricity	13.6	4.2	42.1
Lantern/Paraffin Lamps	79.1	87.0	55.3
Other	7.3	8.8	2.6

Figure 2.4 shows that when the analysis was made by gender of the household head, there were some disparities between female-headed and male-headed households.

Figure 2.4: Distribution of Households by Gender of Household Head and Type of Lighting



About 15% of male-headed households compared to 11% of the female-headed ones used electricity for lighting, but a larger proportion of female-headed households (8l%) used paraffin lamps or other unspecified sources as compared to the male-headed (78%). A larger proportion of female-headed than male-headed households were therefore unable to afford expensive forms of lighting. Generally, lantern/paraffin lamps were still the main sources of lighting for both female- and male-headed households.

Across the provinces, the overall pattern did not change much, except in Nairobi where a larger proportion of female-headed households (58%) than male-headed households (51%) were using

electricity. Again, this emphasises the higher socio-economic status of female-headed households in Nairobi compared to other parts of the country (Table 2.14).

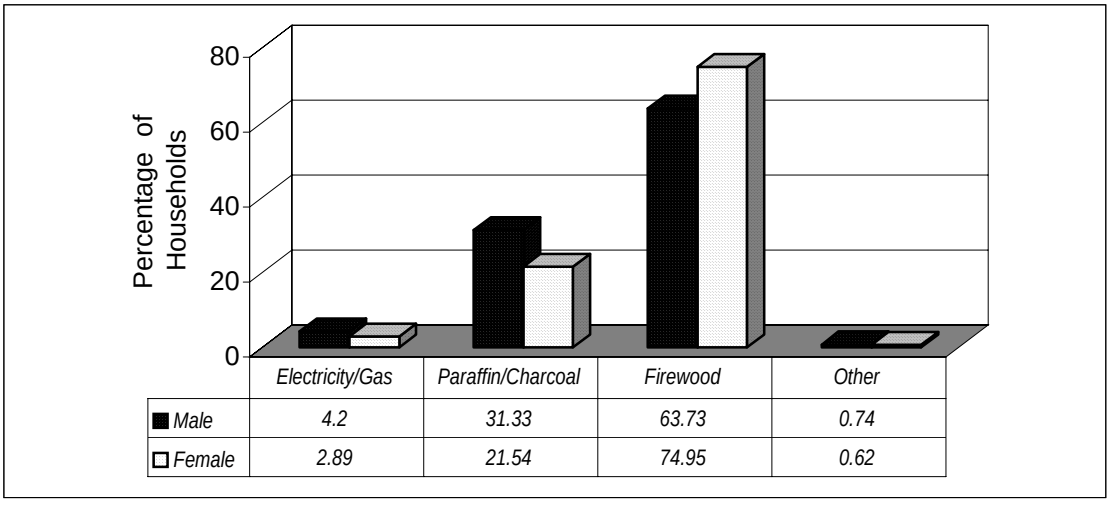
Table 2.14: Percentage Distribution of Households by Gender, Type of Lighting and Province

Region/Province	Female Headed			Male Headed		
	Electricity	Lantern/ Paraffin Lamp	Other	Electricity	Lantern/ Paraffin Lamp	Other
Nairobi	57.8	39.7	2.5	50.9	46.7	2.4
Central	13.7	83.6	2.7	17.0	79.9	3.1
Coast	16.5	79.9	3.6	18.8	75.5	5.7
Eastern	4.9	87.6	7.5	6.7	86.8	6.5
North Eastern	5.6	52.0	42.4	5.3	42.1	52.6
Nyanza	3.6	93.7	2.7	5.8	91.5	2.7
Rift Valley	7.9	72.7	19.4	10.4	76.2	13.4
Western	2.6	96.8	0.6	3.8	95.5	0.7

2.5.3 Type of Cooking Fuel by Gender

The results of the census showed that a majority of Kenyans used firewood as the main source of cooking fuel (Figure 2.5).

Figure 2.5: Types of Cooking Fuel by Gender of Household Head, 1999



A higher proportion of female-headed households used firewood. The results have an effect on women and their management of the environment because the use of firewood depletes forests thereby threatening their existence.

As the use of electricity or gas as cooking fuel was rare for female-headed households, such safer and more advanced technology in cooking fuel was more likely to be used in male-headed households.

At provincial level, the pattern was still the same as shown in Table 2.15, that is, higher proportions of female-headed households using firewood than those headed by men. An exception was North Eastern province where proportions were higher for households headed by women. The

majority of the communities in this province are nomadic, and women are often left at home as household heads. In Nairobi province, as expected, firewood was rarely used; hence, paraffin/ charcoal were the most common, with households headed by men reporting higher proportions used than those headed by women

Table 2.15: Distribution of Households by Type of Cooking Fuel, Gender of Household Head and Province of Residence

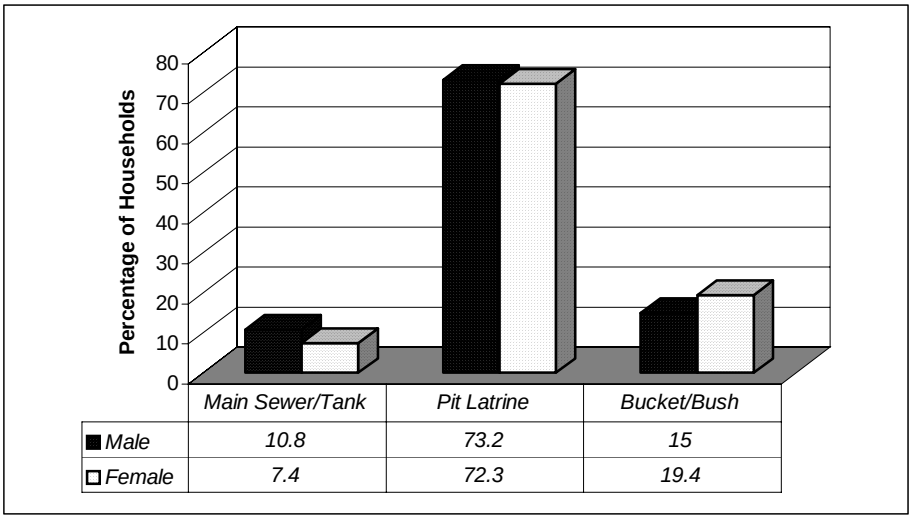
Region/Province	Male Headed Households			Female Headed Households		
	Electricity/ Gas	Paraffin/ Charcoal	Firewood	Electricity/ Gas	Paraffin/ Charcoal	Firewood
KENYA	4.2	31.3	63.7	2.9	21.5	74.9
Nairobi	16.3	80.6	1.6	18.9	77.9	2.2
Central	3.8	28.3	67.0	3.1	23.3	73.0
Coast	5.0	43.1	50.7	4.6	36.4	58.3
Eastern	1.4	15.0	83.0	1.1	13.2	84.8
North Eastern	0.7	6.9	91.6	0.6	9.3	89.5
Nyanza	1.6	21.1	76.9	0.8	12.1	86.4
Rift Valley	2.4	27.7	69.4	1.6	19.2	78.7
Western	1.0	12.9	85.7	0.6	9.4	89.8

**Percentages exclude 'Other' forms of fuel*

2.5.4 Waste Disposal

Figure 2.6 shows that the pit latrine was the most commonly used in waste disposal, with little or no gender inequality in its use between households headed by women and those headed by men. However, when a more advanced form of waste disposal was considered, a greater proportion of households headed by men were more advantaged; 11 % of them had main sewer/ tank as their form of disposal compared to those headed by women (7%). Generally, the proportions were still low for Kenya as a whole. This form of disposal requires a piped source of water, which in Kenya is used by a small percentage of households, and especially not accessible by the majority of female-headed households. At the opposite end of the grid was the use of bucket or bush as a form of waste disposal. Both are considered low quality and unhygienic forms of disposal. Therefore, it is a negative signal for households headed by women to have had higher proportions of those using bucket/bush (19%) than households headed by men (15%).

Figure 2.6: Distribution of Households by Type of Waste Disposal and Gender of Household Head



In most of the provinces, the gender disparities in use of pit latrines still remained small, except in Rift Valley where the gender gap in proportions using this type of toilet facility seemed slightly wider with households headed by women having a lower percentage (Table 2.16).

Table 2.16: Distribution of Households by Type of Waste Disposal and Gender of Household Head and Province

Region/ Province	Female Headed Households			Male Headed Households		
	Main sewer/ Tank	Pit Latrine	Bucket/bush	Main sewer/ Tank	Pit Latrine	Bucket/bush
KENYA	7.4	72.3	19.4	10.8	73.2	15.0
Nairobi	59.1	36.2	1.7	50.3	45.2	1.8
Central	5.6	93.5	0.5	6.7	92.0	0.7
Coast	9.4	56.3	32.0	10.5	58.0	29.2
Eastern	2.3	79.7	17.4	3.0	82.8	13.7
North Eastern	1.1	21.9	76.1	0.9	15.3	83.1
Nyanza	1.3	76.5	21.2	2.5	79.8	16.9
Rift Valley	4.3	62.3	32.9	6.1	70.3	23.0
Western	1.2	92.8	5.6	2.0	92.8	4.7

In North Eastern province, the common form of disposal was not even the pit latrine used by most Kenyans; it was the bush/bucket. However, a lower proportion (76%) of households headed by women than male-headed households (83%) were using the bucket/bush. Note that the use of bucket/bush was almost non-existent in Central province by both female-headed and male-headed households, where over 90% of the households were using pit latrines.

The extent of gender disparities across the provinces for the most advanced and the poorest form of waste disposal (that is, the main sewer and the bucket or bush) in Kenya is presented in Table 2.17.

The results show that the disparities were highest in Nairobi (about 9 percentage points) for the main sewer (advanced), in favour of households headed by women. The latter have a higher proportion of households using the main sewer than those headed by men.The gaps for main sewer are lowest in Rift Valley (about -2 percentage points) but in favour of households headed by men. As regards use of the bush, the widest inequality was in Rift Valley (about 10 percentage points), to the disadvantage of households headed by women. In other words, a larger proportion of households headed by women than those headed by men used the bush. The gaps for the latter were lowest in North Eastern province where in addition to the bush being the most common form, the low gaps were in favour of those headed by men.

Table 2.17: Gender Disparities in the Use of Main Sewer/Tank and Bucket/Bush by Province

Province	Sewer/Tank			Bucket/Bush		
	Percentage Female-headed	Percentage Male-headed	Gender Gap (F-M)	Percentage Female-headed	Percentage Male-headed	Gender Gap (F-M)
KENYA	7.4	10.8	-3.4	19.4	15.0	4.4
Nairobi	59.1	50.3	8.8	1.2	1.8	-0.6
Central	5.6	6.7	-1.1	0.5	0.7	-0.2
Coast	9.4	10.5	-1.1	32.0	29.2	2.8
Eastern	2.0	3.0	-1.0	17.4	13.7	3.7
North Eastern	1.1	0.9	0.2	76.1	83.1	-7.0
Nyanza	1.3	2.5	-1.2	21.2	16.9	4.3
Rift Valley	4.3	6.1	-1.8	32.9	23.6	9.9
Western	1.2	2.0	-0.8	5.6	4.7	0.9

2.6 Housing Quality

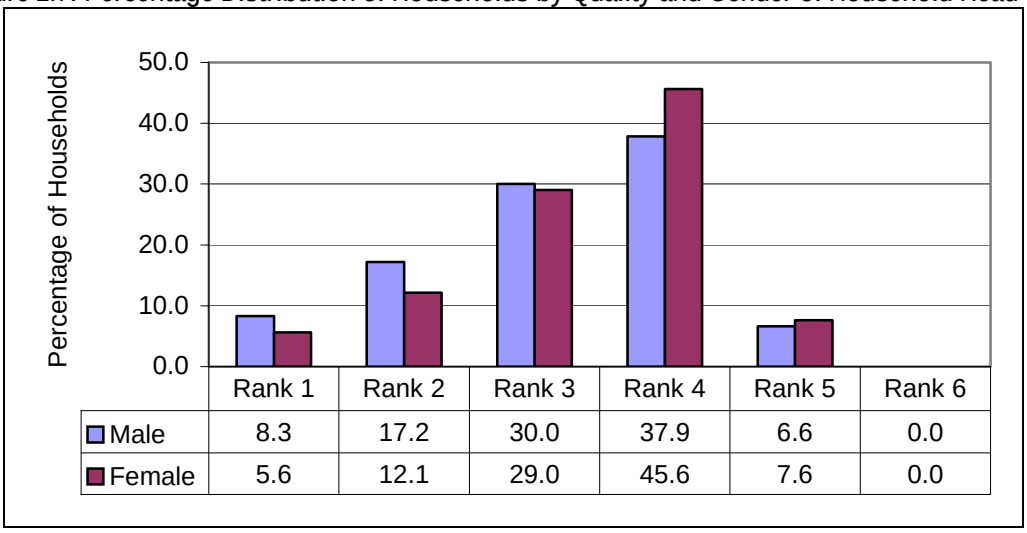
Housing quality is considered by analysing the quality of construction materials and the availability (or absence) and quality of household services/amenities. Questions asked in the census questionnaire sought information on types of roof, wall and floor of the main dwelling unit of the household in addition to the social amenities like water, source of lighting and cooking fuel. For the purpose of assessing household quality, a high-ranking quality house would be one with the following characteristics:

- Floor finish made of cement or tiles
- Wall made of stone, brick or blocks
- Roof made of tiles, concrete
- Served by piped water or has tanks
- Disposal of waste by sewer, septic tank or cess pool

- Electricity or solar power for lighting
- Electricity, gas or solar power for cooking.

The coding for the various characteristics in the census questionnaire is given in Appendix 3. The results of the quality ranking are shown in Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7: Percentage Distribution of Households by Quality and Gender of Household Head



From the results, very few households in Kenya were of high quality (rank 1 and rank 2). In addition, more of the households headed by men were likely to be in the high quality category. For example, about 6% of households headed by women belonged to rank 1 compared to about, 8% of households headed by men. However, as quality deteriorates (from rank 4 onwards) the proportions of households headed by women were higher than those headed by men.

Across the regions, proportions of households headed by women that were high ranking (example rank 1) were lower than those of households headed by men except in Nairobi where a larger proportion of the households headed by women (about 48%) were of high quality. The number of households that were of low quality (rank 6) were negligible (Table 2.18).

Table 2.18 Gender Disparities in Quality of Households by Province

Region/ Province	Rank 1		Rank 2		Rank 3		Rank4		Rank 5		Rank 6	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
KENYA	8.3	5.6	17.2	12.1	30.0	29.0	37.9	45.6	6.6	7.6	0.0	0.0
Nairobi	40.2	48.4	33.5	30.1	25.7	20.7	0.6	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Central	5.9	4.7	18.6	15.5	42.1	40.7	33.0	39.0	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0
Coast	10.2	7.5	29.0	22.5	21.5	21.5	25.8	32.3	12.7	16.3	0.0	0.0
Eastern	2.3	1.4	13.0	10.4	44.2	44.3	37.5	40.0	3.0	3.8	0.0	0.0
North- Eastern	1.1	0.7	7.0	7.9	8.8	11.5	25.7	29.3	57.5	50.6	0.0	0.0
Nyanza	2.0	1.0	10.0	5.8	25.5	21.9	55.6	62.7	7.0	8.7	0.0	0.0
Rift Valley	3.8	2.7	15.3	11.5	27.8	25.5	42.6	46.6	10.6	13.6	0.0	0.0
Western	1.2	0.6	7.5	5.8	22.5	23.0	67.8	69.6	0.9	1.0	0.0	0.0

In general, the results suggest that a higher proportion of male-headed households than female headed, with exception of Nairobi province, were living in higher quality housing. The reasons lie in

the socio economic status of the female population. The majority could not afford all the services that go along with good quality housing.

Chapter 3

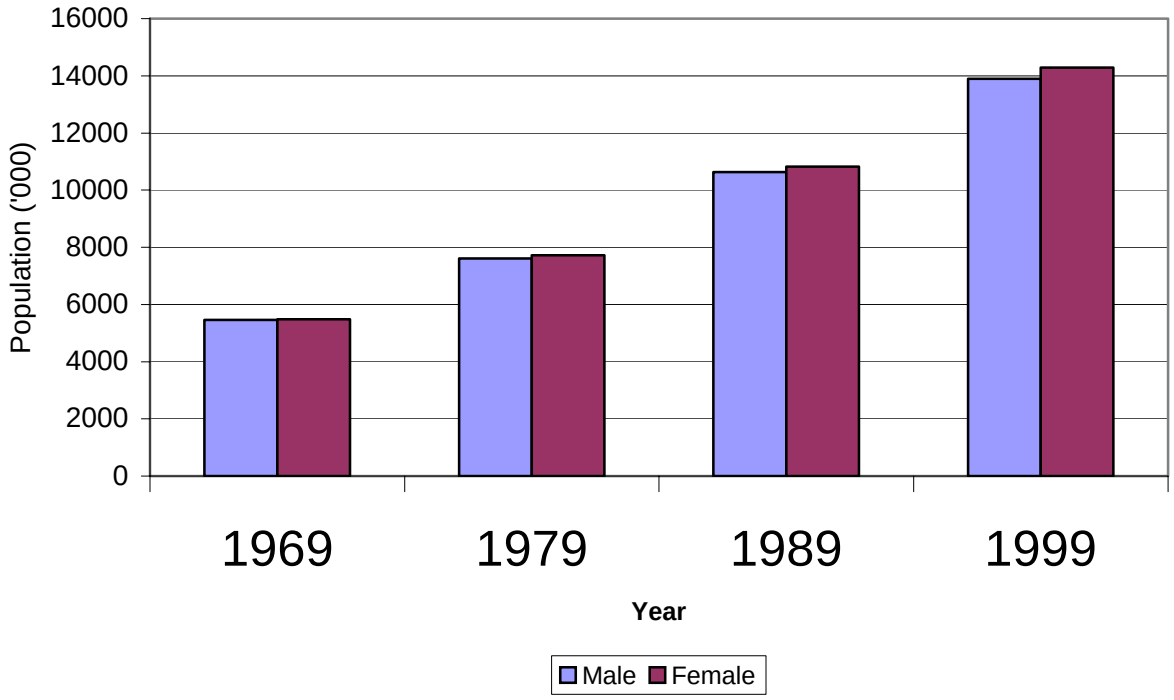
A Gender Perspective of Demographic Characteristics

3.1 Population Dynamics

3.1.1 A Historical Perspective

Figure 3.1 shows the sex composition of the population enumerated in the 1989 and 1999 censuses. The figures indicate that in the 10 years the population grew tremendously, female population always slightly more than the males. In most countries of the world, females live longer than males; the net effect is therefore a higher number of females than males.

Figure 3.1: Population Distributions by Gender, 1969-1999



Source: 1969, 1979, 1989 and 1999 Population and Housing Censuses

3.1.2 The Age-Sex Distribution

The age-sex distribution is important for evaluating potential gender issues. For example, the number of women and men in a country helps in determining the extent of equal access to social facilities such as health and education. It also helps to determine whether population is young or old and presence or absence of sex biases at various ages. Analysis of the total population showed that females constituted over 50% of the total population across the various age groups in both the 1989 and 1999 censuses, except for a slight decrease in age group 0-14 years (Figures 3.2 and 3.3).

Figure 3.2: Population by Age and Gender, 1999

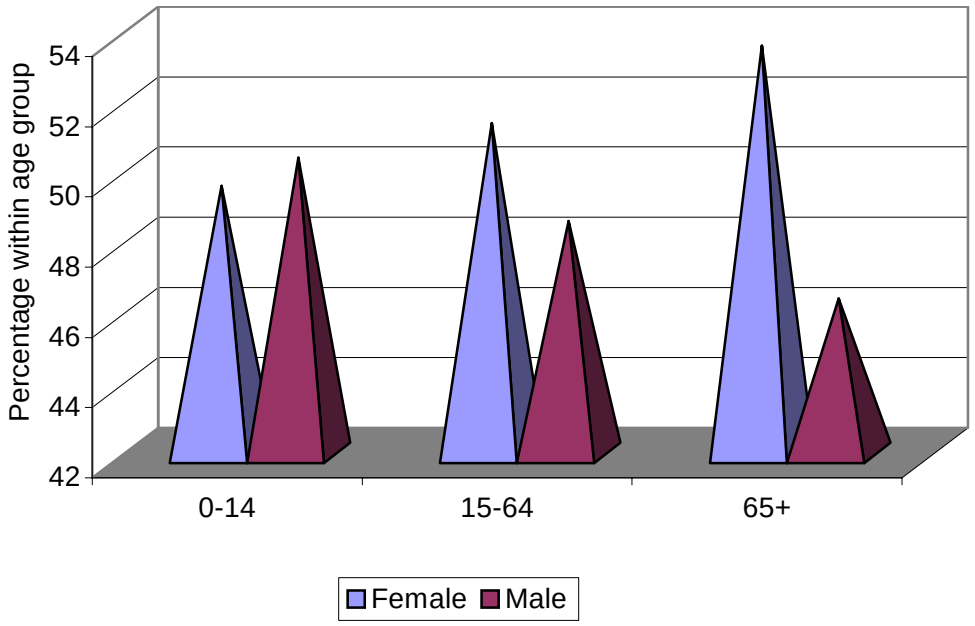
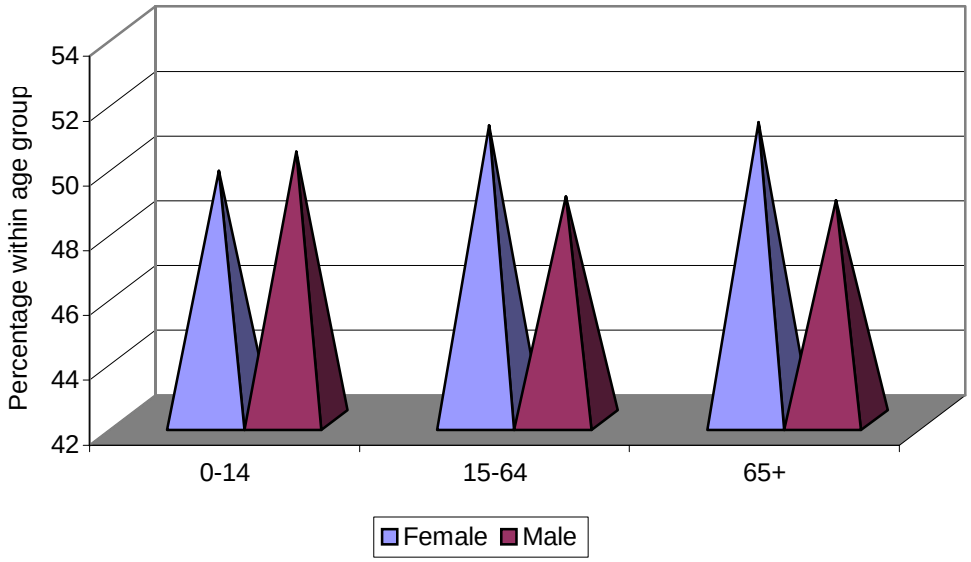


Figure 3.3: Population by Age and Gender, 1989



Slightly more males than females were in this age group. This tallies with the general trend of excess males at young ages and excess females at older ages. In most countries, males outnumber females at birth, most likely due to a biological adaptation to partially compensate for higher male death rates (U.S Bureau of the Census, 2000).

3.1.3 Sex Ratios by Age

The theoretical situation is that in most countries males are expected to out-number females at birth so that a typical sex ratio at birth is normally around 103-105. Analysis of sex ratios gives an indication of presence or absence of sex bias in the treatment of children and adults in the society that could result in either sex-selective mortality or better health for one of the sexes at the expense of the other. However, some cultures have preference for male children, hence selective female infanticide is practiced. Countries with such cultures therefore have sex ratios at young ages heavily skewed in favour of males.

There were about 102 males for every 100 females among children aged 0-14 years at the time of the 1999 census. An increase in the number of females compared to the males was observed in the older age groups. The number of females was equal to that of males at age group 50-54. The lowest sex ratio was in the population aged 80 years and above, where there were 78 males for every 100 females (Table 3.1), implying that at birth and early stages of life, males had better chances of survival than females, but with advancing age, females survived better. Other notable age groups with low sex ratios are 20-24, 65-69 and 70-74, all with a sex ratio of 87 males for every 100 females.

Table 3.1: Gender Distribution and Sex Ratios by Age, 1999

Age	Percentage		Sex Ratios*
	Male	Female	
<1	50.29	49.71	101
1-4	50.41	49.59	101
5-9	50.46	49.54	102
10-14	50.42	49.58	102
15-19	49.32	50.68	97
20-24	46.58	53.42	87
25-29	48.09	51.91	93
30-34	49.51	50.49	98
35-39	48.64	51.39	95
40-44	49.64	50.36	99
45-49	49.74	50.26	99
50-54	50.00	50.00	100
55-59	48.32	51.68	94
60-64	47.22	52.78	89
65-69	46.56	53.44	87
70-74	46.41	53.59	87
75-79	48.99	51.01	96
80+	43.90	56.10	78
NS	46.98	53.02	89
TOTAL	49.3	50.70	97

*Male Population /Female Population X 100

Within the provinces, the sex ratios varied from 91 in Nyanza to 115 in Nairobi (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Gender Distribution and Sex Ratios by Province/District, 1999

Province/	Percentage			Province/	Percentage		
District	Male	Female	Sex ratios	District	Male	Female	Sex ratios
KENYA	49.3	50.7	97	Kisii Central	47.5	52.5	90
NAIROBI	53.5	46.5	115	Kisumu	48.9	51.1	90
CENTRAL	49.0	51.0	96	Kuria	48.4	51.3	94
Kiambu	49.5	50.5	98	Migori	47.8	52.2	92
Kirinyaga	49.4	50.6	97	Nyamira(N.Kisii)	48.1	51.9	93
Murang'a	47.3	52.7	90	Rachuonyo	47.3	52.7	90
Nyeri	48.5	51.5	94	Siaya	45.9	54.1	85
Thika	50.0	50.0	100	Suba	48.2	51.8	93
Maragua	48.2	51.8	93	Bondo	48.2	51.8	93
COAST	50.0	50.0	100	Nyando	48.8	51.2	95
Kilifi	47.3	52.8	90	RIFT VALLEY	49.9	50.1	99
Kwale	48.4	51.6	94	Baringo	49.0	51.0	96
Lamu	51.3	48.7	105	Bomet	48.5	51.5	94
Mombasa	54.0	47.0	117	Keiyo	49.3	50.7	97
Taita Taveta	49.7	50.3	99	Kajiado	50.5	49.5	102
Tana River	49.8	50.2	99	Kericho	50.6	49.4	102
Malindi	49.2	50.6	97	Koibatek	50.1	49.9	100
EASTERN	48.4	51.6	94	Laikipia	49.8	50.2	99
Embu	48.9	51.1	96	Marakwet	49.2	50.8	97
Isiolo	50.3	49.7	101	Nakuru	50.3	49.7	101
Kitui	47.0	53.0	89	Nandi	50.1	49.9	100
Makueni	48.2	51.8	93	Narok	50.2	49.9	101
Machakos	48.7	51.3	95	Samburu	48.2	51.8	93
Marsabit	49.9	50.0	100	Trans Mara	49.1	50.9	96
Mbeere	47.8	52.2	92	Trans Nzoia	49.6	50.4	99
Meru Central	49.6	50.4	98	Turkana	48.3	51.7	94
Moyale	49.4	50.6	98	Uasin Gishu	50.5	49.5	102
Mwingi	46.5	53.5	87	West Pokot	49.0	50.9	96
Meru North	48.5	51.5	94	Buret	51.3	48.7	105
Tharaka	47.7	52.3	91	WESTERN	47.8	52.2	92
Nithi (Meru S.)	48.8	51.2	95	Bungoma	48.4	51.6	94
N.EASTERN	52.8	47.2	112	Busia	47.0	53.0	89
Garissa	52.6	47.4	111	Mt. Elgon	49.5	50.5	98
Mandera	52.1	47.9	109	Kakamega	47.9	52.1	92
Wajir	53.5	46.5	115	Lugari	48.7	51.3	95
NYANZA	47.7	52.3	91	Teso	48.3	51.7	93
Gucha (Kisii S.)	47.9	52.1	92	Vihiga	46.6	53.4	87
Homa Bay	47.3	52.7	90	Butere/Mumias	47.6	52.4	91

The district with the lowest sex ratio was Siaya where there were 85 men for every l00 women, while the district with the highest sex ratio was Wajir with 115 women for every 100 men. It is worth noting here that North Eastern province generally showed very high sex ratios in comparison with other provinces. The imbalances observed can be attributed to internal migration mainly of the males to the urban centres, a fact that was proved for instance by the excess of males in Nairobi province, with a high sex ratio. The results of the 1999 census appeared to be consistent with 1989 census results which showed Nairobi as having the highest sex ratio of 132 males for 100 females and Siaya with the lowest of 85 males for every 100 females. Districts in North Eastern province also showed high sex ratios in 1989 (Mandera 108, Wajir 108 and Garissa (109). The reasons for

such high sex ratios for a province that is not an in-migration area and which does not have large urban centres are still not clearly understood. However, it is postulated that instability in Ethiopia and Somalia has caused some influx of males into the province.

3.2 Marital Characteristics and Gender

3.1.1 Marital Status

Marital status directly or indirectly affects many aspects of economic and social well being of both women and men. For example, it affects fertility and contraceptive use. In many countries single hood among women, whether never married, widowed or separated, has in the past been associated with low standards of living. These days, women and men are increasingly remaining single in pursuit of education and career goals; hence the issue of lower standards of living does not apply uniformly to all single persons.

Table 3.3 shows the percentage distribution of the total population by gender, marital status and region of residence. About 44% of men aged 15 years and above were single as compared to about 39 % of women at the time of the census.

The proportion single among females remained almost the same since the 1989 census but that of the males fell from 51% in 1989 to 44% in 1999. There was an insignificant difference between the proportions of women married (54%) and the proportions of men that were married at the time of the 1999 census (53%), hence a state of near-gender equality in terms of marriage. Although the figures for the widowed were quite small, there was a significant difference between the proportions of men (0.82) and the proportions of women (over 5%) who were widowed. Only about 2% and almost 3% of the men and women, respectively were divorced or separated. The results indicate that marriage in Kenya is still universal, although slightly more men than women are likely to remain single. At the same time, very few of the men remained widowed as compared to the women. Analysis of single population by rural-urban residence showed the rural population depicting similar features as the national population. A higher proportion of men (45%) than women (37%) remained single. However, in the urban areas the picture changed such that slightly more women (44%) remained single. In general, more of the men (57%) in the urban areas were married. A higher proportion of rural women (54%) than men (53%) were married. The results imply that rural women have a higher probability of getting married than urban ones. The pattern for the widowed and divorced/separated still followed the national trend, fewer men reporting themselves as widowed or divorced/separated than women.

Within the provinces, analysis showed that generally larger proportions of men were likely to remain single: about 43% compared to 34% of women in Coast, and 45% of men compared to 42% of women in Central. The only exception was Nairobi where 46% of women were single compared to 41% of men. Of those married in Nairobi, there was a higher percentage of men (58%) than women (48%). For most of the districts in Central province, the proportions of married women were slightly lower than those of the men; Kiambu (48%) in the proximity of Nairobi is a good example.

Table 3.3: Marital Status of Population Aged 12 and Above by Gender and Province of Residence, 1999

Province/District	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced/ Separated	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
KENYA	43.7	38.5	53.8	53.4	0.8	5.4	1.6	2.7
Rural	44.5	37.1	52.7	54.2	0.9	6.0	1.9	2.5
Urban	41.3	43.8	57.3	49.9	0.5	2.9	1.0	3.4
NAIROBI	41.0	46.4	57.8	48.5	0.4	2.2	0.8	2.9
CENTRAL	45.4	41.8	52.0	46.6	0.9	5.5	1.7	3.0
Kiambu	44.0	42.9	53.7	48.5	0.7	5.2	1.6	3.5
Kirinyaga	44.6	39.9	52.5	51.3	0.7	5.1	1.1	3.7
Murang'a	47.7	41.1	49.2	49.7	1.3	7.4	1.8	1.8
Nyeri	46.0	41.1	51.7	50.6	0.7	4.6	1.6	2.8
Thika	43.6	42.9	54.0	48.9	0.8	5.0	1.6	2.2
Maragua	47.0	40.0	49.8	50.9	1.2	6.5	2.0	2.6
COAST	42.6	34.4	54.5	55.3	0.9	5.7	2.1	4.6
Kilifi	43.4	40.2	53.9	57.1	0.9	6.9	1.8	3.7
Kwale	40.1	30.6	55.6	56.7	1.0	6.3	3.2	6.5
Lamu	41.4	35.2	52.9	51.2	1.4	5.8	4.3	7.7
Mombasa	42.8	38.9	55.3	52.9	0.6	3.7	1.4	4.5
Taita Taveta	48.1	41.1	48.1	48.9	1.3	6.3	2.4	3.7
Tana River	40.4	29.5	57.0	61.0	1.0	6.0	1.6	3.5
Malindi	41.3	31.2	55.8	58.3	0.8	6.0	2.2	4.4
EASTERN	46.2	40.3	50.7	51.6	0.9	5.1	2.3	3.0
Embu	48.9	44.7	50.4	46.7	0.8	5.0	2.0	3.6
Isiolo	44.6	35.0	52.7	55.0	0.8	6.4	1.9	3.6
Kitui	45.1	37.6	50.7	53.3	1.2	6.2	3.0	3.0
Makueni	48.7	40.9	48.1	51.5	1.0	5.2	2.2	2.4
Machakos	48.6	41.4	48.4	51.7	0.8	4.4	2.2	2.4
Marsabit	48.0	29.2	50.6	60.8	0.5	7.8	0.8	2.2
Mbeere	45.4	40.6	51.6	51.4	0.8	4.7	2.2	3.4
Meru Central	46.5	42.5	50.3	48.7	0.9	5.0	2.4	3.8
Moyale	46.9	33.9	50.4	53.2	0.7	8.5	2.0	4.3
Mwingi	44.7	39.1	51.2	51.8	1.1	5.7	3.0	3.4
Meru North	41.6	39.4	55.8	53.2	0.8	4.2	1.7	3.2
Tharaka	43.0	40.8	54.2	51.0	0.9	4.4	1.8	3.7
Nithi (Meru S.)	43.4	40.6	52.5	50.5	1.1	5.3	3.0	3.6
N.EASTERN	46.1	35.9	51.4	54.9	1.2	5.6	1.3	3.7
Garissa	47.5	37.6	49.8	53.5	1.3	5.5	1.4	3.4
Mandera	45.4	34.3	52.5	56.1	0.9	5.5	1.2	4.2

Table 3.3 Continued

Province/District	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced/ Separated	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Wajir	45.5	35.6	51.9	55.1	1.3	5.7	1.3	3.6
NYANZA	41.8	34.0	55.6	56.5	1.1	8.3	1.5	1.4
Gucha	44.1	40.9	54.3	53.3	0.6	4.4	1.1	1.4
Homa Bay	38.6	26.5	58.7	63.5	1.3	9.3	1.5	0.7
Kisii	43.8	41.1	54.2	51.9	0.8	5.8	1.1	1.3
Kisumu	41.7	35.5	55.8	54.6	1.1	8.5	1.4	1.4
Kuria	41.2	31.6	57.0	60.4	0.6	6.1	1.2	1.9
Migori	38.2	27.5	59.6	65.2	0.9	6.4	1.3	0.9
Nyamira(N.Kisii	44.1	42.5	54.5	52.0	0.6	4.3	0.8	1.2
Rachuonyo	42.4	30.5	54.7	58.6	1.3	10.0	1.6	2.7
Siaya	41.4	29.8	53.5	54.2	2.4	14.5	2.7	1.4
Suba	40.7	27.3	57.0	63.2	0.9	8.5	1.4	0.9
Bondo	41.5	30.4	54.9	57.6	1.6	10.8	2.0	1.2
Nyando	41.8	31.4	54.8	56.8	1.4	10.6	2.0	1.2
RIFT VALLEY	44.5	39.1	53.7	54.6	0.6	3.9	1.3	2.4
Baringo	47.6	39.3	50.2	54.1	0.8	4.5	1.4	2.2
Bomet	46.1	39.8	52.8	56.4	0.3	2.3	0.8	1.5
Keiyo	45.7	43.5	51.5	49.5	1.9	4.3	2.0	2.6
Kajiado	44.3	34.4	54.0	59.1	0.4	3.9	1.2	2.6
Kericho	43.1	40.4	55.3	53.9	0.5	3.8	1.1	1.8
Koibatek	48.1	43.9	49.5	49.6	0.9	4.2	1.6	2.3
Laikipia	44.7	40.5	53.2	52.8	0.6	3.7	1.5	3.0
Marakwet	41.9	37.5	55.7	56.1	0.7	3.6	1.6	2.8
Nakuru	43.1	41.1	55.1	52.0	0.6	3.8	1.3	3.1
Nandi	45.5	42.8	52.1	50.4	0.8	4.7	1.7	2.1
Narok	43.0	28.5	55.3	64.5	0.4	4.7	1.3	2.3
Samburu	50.4	32.1	48.7	59.6	0.4	6.7	0.5	1.7
Trans Mara	41.3	32.4	57.4	62.6	0.3	3.1	1.0	2.0
Trans Nzoia	42.8	37.8	54.9	55.4	0.6	3.9	1.8	1.9
Turkana	52.7	39.7	45.9	52.6	0.5	5.1	1.0	2.7
Uasin Gishu	45.1	43.4	53.4	51.6	0.5	2.9	1.0	2.1
West Pokot	41.3	30.6	56.9	64.0	0.6	3.5	1.2	1.8
Buret	41.6	41.0	57.4	53.9	0.3	3.3	0.7	1.8
WESTERN	41.4	35.2	55.2	55.8	1.1	6.5	2.3	2.5
Bungoma	42.6	36.5	55.3	56.2	0.5	4.6	1.7	2.7
Busia	38.6	30.0	57.2	58.2	1.4	9.5	2.8	2.4
Mt. Elgon	43.4	37.0	53.9	55.4	0.5	4.2	2.2	3.2
Kakamega	42.1	36.4	54.5	54.8	1.0	6.2	2.4	2.6
Lugari	43.9	38.5	53.7	54.5	0.7	4.2	1.7	1.7
Teso	37.9	32.2	58.6	58.9	1.3	6.3	2.2	2.6
Vihiga	44.1	38.3	50.6	50.9	2.1	8.4	3.2	2.4
Butere/Mumias	37.2	31.1	59.4	1.1	7.5	2.6	2.6	2.0

Analysis of marital status of the population by age showed that early marriage among women was uncommon as 98% of women aged 12-14 were single. The percentage single among women fell to about 9% by age 39. Nevertheless, while only 38% of the women were single by age 24, about 77% of the men were single at the same age, a gender gap of 53 percentage points. This may explain why enrolment in higher levels of education such as universities is generally lower for

women than for men. A large proportion of females is already married at the time they should be pursuing higher education. Beyond age 35, the percentage single for both men and women was quite low and almost equal, for example in the age group 35-39, only 90/0 of men and 8% of women were single (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Percentage Distribution of Marital Status by Gender and Age Group, 1999

Age	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced/Separated	
Group	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
12-14	100	98.6	-	1.3	-	0.1	-	0.1
15-19	97.1	81.3	2.7	18.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6
20-24	77.1	38.2	22.1	58.8	0.1	0.7	0.6	2.4
25-29	39.6	18.8	58.7	75.7	0.2	1.7	1.5	3.1
30-34	16.5	11.4	80.7	80.4	0.5	3.3	2.4	4.8
35-39	8.7	8.1	87.9	82.0	0.6	5.0	2.8	4.9
40-44	5.7	5.9	90.4	81.7	0.9	7.8	3.0	4.6
45-49	4.8	4.8	90.8	80.7	1.2	10.2	3.1	4.3
50-54	4.3	4.1	91.1	77.3	1.7	14.6	2.9	4.0
55-59	4.2	3.6	90.6	74.3	2.2	18.7	3.1	3.4
60-64	4.5	3.9	89.7	68.2	2.9	24.8	2.9	3.1
65+	6.6	6.0	85.5	56.5	5.4	35.2	2.5	2.3
Total	43.7	38.5	53.8	53.4	0.8	5.4	1.6	2.7

3.2.2 Age at Marriage

Age at marriage is important because it affects educational attainment and labour force participation. Analysis of the singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) shows that on average, women in Kenya get married at an earlier age than men (Table 3.5). The SMAM for men was therefore about 26 years compared to 22 years for women. A similar pattern appears among both rural and urban populations as well as in all provinces and districts. North Eastern province had the lowest SMAM for women (about 20 years) while Central had the highest (about 24 years).

Table 3.5: Singulate Mean Age at Marriage by Gender and Province/District

Province/ District	SMAM		Gender Gap in Years	Province/ District	SMAM		Gender Gap In Years
	Men	Women			Men	Women	
KENYA	26.5	22.3	4.2	Kisii Central	25.6	22.5	3.1
Urban	26.4	21.8	4.6	Kisumu	25.7	21.3	4.4
Rural	26.4	22.8	3.6	Kuria	24.1	19.6	4.5
NAIROBI	26.8	23.5	3.3	Migori	24.2	18.9	5.3
CENTRAL	27.5	23.7	3.8	Nyamira(N.Kisii)	25.8	22.7	3.1
Kiambu	27.3	23.6	3.7	Rachuonyo	25.9	20.0	5.9
Kirinyaga	27.0	23.8	3.2	Siaya	26.3	20.9	5.4
Muranga	28.7	24.2	4.5	Suba	24.6	19.0	5.6
Nyandarua	27.1	23.1	4.0	Bondo	25.4	20.4	5.0
Nyeri	28.3	24.3	4.0	Nyando	25.7	20.4	5.3
Thika	26.9	23.5	3.4	RIFT VALLEY	26.3	22.1	4.2
Maragua	28.2	23.6	4.6	Baringo	26.8	22.1	4.7
COAST	26.7	21.3	5.4	Bomet	26.2	22.0	4.2
Kilifi	26.6	20.9	5.7	Keiyo	26.1	23.2	2.9
Kwale	25.9	20.1	5.8	Kajiado	26.6	20.9	5.7
Lamu	26.7	21.6	5.1	Kericho	26.1	22.4	3.7
Mombasa	26.9	22.3	4.6	Koibatek	26.7	23.6	3.1
Taita Taveta	28.5	23.4	5.1	Laikipia	27.0	22.5	4.5
Tana River	25.7	19.3	6.4	Marakwet	25.2	21.8	3.4
Malindi	26.1	20.6	5.5	Nakuru	26.3	22.5	3.8
EASTERN	27.2	23.1	4.1	Nandi	26.5	23.1	3.4
Embu	28.0	24.9	3.1	Narok	25.6	19.1	6.5
Isiolo	27.5	21.2	6.3	Samburu	28.7	20.5	8.2
Kitui	26.0	22.2	3.8	Trans Mara	24.8	19.7	5.1
Makueni	27.5	23.2	4.3	Trans Nzoia	25.7	21.6	4.1
Machakos	27.5	23.4	4.1	Turkana	28.6	22.9	5.7
Marsabit	29.0	20.5	8.5	Uasin Gishu	26.5	23.4	3.1
Mbeere	26.8	23.2	3.6	West Pokot	24.8	19.8	5.0
Meru Central	28.0	24.6	3.4	Buret	25.9	22.3	3.6
Moyale	27.3	20.1	7.2	WESTERN	25.3	21.2	4.1
Mwingi	26.3	22.3	4.0	Bungoma	25.4	21.2	4.2
Meru North	25.7	22.0	3.7	Busia	24.3	20.1	4.2
Tharaka	25.7	23.1	2.6	Mt. Elgon	24.8	21.0	3.8
Nithi (Meru S.)	27.9	24.0	3.9	Kakamega	25.5	21.5	4.0
NORTH EASTERN	26.5	20.5	6.0	Lugari	25.6	21.8	3.8
Garissa	26.9	20.8	6.1	Teso	24.2	20.3	3.9
Mandera	26.3	20.1	6.2	Vihiga	27.2	22.7	4.5
Wajir	26.3	20.4	5.9	Butere/Mumias	24.3	20.3	4.0
NYANZA	25.4	20.9	4.5				
Gucha (S. Kisii)	25.4	22.2	3.2				
Homa Bay	24.6	18.9	5.7				

The two provinces have very different geographical and socio-cultural characteristics. Central province is within Kenya's high potential agricultural area. North Eastern province falls in the low potential belt, settled mainly by nomadic pastoralists whose cultural practices such as female genital cutting (FGC) and early marriages may be more prevalent than in Central province. District

values for women ranged from about 19 years in Migori, Homa Bay, Tana River, Narok and Suba, to around 25 years in Embu.

Table 3.6 shows the trends for the country in SMAM since 1962.The trends show that the age at marriage has only gone up by 2 years. The gender gap has narrowed by 1 year only, having remained constant at 4 years in the last 10 years. The increase in age at marriage for the women over the years is a positive development that implies more years in school and a reduction in the proportion of early marriages.

Further analysis of the gender disparities in SMAM was done using gender gaps, that is, the gap between the SMAM for women and the SMAM for men. The results showed that the size of the gap in years between SMAM for women and men varied from one province to another and from one district to another. The gap was as low as about 3 years in Tharaka district in Eastern province, and as high as 8 years in Samburu district in Rift Valley. A low gender gap means that the difference between SMAM for men and for women is quite small, with the women getting married earlier; a large gap indicates a large difference, that is, women getting married at lower ages than men.

Table 3.6: Trends in Singulate Mean Age at Marriage by Gender, 1962-99

Year	SMAM		Gender Gap
	Females	Males	
1962	19	24	5
1969	19	25	6
1979	20	25	5
1989	22	26	4
1999	22	26	4

Source: CBS, Analytical Report Volume IV, 1996

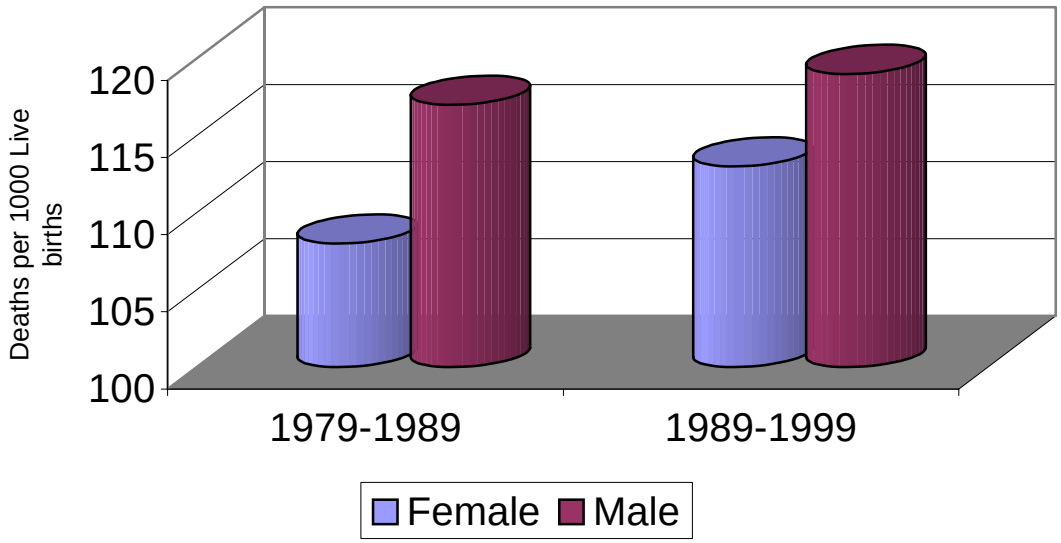
3.3 Mortality

For men and women to participate fully and contribute to their own progress, that of their families and to the development of their countries, it is important that they remain healthy. Health indicators that can be used to evaluate the health status of men and women in a country include morbidity rates, mortality rates and unhealthy behaviour rates, among others (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000). However, the only information on health available from the census was on mortality. This section analyses the gender aspects of mortality; it discusses measures of mortality, which include infant and child mortality, adult mortality and life expectancy as indicators of health/health conditions of men and women. Only under-5 mortality and life expectancy are included in the analysis because of problems relating to available data on infant mortality.

3.3.1 Disparities in Child Mortality

The indicator used for child mortality is under-5 mortality or Q(5) which is defined as the number of deaths of children between birth and age 5 per 1,000 live births in a given year. Figure 3.4 shows under-5 mortality rates for male and female children in Kenya in two inter-censal periods, 1979-89 and 1989-99. The results indicate that for both periods, the under-5 mortality rates of male children were significantly higher than those of female children. The rate for males in the 1979-89 period was 117 deaths per 1,000 live births compared to 108 deaths per 1,000 live births for females, while the combined rate (average) was 113 per 1,000. By 1989-99, there was a slight increase in both male and female rates; the male rate stood at 119, the female rate was 113 deaths per 1,000 live births and the combined rate was 116 deaths per 1000 live births.

Figure 3.4: Under-5 Mortality Rates, Estimates for 1979-1989 and 1989-1999 Periods



In terms of the life advantage of the female child over the male child, the female in the 1989-99 period had an advantage over the male (by nine deaths less per 1,000 live births (see Table 3.7). This advantage narrowed to six deaths less in the 1989-99 period, implying that disparities in mortality rates could be reducing with time and that mortality rates for males and females would most likely be equal in future.

Table 3.7: Female Advantage in Under-5 Mortality, 1979-1989 and 1989-99

Period	Under-five rates in deaths per 1000 live births		Female advantage (No. of deaths)
	Female	Male	
1979-1989	108	117	-9
1989-1999	113	119	-6

Under-5 mortality varied from one province to another and from district to district in any province (Table 3.8). Nyanza province had the highest rate (192 per 1,000) and Central province the lowest (66 deaths per 1,000 live births).

Table 3.8: Under-5 Mortality Rates for Children by Province/District, 1989-99

Province/District	Under-5 rates (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Total	Female advantage (No. of deaths)
	Female	Male		
KENYA	113	119	116	-6
NAIROBI	90	95	93	-5
CENTRAL	64	68	66	-4
Kiambu	68	72	70	-4
Kirinyaga	71	76	74	-5
Muranga	54	58	56	-4
Nyandarua	62	66	64	-4
Nyeri	50	53	52	-3
Thika	80	85	82	-5
Maragua	59	63	61	-4
COAST	135	143	139	-8
Kilifi	142	150	145	-8
Kwale	157	166	162	-9
Lamu	122	130	126	-8
Mombasa	108	114	112	-6
Taita Taveta	106	112	109	-6
Tana River	151	160	155	-9
Malindi	141	149	145	-8
EASTERN	77	80	79	-3
Embu	67	71	69	-4
Isiolo	115	129	118	-14
Kitui	112	119	116	-7
Makueni	90	96	93	-6
Machakos	80	84	82	-4
Marsabit	77	82	80	-5
Mbeere	72	76	74	-4
Meru Central	77	81	80	-4
Moyale	121	129	125	-8
Mwingi	123	130	127	-7
Meru North	68	73	70	-5
Tharaka	154	163	159	-9
Nithi	111	118	114	-7
NORTH EASTERN	151	153	152	-2
Garissa	131	134	133	-3
Mandera	161	155	158	6
Wajir	155	163	158	-8

Table 3.8 continued

Province/District	Under-5 rates (deaths per 1,000 live births)		Total	Female advantage (No. of deaths)
	Female	Male		
NYANZA	187	198	192	-11
Gucha (S. Kisii	140	148	144	-8
Homa Bay	246	261	254	-15
Kisii Central	117	125	121	-8
Kisumu	213	226	220	-13
Kuria	131	139	134	-8
Migori	233	247	240	-14
North Kisii (Nyamira)	50	53	51	-3
Rachuonyo	195	207	201	-12
Siaya	227	241	234	-14
Suba	240	255	247	-15
Bondo	202	214	208	-12
Nyando	206	219	212	-13
RIFT VALLEY	83	88	86	5
Baringo	98	103	100	-5
Bomet	59	63	61	-4
Keiyo	55	59	57	-4
Kajiado	78	83	80	-5
Kericho	95	101	98	-6
Koibatek	70	71	70	-1
Laikipia	69	73	71	-4
Marakwet	65	69	67	-4
Nakuru	82	87	84	-5
Nandi	97	103	100	-6
Narok	82	86	84	-4
Samburu	89	95	92	-6
TransMara	100	106	103	-6
Trans Nzoia	94	100	97	-6
Turkana	114	121	117	-7
Uasin Gishu	83	88	86	-5
West Pokot	123	130	127	-7
Buret	65	69	67	-4
WESTERN	155	164	159	-9
Bungoma	141	149	145	-8
Busia	204	217	210	-13
Mt. Elgon	109	115	112	-6
Kakamega	164	174	169	-10
Lugari	101	107	104	-6
Teso	143	152	147	-9
Vihiga	129	136	133	-7
Butere/Mumias	198	207	204	-9

In all provinces and districts, there were disparities between female and male child mortality rates, with female mortality being lower than male mortality, except in Mandera where the reverse occurred. The extent of the disparities was measured by analysing the gaps between female and male deaths, referred to as female advantage. It denotes the number of deaths less than the male rate hence has a negative sign. The female advantage was highest in Suba(15), Siaya(15), Homa Bay (15) and Isiolo (14); and lowest in Nyeri (3), Garissa (3) and N. Kisii (3).

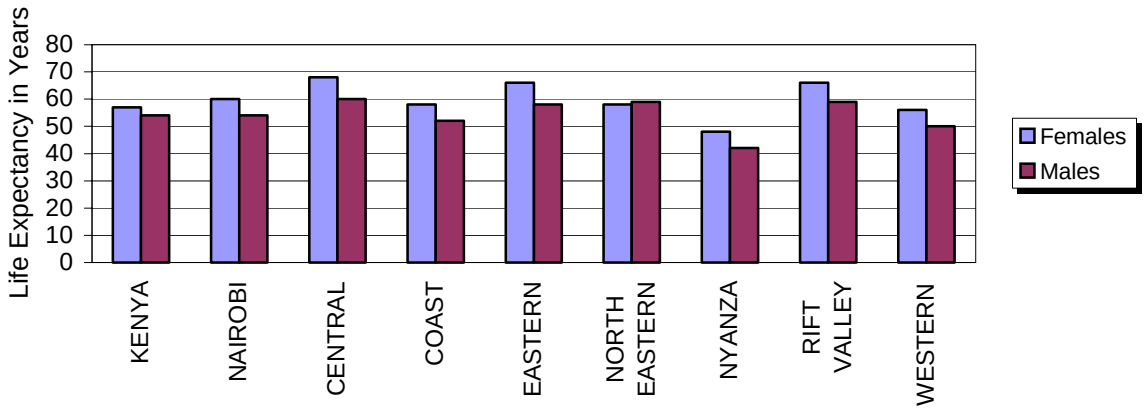
3.4 Gender Disparities in Life Expectancy at Birth

Life expectancy at birth refers to the average number of years one could be expected to live given the prevailing age specific mortality rates (ASMRs) for a specific year. In most countries, males have higher mortality rates than females, hence a higher female than male Life expectancy. If males in any country have a higher life expectancy than females at birth, it implies that the health situation of women is not a priority. An example of a country that has shown such results is Bangladesh. On the other hand, even where life expectancy of females is higher than that of males, if the female advantage is too high, then very high male mortality rates require investigation. An example of this is Russia where female advantage over male life expectancy was over 10 years in 1994 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2000).

3.4.1 Life Expectancy Differences at Province Level

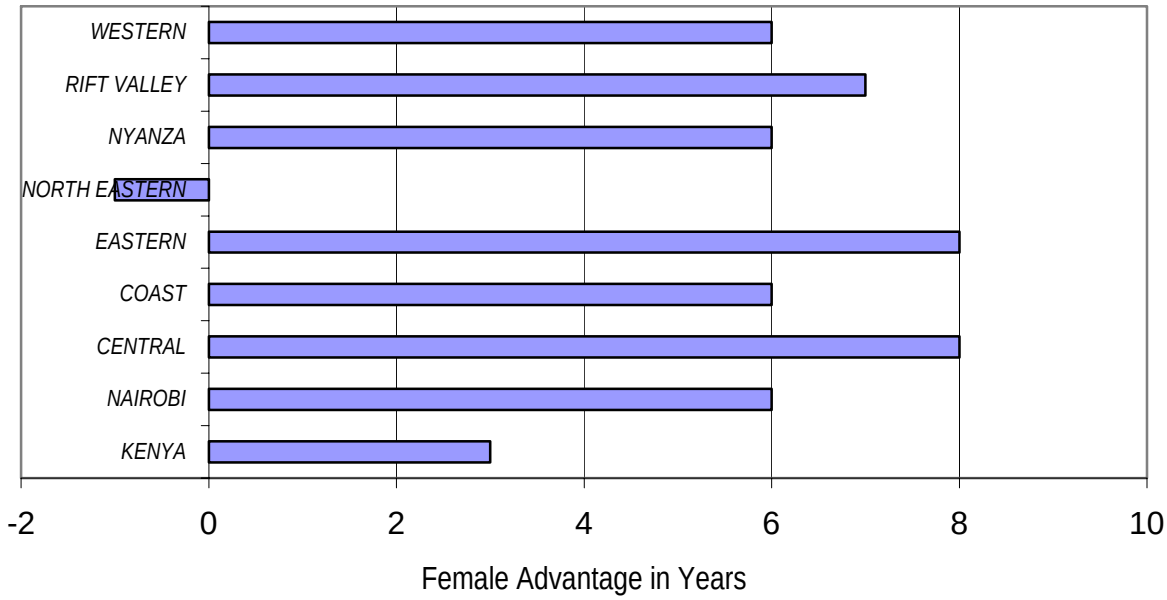
Figure 3.5 shows that life expectancy levels in Kenya conform to the expected model whereby females outlive males.

Figure 3.5: Life Expectancy for Males and Females by Province, 1999



On average, females in Kenya were expected to live about 3 years longer than males in 1999. The female advantage does not appear to have changed since the 1989 census though life expectancy was higher for both the male and female population (58 and 61 years, respectively). Variations, however, exist among the provinces, with females in Eastern and Central provinces on average expected to live longer than males by 8 years (Figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6: Female Advantage in Life expectancy By Province, Kenya, 1999



Females in Central Province had a life expectancy of 68 years, while their male counterparts had a life expectancy of 60 years.

The lowest female advantage was in North Eastern Province, where females, with a life expectancy of 58 years actually had a shorter lifespan than males by one year, hence were at a disadvantage. It will be recalled that North-Eastern Province had the lowest age at marriage for women (See Table 3.5).

3.4.3 Life Expectancy Disparities at District Level

Table 3.9 shows the life expectancies at birth for females and males as well as female advantage in years at district level.

Mandera and Wajir registered negative values for female advantage (-2 and -1, respectively), suggesting female disadvantage in comparison with the males. In Mandera, for instance, a female child would be expected to live for 59 years, as opposed to 61 years for a male child. In Garissa district, the females had no life advantage over males, as both had a life expectancy of 57 years, a surprising statistic.

Table 3.9: Life Expectancy at Birth and Female Advantage by Provincial/District, 1989-1999

Province/ district	Life Expectancy at Birth in years Females	Males	Female advantage (F-M) in Life Expectancy in terms of extra years
KENYA	57	54	3
NAIROBI	60	54	6
CENTRAL	68	60	8
Kiambu	60	54	6
Kirinyaga	68	59	9
Murang'a	68	59	9
Nyandarua	69	60	4
Nyeri	68	64	5
Thika	59	54	8
Maragua	68	60	8
COAST	58	52	6
Kilifi	56	50	6
Kwale	54	51	3
Lamu	56	53	3
Mombasa	54	53	1
Taita Taveta	61	54	7
Tana River	55	52	3
Malindi	56	51	5
EASTERN	66	58	8
Embu	72	61	11
Isiolo	61	54	7
Kitui	61	53	8
Makueni	60	53	7
Machakos	63	55	8
Marsabit	64	57	7
Mbeere	67	59	8
Meru Central	67	61	6
Moyale	57	56	1
Mwingi	65	56	9
Meru North	63	58	5
Tharaka	56	48	8
Nithi (Meru south)	67	59	8
NORTH EASTERN	58	59	1
Garissa	57	57	0
Mandera	59	61	2
Wajir	60	61	1
NYANZA	48	42	6
Gucha (Kisii South)	61	52	9
Homa Bay	41	36	5
Kisii Central	60	51	9
Kisumu	43	38	5
Kuria	53	50	5
Migori	43	38	5

Table 3.9 Continued

Province/ district	Life Expectancy at Birth in years Females	Males	Female advantage (F-M) in Life Expectancy in terms of extra years
Nyamira (Kisii N.)	67	59	8
Rachuonyo	44	39	5
Siaya	43	37	6
Suba	42	37	5
Bondo	44	38	6
Nyando	43	38	5
RIFT VALLEY	66	59	7
Baringo	66	58	8
Bomet	71	64	7
Keiyo	71	64	7
Kajiado	68	60	8
Kericho	62	55	8
Koibatek	69	63	6
Laikipia	70	60	10
Marakwet	69	63	6
Nakuru	58	53	5
Nandi	64	57	7
Narok	67	59	8
Samburu	64	58	6
Trans Mara	58	60	2
Trans Nzoia	63	57	6
Turkana	59	55	4
Uasin Gishu	64	58	6
West Pokot	61	55	6
Buret	63	58	5
WESTERN	56	50	6
Bungoma	62	54	8
Busia	46	41	5
Mt. Elgon	65	57	8
Kakamega	57	50	7
Lugari	64	57	7
Teso	52	49	3
Vihiga	59	53	6
Butere/Mumias	52	45	7

Chapter 4

Gender Dimension of Education

4.1 School Attendance Status and Gender

Three questions were included in the 1999 Population and Housing Census regarding educational characteristics; they pertained to attendance status, highest level reached and level completed. Analysis of the gender dimension of each is discussed below. School attendance was categorized according to those who are currently attending school, those who left school and those who never attended school.

4.1.1 School Attendance Status by Gender and Type of Residence

Table 4.1 shows the status of school attendance of the population aged 5 years and above by gender.

Table 4.1: Percentage Distribution of Population Aged 5 Years and Above by Attendance Status, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999

Type of Residence/School Attendance Status	Male	Female	Total
National			
Currently attending	36.5	32.7	34.2
Left school	47.1	42.7	44.9
Never attended	14.1	21.9	18.0
Not stated	2.8	2.6	2.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rural			
Currently attending	38.5	33.6	36.0
Left school	41.1	37.9	39.4
Never attended	17.5	25.9	21.9
Not stated	2.9	2.6	2.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban			
Currently attending	31.6	31.1	31.5
Left school	58.0	52.1	55.1
Never attended	7.8	14.3	10.9
Not stated	2.7	2.7	2.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

The national figures indicate that about 34% of the population was in school at the time of the census, about 45% had left school and 18% had never attended school.

When the data were analysed by rural-urban residence, the results showed that about 36% of the rural population was attending school compared to about 31% of the urban population. A larger difference existed between rural and urban populations for those who had left school as well as for those who had never attended school. Some 55% of the urban population had left school compared to 39% of the rural population. On the other hand, 22% of the population never attended school in rural areas compared to 11 % of the urban population.

Table 4. 1 also reveals gender differences in school attendance. According to the results, 36% of all the males aged 5 and above were attending school at the time of the census compared

to 34% of the females. Comparison of 1989 and 1999 figures indicates a drop in the percentage of males attending school from about 40% in 1989 to 36% in 1999, but there was very little change in the percentage of females attending school (35% in 1989). The corresponding proportions for those who had left school in 1999 were 47% and 43% for males and females, respectively. The proportions of both females and males who had left school seemed to have increased in 10 years. The percentage of females who had left school was 32%, that of males 40% in 1989 (RoK, 1996c).

More glaring gender differences were observed among the population who never attended school. Nevertheless, there was a great improvement for the female population whose percentage dropped from 30 in 1989 to 22% in 1999, while that of males dropped from 18% in 1989 to 14% in 1999. The gender gap had also narrowed during the 10 years.

The disparities were also significantly large when the data were analysed by urban-rural residence. While only about 8% of the male urban population had never gone to school, the percentage of female urban population that never went to school was slightly over 14%. This has serious implications for availability of skilled labour from the female population. Of the population that had left school, 58% of the males were urban compared to 52% females. Gender disparities were almost non-existent for those attending school in the urban areas, the proportions being almost the same for both males and females, implying very little imbalance in school attendance. Within the rural population, 39% of the male population was in school compared lo 34% of the females. On the other hand, while about 18% of the males never attended school, a higher proportion (26%) of the female population had never attended school. A larger proportion of males (41%) than the females (38%) had also left school. Generally, more males attended school than females, and more females than males had never attended school. This means that discrimination against girls might have influenced their access to education.

4.1.2 School Attendance Status, Gender and Age

Tables 4.2-4.4 present attendance status by age, gender and type of residence. Table 4.2 shows that about 75% of the population aged 69 years in the rural areas were still in school. Proportions were equal for males and females in school within this age group. The implication is that at early ages, girls and boys had equal access to education, but a higher dropout rate among females in later stages results in gender differentials in educational attainment. The proportion in the urban areas for the same age group was 82%, still with little discrepancy between the male and female proportions. As expected, the percentages still attending school decreased as age advanced; for example at age group 25-29, only about 2% of the rural population was in school, both males and females in school accounting for the same proportion.

Table 4.3 indicates that, as expected, the population that attended school in the past was mainly concentrated in the higher age groups. This is because the majority of them had completed school. As only about 2% of the population in the rural and 3% in the urban areas in the age group 6-9 years had left school, no significant gender inequalities appeared in this group. Disparities began to show in the age group 15-19 years. Larger proportions of females than males had left school in ages 20-24 in both urban and rural areas. Beyond age 25, higher proportions of males than females had left school.

Table 4.2: Percentage Distribution of Population Attending School by Age Group, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999

	Rural			Urban		
Age Group	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
6-9	75.0	74.6	74.8	82.0	82.6	82.3
10-14	81.5	81.5	81.5	80.3	86.6	83.2
15-19	51.3	58.1	54.7	37.2	49.6	42.7
20-24	6.9	13.9	10.1	6.3	8.6	7.4
25-29	1.7	2.4	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.4
30+	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.4	1.4	1.4
Total	33.9	38.8	36.3	27.6	25.8	26.7

Table 4.3: Percentage Distribution of Population That Left School by Age, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999

	Rural			Urban		
Age Group	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
6-9	2.1	2.1	2.1	3.7	3.3	3.5
10-14	5.7	6.1	5.9	10.5	6.5	8.6
15-19	36.4	30.9	33.6	54.6	43.9	49.8
20-24	80.0	75.4	77.8	87.4	86.7	87.0
25-29	82.2	86.7	84.2	90.5	93.0	91.9
30+	51.5	73.1	61.4	74.7	88.7	83.0
Total	39.0	42.1	40.5	58.7	65.5	62.2

For those who never attended school, no gender discrepancies in the age group 6-9 appeared in both urban and rural areas (Table 4.4). At ages 10-14 and 15-19 in urban areas, higher proportions of females than males never attended school, a pattern that continued at the higher ages for both rural and urban populations.

Table 4.4: Percentage Distribution of Population That Never Attended School by Age, Gender and Type of Residence, 1999

	Rural			Urban		
Age Group	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
6-9	17.7	18.0	17.8	9.0	8.5	8.7
10-14	11.2	10.6	10.9	7.3	4.7	6.1
15-19	11.0	9.5	10.2	6.7	4.7	5.8
20-24	11.7	9.2	10.6	4.9	3.3	4.1
25-29	15.1	9.7	12.6	6.1	3.0	4.5
30+	46.6	24.7	36.5	22.4	8.5	14.1
Total	24.5	16.2	20.5	11.9	6.2	8.5

4.1.3 School Attendance Status by Gender and Province/District

Tables 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7 show the school attendance status by gender and province/district of residence. The male and female proportions were computed in each education status category, with the assumption that the ratio of females to males should be equal to l. The ideal situation would therefore be to have an equal number of males and females in each category, if one is not disadvantaged over the other. Gender gaps and gender ratios were also computed to show magnitude of disparities or their absence.

The results reveal that school attendance favoured males who accounted for 52 % of those attending school, but the gender gaps were small in Central, Nairobi and some districts of Eastern, Western and Rift Valley provinces and large in districts of North Eastern, Samburu in Rift Valley, and Moyale and Marsabit in Eastern Province (Table 4.5).

Among those who had left school, 52% were males, 48% females. Yet there were variations from province to province, and from one district to another (Table 4.6). While gender disparities were small in Central and Rift Valley, they were large in North Eastern, Coast and Nairobi with more males than females having left school. This means that the trend of more males than females attending school has existed for some time. In the past, more females than males attended school in Nyanza and Western provinces, while in Eastern province there were no disparities.

Table 4.5: Percentage Gender Distribution of Those Currently Attending School, 1999

Province/District	Female	Male	Gender Gap (F-M)	Gender Ratio (F/M*100)
KENYA	48.5	51.5	-3	94.2
NAIROBI	49.87	50.13	-0.3	99.5
CENTRAL	49.54	50.46	-0.9	98.2
Kiambu	49.59	50.41	-0.8	98.4
Kirinyaga	49.78	50.22	-0.4	99.1
Murang'a	49.94	50.06	-0.1	99.8
Nyandarua	49.25	50.75	-1.5	97.0
Nyeri	49.73	50.27	-0.5	98.9
Thika	49.44	50.56	-1.1	97.8
Maragua	49.00	51.00	-2.0	96.1
COAST	45.59	54.41	-8.8	83.8
Kilifi	43.88	56.12	-12.2	78.2
Kwale	43.98	56.02	-12.0	78.5
Lamu	47.67	52.33	-4.7	91.1
Mombasa	48.18	51.82	-3.6	93.0
Taita Taveta	48.95	51.05	-2.1	95.9
Tana River	42.46	57.54	-15.1	73.8
Malindi	43.54	56.5	-13.0	77.1
EASTERN	49.55	50.45	-0.9	98.2
Embu	50.97	49.03	1.9	104.0
Isiolo	45.99	54.09	-8.1	85.0
Kitui	49.21	50.79	-1.6	96.9
Makueni	49.29	50.71	-1.4	97.2
Machakos	48.97	51.03	-2.1	96.0
Marsabit	41.67	58.33	-16.7	71.4
Mbeere	49.76	50.24	-0.5	99.0
MeruCentral	50.25	49.75	0.5	101.0
Moyale	39.41	60.59	-21.2	65.0
Mwingi	49.85	50.15	-0.3	99.4
Meru North	51.26	48.74	2.5	105.2
Tharaka	50.45	49.55	0.9	101.8
Meru South	50.57	49.43	1.1	102.3

Table 4.5 Continued

Province/District	Female	Male	Gender Gap (F-M)	Gender Ratio (F/M*100)
NORTH EASTERN	34.07	65.93	-31.9	51.7
Garissa	34.80	65.20	-30.4	53.4
Mandera	31.94	68.06	-36.1	46.9
Wajir	35.10	64.90	-29.8	54.1
NYANZA	47.89	52.11	-4.2	91.9
Kisii South (Gucha)	48.36	51.64	-3.3	93.6
Homa Bay	46.58	53.42	-6.8	87.2
Ksii Central	48.75	51.25	-2.5	95.1
Kisumu	48.55	51.45	-2.9	94.4
Kuria	47.31	52.69	-5.4	89.8
Nyamira (Kisii North)	51.82	48.18	3.6	107.6
Rachuonyo	46.91	53.09	-6.2	88.4
Siaya	47.71	52.29	-4.6	91.2
Suba	46.50	53.50	-7.0	86.9
Bondo	47.75	52.25	-4.5	91.4
Nyando	46.98	53.02	-6.0	88.6
RIFT VALLEY	48.28	51.72	-3.4	93.3
Baringo	48.84	51.16	-2.3	95.5
Bomet	48.85	51.15	-2.3	95.5
Keiyo	49.77	50.23	-0.5	99.1
Kajiado	45.48	54.52	-9.0	83.4
Kericho	48.62	51.38	-2.8	94.6
Koibatek	48.82	51.18	-2.4	95.4
Laikipia	48.41	51.59	-3.2	93.8
Marakwet	48.66	51.31	-2.7	94.8
Nakuru	49.73	50.97	-1.2	97.6
Nandi	49.05	50.95	-1.9	96.3
Narok	43.55	56.45	-12.9	77.1
Samburu	40.33	59.66	-19.3	67.6
Transmara	47.52	52.48	-5.0	90.5
Trans nzoia	48.95	51.05	-2.1	95.9
Turkana	43.62	56.38	-12.8	77.4
Uasin Gishu	49.23	50.77	-1.5	97.0
West Pokot	46.42	53.58	-7.2	86.6
Buret	48.70	51.30	-2.6	94.9
WESTERN	49.17	50.83	-1.7	96.7
Bungoma	49.13	50.87	-1.7	96.6
Busia	47.76	52.24	-4.5	91.4
Mt.Elgon	48.03	51.97	-3.9	92.4
Kakamega	49.62	50.38	-0.8	98.5
Lugari	49.98	50.02	0.0	99.9
Teso	47.30	52.74	-5.4	89.7
Vihiga	50.47	49.53	0.9	101.9
Butere/Mumias	48.82	51.18	-2.4	95.4

4.1.4 School Non-Attendance and Gender

Comparison of men's and women's non-attendance may give a crude measure of levels of illiteracy, except for some of those who never went to formal school but may have attended other informal systems such as Madrassa for Muslims. Relative gaps have been computed to measure the effort required in terms of attendance for females to bring them at the same level as males for non-attendance (Table 4.7). This is an attempt to determine the percentage of women needed to attend school for gender equity to be achieved.

Table 4.6: Percentage Gender Distribution of Those Who Had Left School, 1999

Province	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio
KENYA	48.45	51.55	-3	94.0
NAIROBI	43.75	56.25	-13	77.8
CENTRAL	49.48	50.52	-1	97.9
Kiambu	48.84	51.16	-2	95.5
Kirinyaga	47.41	52.59	-5	90.2
Murang'a	52.2	47.80	4	109.2
Nyandarua	49.95	50.06	0	99.8
Nyeri	50.41	49.49	1	101.9
Thika	48.01	51.99	-4	92.3
Maragua	51.6	48.4	3	106.6
COAST	42.29	57.71	-15	73.3
Kilifi	42.2	47.8	-6	88.3
Kwale	42.54	57.46	-15	74.0
Lamu	42.68	57.32	-15	74.5
Mombasa	41.28	58.72	-17	70.3
Taita Taveta	47.28	52.72	-5	89.7
Tana River	42.05	57.95	-16	72.6
Malindi	40.01	59.99	-20	66.7
EASTERN	49.81	50.19	0	99.2
Embu	48.77	51.23	-2	95.2
Isiolo	42.47	57.53	-15	73.8
Kitui	51.93	48.07	4	108.0
Makueni	51.2	48.8	2	104.9
Machakos	50.63	49.37	1	102.6
Marsabit	47.31	62.69	-15	75.5
Mbeere	49.83	50.17	0	99.3
MeruCentral	48.1	51.9	-4	92.7
Moyale	39.34	60.66	-21	64.9
Mwingi	52.42	47.58	5	110.2
Meru north	48.2	51.8	-4	93.1
Tharaka	48.46	51.54	-3	94.0
Meru South	49.76	50.24	0	99.0
NORTH EASTERN	30.24	69.76	-40	43.3
Garissa	40.37	69.63	-29	58.0
Mandera	27.19	72.81	-46	37.3
Wajir	32.48	67.52	-35	48.1
NYANZA	52.35	47.65	5	109.9
Kisii South (Gucha)	53.32	46.68	7	114.2
Homa Bay	53.79	46.21	8	116.4

Table 4.6 Continued

Province	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio
Kisii Central	53.00	47.00	6	112.8
Kisumu	52.93	47.07	6	112.4
Kuria	59.36	50.64	9	117.2
Migori	52.36	47.64	5	109.9
Kisii North (Nyamira)	45.30	54.70	-9	82.8
Rachuonyo	54.46	45.54	9	119.6
Siaya	53.55	46.45	7	115.3
Suba	51.82	48.18	4	107.6
Bondo	53.41	46.59	7	114.6
Nyando	50.28	49.72	1	101.1
RIFT VALLEY	47.20	52.80	-6	89.4
Baringo	48.80	51.20	-2	95.3
Bomet	51.18	48.82	2	104.8
Keiyo	49.30	50.70	-1	97.2
Kajiado	44.06	55.94	-12	78.8
Kericho	46.47	53.53	-7	86.8
Koibatek	57.80	52.20	6	110.7
Laikipia	47.88	52.12	-4	91.9
Marakwet	48.53	51.47	-3	94.3
Nakuru	47.58	52.42	-5	90.8
Nandi	48.01	51.99	-4	92.3
Narok	43.87	56.12	-12	78.2
Samburu	41.03	58.97	-18	69.6
Transmara	46.34	53.66	-7	86.4
Trans nzoia	48.61	51.39	-3	94.6
Turkana	39.24	60.76	-22	64.6
Uasin Gishu	47.45	52.55	-5	90.3
West Pokot	42.82	57.18	-14	74.9
Buret	45.44	54.56	-9	83.3
WESTERN	52.07	47.93	4	108.6
Bungoma	51.94	48.06	4	108.1
Busia	51.54	48.46	3	106.4
Mt.Elgon	49.03	50.54	-2	97.0
Kakamega	51.91	48.09	4	107.9
Lugari	51.02	48.97	2	104.2
Teso	49.96	50.04	0	99.8
Vihiga	55.20	48.80	6	113.1
Butere/Mumias	51.30	48.70	3	105.3

School non-attendance was in favour of females: that is, more females (62%) than males (38%) did not attend school. The results indicate that 62 women for every 100 men in Kenya had not attended school. The highest gender ratio was observed in Nyanza (279) while the lowest was North Eastern (100) where non-attendance showed gender equality. This means that the men in

North Eastern province did not have a selective advantage over women in access to school attendance.

Table 4.7: Percentage Gender Ratios and Relative Gender Gaps for the Population That Never Attended School, 1999

Province/District	Female	Male	Gender ratio (F/M*100)	Relative Gap (F-M) X 100 / F
KENYA	61.87	38.13	162	38.4
NAIROBI	58.14	41.86	139	28.0
CENTRAL	70.88	29.12	243	58.9
Kiambu	71.44	28.56	250	60.0
Kirinyaga	72.11	27.89	259	61.3
Murang'a	71.84	28.16	255	60.8
Nyandarua	68.95	31.05	222	55.0
Nyeri	71.84	28.16	255	60.8
Thika	69.49	30.51	228	56.1
Maragua	70.26	29.74	236	57.7
COASTCOAST	65.1	34.90	187	46.4
Kilifi	70.21	29.79	236	57.6
Kwale	64.85	35.15	184	45.8
Lamu	57.76	42.24	137	26.9
Mombasa	61.77	38.23	162	38.1
Taita Taveta	65.59	34.41	191	47.5
Tana River	56.48	43.52	130	22.9
Malindi	68.66	31.34	219	54.4
EASTERN	62.79	37.21	169	40.7
Embu	67.07	32.93	204	50.9
Isiolo	55.71	44.29	126	20.5
Kitui	66.18	33.82	196	48.9
Makueni	66.97	33.03	203	50.7
Machakos	67.17	32.83	205	51.1
Marsabit	53.76	46.24	116	14.0
Mbeere	67.67	32.33	209	52.2
Meru Central	64.96	35.04	185	46.1
Moyale	57.95	42.05	138	27.4
Mwingi	64.65	35.35	183	45.3
Meru North	59.22	40.78	145	31.1
Tharaka	65.22	34.19	192	48.0
Meru South (Nithi)	65.22	34.78	188	46.7
NORTH EASTERN	49.96	50.04	100	-0.2
Garissa	51.01	48.99	104	4.0
Mandera	50.97	49.03	104	3.8
Wajir	48.38	51.62	94	-6.7
NYANZA	73.62	26.38	279	64.2
Kisii South (Gucha)	73.98	26.02	284	64.8
Homa Bay	76.29	23.71	322	68.9
Kisii Central	72.87	27.13	269	62.8
Kisumu	52.04	47.96	109	7.8
Kuria	70.13	29.87	235	57.4
Migori	75.36	24.64	306	67.3
Kisii North (Nyamira)	74.85	25.15	298	66.4

Table 4.7 Continued

Province/District	Male	Female	Gender ratio (F/M*100)	Relative Gap (F-M) X 100 F
Rachuonyo	75.86	24.14	314	68.2
Siaya	73.61	26.39	279	64.1
Suba	76.31	23.69	322	69.0
Bondo	75.48	24.52	308	67.5
Nyando	72.92	27.08	269	62.9
RIFT VALLEY	58.96	41.04	144	30.4
Baringo	56.92	43.08	132	24.3
Bomet	67.77	32.23	210	52.4
Keiyo	60.86	39.14	155	35.7
Kajiado	58.53	41.47	141	29.1
Kericho	65.95	34.05	194	48.4
Koibatek	61.16	38.84	157	36.5
Laikipia	60.41	39.59	153	34.5
Marakwet	62.81	37.19	169	40.8
Nakuru	63. 91	36.09	177	43.5
Nandi	61.48	38.52	160	37.3
Narok	58.63	41.37	142	29.4
Samburu	58.03	41.97	138	27.7
Trans Mara	61.94	38.06	163	38.6
Trans Nzoia	60.81	39.19	155	35.6
Turkana	54.03	45.97	118	14.9
Uasin Gishu	59.55	40.45	147	32.1
West Pokot	57.31	42.69	134	25.5
Buret	65.58	34.42	191	47.5
WESTERN	65.53	34.47	190	47.4
Bungoma	67.15	32.85	204	51.1
Busia	70.62	29.38	240	58.4
Mt. Elgon	67.52	32.48	208	51.9
Kakamega	62.55	37.45	167	40.1
Lugari	62.02	37.98	163	38.8
Teso	66.33	33.67	197	49.2
Vihiga	62.59	37.41	167	40.2
Butere/Mumias	65.41	34.59	189	47.1

In Coast Province, only 35% of those who never attended school were males, the remaining 65% being females. District-level analysis revealed that gender ratio varied from 322 in Homa Bay and Suba districts (both in Nyanza) to as low as 94 in Wajir district. In the latter, a lower proportion of those that never attended school were females, the opposite of the general trend. Efforts to bring about equality between females and males in the level of school attendance would be largest in Nyanza province (relative gap of 64%) while the lowest would be required in North Eastern province (-0.2); the latter value indicates no effort as slightly more males than females never attended school. The only problem in North Eastern province is that both men and women were equally disadvantaged, hence the narrow gap/ low effort required was to the disadvantage of both. The district-level values ranged from 69 in Suba District to –6.7 in Wajir. Again in Wajir, the higher proportion that never attended school consisted of men, not women. Another notable district was Kisumu (with a relative gap of 7.8) where 48% of all those who never attended school were men.

The results could be explained by out-migration of educated men to other urban centres in search of employment.

4.2 School Enrolment

4.2.1 National Enrolment by Gender and Class Level

The lowest level of primary is Standard1, while the highest is standard 8. The current secondary school system runs from Form 1 to Form 4. However, schools still offering other types of curricula have higher secondary, that is, Forms 5 and 6. Table 4.8 shows the enrolment for those attending school by gender and class level.

Table 4.8: Current Enrolment for Those Attending School by Gender and Level, 1999

Level /Class	Females		Males			Gender Gap	
					Total	(F-M) in %	Gender Ratio
	Number	%	Number	%	Enrolled	Points	(F/M*100)
PRIMARY*							
STD 1	568,454	48.4	606,984	51.6	1,175,438	-3.2	93.8
STD 2	437,673	47.8	477,872	52.2	915,545	-4.4	91.6
STD 3	419,370	47.9	455,765	52.1	875,135	-4.2	91.9
STD 4	396,132	48.7	417,152	51.3	813,284	-2.6	94.9
STD 5	350,678	49.5	359,777	50.5	710,455	-1.0	98.0
STD 6	323,633	50.0	324,080	50.0	647,713	0	100.0
STD 7	319,898	50.3	316,004	49.7	635,902	0.6	101.2
STD 8	234,802	48.8	246,374	51.2	481,176	-2.4	95.3
SECONDARY							
FORM 1	106,332	48.8	111,543	51.2	217,875	-2.4	95.3
FORM 2	97,095	47.7	106,521	52.3	203,616	-4.6	91.2
FORM 3	71,072	45.4	85,439	54.6	156,511	-9.2	83.2
FORM 4	84,763	44.7	104,856	55.3	189,619	-10.6	80.8
FORM 5 and UNIVERSITY	17,023	36.0	30,279	64.0	47,302	-28.0	56.2

The results show that for all levels of schooling except Standard 6 and 7, the enrolment of girls was lower than that of boys. Although the gender gaps were generally small, in most cases they were negative, implying enrolment rates in favour of boys. The gender gap was almost non-existent for enrolment at Standard 6, that is, near-gender equality in enrolment at this level. Here the gender ratio was 101, meaning almost equal numbers of girls and boys enrolled. In Standard 7,

more girls than boys were enrolled, evidenced by a gender gap of one percentage point and a gender ratio of 101. The proportion of girls dropped again at Standard 8 (the last level before secondary school). The proportion of girls enrolled at Standard 8 was the same as that enrolled at Form 1, but dropped steadily as they moved from Form 1 to Form 4. As expected, the proportion of boys in relation to girls increased with the drop in that of girls to the extent that by Form 4, the girls enrolled made up about 45% of the total enrolment. This disadvantaged position of girls was reflected in the gender gaps which were widest at the highest level of secondary (-11 percentage points) and in favour of the boys. The gender ratio at Form 5 and University was 56, meaning that there were about 56 girls for every 100 boys enrolled, while the gender gap was -28, still in favour of boys. These results clearly indicate that girls still had unequal access to education.

4.2.3 Enrolment at Provincial and District Level

Table 4.9 shows the gender disparities in school enrolment by at provincial level. The enrolments were mainly in favour of boys, more of whom were enrolled than girls. This explains why gender gaps in most cases were negative. Girls were most advantaged in terms of enrolment in Nairobi, Central and Eastern provinces, and most disadvantaged in North Eastern province. In Nairobi, the gender gap was 2 percentage points in favour of girls whose proportion was higher than that of boys. The gender ratio of 104 implied that there were 104 girls enrolled in primary for every 100 boys enrolled. This could be a result of levels of urbanisation and the fact that negative cultural influences on girls' education in Nairobi are minimal because of the cosmopolitan environment.

In Eastern province, the enrolment of girls in primary school was almost equal to that of boys, with a very small gender gap of -0.4 in favour of boys. This could be attributed to the level of economic growth through agriculture in some parts of Eastern, and the presence of many missionary-sponsored schools in the province. The same explanation could be advanced for Central province, with a gender gap of -0.8.

In North Eastern province, where communities are mainly nomadic, enrolment of girls in primary school was quite low (only 34% of the total enrolment). The gender gap was 32 percentage points in favour of the boys. In terms of gender ratio, only 52 girls for every 100 boys enrolled at primary level. It is most likely that insecurity in much of North Eastern province and cultural practices (such as early marriages and female genital cutting) could seriously hamper the access of girls to education.

Table 4.9: Enrolment by Gender and Gender Ratios in Enrolment by Province/District, 1999

Province/District	Primary 1-8				Secondary 1-4				Form 5 to Post graduate			
	% Male	% Female	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio	% Male	% Female	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio	% Male	% Female	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio
KENYA	51.2	48.8	-2.5	95.2	53.2	46.8	-6.4	88.0	53.9	46.1	-7.8	85.5
NAIROBI	49.0	51.0	2.0	104.2	51.3	48.7	-2.5	95.1	53.3	46.7	-6.6	87.6
CENTRAL	50.4	49.6	-0.8	98.4	49.7	50.3	0.6	101.1	50.4	49.6	-0.9	98.3
Kiambu	50.5	49.5	-1.0	98.0	48.6	51.4	2.8	105.7	49.4	50.6	1.2	102.4
Kirinyaga	50.2	49.8	-0.4	99.1	49.5	50.5	1.1	102.2	49.9	50.1	0.2	100.5
Murang'a	50.2	49.8	-0.3	99.4	48.5	51.5	3.0	106.3	48.9	51.1	2.1	104.3
Nyandarua	50.6	49.4	-1.2	97.6	51.3	48.7	-2.5	95.1	52.0	48.0	-4.0	92.3
Nyeri	50.4	49.6	-0.7	98.6	49.1	50.9	1.9	103.8	49.4	50.6	1.3	102.5
Thika	50.3	49.7	-0.6	98.8	50.3	49.7	-0.7	98.7	51.9	48.1	-3.7	92.8
Maragua	50.7	49.3	-1.5	97.0	52.6	47.4	-5.2	90.1	53.1	46.9	-6.2	88.4
COAST	54.6	45.4	-9.2	83.2	56.2	43.8	-12.4	77.9	56.6	43.4	-13.2	76.6
Kilifi	56.7	43.3	-13.3	76.5	58.3	41.7	-16.7	71.4	58.2	41.8	-16.3	71.9
Kwale	56.4	43.6	-12.8	77.3	58.6	41.4	-17.2	70.7	58.6	41.4	-17.1	70.8
Lamu	52.2	47.8	-4.4	91.6	55.4	44.6	-10.7	80.7	55.8	44.2	-11.6	79.2
Mombasa	51.3	48.7	-2.7	94.8	55.0	45.0	-10.1	81.7	55.9	44.1	-11.9	78.8
Taita Taveta	51.2	48.8	-2.4	95.3	50.7	49.3	-1.4	97.3	51.0	49.0	-2.0	96.0
Tana River	58.3	41.7	-16.7	71.4	59.8	40.2	-19.5	67.3	60.1	39.9	-20.3	66.3
Malindi	56.7	43.3	-13.4	76.4	65.0	35.0	-29.9	53.9	64.7	35.3	-29.5	54.5
EASTERN	50.2	49.8	-0.4	99.3	51.0	49.0	-1.9	96.2	51.5	48.5	-2.9	94.3
Embu	49.3	50.7	1.3	102.7	45.7	54.3	8.5	118.6	46.2	53.8	7.5	116.2
Isiolo	54.2	45.8	-8.3	84.6	55.3	44.7	-10.6	80.8	55.7	44.3	-11.4	79.6
Kitui	50.3	49.7	-0.7	98.6	52.7	47.3	-5.4	89.7	53.1	46.9	-6.1	88.4
Makueni	50.4	49.6	-0.7	98.6	51.9	48.1	-3.8	92.7	52.4	47.6	-4.8	90.9
Machakos	50.6	49.4	-1.2	97.6	53.5	46.5	-7.0	86.9	54.0	46.0	-7.9	85.3
Marsabit	58.5	41.5	-17.1	70.8	66.3	33.7	-32.5	50.9	66.8	33.2	-33.6	49.6
Mbeere	49.9	50.1	0.2	100.3	51.8	48.2	-3.6	93.0	52.3	47.7	-4.7	91.1
Meru Central	50.1	49.9	-0.3	99.5	45.8	54.2	8.3	118.2	46.5	53.5	7.1	115.2
Moyale	60.7	39.3	-21.5	64.7	71.4	28.6	-42.8	40.0	72.0	28.0	-44.0	38.9
Mwingi	49.6	50.4	0.9	101.8	53.5	46.5	-6.9	87.1	53.7	46.3	-7.4	86.3
Meru North	48.4	51.6	3.2	106.7	49.4	50.6	1.1	102.3	50.1	49.9	-0.2	99.7
Tharaka	48.8	51.2	2.3	104.7	55.1	44.9	-10.2	81.6	55.6	44.4	-11.2	79.9
Nithi (Meru South)	49.3	50.7	1.3	102.7	47.7	52.3	4.5	109.5	48.3	51.7	3.4	107.1
NORTH EASTERN	65.9	34.1	-31.8	51.8	71.7	28.3	-43.4	39.5	71.9	28.1	-43.8	39.0
Garissa	65.3	34.7	-30.5	53.2	69.1	30.9	-38.2	44.7	69.5	30.5	-38.9	44.0
Mandera	68.0	32.0	-36.0	47.0	76.6	23.4	-53.2	30.6	76.8	23.2	-53.5	30.3
Wajir	64.6	35.4	-29.3	54.7	71.4	28.6	-42.7	40.1	71.5	28.5	-43.0	39.8
NYANZA	51.7	48.3	-3.5	93.3	56.7	43.3	-13.4	76.4	57.3	42.7	-14.5	74.7
Gucha (Kisii South)	51.0	49.0	-2.1	96.0	54.9	45.1	-9.9	82.1	55.4	44.6	-10.8	80.4
Homa Bay	53.1	46.9	-6.2	88.3	60.8	39.2	-21.6	64.5	61.1	38.9	-22.3	63.6

Table 4.9 Continued

Province/District	Primary 1-8				Secondary 1-4				Form 5 to Post graduate			
	% Male	% Female	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio	% Male	% Female	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio	% Male	% Female	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio
Kisii Central	50.9	49.1	-1.7	96.6	53.5	46.5	-7.1	86.8	53.9	46.1	-7.9	85.4
Kisumu	51.2	48.8	-2.3	95.5	54.8	45.2	-9.6	82.5	55.5	44.5	-11.0	80.2
Kuria	52.3	47.7	-4.6	91.1	65.6	34.4	-31.1	52.5	66.1	33.9	-32.1	51.4
Migori	52.5	47.5	-5.0	90.4	62.5	37.5	-25.0	60.1	63.1	36.9	-26.2	58.5
Nyamira (Kisii N.)	50.6	49.4	-1.1	97.8	53.0	47.0	-6.0	88.7	53.5	46.5	-7.0	86.9
Rachuonyo	52.5	47.5	-5.0	90.5	62.7	37.3	-25.4	59.4	63.3	36.7	-26.7	57.9
Siaya	52.1	47.9	-4.2	91.9	56.5	43.5	-13.0	77.0	57.3	42.7	-14.6	74.4
Suba	52.8	47.2	-5.6	89.5	67.9	32.1	-35.9	47.2	68.4	31.6	-36.9	46.1
Bondo	51.9	48.1	-3.9	92.5	61.2	38.8	-22.5	63.3	61.7	38.3	-23.4	62.1
Nyando	52.5	47.5	-5.0	90.5	61.0	39.0	-22.0	63.9	61.7	38.3	-23.3	62.1
RIFT VALLEY	51.3	48.7	-2.6	94.9	54.5	45.5	-9.1	83.4	55.1	44.9	-10.3	81.4
Baringo	50.6	49.4	-1.3	97.4	53.3	46.7	-6.5	87.8	53.8	46.2	-7.7	85.7
Bomet	50.3	49.7	-0.6	98.8	60.7	39.3	-21.3	64.8	61.4	38.6	-22.8	62.8
Keiyo	50.4	49.6	-0.7	98.6	47.5	52.5	5.0	110.5	48.1	51.9	3.9	108.1
Kajiado	54.4	45.6	-8.7	83.9	54.5	45.5	-8.9	83.6	54.9	45.1	-9.9	82.0
Kericho	50.7	49.3	-1.5	97.1	57.3	42.7	-14.6	74.5	58.0	42.0	-16.0	72.4
Koibatek	50.6	49.4	-1.2	97.5	53.6	46.4	-7.3	86.4	54.1	45.9	-8.3	84.7
Laikipia	51.5	48.5	-3.0	94.3	50.5	49.5	-1.0	98.0	50.9	49.1	-1.9	96.3
Marakwet	50.7	49.3	-1.4	97.3	59.5	40.5	-19.0	68.1	60.0	40.0	-20.0	66.6
Nakuru	50.6	49.4	-1.2	97.6	52.6	47.4	-5.2	90.1	53.2	46.8	-6.4	87.9
Nandi	50.6	49.4	-1.2	97.6	53.0	47.0	-6.1	88.6	53.6	46.4	-7.1	86.7
Narok	56.1	43.9	-12.1	78.4	62.2	37.8	-24.3	60.9	62.3	37.7	-24.6	60.5
Samburu	60.6	39.4	-21.3	64.9	63.6	36.4	-27.2	57.2	64.4	35.6	-28.7	55.4
Trans Mara	51.9	48.1	-3.9	92.6	66.3	33.7	-32.5	50.9	66.4	33.6	-32.8	50.6
Trans Nzoia	50.7	49.3	-1.4	97.3	54.9	45.1	-9.8	82.2	55.5	44.5	-10.9	80.3
Turkana	57.6	42.4	-15.1	73.7	62.6	37.4	-25.2	59.7	63.4	36.6	-26.7	57.8
Uasin Gishu	50.4	49.6	-0.8	98.5	51.7	48.3	-3.4	93.3	52.6	47.4	-5.3	90.0
West Pokot	53.8	46.2	-7.6	86.0	60.5	39.5	-20.9	65.4	61.3	38.7	-22.6	63.1
Buret	50.7	49.3	-1.3	97.4	57.4	42.6	-14.8	74.1	58.1	41.9	-16.1	72.2
WESTERN	50.6	49.4	-1.2	97.5	52.7	47.3	-5.5	89.6	53.4	46.6	-6.8	87.3
Bungoma	50.5	49.5	-1.1	97.9	54.3	45.7	-8.6	84.1	55.0	45.0	-9.9	81.9
Busia	52.1	47.9	-4.1	92.1	58.7	41.3	-17.4	70.4	59.4	40.6	-18.8	68.4
Mt. Elgon	51.3	48.7	-2.6	95.0	59.8	40.2	-19.7	67.1	59.9	40.1	-19.9	66.9
Kakamega	50.3	49.7	-0.6	98.8	50.4	49.6	-0.8	98.5	51.1	48.9	-2.2	95.7
Lugari	49.9	50.1	0.2	100.5	47.3	52.7	5.4	111.4	48.0	52.0	4.0	108.3
Teso	52.8	47.2	-5.5	89.5	57.0	43.0	-13.9	75.5	57.5	42.5	-15.0	73.9
Vihiga	49.5	50.5	0.9	101.8	47.5	52.5	5.1	110.7	47.9	52.1	4.2	108.7
Butere/Mumias	50.8	49.2	-1.6	96.9	55.9	44.1	-11.9	78.7	56.8	43.2	-13.5	76.1

Among the districts, some in Eastern and Central, and a few in Western and Rift Valley provinces had gender gap values closer to the achievement of gender equality in enrolment. Examples of this include Kiambu (-1.0), Kirinyaga (-0.4), Murang'a (-0.3), Nyeri G0.7), Thika (-0.6),

Kitui and Makueni (both with -0.7), Mwingi (0.9), Mbeere (0.2), Lugari (0.2), Kakamega (-0.6), Vihiga (0.9), Bomet (-0.6), Keiyo (-0.7) and Uasin Gishu (-0.8). Districts where slightly more girls than boys were enrolled (gender gaps positive) included Meru North (3.2), Tharaka (2.3), Embu and Nithi (1.3 each), Mbeere (0.2), Vihiga (0.9) and Lugari (0.2). The widest disparities were reported in districts of North Eastern, Rift Valley and Eastern provinces. Mandera district had a gender gap of -36 points, with only 47 girls for every 100 boys enrolled in primary school.

Generally for the whole country, and for most of the regions, enrolment at secondary Forms 1-4 was still in favour of boys, a situation of negative gender gaps. However, Central, Eastern and Nairobi provinces appeared closer to achieving gender equality in enrolment than other provinces. For instance, in Central province, the gender gap was only 0.6 points (and in favour of girls), hence about 101 girls for 100 boys were enrolled. The equivalent values for Eastern were -1.9 for gender gap, and 96 for gender ratio.

In Nairobi, the gap was -2.5, with a gender ratio of 95. The widest disparities were still apparent in North Eastern province where the gender gap was -4.3 percentage points with a gender ratio of about 40, implying an enrolment of only about 40 girls for every 100 boys enrolled. At district level, gender gaps ranged from only -0.7 in Thika of Central province to -53 in Mandera of North Eastern province. However in Embu and Meru Central districts of Eastern province, the gaps (about 9 and 8, respectively) and the gender ratios (199 and 118, respectively) showed a higher enrolment of girls than boys at secondary school level. This means a greater preference for girls' enrolment, or a better performance by some girls at the end of primary, enabling most of them to move to secondary school.

The trend in enrolment at higher secondary and university levels was similar to that at secondary level, that is, enrolment of more males than females. Central and Eastern provinces still showed gender gaps that were close to achievement of equality in enrolment (-0.9 and -2.9, respectively) while North Eastern province was still leading in terms of disparities to the disadvantage of girls (with a gender gap of -44 and gender ratio of 39).

A number of districts had the proportion of girls' enrolment at this level being higher than the boys hence the gaps were positive while the gender ratios were above 100. Prominent at this level was Embu district in Eastern province, where the gender gap was about 8 percentage points in favour of women, with a gender ratio of 116, implying that 116 women for 100 men were enrolled. Meru Central had a gender gap of 7 and a gender ratio of 115. Other districts where women were favoured in enrolment at higher levels were Keiyo in Rift Valley and Lugari in Western, each with a gap of about 4 and a gender ratio of 108; and Meru South with a gap of 3.4 and a gender ratio of 107. The reasons for such a scenario were discussed in the preceding section.

4.2.4 Gross Enrolment Ratios

Gross enrolment ratio (GER) is a simple indicator of school participation at various levels of the education system. Enrolment at a given level is computed as a ratio of the population of the age group corresponding to that level and expressed as a percentage. The assumption is that those enrolled at any particular level belong to the corresponding age for the level. Though expressed as a percentage, it is not really a percentage in the traditional sense but a ratio. Older children may also be included in the numerator, hence where enrolments are high, the value may be above 100.

For primary enrolment:

$$\text{GER} = \frac{\text{Total enrolled at Standard 1-8 regardless of age}}{\text{Population aged 6-13 years}} \times 100$$

For secondary enrolment:

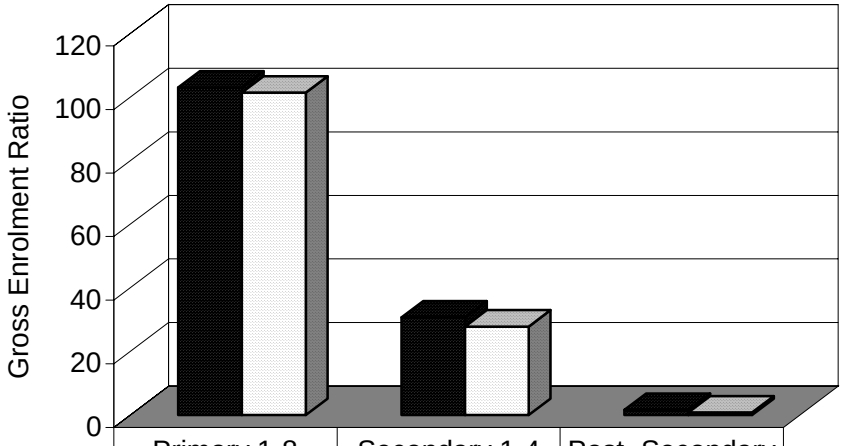
$$\text{GER} = \frac{\text{Total enrolled at Form 1-4 regardless of age}}{\text{Population aged 14-17}} \times 100$$

For post secondary enrolment:

$$\text{GER} = \frac{\text{Total enrolled at Form 5 and 6 and university regardless of age}}{\text{Population aged 18-24 years}} \times 100$$

Figure 4. 1 shows Gender Enrolment Ratios for Kenya at the three educational levels. The results show that male GERs were slightly higher than female GERs at all levels of education.

Figure 4.1: Gross Enrolment Ratios at Various Levels, 1999



	Primary 1-8	Secondary 1-4	Post- Secondary
Male	103	31	1.6
Female	101	28	0.8

In general, participation was highest at primary level, dwindling at higher levels. As this happened, girls appeared to be more affected than boys. For instance, at primary level the GER for girls was 101 compared to 103 for boys. The ratios fell considerably at secondary level: to 31 for boys and 28 for girls. At post-secondary level, the ratio for men was about 2 while that of the women was less than 1. A comparison with 1989 enrolment shows that the enrolment for females at primary level had dropped from 103 in 1989 to 101 in 1999, that of males from 106 to 103.

4.2.5 Scholastic Retardation Rates

Scholastic retardation is a crude measure of two aspects of enrolment: those who start school late and those who repeat classes. As a result, children will still be in primary school when aged above 13 years, and others will still be in secondary school when aged above 17 years. It gives the percentage of persons who are still in a given level when they are supposed to have completed that level.

Scholastic retardation rate at primary school level is therefore computed as:

$$\frac{\text{Persons in primary school aged 14 years and above}}{\text{All persons attending primary school}} \times 100$$

Table 4.10 represents scholastic retardation rates for primary level, computed using the formula above.

Table 4.10: Scholastic Retardation Rates by Gender, Type of Residence and Province

Province	Retardation Rates			Gender Gap
	Female	Male	Combined	(F-M)
Kenya	35.2	40.2	37.8	-5.0
Kenya Rural	35.2	40.2	37.7	-5.0
Kenya Urban	31.3	35.9	33.6	-4.6
Nairobi	24.5	25.8	25.1	-1.3
Central	33.4	35.3	34.3	-1.9
Coast	32.2	40.3	36.5	-8.1
Eastern	38.8	40.4	39.6	-1.6
North Eastern	32.7	50.4	43.8	-17.7
Nyanza	37.6	45.6	41.6	-8.0
Rift Valley	34.8	40.0	37.4	-5.2
Western	36.5	43.2	39.8	-6.7

The results show that in 1999, 38% of the children attending primary school were supposed to have completed that level of education, assuming they entered Standard 1 at the age of 6 years. However, a higher retardation rate for the boys (40%) than for girls (35%) was observed. This same gender inequality was observed in 1989, although the retardation rates were lower (31% for boys, 27% for girls). Judging by the gender gaps, disparities in the retardation rates between boys and girls were very small in Nairobi (-1) and very large in North Eastern (-18). There were no significant disparities between the rural and the urban gaps. Disparities in favour of girls (less girls remaining in primary school) are indicated by negative values of the gap. In all the provinces, the gender gap values were negative, implying that retardation rates were higher for boys than girls. By implication, more boys than girls are likely to repeat classes and remain in primary school beyond the age of 13.This could probably be because girls might mature earlier, and parents find it inadvisable to let them repeat classes, even in cases where they have not done well.

4.2.6 Scholastic Progression

Scholastic progression is the rate of movement from one level to another, for instance from primary to secondary level. The progression rate for primary to secondary was computed by the formula below:

$$\text{Scholastic Progression} = \frac{\text{Form 1 enrolment}}{\text{Standard 8 enrolment}} \times 100$$

Results of the analysis showed that there were very negligible gender disparities between the girls' and boys' progression rates, although that of girls was slightly higher than boys. On average, 47% of the children moved from primary to secondary level (Table 4.11). The inequality observed in 1989 (51% for boys and 46% for boys) had therefore narrowed considerably.

Table 4.11: Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios in Scholastic Progression Rates from Primary to Secondary by Type of Residence

Residence	Progression Rates			Gender gaps	Gender Ratios
	Girls	Boys	Total	(F-M)	F/M x 100
Urban	57.2	55.1	56.1	2.0	104
Rural	47.5	47.1	47.3	0.4	101
Kenya	47.5	47.1	47.3	0.4	101

The progression rates were higher in urban than in rural areas. Gender inequality was observed in the urban areas in favour of girls, who had a higher progression rate (57%) than the boys (55%). The gender ratio indicated that about 104 girls for every 100 boys proceed from primary to secondary level. In the rural areas the gender inequality was negligible. As Table 4.12 shows, the average progression rates were highest in Nairobi and lowest in Eastern. The gender gaps/disparities were widest in North Eastern province in favour of girls, where about 103 girls for 100 boys proceeded from primary to secondary school. In Central province, no gender inequality was observed, while Nairobi, Rift Valley and Western had small disparities in favour of boys who appeared to have a better chance of progressing from primary to secondary level.

Table 4.12: Gender Gaps in Progression Rates from Primary to Secondary by Region/Province

Province	Progression Rates			Gender	Gender Ratios
	Girls	Boys	Total	Gaps	
Nairobi	67.6	70.1	68.8	-2.5	96
Central	46.0	46.0	46.0	0.0	100
Coast	40.4	39.9	40.1	0.5	101
Eastern	35.8	37.8	36.8	-2.1	95
North Eastern	42.6	40.0	40.8	2.6	107
Nyanza	46.5	44.2	45.2	2.3	105
Rift Valley	41.2	42.6	41.9	-1.4	97
Western	45.7	48.3	47.0	-2.6	95
Kenya	47.5	47.1	47.3	0.4	101

4.3 Educational Attainment

The educational attainment of the population was categorised into five levels as shown below:

- None Not completed Std 1 level or never went to school (5 years +)
- Std 1-8 Completed any level of primary school
- Form 1-4 Some level or completed secondary school
- Form 5-6 Beyond secondary (1-4), but not entered university
- University Completed under-graduate and/or post-graduate level

Tables 4.13 and 4.14 show the percentage distribution of population that completed various levels of education by gender.

Table 4.13: Gender Distribution, Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios for Population with No Education and Primary Education, 1999 (5 Years and above)

	No Level Completed				Completed Primary School (Std 1-8)			
	Percentage		Gender	Gender	Percentage		Gender	Gender
Province	Female	Male	Gap	Ratio	Female	Male	Gap	Ratio
Kenya	57.1	42.9	14.2	133.0	50.2	49.8	0.4	100.7
Nairobi	53.5	46.5	7.0	115.2	48.6	51.4	-2.9	94.4
Central	60.0	40.0	20.0	149.9	50.6	49.4	1.2	102.5
Coast	60.7	39.3	21.4	154.5	45.1	54.9	-9.7	82.3
Eastern	57.2	42.8	14.5	133.9	50.6	49.4	1.2	102.4
N/Eastern	49.7	50.3	-0.7	98.7	34.0	66.0	-31.9	51.6
Nyanza	60.9	39.1	21.9	156.0	52.1	47.9	4.2	108.9
Rift valley	55.5	44.5	10.9	124.6	49.4	50.6	-1.1	97.8
Western	57.7	42.3	15.5	136.6	52.2	47.8	4.4	109.2

4.3.1 Population with No Level Attained

Of the population aged 5 years and above who had not completed any level of education, about 57% were females, 43% were males (Table 4.13). The widest inequality was in Nyanza where a very large proportion of those who had not completed any level were females and where the gender ratio was 156 females for every 100 males. In North Eastern province, a very negligible gender inequality among those who had not completed any level existed, though a slightly higher proportion consisted of males.

4.3.2 Population with Primary Education

Among those who had completed primary school, a negligible inequality existed between males and females (gender gap -0.4, and gender ratio of 101). A large inequality was, however, observed in North Eastern province with a gender gap of about -32, in favour of the males (66% of those who completed primary education were males). In terms of gender ratio, 52 females for every 100 males had completed primary school (Table 4.13). The lowest disparities existed in Rift Valley,

Eastern and Central provinces where the proportions of females who had completed primary education were almost equal to those of the males. The gaps for the three provinces were about one percentage point each, all in favour of females except for Rift Valley.

4.3.3 Population with Secondary Education

Gender disparities were clearly observed for population with secondary education or above, meaning that as levels of education increased, females became increasingly disadvantaged (Tables 4.14). Of those who had completed secondary education, about 45% were female compared to 55% males, hence a gender gap of about 10 points. The gender ratio implied that 81 females for 100 males had completed this level of education. All disparities in the provinces were negative to the disadvantage of the females. Nairobi, which is expected to be more advanced in terms of gender equality due to level of urbanization, showed a higher inequality than the national total, with 74 females for 100 males who had completed secondary education. In North Eastern province, a mere 24% of those with this level of education were females.

The extent of inequality was evidenced by a gender gap of 52 percentage points in favour of the male population. The gender ratio of 32 indicated that only 32 females for every 100 males had completed secondary education in the province. The best performing provinces in terms of achieving gender parities in secondary education were Eastern, Central and Western in that order of performance.

The system of education with higher secondary was phased out in 1989, and replaced by the 8-4-4 system. Only schools with foreign or international curricula still had students attending Forms 5 and 6 at the time of the census. The population with this level completed was therefore much smaller than that with Form 4 education. Among the population with this level of education, the gender disparities were even bigger than the case of lower secondary: about 29% were females, the remaining 71% being males. All gender gaps were large (over 10 percentage points in all provinces) and negative, denoting disparities in favour of males.

Table 4.14: Gender Distribution, Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios for Population Which Completed Form 1-4 and Form 5-6, 1999

Province	Completed Secondary Form 1-4 Percentage				Completed Higher Secondary Form 5-6 Percentage			
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Gender Ratio
Kenya	44.8	55.2	-10.4	81.1	28.6	71.4	-42.9	40.0
Nairobi	42.6	57.4	-14.9	74.1	33.8	66.2	-32.4	51.0
Central	48.1	51.9	-3.8	92.7	29.7	70.3	-40.6	42.2
Coast	38.2	61.8	-23.7	61.7	25.8	74.2	-48.4	34.8
Eastern	48.3	51.7	-3.4	93.4	29.6	70.4	-40.8	42.0
N/Eastern	23.9	76.1	-52.1	31.5	9.8	90.2	-80.3	10.9
Nyanza	45.3	54.7	-9.4	82.8	22.9	77.1	-54.1	29.8
Rift valley	42.9	57.1	-14.2	75.2	25.9	74.1	-48.2	35.0
Western	47.7	52.3	-4.6	91.1	25.0	75.0	-50.1	33.3

At national level, the gender gap was about -43, and the gender ratio 40, the latter implying that at the time of the census, 40 females for every 100 males had completed Form 5 and 6. As in other

completed levels, North Eastern province females were the most disadvantaged with a gender inequality defined by a gender gap of -80 percentage points and a gender ratio of about 11. The lowest disparities were in Nairobi (with a gender gap of -32 and gender ratio of 51), Eastern and Central (each with a gender gap of about 41 and gender ratio of about 42). However, these disparities were still comparatively high and still indicate the disadvantaged position of women in access to higher education, especially at advanced levels.

4.3.4 University Level Education

The gender disparities in attainment of university education were slightly lower than those of higher secondary but were all in favour of males (Table 4.15). At national level, the gender gap between females and males with this level of education was about -36 percentage points, compared to -40 in the case of higher secondary. Females formed about 27% of those with higher education (Form 5 and 6) and slightly over 32% of those who completed university education. As with all levels of education, females in North Eastern province were still the most disadvantaged in attainment of university education compared to the men.

The smallest inequality in university education was found in Rift Valley where almost 48% of those with university education were females and 52% were males. About 92 females for every 100 males had attained university level of education in this province, according to the computed gender ratio. Other provinces with small disparities were Nairobi (with a gender gap of -29) and Central province (with a gender gap of -34 percentage points). These results showed that even in provinces expected to perform better in terms of university education, the female population was still disadvantaged. Although most private universities as well as public universities are located in Nairobi, disparities in attainment of university level of education were still considerably large.

Table 4.15: Gender Distribution and Gender Gaps for Population with University Education, 1999

	Percentage that had completed University			
Province	Female	Male	Gender Gaps	Gender Ratios
KENYA	32.2	67.8	-35.6	47.5
Nairobi	35.6	64.4	-28.9	55.2
Central	33.2	66.8	-33.6	49.7
Coast	29.0	71.0	-42.0	40.8
Eastern	32.2	67.8	-35.6	47.5
North Eastern	12.7	87.3	-74.6	14.5
Nyanza	27.1	72.9	-45.8	37.2
Rift Valley	47.9	52.1	-4.2	91.9
Western	29.1	70.9	-41.7	41.1

In conclusion, the data shows clear evidence of gender disparities in education in Kenya. At the time of starting school, both girls and boys had equal access to education, but at later stages, the proportion of girls continued to decrease in relation to the boys.

Chapter 5

Participation in Economic Activity and Decision Making

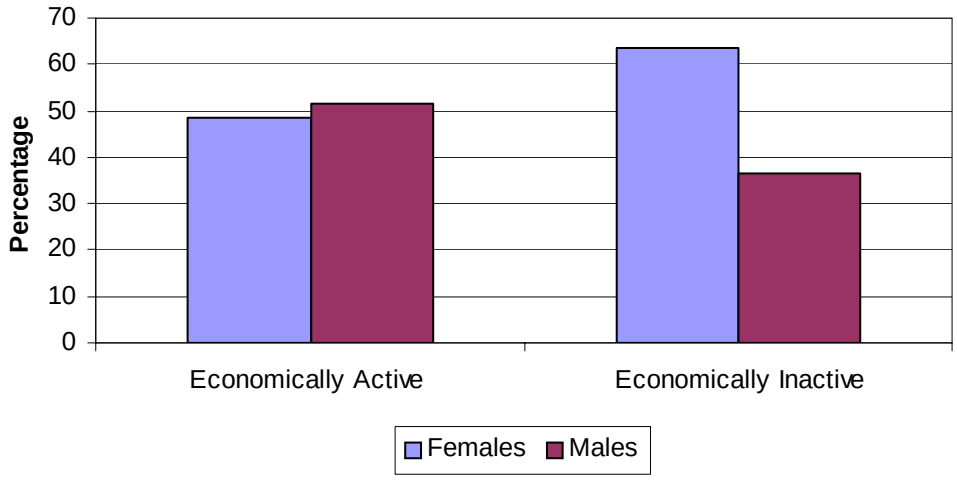
5.1 Economic Activity Status

The economically active population is made up of employed as well as unemployed persons. The International labour organisation (ILO) defines employed persons as those who performed some work for pay or profit (including those on leave) during a specified period as well as unpaid family workers who worked for at least one third of the normal working time during the specified period. The 1999 census definition of the specified period was 7 days preceding the census night. Those unemployed may either be seeking work for pay or profit or are without a job but available for work. The economically inactive population includes full-time students, the retired, the incapacitated and homemakers.

5.1.1 Economic Activity Status and Gender

In assessment of the gender aspects of economic activity, the percentages of males or females were computed by each category of economic activity in most cases rather than out of the total population. When there are no disparities, the female or male percentages approach 50%. Higher or lower values indicate disparities in favour of either women or men. Results indicated more economically active males than females (Figure 5.1). More females than males were economically inactive, a situation that can be partly explained by the fact that some of the women may have reported themselves as homemakers even when engaged in some form of economic activity such as farming.

Figure 5.1: Gender Distribution of Population aged 15-65 Years by Economic Status Activity



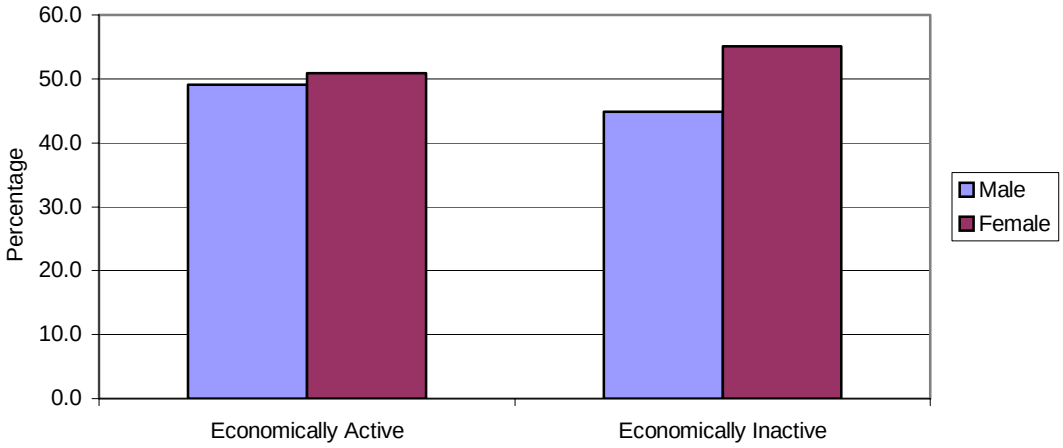
.

5.1.2 Economic Activity Status by Type of Residence

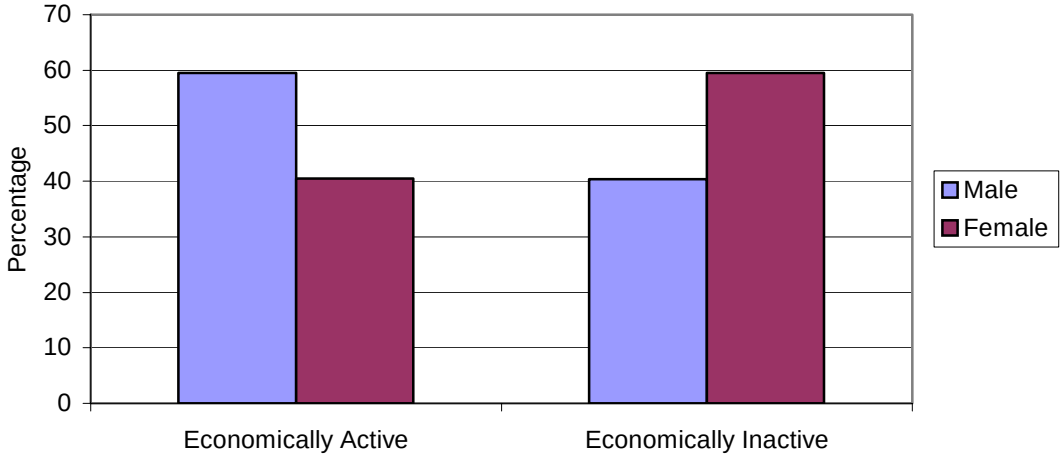
When the rural-urban distribution was considered, the urban population conformed to the general pattern. Males dominated the economically active population, while females dominated the inactive in the urban areas (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2: Gender Distribution of Kenya Population aged 5 Years and above by Economic Activity Status and Rural-Urban Residence

Rural



Urban



The possible explanation is that in urban areas, the main form of economic activity is wage or paid employment, and that the percentage of women working for pay was lower than that of men. Rural areas had a different picture as the percentage of economically active female population was almost equal to that of the economically active male population, hence a tendency towards equality in economic activity. The reason for such a scenario in the rural areas could be the dominance of women who were not necessarily working for pay; the women could either be self-employed in their

own family business or working in their own/family holdings. This is in contrast to the majority in the urban centers that rely on wage employment as the main form of economic activity.

5.2 Economically Active Population

The economically active population (labour force), according to the International Labour Organization (ILO) refers to the employed as well as those unemployed. The unemployed includes those looking for work as well as those who report that work is unavailable. This section analyses the gender dimension of the economically active population.

5.2.1 Age Distribution of Economically active Population by Gender

Analysis of the labour force by age showed that over half of the economically active population were males (51%). Except for age groups 15-19 and 20-24, the male proportions were consistently higher than the female proportions at all ages. There were very few economically active persons at the older ages (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Age Distribution of Economically Active Population by Gender, 1999

Age Group	Percentage Female	Percentage Male	Total Number
5-9	47.0	53.0	1,153,154
10-14	46.5	53.5	1,525,189
15-19	50.9	49.1	2,110,647
20-24	50.5	49.5	2,350,353
25-29	47.7	52.3	2,053,047
30-34	46.5	53.5	1,513,701
35-39	47.7	52.3	1,284,603
40-44	46.8	53.2	937,090
45-49	46.9	53.1	767,330
50-54	46.5	53.5	622,299
55-59	49.1	50.9	406,855
60-64	50.0	50.0.	349,678
65+	48.0	52.0	676,113
Total	48.0	51.8	15,750,059

Table 5.2 also reveals that over 2.6 million children aged below 15 years were economically active.

5.2.2 Activities of the Economically Active Population

Within the economically active population, the individuals either worked for pay, on their own/family business or on their own/family holdings. The rest were unemployed. The results showed that the male population dominated the category of paid workers (over 70% of the total). Females, however, dominated the population working on their own or family holdings where they formed about 58% of this category. Less than 50% of the males worked on own or family holdings. There was a very insignificant gender inequality in those working on own or family business. Among the unemployed, females formed the majority (57%). The gender ratios shown in Table 5.2 further emphasise the gender disparities in the type of economic activity, based on economically active in the age bracket 15-64 years. Fourty women for every 100 men worked for pay, while no gender inequality was observed among those working on own or family business. Yet, about 137 women for every 100 men worked on family holdings. They also outnumbered men in the unemployment

category with 133 unemployed women for every 100 men. It can therefore be concluded that while men dominated wage employment, women were self-employed mainly on their own farms/holdings. Many women were also unemployed probably due to their limited access to higher education for skilled labour.

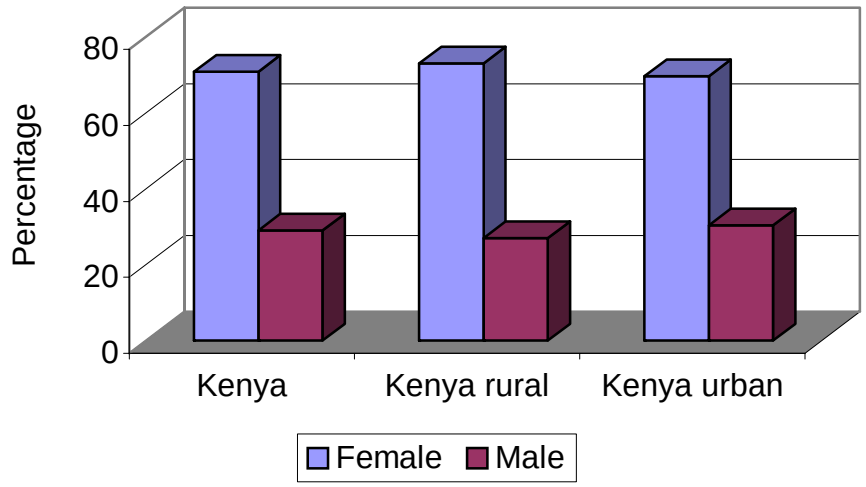
Table 5.2: Gender Distribution and Gender Ratios by Type of Economic Activity, Population Aged 15-64

Economic Activity	Females	Males	Gender Ratios (F/M X 100)
Worked for Pay	28.5	71.5	39.8
On Family Business	49.9	50.1	99.7
On Family Holdings	57.8	42.2	137.0
Unemployed	57.1	42.9	132.9
Total Economically Active	48.7	51.3	94.8

5.2.3 Population Working for Pay By Gender

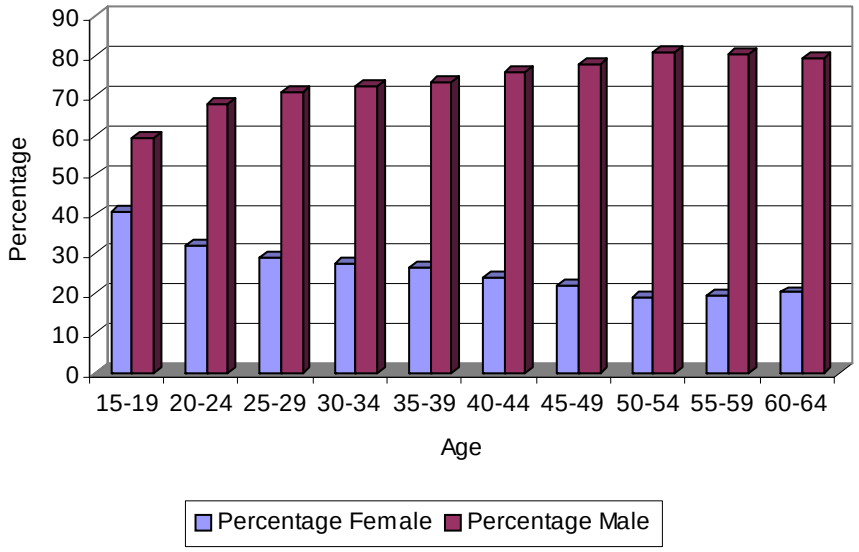
Wage employment is considered the most lucrative form of economic activity, in comparison to working on family business or family holding. Results of the 1999 census revealed that out of the entire national population working for pay, about 71% were males and 29% were females (Figure 5.3). This means that wage employment that was observed in the preceding sub-section, remains to be dominated by men.

Figure 5.3: Gender Distribution of Population Working for Pay By Type of Residence



When the labour force (ages 15-64) was considered, men still dominated the population that worked for pay across all age groups (Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4: Percentage Distribution of Economically Active Population Aged 15-64 Working for Pay, 1999



As much as over 80% of those working for pay in the age group 50-54 were men, yet the sex ratio in this age group was 100 (see Chapter 3). The proportion of females working for pay was only considerable in the age group 15-19, and even then, they formed less than half of those who worked for pay (40%). It should be noted that majority of persons in this age group were below age 18, thus most of them could still have been in school. Those over 65 years formed about 4% of the total labour force, with no significant gender discrepancy in the proportions.

A detailed analysis of the population working for pay by provinces and districts revealed that the gender-specific trend was not different, that is, more men than women worked for pay. The extent of gender disparities was generally wide but varied from one province to another. For example, there was a wide disparity in North Eastern province where about 83% of those working for pay were males, In Nairobi, 68% of those working for pay were males, the remaining 32% being females. The extent of disparities across provinces is shown by the computed gender gaps and gender ratios (Table 5.4). The negative values of the gender gaps are an indication that the disparities were in favour of men and to the disadvantage of women. The gender gaps ranged from as low as 31 percentage points in Kiambu district in Central province to 67 percentage points in Garissa district in North Eastern province.

In terms of gender ratios, North Eastern province had the lowest, where only 21 women out of every 100 men worked for pay. Women in this province were therefore the most disadvantaged in terms of wage employment. In the same province, women in Garissa district were the most disadvantaged, with only 19 of them for every 100 men working for pay, an extremely low figure compared to the national ratio of 41. The highest ratio among the provinces was that of Central province where for every 100 men, 51 women worked for pay, although women in Kirinyaga district were the most advantaged in terms of wage employment. Notably low gender ratios were observed in the following districts: Lamu (16) and Kwale (25) in Coast province, Moyale in Eastern (21) and Narok in Rift Valley province (26).

Table 5.3: Gender Distribution, Gender Gaps and Gender Ratios for Population Aged 5 Years and Above Working for Pay, 1999

Province/ District	Percentage Females	Percentage Males	Gender Gap(F-M)	Gender Ratio (F/M X 100)	Province/ District	Percentage Females	Percentage Males	Gender Gap (F-M)	Gender Ratio
Kenya	29.2	70.8	-41.6	41.2	Homa Bay	28.2	71.8	-43.5	39.3
Nairobi	31.7	68.3	-36.5	46.5	Kisii Central	28.2	71.8	-43.6	39.3
Central	33.7	66.3	-32.7	50.7	Kisumu	27.8	72.2	-44.5	38.4
Kiambu	34.4	65.6	-31.3	52.3	Kuria	26.9	73.1	-46.2	36.8
Kirinyaga	36.1	63.9	-27.8	56.5	Migori	26.3	73.7	-47.4	35.7
Murang'a	32.8	67.2	-34.5	48.7	Nyamira(N.Kisii)	28.6	71.4	-42.9	40.0
Nyandarua	30.3	69.7	-39.4	43.4	Rachuonyo	28.4	71.6	-43.1	39.7
Nyeri	33.5	66.5	-33.0	50.4	Siaya	28.1	71.9	-43.8	39.1
Thika	33.6	66.4	-32.7	50.7	Suba	23.7	76.3	-52.5	31.1
Maragua	31.5	68.5	-37.1	45.9	Bondo	25.5	74.5	-48.9	34.3
Coast	23.3	76.7	-53.4	30.4	Nyando	24.5	75.5	-51.0	32.4
Kilifi	23.5	76.5	-52.9	30.8	Rift Valley	27.9	72.1	-44.3	38.6
Kwale	20.2	79.8	-59.6	25.3	Baringo	29.9	70.1	-40.1	42.8
Lamu	13.8	86.2	-72.3	16.1	Bomet	25.4	74.6	-49.3	34.0
Mombasa	24.6	75.4	-50.8	32.6	Keiyo	26.1	73.9	-47.9	35.3
Taita Taveta	26.3	73.7	-47.5	35.6	Kajiado	28.0	72.0	-44.0	38.9
Tana River	19.0	81.0	-62.0	23.5	Kericho	27.2	72.8	-45.7	37.3
Malindi	21.0	79.0	-58.1	26.5	Koibatek	28.7	71.3	-42.6	40.3
Eastern	30.2	69.8	-39.5	43.3	Laikipia	27.7	72.3	-44.6	38.3
Embu	35.2	64.8	-29.6	54.4	Marakwet	25.6	74.4	-48.7	34.5
Isiolo	25.7	74.3	-48.5	34.7	Nakaru	29.9	70.1	-40.2	42.7
Kitui	29.2	70.8	-41.7	41.2	Nandi	26.4	73.6	-47.1	35.9
Makueni	28.4	71.6	-43.2	39.6	Narok	21.0	79.0	-58.0	26.6
Machakos	29.1	70.9	-41.7	41.1	Samburu	26.6	73.4	-46.9	36.2
Marsabit	24.1	75.9	-51.8	31.8	Trans Mara	24.6	75.4	-50.8	32.6
Mbeere	32.5	67.5	-35.1	48.1	Trans Nzoia	29.4	70.6	-41.1	41.7
Meru Central	32.8	67.2	-34.4	48.8	Turkana	29.2	70.8	-41.6	41.2
Moyale	21.0	79.0	-57.9	26.6	Uasin Gishu	26.8	73.2	-46.3	36.7
Mwingi	32.7	67.3	-34.6	48.6	West Pokot	24.0	76.0	-52.0	31.6
Meru North	27.5	72.5	-44.9	38.0	Buret	27.8	72.2	-44.5	38.4
Tharaka	32.8	67.2	-34.4	48.8	Western	27.0	73.0	-46.1	36.9
Nithi (Meru S)	33.2	66.8	-33.6	49.7	Bungoma	25.0	75.0	-49.9	33.4
N/Eastern	17.8	82.2	-64.3	21.7	Busia	25.0	75.0	-50.0	33.3
Garissa	16.7	83.3	-66.6	20.1	Mt. Elgon	26.5	73.5	-46.9	36.1
Mandera	17.1	82.9	-65.7	20.7	Kakamega	28.8	71.2	-42.4	40.4
Wajir	20.3	79.7	-59.3	25.5	Lugari	25.7	74.3	-48.6	34.5
Nyanza	27.4	72.6	-45.1	37.8	Teso	27.8	72.2	-44.4	38.5
Gucha(Kisii S)	30.3	69.7	-39.5	43.4	Vihiga	32.5	67.5	-34.9	48.3
					Butere/Mumias	23.6	76.4	-52.8	30.9

5.2.4 Self-Employment by Age

Self-employment refers to a situation where a person is not employed for pay but may be working on own/family business or on own/family holding. The age group 15-64 was considered in this analysis. Analysis of the economically active population by type of economic activity revealed no significant gender disparities in the proportions working on own/family business and those working on own/family holdings for the age group 15-19 (Table 5.4). However, disparities began to appear in the 20-24 age group for both categories of self-employment. For instance, 53% of those working on own/family business and 59% of those working on own/family holdings were women. These disparities continued across the middle age groups, especially for the category working on own or family holdings where the disparities were more significant, with women dominating the two economic spheres in all the age groups. The pattern was then reversed for those working on own/family business for those aged above 40, where men dominated among those involved in business enterprises. This leads to the conclusion that in Kenya, more women than men were involved in self- employment, especially in the most active and productive middle-aged group. It was only above age 40 that the men dominated in business, but women continued to dominate in family holdings at all ages. As explained elsewhere, men dominated wage employment, though an increasing

proportion of them opted for business at around age 40 or, as in recent times, have been retrenched from the public sector to engage in self-employment.

Table 5.4: Gender Distribution of Population Aged 15-64 Self-Employed by Age

	Percentage Self-employed			
Age Group	Own/Family Business		Own/Family Holdings	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total	49.9	50.1	57.9	42.1
15-19	50.3	49.7	49.6	50.4
20-24	53.0	47.0	59.0	41.0
25-29	51.1	48.9	60.8	39.2
30-34	49.8	50.2	60.9	39.1
35-39	50.5	49.5	62.2	37.8
40-44	48.7	51.3	61.1	38.9
45-49	47.9	52.1	60.7	39.3
50-54	44.7	55.3	58.5	41.5
55-59	42.8	57.2	57.2	42.8
60-64	41.4	58.6	55.4	44.6

Analysis of the self-employed by urban-rural residence revealed that there were more women (51%) than men (49%) working on own/family business in rural areas. At the same time, 58% of those working on family holdings in the rural areas were women, meaning that in rural Kenya, more women than men were self-employed. In urban areas, about 49% of those working on own/family business were women, meaning that more men (51%) than women were engaged in business. For those reported as working on own/family holdings in the urban areas, 58% of them were women. When data was disaggregated by province, rural areas of Eastern, Nyanza and Western Provinces had more women than men working on own/family business, while Rift Valley, North Eastern,

Coast and Central had more males than females on own/family business. In the urban areas, almost all provinces had more women than men working on family holdings. However, in North Eastern province, the proportion of females engaged in both types of self-employment was significantly low.

Table 5.5: Percentage Distribution of Self-Employed Population Aged 15-64 by Rural-Urban Residence and by Province, 1999

Province	Worked on Own/Family Business				Worked on Own/Family Holding			
	Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Kenya	50.8	49.2	48.8	41.2	58.0	42.0	57.7	42.3
Nairobi	-	-	44.6	55.4	-	-	54.9	45.1
Central	49.3	50.7	52.0	48.0	59.7	40.3	61.5	38.5
Coast	44.7	55.3	45.8	54.2	62.3	37.7	57.7	42.3
Eastern	51.0	49.0	53.4	46.6	58.8	41.2	57.5	42.5
North Eastern	33.5	66.5	58.5	41.5	25.5	74.5	33.4	66.6
Nyanza	58.9	41.1	57.3	42.7	62.3	37.7	58.2	41.8
Rift Valley	48.5	51.5	50.3	49.7	53.8	46.2	60.6	39.4
Western	52.6	47.4	55.6	44.4	60.6	39.4	60.6	39.4

5.2.5 Unemployed Population

At the time of the 1999 census, 57% of the total unemployed population consisted of women aged 5 years and above. There was a slight change when the analysis was limited to population aged 15-64 of which 54% of unemployed were women (Table 5.6).

Table 5.6: Distribution of Unemployed Population Aged 15-64 by Gender and Residence

Residence	Total		Female		Male		Gender Ratio (F/Mx100)
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Kenya	1,250,832	100.0	713,689	57.1	537,143	42.9	133.1
Rural	752,917	100.0	444,336	59.0	308,581	41.0	143.9
Urban	497,915	100.0	269,353	54.1	228,562	45.9	117.9

The gender ratios indicate that, countrywide, there were about 133 unemployed women aged 15-64 years for every 100 men of the same age group. The ratio was lower in urban areas (118) than in rural areas (143). This high ratio in rural areas could be explained by the large number of women that may have been looking for wage employment while working on family holdings, yet reported themselves as unemployed. Fewer women in the urban areas may be self-employed as that status requires capital or access to credit which many of them may not have.

At the provincial level, the results showed that the proportion of unemployed women in each province was consistently higher than that of men (Table 5.7). The highest gender gap in percentage points was that of North Eastern province (24 points), the lowest being that of Nairobi (2.8). The highest gender ratio was also that of North Eastern province where 164 women for every 100 men were unemployed and the lowest Nairobi and Central provinces with 106 and 108 women for every 100 men unemployed, respectively.

Table 5.7: Gender Distribution, Ratios and Gaps for Unemployed Population Aged 15-64 by Province, 1999

Province	Percentage		Gender Gap (F-M)	Gender Ratio (F/Mx100)	Relative Gap (F-M)/Fx100
	Female	Male			
KENYA	57.1	42.9	14.1	132.9	24.7
Nairobi	51.4	48.6	2.8	105.8	5.5
Central	51.9	48.1	3.9	108.1	7.5
Coast	56.8	43.2	13.7	131.7	24.1
Eastern	61.1	38.9	22.1	156.9	36.2
N. Eastern	62.2	37.8	24.4	164.4	39.2
Nyanza	56.1	43.9	12.2	127.9	21.8
Rift Valley	60.8	39.2	21.6	155.2	35.6
Western	57.6	42.4	15.3	136.0	26.5

To assess the differentials in unemployment by the type of residence, analysis was made for the urban-rural residence by province (Table 5.8). The results show that for the whole country the gender gap was smaller for the unemployed urban population (8.2 percentage points) than for the unemployed rural population (18 percentage points). At provincial level, the smallest gaps were in the rural parts of Central province (1.4) and Nairobi (2.8). The gender ratios were above 100 for all the provinces, an indication of very high unemployment rates for the female population in comparison to the males. Rural areas of North Eastern Province had the highest ratio with 177 females for 100 males unemployed, while Central Province had the lowest ratio (103).

Table 5.8: Gender Distribution, Gaps and Ratios of Unemployed Population Aged 15-64 By Rural-Urban Residence, 1999

	RURAL					URBAN				
		Percentage		Gender	Gender		Percentage		Gender	Gender
Province	Total	Female	Male	Gap	Ratio	Total	Female	Male	Gap	Ratio
Kenya	752,917	54.1	45.9	8.2	117.8	499,604	59.0	41.0	18.0	143.9
Nairobi	-	-	-	-	-	210,984	51.4	48.6	2.8	105.8
Central	90,522	50.7	49.3	1.4	102.9	37,900	52.5	43.0	9.6	122.2
Coast	70,541	61.8	38.2	23.6	161.8	101,369	53.4	46.6	6.8	114.5
Eastern	148,648	61.4	38.6	22.8	158.9	18,515	58.6	41.4	17.2	141.6
North/Eastern	38,822	63.9	36.1	27.9	177.3	14,947	57.6	42.4	15.2	135.8
Nyanza	121,637	55.4	44.6	10.8	124.3	30,746	58.9	41.1	17.9	143.6
Rift Valley	202,703	62.0	38.0	23.9	163.0	68,179	57.4	42.6	14.8	134.7
Western	80,044	57.2	42.8	14.3	133.4	16,964	59.8	40.2	19.7	148.9

Analysis of the education levels of the unemployed population was included to try to explain possible reasons why generally higher proportions of women than men were unemployed (Table 5.9). The results show that more of the unemployed women were those who had not attended school. Of all the unemployed who had never attended school, 72% were women. At higher levels of education, there was a marked decrease in the proportion of women, for example, 54% of the unemployed with Form 5 & 6 education and 52% of unemployed with university education were women.

Table 5.9: Percentage Distribution of Levels of Education of the Unemployed by Gender and Rural-Urban Residence

Highest Educational Attainment	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total	57.1	42.9	54.1	45.9	59.0	41.0
None	71.8	28.2	69.4	30.6	73.4	26.6
Pre-primary	56.5	43.5	53.6	46.4	58.5	41.5
Standard 1 Incomplete	56.9	43.1	53.9	46.1	58.8	41.2
Standard 1-4	54.3	45.7	51.3	48.7	56.3	43.7
Standard 5-8	57.3	42.7	54.4	45.6	59.3	40.7
Form 1-4	50.3	49.7	47.3	52.7	52.3	47.7
Form 5-6	53.7	46.3	50.7	49.3	55.7	44.3
University	52.2	47.8	49.3	50.7	54.3	45.7

Generally, the trend still remained the same when analyzed by rural-urban residence, that is, the larger proportion of unemployed population that never attended school were females in both urban and rural areas. In urban areas, unemployed females with secondary education were fewer than the males.

As a way of summing up unemployment, analysis of the unemployment rates out of the total labour force was done (Table 5.10). The rates were generally higher for women than men in all provinces. The gender gaps were highest in North Eastern Province and Nairobi.

Table 5.10: Unemployment Rates by Gender (Out of Total Labour Force)

Province	Unemployment Rate			
	Total	Females	Males	Gender Gap (F-M)
Kenya	10.1	11.9	8.4	3.4
Nairobi	18.5	25.0	14.5	10.4
Central	7.1	7.3	6.8	0.5
Coast	15.6	19.4	12.5	6.9
Eastern	8.3	10.0	6.6	3.4
North-Eastern	19.0	35.7	10.7	24.9
Nyanza	8.3	8.6	8.0	0.6
Rift Valley	9.5	12.4	7.0	5.4
Western	7.0	7.5	6.3	1.2

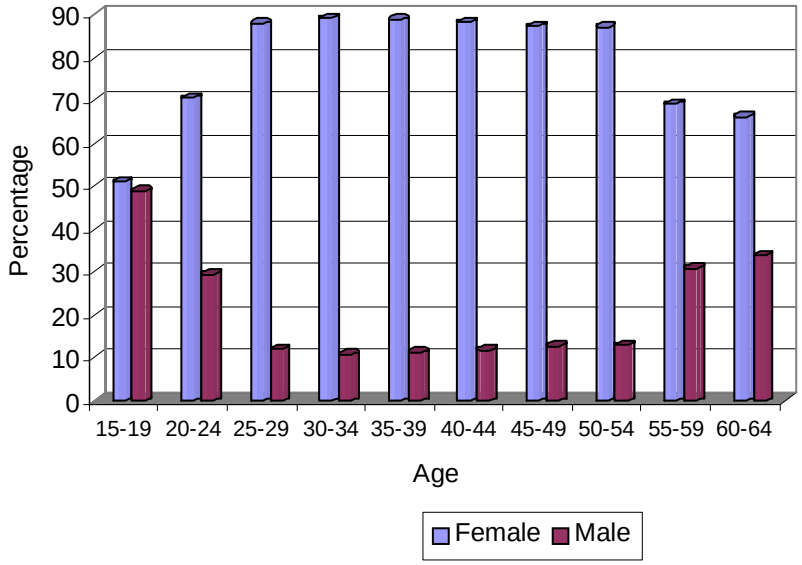
5.3 Economically Inactive Population

A gender distribution of the economically inactive indicates that across all age groups, more females than males reported to be economically inactive (Figure 5.5). At the age group 15-19 years the economically inactive female population was almost equal to that of the males. This is expected as most of the economically inactive are normally full-time students.

In the middle and higher ages, proportions of the economically inactive males were considerably lower than females, indicating that most of those who reported being economically inactive were female homemakers. Economically inactive males increased from age 55. At

retirement age, many economically active men could be shifting status to become economically inactive.

Figure 5.5: Economically Inactive Population by Gender and Age



5.4: Possible Reasons For Low Participation of Women in Economic activity

One of the possible reasons for the low participation of women in economic activity is their low participation at decision-making levels. Men have traditionally occupied power and decision-making positions. Indicators derived from records of the Women's Bureau confirm the situation in Kenya (Table 5.12 and 5.13). Involvement in various aspects of decision-making at household and national level is one way of improving women's status and reducing gender inequalities in access to various services and resources.

In most traditional African communities, especially those governed by patriarchal systems, women were only involved in decisions at household level; their power was limited to controlling production, storage and preparation of food and child care, while men controlled decisions relating to outside environment and sale of produce. Despite the shift in modes of production and development, a vast majority of women still remain in this traditional position. Women in Kenya have taken up political leadership posts since independence, including serving as members of parliament. However, this started only after 1969, before which there was no female member of parliament. A strong gender bias against women in leadership has existed in Kenya, limiting their participation in decision-making (Table 5.11).

From the table, women's participation in politics was low, considering they formed over 50% of the population, translating to over half of the voters. The proportion only rose marginally over 30 years, from 1.2% in 1969 to 4.1% in 2002. This was very low in comparison to neighboring countries, for example, in Tanzania women held 22% of parliamentary seats, while in Uganda they held 17% of the seats in 2002. In Rwanda, a country that was still recovering from the 1994 genocide, women held 25% of the parliamentary seats in 2002 (UNDP Kenya, 2002).

Table 5.11: Participation of Men and Women in the National Assembly, 1969-2002

Year	Number of Women	Percentage out of Total	Number of Men	Percentage out of Total	Total
1969	2	1.2	165	98.8	167
1974	7	1.4	162	98.6	169
1979	4	2.4	166	97.6	170
1983	3	1.8	167	98.2	170
1988	3	1.5	197	96.5	200
1992	7	3.5	193	96.5	200
1997	8	3.6	214	96.4	222
1998	9	4.1	213	95.9	222
2000	9	4.1	213	95.9	222
2002	9	4.1	213	95.9	222

Source: Women's Bureau records

Table 5.12 shows another dimension of power and decision-making; participation in the judicial service. Women in judicial service occupied the lower ranks, with very few having positions in the upper ranks. For instance, no woman had been appointed to the position Judges of Appeal in 1996; only one out of ten was appointed by 1998. Even by 2002,no additional woman had been appointed to this rank.

Table 5.12: Distribution of men and Women in the Judicial Service, 1996-2002

Type of Service	1996					1998					2002			
	Women	%	Men	%	Total	Women	%	Men	%	Total	Women	%	Men	Total
Chief Justice	-	-	1	100	1	-	-	1	100	1	0	-	1	1
Judge of Appeal	-	-	10	100	10	1	10	9	90	10	1	9.1	10	11
High court Judge	4	13.3	26	86.7	30	5	17.2	24	82.8	29	6	17.1	29	35
Comm Of Assize	-	-	-	-	-	4	40	6	60	10	3	37.5	5	8
Chief Magistrate	4	44.4	5	55.6	9	4	40	6	60	10	4	40	6	10
Senior Principal Magistrate	3	37.5	5	62.5	8	3	30	7	70	10	4	33.3	8	12
Senior Resident Magistrate	13	32.5	27	67.5	40	14	35.9	25	64.1	39	16	37.2	27	43
Magistrate	24	25	72	75	96	28	32.6	58	67.4	86	31	33.7	61	92
District Magistrate	39	33.6	77	66.4	116	40	35.7	72	64.3	112	42	36.8	72	114
Chief Kadhis	-	-	14	100	14	-	-	17		17	-	-	17	17
Total	87	26.9	237	73.1	324	99	30.6	225		324	107	31.2	236	343

The local authorities mainly deal with access to social services and amenities by the population. The highest position of decision-making is at mayoral level. Most of the other positions are councilors or other representatives within the town or city. Table 5.13 shows the participation of women and men in the local authorities. As in the other indicators, the results indicate that the participation of women was very low in comparison to that of the men.

Table 5.13: Local Authorities representation by Gender, 1992 and 1998

	1992				1998 (Feb)			
Authorities	Women	Men	Total	%Women	Women	Men	Total	%Women
County	24	1,005	1,029	2.3	201	2,254	2,455	8.2
Municipal	15	339	354	4.2	52	544	596	8.7
City Council	4	51	55	7.3	7	62	69	10.1
Town Council	7	391	398	1.8	40	532	572	7.0
Total	50	1,786	1,836	2.7	300	3,392	3,692	8.1

Source: RoK, 2000

Table 5.14 is an analysis of government appointees in various administrative and diplomatic positions between 1982 and 2002. The results emphasized the marginal participation of women in public administration. There were fewer women than men at all administrative levels. Although the numbers appeared to have increased from 1998 to 2002, the percentages of women were still quite low.

Table 5.14: Men and Women in Administrative and Diplomatic Ranks, 1998-2002

Rank	1998				2000				March 2002			
	Women	Men	Total	% Women	Women	Men	Total	% Women	Women	Men	Total	% Women
Ambassadors/High Commissioners	2	31	33	6.1	5	28	33	15.2	6	28	34	17.6
Permanent Secretaries	4	26	30	13.3	3	15	18	16.7	4	14	18	22.2
Provincial Commissioners	0	8	8	-	1	7	8	12.5	1	7	8	12.5
District Commissioners	1	68	69	1.4	3	67	70	4.3	5	65	70	7.1
Deputy Secretary	13	69	82	15.8	14	71	85	16.5	14	72	86	16.3
Lawyers	1295	3249	4544	28.5	14.9	3255	4664	30.2	1531	3193	4724	32.4
District Officer (DO)	68	644	712	9.6	82	647	729	11.3	85	644	729	11.7

Source: Women's Bureau records

5.5 Levels of Gender Development

It can be concluded that women's low level of participation in key decision-making areas in the country may be responsible for much of the inequality observed in access to education, employment and other services. To capture gender inequality using a general measure, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has developed composite indices--the Gender Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) to measure gender-related development. GDI is designed to measure gender disparities in achievement of human development using measures such as life expectancy, literacy levels and per capita income. It ranges from 0 to 1, and the higher the value, the greater the level of gender development. GEM evaluates political, economic and decision-making power using proportions of men and women in administrative, managerial and professional or technical positions, percentage of parliamentary seats and income (UNDP Kenya 2000). Table 5.15 shows the GDIs for Kenya by province in 1999 and 2001.

Table 5.15: Gender Development Indices by Province, 1999 and 2001

Province	GDI	
	1999	2001
KENYA	0.501	0.519
Nairobi	0.728	0.652
Central	0.571	0.593
Coast	0.443	0.442
Eastern	0.517	0.515
North Eastern	0.301	0.401
Nyanza	0.444	0.434
Rift Valley	0.491	0.502
Western	0.470	0.463

Source: UNDP Kenya 2000, 2002

The increment in Gender Development Index (GDI) from 1999 to 2001 was minimal, indicating that there has been only slight improvement in the situation of women. The highest-ranking province was Nairobi with a GDI of 0.652 in 2001, which appeared to be lower than that recorded in 1999 (0.728). The province with the lowest value of GDI both in 1999 and 2001 was North Eastern with a GDI of 0.401. This is not surprising as analysis of various indicators such as enrolment rates, education attainment and life expectancy, among others, have shown that women in this province are more disadvantaged than those in other provinces (see Chapters 3, 4 and 5). Kenya's GDI value (2001) places the country at position 112 globally, above countries like Cameroon at position 114, Congo at position 115, Nigeria at position 123 and Uganda at position 125 (UNDP Kenya, 2002).

The general conclusion is that though there have been efforts by the Government to improve women's situation, they still continue to occupy a disadvantageous position socially, economically and politically. Thus women's power to influence policy decisions is limited, a fact that has to do with the African traditional socialization process. Until this scenario changes, gender disparities in other areas already discussed will continue to be observed.

Chapter 6

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

The emerging scenario from this analysis is the existence of gender inequalities in the areas analysed. This chapter presents a summary of the findings and makes general conclusions based on the findings.

6.1 Summary of Findings

Information obtained from the census questionnaire captured a number of demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the population but was limited in terms of summary indices that can be used to measure levels of gender development. Only some socio-economic indicators, such as housing quality, education and economic activity, were analysed. There was an increase in the proportion of households headed by women in 1999 as compared to 1989, the majority of them in the rural areas. The highest proportion was found in Nyanza province (44%), where Siaya district recorded the highest proportion (55%), both in the province and the entire country; the lowest, on the other hand, was in Nairobi Province. Proportions of one-person households were generally small for all households. However, male-headed households were generally larger than female-headed households.

There was also a larger proportion of female-headed than male-headed households in owner-occupied houses constructed by owner as opposed to purchased houses.

A lower proportion of female-headed than male-headed had access to safe drinking water from piped sources; hence, a large proportion of the female-headed households were more likely to be obtaining their water from unprotected sources. The situation was the same at provincial level except in Nairobi where the majority of households had access to piped water.

A larger proportion of female-headed households than male-headed ones were likely to be using paraffin/lantern lamps. Modern forms of lighting were used by a larger proportion of male-headed than female-headed households. A majority used firewood as cooking fuel as opposed to use of more expensive, albeit convenient fuels such as electricity or gas. Nevertheless, use of firewood was more popular in female-headed than male-headed households except in Nairobi where about 19% of female-headed compared to 16% of male-headed households used electricity.

The pit latrine was the most common facility for human waste disposal for both female-headed and male-headed households, with no significant inequality in the proportions. Advanced forms of disposal such as main sewer were used by a larger proportion of male-headed than female-headed households, except in Nairobi where the proportion of female-headed households was higher. A higher proportion of the female-headed households was using buckets/bush.

Very few households were of high quality, and the few high-ranking houses were disproportionately male-headed. Nairobi was exceptional because a larger proportion of female-headed house-holds than male-headed households was high-ranking (rank 1). Although female-headed households may be on the increase in Kenya, a large proportion have poor amenities and are of poor quality, except in Nairobi province where women heading households are of higher socio-economic status than their rural counterparts.

Results of the l999 census indicated an excess of females in relation to the male population. This was not a new phenomenon as females also outnumbered males at the time of the 1989 census. There were fewer females in the young age group (0-14) but more males in the older age groups. The proportion of females in the 0-14 age group had (dropped from 48% in 1989 to 44% in 1999.

Sex ratios conformed to the general global pattern of high sex ratios at birth and younger ages and low sex ratios at older ages. Within the provinces and districts, sex ratios varied due to other prevailing factors such as migration.

About 39% of women aged 12 years and above were single compared to 44% of the men. There were no gender disparities in the proportions reporting themselves as married. The pattern was maintained in the rural areas, though a larger proportion of women than men remained single in the urban areas. The national pattern was also maintained at provincial level except for Nairobi where a higher proportion of women than men remained single. Yet sex ratios in Nairobi are quite high. At age 24, the majority of men (77%) and 38% of the women were single.

There were significant gender disparities in the age at which men and women in Kenya got married. Women married earlier than men whether in the rural or urban areas and irrespective of the region/province of residence. The lowest ages for women were reported in Tana River, Homa Bay, Migori, Suba and Narok districts while the highest was in Embu district.

Female children were clearly at an advantage compared to the male children of surviving better between birth and age 5 as in the 1989-99 period. Translated in terms of life female child was at an advantage through a reduction of the number of deaths by 6 compared to 9 in 1979-89.

Life expectancy for females was higher than that of males, implying a female life advantage of males. The picture was the same in all provinces except North Eastern where males lived slightly longer than females. In Garissa (in the same province), women did not have any selective life advantage (or disadvantage) over men. The highest life advantage was in Embu district where women outlive men by 11 years.

A lower proportion of females than males was attending school at the time of the 1999 census, but a larger proportion of the males than females had left school. Also, more of the females than males had not attended school. As expected, the majority of those attending school were in the younger ages, while those who had left school were mainly in the higher ages of 20 years and above.

Gender disparities were present at all levels of school enrolment and all in favour of boys. Girls were more advantaged in Nairobi, Central and Eastern provinces, while they were most disadvantaged in North Eastern Province. At secondary level, Central, Eastern and Nairobi provinces were closer to achievement of gender equality in enrolment when compared to other provinces. The trend was no different at higher secondary and university, although enrolments for females were higher in Embu and Meru Central districts of Eastern province.

A measure of scholastic progression from primary to secondary revealed no gender disparities in rates of progression at national level, in rural areas and in Central province. However, a small disparity emerged in urban areas where the progression rate for girls was higher than for boys, especially in Nairobi, Rift Valley and Western provinces. There were higher retardation rates for boys than for girls in all the provinces. Disparities in the rates were, however, small in Nairobi and large in North Eastern provinces, both in favour of low rates for girls.

There were more females than males with no level of education completed, and fewer females who completed secondary and higher levels of education. At national level, there was a negligible gender disparity for those who had completed primary education, but females were disadvantaged in North Eastern province where they constituted only 34% of those who had completed this level. Higher proportions of those who had completed secondary education were males, and disparities were quite significant at provincial level, with North Eastern province experiencing the highest. There were more economically active males than females, and more economically inactive females than males in both urban and rural areas. There were fewer women involved in paid work (wage employment) than men in both urban and rural areas and in all the provinces. More females than males were generally involved in unpaid work or self-employment in rural areas than in urban areas. There were also more unemployed females than males.

6.2 Conclusions

The results summarized above reveal the existence of gender disparities in various socio-economic indicators. At the household level, there was evidence of unequal access to amenities and social services between the female-headed and male-headed households, with the former being more disadvantaged. Access to education and employment was in favour of the male population, indicating that a gender bias still exists in Kenya in terms of access to resources and amenities. It is therefore clear from the analysis that efforts should be made to correct gender imbalances to enable both men and women to contribute equally to development.

6.3 Recommendations

In view of the results obtained from this analysis, it is recommended that efforts be made by the Government of Kenya and collaborating organisations to improve the collection, analysis, storage and dissemination of quality gender disaggregated data for the purpose of efficient planning and programming. Researchers in various fields should pay increased attention to gender issues in the collection and analysis of social, economic and demographic data to help planners critically understand the relationship between population, gender and development. More detailed questions are needed in the census questionnaire in future to capture indicators necessary for assessment of levels of gender development and for international comparison. There should be greater emphasis in government policies and programmes to increase participation of women in all spheres of development thereby enhancing equitable participation at all levels of decision making. In particular, a gender and development policy should be formulated to guide the different agencies and organisations involved in addressing gender concerns. Collective efforts should be made by all stakeholders to boost Government efforts in addressing the issues raised at various international conventions related to gender equality. These include the 1984 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the 1990 Jomtien World Conference on Education for All (EFA) and the 1994 Cairo International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD). Efforts should be made to create an enabling environment through legislation that protects as well as recognises the roles and responsibilities of women and men in development. This ensures equal access to resources without discrimination.

References

Bekele, E 1997. *The Gender Dimension in Development Projects: Concepts, Approaches and Frameworks For Gender Analysis*. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, Organisation for Social Sciences Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA).

RoK. 2000. *1999 Population and Housing Census Volume I and II*. Central Bureau of Statistics, Nairobi

RoK. 1996a. *Kenya Population Census 1989. Analytical Report Volume IV*. Central Bureau of Statistics, Nairobi

RoK. 1996b. *Kenya Population Census 1989. Analytical Report Volume V*. Central Bureau of Statistics, Nairobi

RoK. 1996c. *Kenya Population Census 1989. Analytical Report Volume VIII.* Central Bureau of Statistics, Nairobi

RoK. 2000. *Women and Men in Kenya, Facts and Figures 2000*. Women's Bureau. Nairobi

UN. 2001. *Population, Gender and Development, A Concise Report*. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, New York.

UN. 1990. *Handbook for National Statistical Data Bases on Women and Development.* United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. Social Statistics and Indicators Series K, No. 6. United Nations, New York

UN. 1984. *Compiling Social Indicators on the Situation of Women*. Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. Studies in Methods Series F, No.32. United Nations, New York.

UNDP. 2002. *Kenya Human Development Report 2001.Addressing Social and Economic Disparities for Human Development.* UNDP, Kenya

UNDP. 2000. *Kenya Human Development Report 1999*. UNDP, Nairobi.

UNESCO. 1997. *Gender-Sensitive Education Statistics and Indicators*. Division of Statistics,UNESCO

UNFPA. 2000. *Worlds Apart: Men and Women in a Time of Change. The State of World Population 2000.* UNFPA, New York

UNICEF). 2000. *Children and Women in Kenya: A Situation Analysis 1992.* UNICEF Kenya Country Office, Nairobi.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. 2000. *Analysis and Evaluation of Gender Statistics.* International Programs Center, Population Division, Washington, D.C., Programs Center, Population Division. Washington D.C.

Appendix 1: Kenya 1999 Population and Housing Census Questionnaire

Appendix 2: Household Headship by Gender and Province/District

Province/ District	Male	Female	Total	Province/ District	Male	Female	Total
Kenya	3,991,557	2,310,268	6,301,825	Kisii Central	61,316	38,116	99,432
Nairobi	483,369	155,559	638,928	Kisumu	71,716	50,249	121,965
Central	569,438	343,322	912,760	Kuria	17,101	10,920	28,021
Kiambu	125,456	61,574	187,030	Migori	61,601	50,075	111,676
Kirinyaga	75,599	37,839	113,438	Nyamira (N. Kisii)	62,380	36,408	98,788
Murang'a	43,805	40,663	84,468	Rachuonyo	35,484	32,145	67,629
Nyandarua	63,091	40,056	103,147	Siaya	53,165	63,894	117,059
Nyeri	99,229	67,531	166,760	Suba	18,756	15,019	33,775
Thika	111,131	57,795	168,926	Bondo	28,917	27,116	56,033
Maragua	51,127	37,864	88,991	Nyando	37,986	29,637	67,623
Coast	361,808	159,239	521,047	Rift Valley	941,825	536,529	1,478,354
Kilifi	58,421	30,874	89,295	Baringo	32,513	23,210	55,723
Kwale	59,788	31,948	91,736	Bomet	42,936	27,057	69,993
Lamu	10,296	4,538	14,834	Keiyo	20,083	9,893	29,976
Mombasa	137,692	42,747	180,439	Kajiado	59,284	36,153	95,437
Taita Taveta	35,521	21,789	57,310	Kericho	69,262	28,483	97,745
Tana River	22,708	13,085	35,793	Koibatek	18,312	9,397	27,709
Malindi	37,382	14,258	51,640	Laikipia	45,539	31,916	77,455
Eastern	572,994	377,571	950,565	Marakwet	20,269	10,924	31,193
Embu	43,483	20,177	63,660	Nakaru	187,118	105,717	292,835
Isiolo	12,339	9,985	22,324	Nandi	78,800	32,867	111,667
Kitui	51,436	45,131	96,567	Narok	42,328	32,996	75,324
Makueni	79,851	63,533	143,384	Samburu	13,608	18,811	32,419
Machakos	105,430	79,128	184,558	Trans Mara	19,355	13,261	32,616
Marsabit	15,478	13,641	29,119	Trans Nzoia	77,521	37,653	115,174
Mbeere	21,579	15,294	36,873	Turkana	37,566	35,303	72,869
Meru Central	80,863	38,734	119,597	Uasin Gishu	91,377	41,748	133,125
Moyale	5,934	4,083	10,017	West Pokot	39,147	24,252	63,399
Mwingi	30,694	27,761	58,455	Buret	46,807	16,888	63,695
Meru North	81,443	37,567	119,010	Western	420,583	276,433	697,016
Tharaka	12,682	7,492	20,174	Bungoma	112,309	61,548	173,857
Nithi (Meru S.)	31,782	15,045	46,827	Busia	44,534	36,536	81,070
North eastern	101,013	45,163	146,176	Mt. Elgon	17,682	7,646	25,328
Garissa	32,517	14,744	47,261	Kakamega	76,351	48,945	125,296
Mandera	30,080	15,065	45,145	Lugari	24,842	16,823	41,665
Wajir	38,416	15,354	53,770	Teso	23,789	14,295	38,084
Nyanza	540,527	416,452	956,979	Vihiga	58,025	46,928	104,953
Gucha (S.Kisii)	56,793	31,987	88,780	Butere/Mumias	63,051	43,712	106,763
Homa Bay	35,312	30,886	66,198				

Appendix 3 Computation of Housing Quality Index

Quality Order	Roof		Wall		Floor		Water		Human Waste Disposal		Cooking Fuel		Lighting	
	Material	code	Material	code	Material	code	Material	code	Material	code	Material	code	Material	code
1	Tile	2	Stone	1	Tiles	2	Piped	8	Main Sewer	1	Electricity	1	Electricity	1
2	Concrete	3	Brick/Block	2	Cement	1	Tank/Jabias	9	Septic Tank	2	Solar	6	Solar	6
3	Iron	1	Mud/Cement	4	Wood	3	Spring	5	Cess Poll	3	Gas	3	Pressure Lamp	2
4	Asbestos	4	Wood only	5	Earth	4	Well	6	Pit Latrine)	4	Parafin	2	Lantern	3
5	Grass	5	Mud/Wood	3			Borehole	7	Bucket Latrine	5	Charcoal	5	Tin Lamp	4
6	Makuti	6	Iron	6			Stream/River	4	Bush)	6	Firewood	4	Fuel Wood	5
7	Tin	7	Tin	8			Lake)	3						
8			Grass/Reeds	7			Dam)	2						
9							Pond	1						

	Roof	Wall	Floor	Water	human waste disposal	Cooking fuel	Lighting fuel
Scores	Codes	codes	codes	codes	Codes	Codes	codes
Score 1	(2) and (3)	(1) and (2)	(2)	(8) and (9)	(1),(2) and (3)	(1)	(1) and (6)
Score 2	(1) and(4)	(4) and (5)	(1)	(5)	(4)	(6) and (3)	(2)
Score 3	(5) and (6)	(3)	(3)	(6) and (7)	(5)	(2)	(3)
Score 4	(7)	(6) and (8)	(4)	(4) and (3)	(6)	(5)	(4)
Score 5		(7)		(2) and (1)		(4)	(5)

Scores Range

Scores 7 to 11	Rank 1
Scores 12 to 16	Rank 2
Scores 17 to 21	Rank 3
Scores 22 to 26	Rank 4
Scores 27 to 31	Rank 5
Scores 32 to 35	Rank 6

Note: Please Note that the numbers used for scores corresponds to the codes as were used in the questionnaire

Appendix 4 Population Distribution By Age, Gender and Province

KENYA

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	453,233	50.29	448,072	49.7	901,305
'1-4	1,738,639	50.41	1,710,144	49.6	3,448,783
'5-9	1,989,599	50.46	1,953,096	49.5	3,942,695
'10-14	2,006,751	50.42	1,973,434	49.6	3,980,185
15-19	1,666,733	49.32	1,712,942	50.7	3,379,675
20-24	1,312,740	46.57	1,505,837	53.4	2,818,577
25-29	1,080,840	48.09	1,166,575	51.9	2,247,415
30-34	830,644	49.51	847,011	50.5	1,677,655
35-39	689,005	48.64	727,395	51.4	1,416,400
40-44	511,583	49.64	519,042	50.4	1,030,625
45-49	417,599	49.74	421,887	50.3	839,486
50-54	342,186	50	342,128	50	684,314
55-59	223,099	48.32	238,568	51.7	461,667
60-64	193,804	47.22	216,641	52.8	410,445
65-69	141,267	46.56	162,171	53.4	303,438
70-74	118,858	46.42	137,200	53.6	256,058
75-79	79,557	48.99	82,848	51	162,405
80+	95,922	43.91	122,551	56.1	218,473
NS	919	46.96	1,038	53	1,957
Total	13,892,978	49.3	14,288,580	50.7	28,181,558

NAIROBI

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	29,056	50.1	28,940	49.9	57,996
'1-4	104,411	49.88	104,931	50.1	209,342
'5-9	94,322	49.14	97,604	50.9	191,926
'10-14	78,797	46.56	90,448	53.4	169,245
15-19	90,730	42.17	124,430	57.8	215,160
20-24	169,097	49.85	170,095	50.2	339,192
25-29	170,495	56.67	130,375	43.3	300,870
30-34	123,833	61.26	78,297	38.7	202,130
35-39	88,689	62.18	53,936	37.8	142,625
40-44	59,099	64.71	32,228	35.3	91,327
45-49	42,501	66.06	21,832	33.9	64,333
50-54	30,780	68.12	14,403	31.9	45,183
55-59	13,757	65.11	7,372	34.9	21,129
60-64	8,598	61.75	5,326	38.3	13,924
65-69	4,607	58.92	3,212	41.1	7,819
70-74	3,226	51.98	2,980	48	6,206
75-79	1,849	51.19	1,763	48.8	3,612
80+	2,525	45.76	2,993	54.2	5,518
NS	59	45.04	72	55	131
Total	1,116,431	53.48	971,237	46.5	2,087,668

CENTRAL

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	46,577	50.58	45,514	49.4	92,091
'1-4	196,493	50.48	192,773	49.5	389,266
'5-9	228,170	50.41	224,487	49.6	452,657
'10-14	258,600	50.46	253,917	49.5	512,517
15-19	222,890	50.13	221,714	49.9	444,604
20-24	176,005	47.42	195,175	52.6	371,180
25-29	148,498	47.49	164,222	52.5	312,720
30-34	122,261	48.78	128,402	51.2	250,663
35-39	99,245	48.43	105,694	51.6	204,939
40-44	65,399	49.19	67,545	50.8	132,944
45-49	56,394	48.21	60,589	51.8	116,983
50-54	51,315	48.86	53,714	51.1	105,029
55-59	33,208	45.56	39,685	54.4	72,893
60-64	28,774	45.14	34,967	54.9	63,741
65-69	21,057	45.52	25,205	54.5	46,262
70-74	18,391	43.98	23,421	56	41,812
75-79	13,181	45.19	15,986	54.8	29,167
80+	18,402	39.16	28,589	60.8	46,991
NS	188	46.88	213	53.1	401
Total	1,805,048	48.96	1,881,812	51	3,686,860

COAST

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	39,028	50.02	39,003	50	78,031
'1-4	152,248	50.33	150,225	49.7	302,473
'5-9	170,409	50.46	167,277	49.5	337,686
'10-14	156,343	50.57	152,808	49.4	309,151
15-19	132,568	48.2	142,452	51.8	275,020
20-24	120,890	46.58	138,650	53.4	259,540
25-29	111,164	50.63	108,410	49.4	219,574
30-34	81,848	53.24	71,893	46.8	153,741
35-39	65,002	51.37	61,525	48.6	126,527
40-44	47,790	49.37	49,018	50.6	96,808
45-49	40,852	52.06	37,614	47.9	78,466
50-54	31,415	50.61	30,654	49.4	62,069
55-59	22,221	52.4	20,187	47.6	42,408
60-64	17,057	48.66	18,000	51.3	35,057
65-69	12,812	50.22	12,702	49.8	25,514
70-74	9,369	50.34	9,243	49.7	18,612
75-79	5,511	52.71	4,944	47.3	10,455
80+	6,260	49.41	6,409	50.6	12,669
NS	70	47.95	76	52.1	146
Total	1,222,857	50.04	1,221,090	50	2,443,947

EASTERN

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	70,647	50.43	69,452	49.6	140,099
'1-4	278,302	50.58	271,927	49.4	550,229
'5-9	333,217	50.65	324,613	49.4	657,830
'10-14	343,979	50.51	337,003	49.5	680,982
15-19	287,286	50.21	284,839	49.8	572,125
20-24	184,560	45.07	224,972	54.9	409,532
25-29	143,023	44.51	178,294	55.5	321,317
30-34	113,168	46.19	131,833	53.8	245,001
35-39	100,781	45.72	119,651	54.3	220,432
40-44	77,165	46.54	88,641	53.5	165,806
45-49	67,572	46.55	77,598	53.5	145,170
50-54	56,620	46.27	65,747	53.7	122,367
55-59	38,304	46.96	43,260	53	81,564
60-64	36,595	46.12	42,744	53.9	79,339
65-69	25,149	45.97	29,555	54	54,704
70-74	26,212	43.27	34,369	56.7	60,581
75-79	16,805	49.22	17,338	50.8	34,143
80+	22,919	44.29	28,829	55.7	51,748
NS	162	46.55	186	53.5	348
Total	2,222,466	48.38	2,370,851	51.6	4,593,317

N/EASTERN

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	8,515	51.25	8,099	48.8	16,614
'1-4	54,520	52.12	50,075	47.9	104,595
'5-9	72,415	53.53	62,860	46.5	135,275
'10-14	78,485	54.61	65,222	45.4	143,707
15-19	59,207	54.75	48,929	45.3	108,136
20-24	37,631	53.36	32,898	46.6	70,529
25-29	24,820	45.95	29,198	54.1	54,018
30-34	22,883	47.07	25,727	52.9	48,610
35-39	16,955	46.67	19,371	53.3	36,326
40-44	19,190	54.14	16,258	45.9	35,448
45-49	10,154	56.7	7,755	43.3	17,909
50-54	11,245	54.17	9,514	45.8	20,759
55-59	4,998	61.28	3,158	38.7	8,156
60-64	7,250	58.51	5,141	41.5	12,391
65-69	2,595	63.84	1,470	36.2	4,065
70-74	3,434	55.76	2,724	44.2	6,158
75-79	1,114	58.14	802	41.9	1,916
80+	2,164	51.01	2,078	49	4,242
NS	27	58.7	19	41.3	46
Total	437,602	52.79	391,298	47.2	828,900

NYANZA

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	72,152	50.15	71,729	49.9	143,881
'1-4	267,685	50.11	266,537	49.9	534,222
'5-9	311,482	50.18	309,246	49.8	620,728
'10-14	341,935	50.58	334,042	49.4	675,977
15-19	275,252	49.38	282,199	50.6	557,451
20-24	175,859	43.67	226,807	56.3	402,666
25-29	126,853	43.57	164,314	56.4	291,167
30-34	99,909	44.51	124,543	55.5	224,452
35-39	90,296	43.99	114,985	56	205,281
40-44	70,871	45.35	85,390	54.7	156,261
45-49	58,589	45.28	70,795	54.7	129,384
50-54	49,181	46.87	55,745	53.1	104,926
55-59	33,259	44.96	40,717	55	73,976
60-64	31,194	43.89	39,879	56.1	71,073
65-69	25,597	42.98	33,958	57	59,555
70-74	19,161	45.33	23,111	54.7	42,272
75-79	12,524	47.75	13,703	52.3	26,227
80+	12,985	46.39	15,003	53.6	27,988
NS	115	44.92	141	55.1	256
Total	2,074,899	47.72	2,272,844	52.3	4,347,743

R/VALLEY

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	122,778	50.32	121,204	49.7	243,982
'1-4	456,914	50.63	445,500	49.4	902,414
'5-9	525,541	50.56	513,855	49.4	1,039,396
'10-14	493,926	50.45	485,108	49.6	979,034
15-19	400,581	49.81	403,670	50.2	804,251
20-24	320,325	47.34	356,359	52.7	676,684
25-29	264,208	48.99	275,156	51	539,364
30-34	192,769	50.03	192,510	50	385,279
35-39	162,045	48.88	169,455	51.1	331,500
40-44	118,062	50.76	114,536	49.2	232,598
45-49	97,872	51.17	93,385	48.8	191,257
50-54	76,359	51.94	70,666	48.1	147,025
55-59	51,183	50.09	50,989	49.9	102,172
60-64	39,937	48.83	41,859	51.2	81,796
65-69	29,206	48.17	31,421	51.8	60,627
70-74	24,104	48.23	25,874	51.8	49,978
75-79	18,176	50.95	17,497	49.1	35,673
80+	20,818	44.41	26,058	55.6	46,876
NS	226	47.78	247	52.2	473
Total	3,415,030	49.85	3,435,349	50.2	6,850,379

WESTERN

Age	Male	%	Female	%	Total
'0	64,480	50.14	64,131	49.9	128,611
'1-4	228,066	49.99	228,176	50	456,242
'5-9	254,043	50.09	253,154	49.9	507,197
'10-14	254,686	49.98	254,886	50	509,572
15-19	198,219	49.19	204,709	50.8	402,928
20-24	128,373	44.38	160,881	55.6	289,254
25-29	91,779	44.04	116,606	56	208,385
30-34	73,973	44.09	93,806	55.9	167,779
35-39	65,992	44.36	82,778	55.6	148,770
40-44	54,007	45.22	65,426	54.8	119,433
45-49	43,665	45.49	52,319	54.5	95,984
50-54	35,271	45.83	41,685	54.2	76,956
55-59	26,169	44.08	33,200	55.9	59,369
60-64	24,399	45.93	28,725	54.1	53,124
65-69	20,244	45.09	24,648	54.9	44,892
70-74	14,961	49.15	15,478	50.9	30,439
75-79	10,397	49.01	10,815	51	21,212
80+	9,849	43.89	12,592	56.1	22,441
NS	72	46.15	84	53.9	156
Total	1,598,645	47.82	1,744,099	52.2	3,342,744

Appendix 5: List of Contributors

Main Contributors to the Kenya 1999 Population and Housing Census Analytical Reports

Name and Institution	*Contribution*
Mr. David S. O. Nalo Director Central Bureau of Statistics	Project Administration and Coordination
Dr. Coulibaly Sidiki UNFPA Country Representative	Financial Support
Dr. John Blacker London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine	Technical Advisor and Co-Author of Population Dynamics Monograph
Prof. John Oucho University of Botwsana	Technical Advisor and Co-Author of Population Dynamics Monograph
Dr. Michael J. Levin	General Technical Assistance in Data USAID/BUCEN Processing and Analysis
Dr. Caribert Irazi USAID/BUCEN	Trainer/Technical Adviser on Demographic Analysis Techniques
Ms Eva Ndavu AMREF	Editorial Consultant
Mr. Jean Marc Hie UNFPA Country Support Team	Data Processing Technical Adviser
Mr. Bogale Demissie UNFPA Country Support Team	Data Processing Technical Adviser
Mr. Zablon Felix Muga Consultant	Local Area Network Maintenance
Prof. E. H. O. Ayiemba University of Nairobi	Co-Author of Fertility and Nuptiality Monograph
Mr. Collins Opiyo Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Fertility and Nuptiality Monograph and assistance with overall data editing
Ms Mary Muyonga Studies and Research Institute University of Nairobi	Student/Trainee Analyst and Co-Author of Population Fertility and Nuptiality Monograph

Name and Institution	*Contribution*
Mr. Ben Obonyo Consultant	Co-Author of Mortality Monograph and assistance with overall data editing
Mr. Fredrick Otieno Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Mortality Monograph
Mr. Lawrence Kanampiu Studies and Research Institute University of Nairobi	Student/Trainee Analyst and Co-Author of Population Mortality Monograph
Mr. George Odipo University of Nairobi	Co-Author of Migration and Urbanization Monograph
Mr. Jackson Cheruiyot Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Migration and Urbanization Monograph
Mr. Paul Ong'ayi Obino Population Studies and Research Institute University of Nairobi	Student/Trainee Analyst and Co-Author of Migration and Urbanisation Monograph
Dr. Paul Kizito National Council for Population and Development	Co-Author of Population Projections Monograph and assistance with overall data editing
Mr. Francis M. Munene Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Population Projections Monograph
Mr. Fredrick Gitahi Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Education Monograph
Mr. Joshua M. Musyimi Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Education Monograph
Mrs. Juliana Nzomo Ministry of Education	Co-Author of Education Monograph
Mr. Jimmie Katabwa Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Labour Force Monograph
Mr. Kamotho Manyara Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development	Co-Author of Labour Force Monograph
Mr. Thomas Ogutu Ministry of Roads and Public Works Housing Department	Co-Author of Housing Monograph
Mr. Silas Opiyo Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Housing Monograph

Name and Institution	*Contribution*
Ms Margaret Ndwiga University of Nairobi	Co-Author of Gender Dimensions Monograph
Ms Rosemary U. Kong'ani Central Bureau of Statistics	Co-Author of Gender Dimensions Monograph
Mr. Mathews O. Onyango Studies and Research Institute University of Nairobi	Student/Trainee Analyst and Co-Author of Population Gender Dimensions Monograph
Mr. Titus Katembu Office of the President Efficiency Monitoring Unit	Edited Education Monograph
Mr. Peter W. Nyongesa Central Bureau of Statistics	Programming and Tabulation
Mr. Edward G. Mungai Central Bureau of Statistics	Programming and Tabulation
Mr. Sammy Kinyanjui Central Bureau of Statistics	Programming and Tabulation
Mr. Ohmond D. W. Omenya Central Bureau of Statistics	Programming and Tabulation
Mr. Moses Okelo Central Bureau of Statistics	Logistics
Ms Jane Kamau Central Bureau of Statistics	Secretarial Services
Ms Rose A. Owuor Central Bureau of Statistics	Secretarial Services
Mr. Manasse Kadenge Central Bureau of Statistics	Driver
Mr. Charles Onyango Ayot Central Bureau of Statistics	Driver