

Gender and Power Analysis in Five Urban Informal Settlements – Nairobi, Kenya



Project: Promoting livelihoods and Inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders

Project Implementing Partners



**Study
conducted by**



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDEMENT	6
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	7
LIST OF ACRONYMS	11
DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS	12
1 INTRODUCTION	14
1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	14
1.2 STUDY OBJECTIVES	19
2 METHODOLOGY	21
2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY	21
2.2 STUDY SITES.....	21
2.3 STUDY DESIGN AND SAMPLING.....	22
2.4 DATA ANALYSIS.....	25
2.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	26
3 FINDINGS:	28
3.1 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS.....	28
3.2 THE EXISTING GENDER INEQUALITIES	29
3.3 ADDRESSING GENDER INEQUALITY IN THE URBAN INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS	60
3.4 POTENTIAL RISKS THAT ARE LIKELY TO AFFECT EFFECTIVE EMPOWERMENT OF THE TARGET GROUPS AND RELEVANT MITIGATION STRATEGIES AND MEASURES	68
4 CONCLUSIONS	69
4.1 ON GENDER INEQUALITIES.....	69
4.2 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THESE INEQUALITIES	69
4.3 POSSIBLE STRATEGIES TO ADDRESS CHALLENGES/ INEQUALITIES	70
4.4 POTENTIAL RISKS	70
5 RECOMMENDATIONS	70
5.1 RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADDRESS GENDER INEQUALITY IN ACCESS AND CONTROL OVER REPRODUCTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES	70
5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADDRESS GENDER INEQUALITY IN PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN DECISION MAKING AT COMMUNITY LEVEL	70
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS TO ADDRESS GAPS IN POLICIES, LEGISLATIONS AND INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITIES THAT ARE BARRIERS TO GENDER EQUALITY	71
6 REFERENCES	73
7 APPENDICES	80
7.1 APPENDICES 1: TABLES SUMMARIZING FINDINGS FROM QUANTITATIVE STUDY	80
7.2 DATA ANALYSIS: HOW EMPOWERMENT AND POVERTY SCORES WERE GENERATED.....	81
7.3 APPENDICES 2: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS	84
7.4 APPENDICES 3: LISTS OF RESPONDENTS.....	110

List of Tables

TABLE 1: PROPORTION OF STUDY POPULATION IN THE TOTAL POPULATION BY INFORMAL SETTLEMENT	22
TABLE 2: SUMMARY LIST OF FGDs CONDUCTED	24
TABLE 3: DATA COLLECTION TOOLS	25
TABLE 4: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA BY GENDER OF THE RESPONDENT	28
TABLE 5: ACTIVITIES OF MEN AND WOMEN AT HOUSEHOLD LEVEL.....	29
TABLE 6: GENDER ACTIVITY PROFILE AT COMMUNITY LEVEL.....	34
TABLE 7: BELONGING TO A SOCIAL SUPPORT GROUP BY GENDER OF THE RESPONDENT	36
TABLE 8: HAVE FAIR OPPORTUNITY TO PARTICIPATE IN MAKING DECISIONS IN THE HOUSEHOLD	43
TABLE 9: INVOLVEMENT IN DECISIONS AT COMMUNITY LEVEL BY GENDER OF THE RESPONDENT	45
TABLE 10: RANKING OF MOST IMPORTANT DECISIONS AT COMMUNITY LEVEL BY FGD RESPONDENTS	48
TABLE 11: ELEMENTS INCLUDED IN THE POVERTY SCORE MODEL (BASED ON OXFAM`S DEFINITION OF POVERTY).....	52
TABLE 12: FORMS OF VIOLENCE	58
TABLE 13: MAPPING OF STAKEHOLDERS ADDRESSING GENDER INEQUALITIES IN THE TARGET INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS	66
TABLE 14: ANALYSIS OF DATA ON POVERTY SCORE GENERATED FROM THE FOUR ELEMENTS*	80

List of Figures

FIGURE 1: REASONS FOR DOING HOUSEHOLD CHORES	30
FIGURE 2: FACTORS DETERMINING HOUSEHOLD ROLE ALLOCATION	31
FIGURE 3: DISTRIBUTION OF PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITY BY GENDER.....	34
FIGURE 4: PROPORTION OF THE HOUSEHOLD RESPONDENTS ACCESSING PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES.....	36
FIGURE 5: PROPORTION OF MEN AND WOMEN IN PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITY BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION	37
FIGURE 6: PROPORTION OF MEN AND WOMEN IN PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITY AGAINST BELONGING TO A SUPPORT GROUP	39
FIGURE 7: PROPORTION OF MEN AND WOMEN EARNING AT LEAST KSHS.150 (USD.2) PER DAY IN PRODUCTIVE ROLE	40
FIGURE 8: PROPORTION OF MEN AND WOMEN ENGAGED IN PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITY BY AGE AND GENDER ...	41
FIGURE 9: PROPORTION OF MEN AND WOMEN ENGAGED IN PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITY BY MARITAL STATUS AND GENDER	42
FIGURE 10: DECISIONS MADE IN THE HOUSEHOLD BY GENDER OF THE RESPONDENT	43
FIGURE 11: RESPONDENT GETS THE FINAL SAY WHEN THERE IS DIFFERENCE IN OPINION.....	44
FIGURE 12: PROPORTIONS OF RESPONDENTS WHO REPORTED BEING “VERY MUCH” CONSULTED IN COMMUNITY DECISIONS.....	46
FIGURE 13: PROPORTION OF HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD REPORTING A REASON FOR INABILITY TO PARTICIPATE IN COMMUNITY DECISION MAKING	47
FIGURE 14: PROPORTIONS OF RESPONDENTS WHO AGREED/ STRONGLY AGREED ON SELECT CULTURAL BARRIERS.....	49
FIGURE 15: PROPORTIONS OF RESPONDENTS WHO AGREED TO SELECT BARRIERS TO POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT	51
FIGURE 16: SUSTAINED POVERTY SCORE BY AGE AND GENDER	53
FIGURE 17: HOW POVERTY DISTINCTLY AFFECTS MEN FROM WOMEN.....	55
FIGURE 18: POVERTY SCORE BY SEX AMONG YOUNGER AND OLDER RESPONDENTS.....	56
FIGURE 19: PROPOSED INTERVENTION TO END POVERTY IN ORDER OF PRIORITY	57
FIGURE 20: PROPORTIONS OF RESPONDENTS WHO STRONGLY AGREED/ AGREED TO STATEMENTS ON GBV	59

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

The World Bank (2015) classifies Kenya as a lower middle income country and one of East Africa's fastest growing economies. According to Society for International Development (SID) however, Kenya remains one of the most unequal societies when compared to of Uganda and Tanzania (SID, 2004). Inequality therefore remains a key challenge to Kenya. In order to respond to this challenge, there is need for a clear understanding of the causes, nature, effects and manifestations of socio-economic inequalities (SID, 2006). A study by Oxfam (2009) indicated that the levels of inequality were very high in the informal settlements in Nairobi leading to human insecurity and under development. In these settlements, huge disparities exist in the levels of empowerment of men and women. Women are at greater risk of unemployment, physical and gender based violence. In addition, most households in these informal settlements are worst hit by poverty. The heads of the households often rely on the informal economy as their main or only source of income. The sources of income and livelihoods include seasonal employment, casual labour, home based self-employment and subsistence agriculture among others.

About the project

Oxfam in partnership with National Organization for Peer Educators (NOPE), SITE Enterprise Promotion and Women Empowerment Link (WEL) are implementing a four year project aimed at empowering women employed in the informal economy in five urban informal settlements in Nairobi city namely Mukuru, Mathare, Korogocho, Kibera and Kawangware. Kenya's latest population census by Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) shows that these settlements—host about 25% of the city's population (KNBS, 2010). The project seeks to address challenges that affect women in the course of their work such as low and unreliable incomes, poor negotiation skills, overworking, harassments, extortion, arbitrary arrests, sexual harassments and lack of favourable policy environment. Others are limited knowledge of their rights, limited access to markets and credits, and inadequate technical and business skills.

Oxfam and the three partners commissioned this Gender and Power Analysis to enhance their understanding of the underlying issues affecting the target women domestic workers and small scale traders especially the gender related imbalances. Gender analysis explores and highlights the relationships of women and men in society, and the inequalities in those relationships. Power analysis is a means of identifying and exploring multiple power dimensions that affect a given situation (Oxfam, 2009). The unequal power relations pose a risk to intervention strategies aimed at improving women's economic well-being. This analysis is aimed at providing Oxfam and partners with the information necessary to sharpen the focus of their project for effective interventions in socio-economic empowerment of the target women.

Methodology

The Harvard Analytical Framework was used to determine the differences between men/ boys and women/ girls with regards to their level of engagement in reproductive, productive and community activities; level of participation in decision making; and access and control to / over assets and power. In addition, the study assessed factors contributing to poverty and opportunities and barriers in policy, legislation, community leadership structures, culture and societal attitudes to empowerment. The data was collected from primary and secondary sources. Primary data were collected using quantitative methods by interviewing 794 respondents from randomly selected households while qualitative methods from 20 key informants who were purposively selected from among government officials, community leaders and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) representatives and 26 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) conducted among women and men from general population, representatives of women small scale traders and women domestic workers. Secondary data was generated through desk review of relevant literature on gender and power relations.

Findings and discussion

The study found that **division of labour** by **gender** at the household level was unequal with women bearing the heavier burden of reproductive roles such as child care and domestic chores. This unequal division of labour is to a large extent based on culturally and socially determined role allocations which define what men, women, boys and girls do or should not do. However, case studies showed that some men did not conform to the perceived culturally and socially defined gender role allocations and therefore, took up household chores regularly. The role allocation determined the decisions, assets and productive roles undertaken by women and men.

On **decision making**, women made decisions on what to cook and division of household chores. However, decisions involving productive activities, assets or community issues were made by their male partners. Men also had the final say on most decisions, especially where there were varied opinions. Efforts by local leaders such as chiefs to incorporate women in decision making at community level were noted. Some key informants reported that they had observed the policy requirement of at least a third representation of either gender in development committees. Some male heads of households reported that they often consulted their wives in decision making at the household level. At community level, women were often excluded from what local administration referred to as “serious” (as defined by local administration) debates like identification of public development projects as well as budgeting. It was noted that for women, domestic issues including experience of gender based violence is considered serious business yet these issues were trivialized in public forums such as chiefs’ *barazas* (public meetings). In addition, women were often disadvantaged in access to productive resources due to stereotyping, cultural perceptions and negative attitudes that confined women to the domestic sphere.

This study defined **Poverty** by a combination of variables including income, assets, access to basic services (education used as proxy) and access to opportunity for development (productive

resources). Analysis of composite data on these aspects showed that women were generally poorer than men. Most respondents identified job creation as the priority intervention to address poverty. Other interventions proposed were: support growth of individual businesses, educating children to highest level, cash transfer programs, providing basic needs, ownership of homes, addressing social problems such as alcoholism, and improve access to social services (health care, security, education) from the authorities.

Gender based violence (GBV) against men and women were prevalent in all the five informal settlements. The main forms of violence were physical, sexual and psychological. The most common types were wife beating, husband beating and rape. Husband beating was also reported in all the five informal settlements. The study established that the environment (dark narrow corridors, inadequate and inaccessible toilets and bathrooms and congested living spaces) predispose individuals to GBV. Vices, such as alcohol and substance abuse that were often identified only exacerbated violence against women and girls. Research participants, however, hardly made a connection between poverty and unequal gender power relations which are identified in literature as the root causes of GBV.

The **legislative, policy and institutional framework** was found inadequate in addressing the gender inequalities. There were low levels of awareness of legislations and policies providing for gender equality among key informants; the least known legislations and policies were the Matrimonial property Act, Marriage Act, Sexual Offences Act, Children's Act, and FGM Act. In the focus group discussions (FGDs), provisions for gender equality such as in inheritance of land by men and women in the Constitution of Kenya (2010) were the most commonly identified legal provisions. Places of employment appeared not to affirm gender equality, women were disadvantaged in accessing regular employment irrespective of their level of education. The study found out that many Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) working in the five target informal settlements, with programmes focussing on various aspects (see table 14).

Potential **risks** to gender empowerment were identified namely: a) culturally defined status and gender roles - in this study, women reported that they would be embarrassed if their husbands took to household chores; b) if not adequately involved in economic empowerment programs, men may feel that their dominant status is threatened due to loss of identity as bread winners, this risk is greater where only the women are targeted; c) Kenya is a patriarchal society in which men are expected (even by the women) to play leadership and key decision-making roles; d) religions which do not support women leadership; e) expectation of handouts from projects by community members; and f) insecurity in the informal settlements.

Recommendations

The study recommends that strategies for addressing gender and power imbalances should:

- Advocate for implementation of affirmative action in favour of women in workplaces.

- Awareness raising forums on gender and power relations using multi-pronged approaches that help individuals drop negative practices and pick up those that support gender equality agenda.
- Involving men as champions of change in gender and power relations at household and community levels
- Using the popular education model that allows individuals and communities to examine their own situation/ problems critically and based on these take action to solve their issues. The process includes use of theatre arts and media to communicate desired behaviour change
- Identifying non-political activities such as savings and credit programs and environmental clean ups in which women and men work together and which address collective needs. A well selected collective activity will enhance appreciation of men and women's inputs.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AICS	African Institute for Children Studies
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CHW	Community Health Worker
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CWD	Casual Women Domestic Workers
DW	Domestic Worker
EU	European Union
FBOs	Faith Based Organizations
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FIDA	Federation of Women Lawyers
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus
AIDs	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ILO	International Labour Organization
KII	Key Informant Interview
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Kshs	Kenya Shillings
KUDHEIHA	Kenya Union of Domestic, Hotels, Educational Institution Hospitals and Allied Workers
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NOPE	National Organization of Peer Educators
SITE-EP	SITE Enterprise Promotion
SST	Small Scale Traders
STIs	Sexually Transmitted Disease
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nation Population Fund
US\$	United States Dollar
VAW	Violence against Women
WEL	Women Enterprise Link

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Gender: According to Oxfam, the concept of gender is used by sociologists to describe all the socially constructed attributes, roles, activities and responsibilities connected to being a man or a woman in a given society. Thus our gender identity determines how we are perceived and how we are expected to think and act as women and men, because of the way society is organized (Oxfam and March *et al*, 2010). Gender is, however, dynamic, contextual and time bound.

Gender analysis: According to Oxfam (Ibid, 2010) gender analysis explores and highlights the relationships of women and men in society, and the inequalities in those relationships, by asking: Who does what? Who has what? Who decides? How? Who gains? Who loses? When we pose these questions, we also ask: Which men? Which women? Therefore, Gender analysis breaks down the divide between the private sphere (involving personal relationships) and the public sphere (which deals with relationships in wider society). Hence it looks at how power relations within the household interrelate with those at the international, state, market, and community level (Ibid).

Gender-based violence (GBV): According to Oxfam GB (2007), GBV refers to violence that targets individuals or groups on the basis of their gender. The UNFPA (2009) further states that GBV undermines the health, dignity, security and autonomy of its victims, yet it remains shrouded in a culture of silence.

Power analysis: Oxfam (2010) defines power analysis as a means of identifying and exploring the multiple power dimensions that affect a given situation, so as to better understand the different factors that interact to reinforce poverty. Such an examination is aimed at identifying power balance issues that stand in the way of transforming power relations. Such transformation is aimed at enabling poor men and women have greater influence over the policies, structures and social norms that affect their lives.

Empowerment: .Luttrell, Quiroz, Scrutton & Bird (2009), conceptualized empowerment as ‘a progression that helps people gain control over their own lives and increase their capacity to act on issues that they themselves define as important’. It should be seen as an emancipation process in which the disadvantaged are enabled to exercise their rights, obtain access to resources and participate actively in the process of shaping society and making decisions. Empowerment is both individual and collective, that is, it draws both from individual capacities and collective action in order to address inequalities that are the causes of poverty.

Poverty: There is no international consensus on guidelines for measuring poverty. A common definition measures poverty in relation to the amount of money (\$1.25 per day) necessary to meet basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter (Smelser and Baltes, 2001). However, the emergence of the concept of social exclusion in defining poverty emphasizes the need to consider relative poverty in reference to three aspects, namely; income ,basic needs, capability (or empowerment) – When combined, these define poverty from a perspective of lack of empowerment and dignity (UNESCO, 2015). According to Oxfam; poverty means little income, too few assets, lack of access to basic services and opportunities, deep inequalities, ongoing

insecurity and little opportunity for development. Poverty is rooted in inequality, and in human action or inaction. It can be worsened by natural disasters, human violence, oppression and environmental damage, and maintained by institutions and economic means. Women and girls are often the most oppressed by poverty; their needs and rights must be central to eliminating it; that is “in poverty, people have little power and are denied an effective voice (Oxfam, 2015) “.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The population

As at 2014, Kenya had an estimated population of forty three million people, (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, KNBS, 2015) and a sex *ratio* of 998 *males* per 1 000 *females* (Kaiser Foundation, 2015). While the majority of the population live in rural areas, there is growing urbanization at 4.34% (World Bank, 2014). In most urban areas, there are slightly more men than women at 6,278,811 and 6,208,564 respectively (KNBS, 2010). In the country's capital city of Nairobi, over sixty percent of the population live in the informal settlements (African Population and Health Research Centre, APHRC, 2014).

Informal settlements in Nairobi

Informal settlements are home to urban residents who earn comparatively low incomes and have limited assets (UN HABITAT, 2003). These settlements are characterized by inadequate housing, basic services and social amenities, overcrowding and high population density, hazardous locations, insecure tenure, poverty and social exclusion (Oxfam 2009).

Oxfam further reports that poverty in these settlements is worst amongst those with low levels of education. In addition, gender inequalities remain severe, with women being 5 times more likely to be unemployed than males. This has translated into vulnerability and feeling of insecurity by the dwellers in the settlements especially among the women. The residents are often unable to deal with adverse changes such as climate change that may cause drought and/ or famine, and crises resulting from post-election violence in 2007/ 2008.

According to Kabeer (2005), 'poverty and disempowerment go hand in hand because of an inability to meet the basic needs, resulting in dependence on others, ruling out the capacity for meaningful choices'. Further, Agarwal (1997) identified specific qualitative factors which may affect a person's ability to fulfil subsistence needs outside the family and influence bargaining strength over subsistence within the family. These factors include: i) ownership of and control over assets, ii) access to employment and other income-earning means, iii) access to communal resources, iv) access to social support systems and v) social norms. In view of this, Molyneux (2008) suggests 'the need for acquisition of capabilities that can assist women to achieve legal and material autonomy, social and personal equality and voice and influence over the decisions that affect their lives' as a way of addressing poverty. Based on the findings, improving women's capabilities and awakening power within them are the best ways of addressing poverty. These will translate into personal choices, efforts that will contribute to sustainable economic empowerment.

According to UN HABITAT (2006), the insecure physical conditions of informal settlements heavily affect residents' health and environment in addition to severely constraining local economic development. Amnesty International (2010) also points out that lack of access to water and sanitation often predisposes women and girls to GBV in Nairobi informal settlements,

as they have to walk long distances to water and sanitation points more so in narrow insecure alleys.

Davis (1994), demonstrates that violence against women is an extreme expression of male dominance and “*one of the most intractable violations of women’s human rights*” The author further argues that the persistence of domestic violence (a form of GBV), across many societies, suggests that it is not merely a characteristic of particular individuals but is, at a deeper level, related to social structures that maintain unequal socio-economic relations between men and women.

Gender inequality in wealth distribution

World Bank (2015) classifies Kenya as a lower middle income country and one of East Africa’s fastest growing economies. The estimated growth of the economy is at 6.0 per cent in 2015 (United Nations Economic Commission, 2015). Despite this growth in economy, Kenya remains is the most unequal country compared to its East African neighbours of Uganda and Tanzania (SID, 2004). Less than 1% of the population control most of the wealth (average worth Sh7.1 billion (\$83 million). Wealth distribution in Kenya, like in many other developing countries, is skewed in favour of men because the country is largely a patriarchal society with men in control of resources (Jayachandran, 2014).

Gender disparity is observed in access to wage employment, where women comprise 37% of those in formal employment compared to men at 63% (KNBS, Economic Survey, 2014). A study by Ferrant *et al*, (2014) linked the low participation of women in formal employment to more engagement in reproductive activities than their male counterparts. In developing economies such as Kenya, women’s access to labour market is often hampered by lower levels of education and skills qualification. This results from spending more time in seeking essential services by women who are the primary care givers in households within informal settlements (Tacoli, 2012). Women have less access to basic education at 16% illiteracy level compared to men at 9% illiteracy. This is partly due to structural reasons and restrictions in mobility that is attributed to the traditions, religion and/or family responsibilities or demands (ILO, 2006).

Inequality in favour of men is manifest in control over productive assets such as land, inheritance rights, livestock and ownership of businesses (World Bank 2003). Overall, only 3% of women owned title deeds granting them access to land (Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development, 2010), while an even lower proportion of women (1%) have registered titles in agricultural land (Kenya Land Alliance, 2003). Inequality was also observed in access to credit, as only 7% of women reported ever having had formal credit (Narain, 2009).

Gender inequality in participation in decision making and leadership

A report by United States Agency for International Develop (USAID) in Kenya noted that gender inequalities manifest through under representation of women in decision making and leadership positions. As at the year 2014, Kenya had lower proportion of women in parliament at 19.8%, compared to its East African neighbours such as Uganda at 35% and Rwanda at 64% (USAID in Kenya, 2015).

Gender inequality in roles allocation

Disproportionate allocation of reproductive roles has been identified as one of the invisible barriers to gender equality. Blackden et al. (2006) notes that such disproportionate burden on women prevents their greater participation in productive activities outside the home and also reduces productivity of female labour and thus constrains their ability to contribute to growth and poverty reduction.

Underlying causes of gender inequality

Unequal gender power relations are socially constructed “reinforced and regenerated in households by mothers, fathers and elderly females and males and transformed into individual and community behaviour” and manifest most in patriarchal societies (Elsanousi, 2003) Hamieh & Usta 2011) noted that patriarchal ideology helps explain beliefs about violence against women (VAW) such as wife-beating. Ruxton (2004), observes that the patriarchal systems give power to men. Men therefore, enjoy benefits from patriarchal systems that reinforce their sense of masculinity. Thus, they are expected to dominate, to control, and to be the authority figures and decision-makers within their families and communities. Patriarchy as an institution also enforces gender roles and responsibilities thereby leading to unequal power relations between men and women along the life cycle. These unequal power relations extend to the community level and within governing institutions, a scenario often reflected in institutional policies and practices. Gender power relations are however, not fixed or permanent, they can indeed change.

According reports by UNESCAP, (2007) and Haile et al. (2012), violence against women (VAW) if not addressed, may have a negative effect on the women’s empowerment programs. VAW has serious effects on productivity psychological, physical, social and economic well-being of women. The literature also indicates both positive and negative outcomes/ relationship between women’s economic empowerment and VAW. This is especially where the program targets women only for economic empowerment.

Studies on gender and power indicate that there exist less visible forms of power that act as barriers to accessing these institutions. According to IDS (2012), these include beliefs around who is entitled to participate and issues of self-perception and voice among others. Wakefield (2004) identifies these as “beliefs around what is ‘decisionable’ and who gets to participate in, controls and influences these decisions”.

Aura (2013) concluded that gender inequalities are supported and sanctioned by culture; yet the constitution does not provide for how the embedded culture can be dealt with neither has it provided for mechanisms for educating people to shun cultures that perpetuate VAW. Similarly, there is no coherent national strategy to engage men on gender equality and women’s empowerment issues. (AfDB, 2014).

Risks in gender empowerment interventions

Economic empowerment programs may strengthen women's economic autonomy, increase their options, help them stand up to abusive spouses and contribute to household assets (UNESCAP 2007). Increased command over financial resources can also expose women to domestic violence and conflict. Other unintended effects include husbands who may react with aggression to what they perceive as threat to their masculinity and self-respect (Haile et al. 2012). The unintended effects may be mitigated by making the gender equality agenda central within the empowerment program.

Where economic empowerment strategies are introduced, there may be an increase in women's workload overall and relative to men as described by Chant (2006). Studies also show that acquisition of assets (land, property) provide "tangible exit option", strengthening women's fall-back position and therefore, their bargaining power within marriage and acts as a deterrent to marital violence (Chowdry, 2011).

The risk posed here is related to unsettling gender power relations through economic opportunities for one gender. In view of this, Ochako *et al.*, (2011) observed that changing economic fortunes in favour of women pose a threat to men's power and by extension a threat to women's sexual and reproductive health. The threat emerges from the patriarchal system within which gender roles and expectations are defined.

There is need to interrogate the dependency issue by carefully underling that such patriarchal ideologies have had negative impact on men and hence should be done away with in favour of more egalitarian relationships between women and men. This may be mitigated by creatively involving men in the women's empowerment programme while showing how they and their families stand to benefit from these programmes.

Interventions addressing gender inequality

Kenya has made positive strides towards bridging the gender gap by enacting several laws and policies that address gender inequalities. For example the Constitution of Kenya (2010)¹, provides for equality of both men and women and prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender under article 27 (3) & (4); the Employment Act No.11 of 2007² which contains several provisions that expressly prohibit discrimination of women at the work place such as equal opportunity, equal pay and benefits; the National Policy on Gender and Development (2000)³ which provides a framework that guides different sectors and agencies in advancement of women; Sessional Paper No. 2 of 2006 on Gender Equality and development whose objective is to ensure the mainstreaming of the needs of women and men in all sectors of development, and to generate sex disaggregated data so as to ensure equity in development initiatives; the Sexual Offences

¹ Constitution of Kenya 2010 <http://kenyalaw.org/kl/index.php?id=398>

² Employment Act 2007 http://www.kenyalaw.org/kl/fileadmin/pdfdownloads/Acts/EmploymentAct_Cap226-No11of2007_01.pdf

³ The National Policy on Gender and Development (2000) <http://www.ngeckenya.org/.../>

Act (2006)⁴ among others. A key institution in gender equality matters is the National Gender and Equality Commission (NGEC). It was set up by an Act of Parliament in 2011. NGEC derives its mandate from Articles 27, 43, and Chapter Fifteen of the Constitution; and section 8 of NGEC Act (Cap. 15) of 2011. This includes undertaking lobbying and advocacy, monitoring and evaluation, and oversight for legal reforms on issues affecting women and girls (NGEC, 2014).

Formulation of legislation and policies is an important step towards addressing discrimination against women. However, without proper and effective implementation of those policies, there can never be change in the efforts of eliminating discrimination against women and promoting gender equality (FIDA and COHRE, 2011). Reports by Mbote and Akech (2011) and Aura, (2013) show that there has been slow execution of the laws and policies on gender. In addition, adequate awareness raising has not been done to sensitize citizens on what gender equality means. It is even noted that some women and many judicial officials are unaware that the provisions of the Constitution supersede customary laws governing gender roles (CEDAW 2011). Therefore, due to slow implementation and lack of awareness of the provision of the legal frameworks, not much has changed with regard to the gender inequality status in the country.

Best practice in gender equality programming is to provide a holistic range of services or a one stop shop (UN Division for Advancement of Women, 2005). These include provision of information; legal aid and counselling services for GBV survivors, platform for participation in socio-economic and political development, sexual reproductive health and rights, advocacy on policies, economic empowerment programs (Walby *et al.*, 2013).

According to Hamieh & Usta (2011), change may be achieved through strategies such as awareness raising among families about issues such as non-discrimination and the importance of violence free environments by civil groups, religious organizations, and schools among other actors. Elsanousi (2003), in a study done in Yemen, recommends targeting men and boys in order to sensitize them about gender equality and their potential role in achieving it. The author therefore sees men as key players in shifting and/ or generating equal gender power relations. On the same note, Morris (2007) says that engaging men in programs with a focus on gender power relations is not only a strategy to convince them to allow women to participate, but also an important step in rebuilding relationships which ensure the realization of peace and inclusive security. Such strategies ought to take into account opinions from the existing gender relations, draw from religious codes that promote respect and equality of women and men, and forge partnerships with other actors such as NGOs, women organizations and key actors in local communities and government to support gender equality initiatives (cf. Hamieh & Usta (2011), Elsanousi, 2003).

Other skills that may be necessary for empowerment include lobbying and advocacy to ensure women get to be voted into leadership positions and decision making committees at both community, county and national levels (World Bank, 2001).

⁴ Sexual Offences Act 2006: <http://www.kenyalaw.org:8181/exist/kenyalex/actview.xql?actid=CAP.%2062A>

Why gender and power analysis

Studies have shown that gender and power analysis deepens understanding of change processes by enabling development practitioners to ask the right questions and get to the root of issues and relationships (Pantazidou, 2012). This results in empowerment of women and enables them to challenge oppressive political, social and cultural structures and processes that perpetuate gender inequality. This should be done simultaneously at multiple levels in order to gain space for women empowerment (Moser, 2012).

Conclusion

The above data indicate that even with women being the larger population in Kenya, they are still disadvantaged in access to productive assets such as land, livestock and ownership of businesses. Women in informal settlements are worse off due to high exposure to gender based violence. The existing policies and legislations have not been effective in bridging the gender gap; this is largely due to poor implementation. However, besides the weaknesses in legal and policy framework that perpetuate gender inequality in Kenya, there is need to identify other factors that tilt gender and power relations unfavourably for women, especially those in the informal settlements. This gender and power analysis study therefore sought to identify other factors contributing gender inequality in urban informal settlements in Kenya. .

1.2 Study Objectives

The aim of this study is to inform socio-economic empowerment project by Oxfam and partners for socio-economic empowerment of the poor and vulnerable women including domestic workers and small scale traders in Nairobi urban settlements. The study sought to identify gender and power imbalances in access to and control of resources and decision making at household, community and institutional levels. The information generated will be used to strengthen socio-economic status of women in poor informal settlement communities of Nairobi city, through empowerment with the relevant skills, strategic linkages and advocacy among others. In addition the information will be used to influence the Nairobi city and national stakeholders in women empowerment, as well as the community opinion leaders, to develop or implement pro-women empowerment policies, practices and attitudes for enhanced benefit to the millions, including those targeting empowerment of domestic workers and small scale traders both in Nairobi and Kenya at large. Specifically, the study was guided and responded to the following objectives as outlined in the Terms of Reference:

- a) Improve understanding of Oxfam, NOPE, SITE and WEL on:
 - i. The gender inequalities in decision making and allocation of resources in Nairobi city informal settlements, the distinction on how poverty affects women from men, and boys from girls in the city informal settlements, their preferences and needs, and the underlying causes of these inequalities.
 - ii. The existing gender related power inequalities and how these inequalities contribute to and sustain poverty of the poor and marginalized groups in Nairobi city's informal settlements.

- iii. The social, economic, cultural, political, legal and policy barriers that promote gender and power inequalities and hinder sustainable economic growth, participation in decision making and weak representation in leadership of the women, poor and marginalized groups in Nairobi city informal settlements. The study explains the root causes of these barriers and why they exist.
- b) Provide information on the root causes that contribute to poverty among women and men and present appropriate proposals and specific strategies on how the identified challenges and issues in “a” above can be addressed effectively to promote meaningful and sustainable empowerment of women domestic workers and small scale traders.
- c) Identify potential risks that are likely to affect effective empowerment of the women domestic workers and small scale traders in Nairobi city informal settlements as proposed in “b” above and provide the relevant mitigation strategies and measures.

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Conceptual Framework for the Study

The study was informed by the conceptualization of empowerment as described by Luttrell *et al* (2009), Longwe (1991), Gaventa (2006) and Mosler (2012). These authors argue that discussions around empowerment are commonly limited to activities associated with economic, social and political empowerment. Although transforming power relations do require intervention in these different dimensions and levels, this may not be adequate in ensuring change in individuals and societies. The authors underline a number of conceptual issues that have practical implications for the operationalization of empowerment as follows, according to theory of change:

- a. Empowerment is both a process and an outcome. The approach to such empowerment however has to essentially be transformative, focusing on participation in the process of empowerment as well as the outcomes.
- b. It is necessary to move beyond mere participation in decision making to an emphasis on control (Longwe, 1991). Longwe stresses the importance of gaining control over decisions and resources that determine the quality of one's life and suggests that lower degrees of empowerment in her framework namely welfare, access, conscientisation and awareness raising and, participation and mobilization are prerequisites for achieving higher ones.
- c. Achieving empowerment is intimately linked to addressing the causes of disempowerment and tackling disadvantage caused by the way in which power relations shape choices, opportunities and wellbeing. Further, there is need for an understanding on how power operates, how it is used and how different interests can be marginalized from decision making and the strategies needed to increase inclusion.
- d. Power is about more than just power over people and resources. Gaventa (2006) categorises four types of power relations to stress the difference between power over (ability to influence and coerce) and power to (organise and change existing hierarchies), power with (power from collective action) and power within (power from individual consciousness).
- e. The process of acquiring power must start with the individual and requires a change in their own perceptions about their rights, capacities and potential i.e. power within, building on self-esteem.
- f. In terms of effecting change, there is need for an explicit consideration of structural inequalities that affect entire social groups, enlisting existing power/ strengths, and external support (partnerships), to facilitate these necessary internal strategic and practical change processes. The aspects outlined, therefore, informed data interpretation.

2.2 Study Sites

The Study was carried out in Mukuru, Kibera, Korogocho, Mathare and Kawangware informal settlements within Nairobi County. These have an estimated population of over half a million

people (a quarter of Nairobi's population) distributed as follows in the five informal settlements (KNBS, Census 2009):

Table 1: Proportion of study population in the total population by informal settlement

Informal Settlement	Population	As proportion of study population
Mukuru	254,345	43%
Kariobangi South (Korogocho)	55,989	9%
Mathare	87,097	15%
Kawangware	113,386	19%
Kibera	87,549	15%

2.3 Study Design and Sampling

2.3.1 Study Design

A cross-sectional study design was applied. It involved the use of a mix-method approach with a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods in an exploratory and inclusive manner.

2.3.2 Sample Size Determination

Sample Size Calculation formula applied in sample size determination was as follows:

$$n = \frac{Z^2_{1-\alpha/2} P(1-P)}{E^2} * DEFF$$

α (Level of significance)	0.05
$Z_{1-\alpha/2}$ (confidence level)	1.96
E (+- error)	0.07
P (Estimated probability of key survey indicator proportion of respondents sampled in urban households who were engaged in productive activities, decision making at household and community, level living above poverty line).	0.5
<i>DEFF</i> (Design effect)	5

Using the formula above, we estimated a total of 750 respondents as minimum sample size (150 respondents * 5 slums). However, the households were over sampled by 44 to a total of 794 household respondents.

At data analysis stage the proportion of male respondent turned out to be 29% (n=230), compared to 71% of the females (n=564). The big difference could be attributable to the fact that most men than females are out fending for family. Comparison of key survey indicators as well as other variables was done between males and females.

Post study power analysis was done using $n=230$ as the minimum sample for gender comparison analysis. Assuming a 50% proportion in each key survey indicators among males and varying the proportion of each key survey indicators among females by $\pm 15\%$ (i.e. 35% or 65%), the minimum required sample size at 90% power and 15% effect size is 227. Scientifically, the choice of comparison ratio is acceptable at $n:n$, $n:2n$, or $n:3n$. Therefore, the resulting sample size for the comparison between males ($n=230$) and females ($n=564$) is sufficiently powered (approximately 90%).

2.3.3 Inclusion Criteria for Respondents the Study

Respondents in the household survey were selected if they were residents of one of the five informal settlements and directly involved in the decision making. They did not have to be heads of the households. Participants in the focused group discussions were female domestic workers, female small scale traders and representatives from the general population (men and women) residing in the study sites. Key informants were purposely selected from among government officials, community leaders or other service providers who had knowledge/information on gender equality programs. Those who did not fulfil the above criteria were excluded from the study.

2.3.4 Type of Information Collected from Respondents

The household survey provided quantitative data to inform research questions on gender division of labour, access and control profile, experiences of men and women on poverty and root causes. Qualitative information was largely collected from the key informants and through FDGs with women and men in the general population. The data provided information on community perceptions regarding gender inequalities, their experiences of poverty and the root causes. Special FDGs were conducted with women working as domestic workers and small scale traders to provide insight into these sectors. This was important because the proposed programme intervention by Oxfam and partners will specifically target them.

2.3.5 Data Collection Techniques

The primary data were collected using quantitative and qualitative methods while secondary data were generated through desk review of relevant literature on gender and empowerment. The sampling procedures used are provided below.

a) Sampling procedure of households for the survey:

The 750 households were targeted, with respondents equally distributed across the five study locations in Mukuru, Kibera, Mathare, Kawangware and Korogocho informal settlements. In each settlement a sample size of 150 respondents was interviewed with provision for 10% non-response. The data collected were both quantitative and qualitative through a semi-structured questionnaire. In each study area the chief's office was the starting point. A community member was identified (with the help of the chief) to mobilize research participants and support the surveyors in navigating from one point to another. The research assistant with the direction of the lead researcher drew a plan of where to cover. Every fifth household in the selected area

was picked until the target numbers of households were covered and adequate respondents interviewed. In total, 794 respondents were interviewed.

b) Sampling of focus group discussions (FGDs)

A total of 26 FGDs were conducted in the five settlements as listed in table below.

Table 2: Summary list of FGDs conducted

Informal settlement	Participants	No. of FGDs conducted in each of the settlement	Total No. of FGDs
Kawangware, Kibera and Mathare	Women General Population	2	6
	Men General Population	2	6
	Women small scale traders	1	3
	Women domestic workers	1	3
Korogocho and Mukuru	Women General Population	1	2
	Men General Population	1	2
	Women small scale traders	1	2
	Women domestic workers	1	2
Total No. of FGDs			26

Each FGD had 7-9 members who were mobilized with the aid of a community mobilizer. Information gathered was qualitative using a focus group discussion guide. Participants in the FGDs were women domestic workers, women small scale traders and general population (men and other women). The list of FGDs conducted by location is provided in annex 7.4.

c) Sampling of Key informants

A list of key informants (16 individuals at community level and 5 at County level) who were assumed to possess vital information on situation of gender equality, policy and programme interventions among populations in informal settlements in Nairobi was generated. These included key informants working at national level, Nairobi city county level and the five informal settlements. They included key members of Non-Governmental organizations (NGOs), Community Based Organizations (CBOs), Faith Based Organizations (FBOs), local administration, police and relevant government authorities. The key informants were purposively sampled based on their relevance to the study and accessibility. In total, 21 key informants participated. The full list of key informants interviewed is provided in annex 7.4.

d) Case Studies

Case studies were used to give a statement of individual experiences in relation to gender and power dynamics in their household. Respondents selected for case studies were those that

exhibited extreme attitudes during the household survey that is those who viewed women as equal to men, participated in household chores or those who viewed women as inferior to men or said household chores were for women. Two respondents were selected from each informal settlement translating into ten case studies in total. Two case studies that depicted the evolving gender roles were documented in the report. Extracts from the other case studies were presented as verbatim in sections of the report.

2.3.6 Data Collection Tools and Procedures

a) Primary data collection

Primary data was collected through household questionnaires, FGDs, case studies and key informant interviews conducted face to face. The interviewers sought consent from the respondents by explaining to them the purpose of the exercise and their right to voluntary participation. Local chiefs were briefed on the study prior to beginning data collection.

b) Secondary Data

Documents reviewed for secondary data included the programme documents shared by Oxfam and partners related to the proposed programme intervention; other reports of gender and power analysis conducted in Kenya by NGOs such as Care Kenya; reports on situation of gender equality in Kenya by National Gender and Equality Commission of Kenya; and publicly available research on gender equality, empowerment of women, poverty and related topics.

Table 3: Data collection tools

Data collection methods	Tools
Household survey	Questionnaire
Key informant Interviews	Key informant interview guide
FGD	FGD guide
Case study	Case study guide

2.3.7 Quality Control

Data collection tools were developed by AICS and reviewed by Oxfam, NOPE, SITE and WEL project staff. They were revised based on input provided. Research Assistants were oriented on the study and trained on data collection, ethics of data collection, sampling, and were taken through the tools. They then pre-tested the tools in Githogoro, an informal settlement which was not included in the study. The research assistants included women and men selected from an experienced team in social research. The training and pre-testing took one and half days.

2.4 Data Analysis

The researchers employed Harvard Analytical Framework developed by the Harvard Institute for International Development to determine the gender activity profile of men and women. The variables used in the study were derived from the four components of the framework. The data collected were disaggregated by gender and included an analysis of activity profile, access and control profile, determinants and programme cycle analysis. This included an analysis of how

structural factors and trends such as demographic, economic, legal and institutional, culture, attitudes and determinants of vulnerability.

2.4.1 Data Management

Quantitative data from the household questionnaires were entered into SPSS for Data Entry version 4. File back-up was regularly done to avoid any loss or tampering. Cleaning and validation was performed in order to achieve a clean dataset that was exported into a Statistical Package format (IBM SPSS) ready for analysis. All the questionnaires were stored in a lockable drawer for confidentiality. Double entry was employed to minimize and check for errors. The verification and cleaning included checking missing values, checking outliers and checking questionnaire logic. Reference was made to the primary data tools to make corrections.

2.4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using IBM SPSS version 21.0 statistical software. Exploratory data techniques were employed at the initial stage of analysis to uncover the structure of data and identify outliers or unusual entered values. Descriptive statistics such as proportions were used to summarize categorical variables while measures of central tendency such as mean, standard deviations, and range were used to summarize continuous variables. Two composite scores were generated namely an empowerment score and a poverty score. Details of how these were generated are provided in annex 7.2. Pearson's Chi-square test or Fisher exact test at 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) was used to test for association between gender and other variables at bivariate level of analysis. Similarly, the tests were used to test for association between empowerment score and other variables. Data were presented using frequency tables and graphs (Bar and pie charts).

2.4.3 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data was gathered from key informant interviews and focus group discussions. It included data on the attitudes, perceptions, societal practices, policies, legislations and services that either hinder or promote gender equality. The data was filtered and sorted to determine the modal response or most frequently mentioned response. Findings were then presented as tables, narratives and verbatim and triangulated with the quantitative data.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

Due to low participation of children (six) in the study, it was not possible to meaningfully analyse gender activity profile of boys and girls from household data. While qualitative data on gender activity of boys and girls were captured in key informant interviews and FGDs, future studies should therefore, target children separately.

3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION:

3.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The table 4 below presents socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents who participated in the study.

Table 4: Socio-demographic data by gender of the respondent

Variables	Total (n=794)		Males (n=230)		Females (n=564)		χ^2 value	df	p value
	n	%	n	%	N	%			
Age of the respondent									
Below 26 yrs	188	23.7%	33	14.3%	155	27.5%	23.315	3	<0.001
26-35 yrs	318	40.1%	88	38.3%	230	40.8%			
36-45 yrs	183	23.0%	68	29.6%	115	20.4%			
Over 45 yrs	105	13.2%	41	17.8%	64	11.3%			
Current marital status of the respondent									
Married	485	61.1%	170	73.9%	315	55.9%	32.426	4	<0.001
Separated	78	9.8%	11	4.8%	67	11.9%			
Divorced	23	2.9%	2	.9%	21	3.7%			
Widowed	55	6.9%	5	2.2%	50	8.9%			
Single	153	19.3%	42	18.3%	111	19.7%			
Household structure									
Polygamous	151	19.0%	26	11.3%	125	22.2%	14.292	2	<0.001
Monogamous	490	61.7%	162	70.4%	328	58.2%			
Single	153	19.3%	42	18.3%	111	19.7%			
Highest level of formal education completed									
None/ Preschool	56	7.1%	18	7.8%	38	6.7%	26.676	3	<0.001
Primary	397	50.0%	86	37.4%	311	55.1%			
Secondary	285	35.9%	98	42.6%	187	33.2%			
Tertiary*	56	7.1%	28	12.2%	28	5.0%			
Community									
Mukuru	157	19.8%	44	19.1%	113	20.0%	27.855	4	<0.001
Korogocho	165	20.8%	42	18.3%	123	21.8%			
Mathare	148	18.6%	32	13.9%	116	20.6%			
Kibera	164	20.7%	74	32.2%	90	16.0%			
Kawangware	160	20.2%	38	16.5%	122	21.6%			

* College/ University/ Vocational training

As mentioned in limitations section, despite the random sampling employed in recruitment of the respondents with ability to make key decisions in the households, 71% were female. This however, did not mean that women were the majority decision makers. There were also no major differences in the social demographic characteristics of men and women selected from the random household survey.

The few characteristics that demonstrated differences between men and women were observed. The men were more likely to be reported as heads of household (73%) than women (30%). More females had completed primary education (56%) compared to males (36%). However, there were more males who had completed secondary school (44%) compared to the females (3%). More women (52%) belonged to a social support group than were men (45%). These existing networks of women would be important entry points for empowerment interventions.

4 THE EXISTING GENDER INEQUALITIES

4.1.1 Gender Division of Labour

a) Gender division of labour at household level

The gender activity profile was used to establish roles of men and women and document participation inequalities or equality in division of labour. This was based on Harvard Analytical Framework that categorizes gender roles as either reproductive or productive activities at household and community levels.

Household respondents indicated whether activities listed on the questionnaire were their direct responsibilities. The table 5 below summarizes the findings.

Table 5: Activities of men and women at household level

Activity	Men	Women
Cooking	45.2%	98.2%
Bathing children	31.7%	90.4%
Fetching water	45.7%	92.2%
Cleaning the house	41.3%	92.4%

The results in table 4 show gender inequality in role allocation. Majority of these reproductive activities were women's responsibility. The disproportionate division of labour at household level between women and men was confirmed with data from FGDs and key informant interviews. In a men only FGD in Mukuru Kayaba within Mukuru informal settlement, it was said that;

“mwanamke anaweza kusaidiwa kazi za nyumbani akiwa tu mgonjwa, lakini usimzoeshe” (A woman can only be assisted with household chores only if unwell, but care should be taken not to make it a habit)

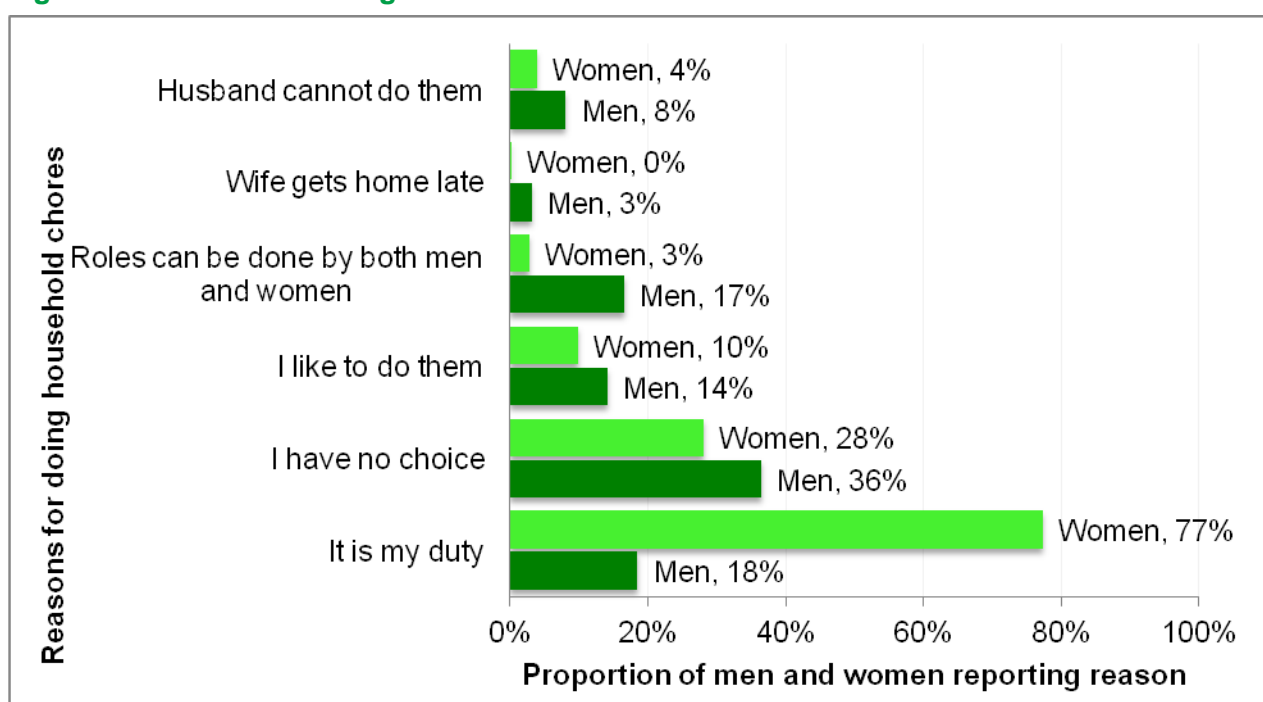
The above statement which is in Kiswahili language is translated “a woman can only be assisted with household chores only if unwell, but care should be taken not to make it a habit”.

In a women only (general population) Mukuru Fuata nyayo in Mukuru informal settlement, the women said;

“wanaume hawafai kuingilia kazi za nyumbani, kila mtu afanye kazi yake. Kumpatia mwanamme kazi za nyumbani nikumkosea heshima.” (Men should not interfere in household chores and that men and women should focus on their roles. Asking a man to undertake household chores is disrespectful).

These sentiments show that household chores were viewed as a woman’s responsibility. This perception was confirmed by further analysis of data from household survey as presented in figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Reasons for doing household chores



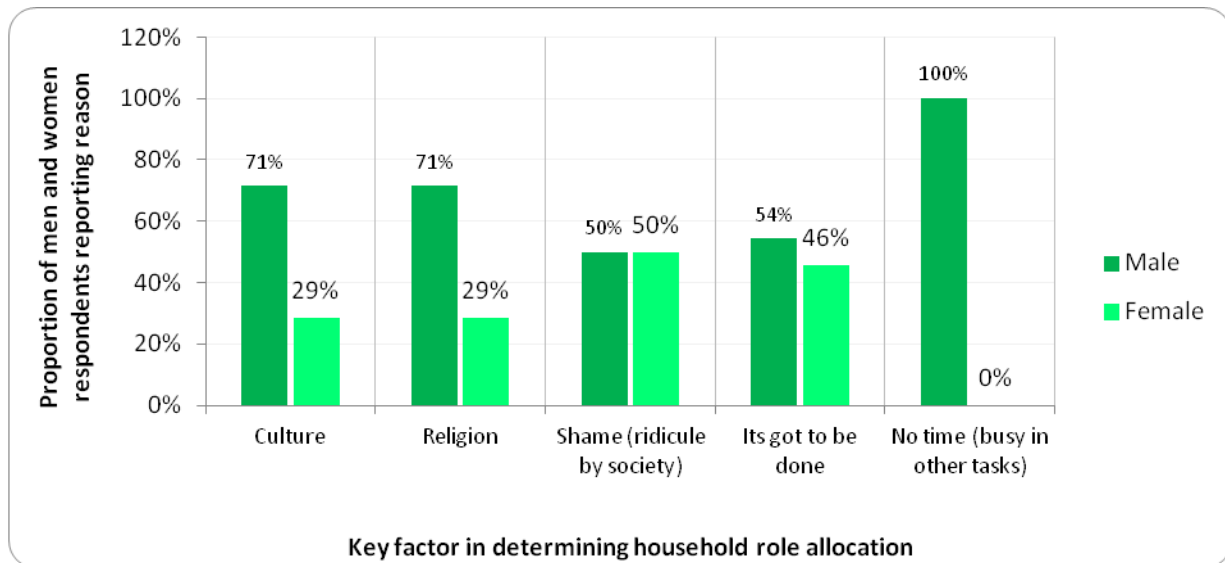
The findings in figure 1 show that most women considered household chores as their duty followed by those who said they had no choice. The highest proportion of men mentioned the latter followed by those who said it was the woman’s duty.

Further analyses of the household data (see figure 2 below) indicate that gender division of roles were in most cases determined by culture⁵ (as reported by 48% of respondents), ability to delegate (32% of respondents) and “no time”/ having competing tasks (that are perhaps more rewarding) reported by 11% of respondents. When analysed against gender, “not having time” to perform a task was the key factor determining role allocation among men. This implies that men considered household chores as secondary duty. For women, “shame” or ridicule

⁵ Culture in the context of this study was limited to the respondent’s definition, in as long as he or she considered it important in influencing his or her way of life.

described in relation to ‘what others in the society would think of us if or when my husband is seen performing household chores was most important in role allocation. In FGDs, this was explained as ‘because men were not expected to undertake the household chores’ by the society. Women in the FGDs reported that men could only “help” when they feel there is need to; that the women were comfortable with such arrangements as they view domestic work as their sole responsibility and that men should not interfere.

Figure 2: Factors determining household role allocation



Differences in opinion on the roles of men and women were observed in individual interviews and FGDs.

A man in Mukuru informal settlement said;

“Nyumba si ya mwanamke peke yake, kwa hivyo, kazi za nyumba tunafanya sisi sote”.
(A household does not belong to a woman only, therefore, household chores should be undertaken by all of us.)

The case study below from a 29 year old man in Korogocho settlement further supports the opinion that both men and women should participate in performing household chores.

Box 1: Case study on gender roles (a man`s experiences at household level)

Michael a 29 year old married man, presents a different picture on societal expectations of gender roles. Michael runs a small electronic shop in which he repairs phones in Korogocho. He opens his shop by 7.00 am and closes after 9.00 pm. He is also a broker who buys used phones and sells them as second hand.

His wife is a 'stay-at-home' mum but Michael says he does not have a problem cooking for his wife when he gets a chance. To him, it is not a big deal and does not care what the neighbours say. Michael says that their family is happier and his sexual relationship has never deteriorated since they got married like that of many of his peers who got married after him.

Michael also consults a lot with his wife and does not make any decision without seeking her opinion. This consultative approach and roles sharing has improved their relationship because they seek out each other's strength and talents, capitalize on it, and depend on them to solve future problems rather than focus on their weaknesses. *"My business can be challenging but I have the strength to go on because I know my wife supports me so am not afraid to take risks to improve it."* Michael is confident that the reason his business has grown so much is because he makes decisions for his family and not just for him and should anything go wrong he knows the wife will be supportive. So far he has not experienced any problem as a result because they no longer blame each other when things do not work out as they had anticipated, rather they quickly 'dust off their dirt' and move on to try something else. He however says that to build such a relationship requires that one should be very keen and sensitive so as not to let the other down as far as it is within their power.

Asked whether the same can work at the community level and what impact it would have, Michael says it is very possible. *"Men just need to change their attitude and realize we are no longer living in the days of our fore-fathers."* He however feels it will take a lot of sensitization and advocacy to change this kind of attitude. He says that if it happens in the community then women potentially will be exposed and men will even stop straining as they will get support from their wives.

Michael advises that involving spouses in decision making is important because the spouses learn each other better, know each other's strength and weaknesses, hence will not waste a lot of time blaming each other. Families are a lot happier, resources increase since all spouses are motivated to bring what they have to the table to be shared fairly. And it also increases trust among spouses.

Gender division of labour among boys and girls were reported to be more balanced; however, there was emphasis on girls' involvement in domestic chores. Participants in FGDs and key informant interviews also reported that boys fetched water, cleaned house or played, and in some cases, they were responsible for care of younger children and cooking as well. This applied mainly where socialization of children began early at the household level. A chief in Kawangware reported that;

“Girls, when they do household chores, they are trained to be better wives. Girls are empowered on hygiene; boys are given enough time to play and to study.”

This comment is an example of how, even at a young age, females bear the brunt of domestic tasks-sourcing and cooking food, washing, cleaning, childcare, care for the sick and disabled among other chores. Blackden et al. (2006) linked this disproportionate burden on women with low participation in productive activities both at household and community levels.

In the case of single mothers, the burden may even be greater. While this could be due to the dual role in reproductive and productive responsibilities, experiences from childhood, societal expectation among other reasons may shape the extent to which the household members share the roles. This is clearly depicted in the case study below.

Box 2: Case study on single mother (a woman`s experiences at household level)

Janet is a single mum of two girls and one boy, ages 14, 8 and 11 respectively. She was brought up by her mum, also a single parent. She is the eldest among two brothers. She did not have a chance to complete her schooling since she was made to baby sit her siblings while the mother went to hawk in town so that she could feed them. She reflects *“I did not enjoy my childhood at all even though I was the only girl in the family and I hate my mum for that.”*

Her bitterness however does not only stem from the fact that she had to drop out of school to take up her mothers` role but the fact that the very brothers she sacrificed for later caused her a permanent partial disability, a constant reminder of her futile sacrifice. One of her younger brothers stabbed Wanja on her left leg, so as to snatch her support groups` cash that she had been entrusted by the group to keep. The knife went through to the other side of the leg and since then it has refused to heal completely.

This experience has however has influenced Wanja`s way of bringing up her children. Her oldest daughter who is 14 years old does not know how to cook nor wash her own clothes. Wanja does all house chores as well as income generating activities to fend for her children because she does not want them to go through what she went through as a girl-child growing up. She also says that she does not want her children to grow up hating each other because she made one sacrifice for the other. She works very hard to provide for her children and is not afraid to multitask as long as her children have all basic needs provided for.

As noted in the case study and some FGDs however, with the right strategies such as sensitization programs for women and men on gender division of labour, negative perceptions and stereotypes that inform division of household chores can be changed. Men already involved in domestic work may be included in awareness programmes as role models and champions of change.

b) Gender division of labour at community level

The study sought to establish men and women’s activities at community level. Respondents were asked to indicate their participation from a pre-developed list of community-level activities. Table 6 below presents the findings.

Table 6: Gender activity profile at community level

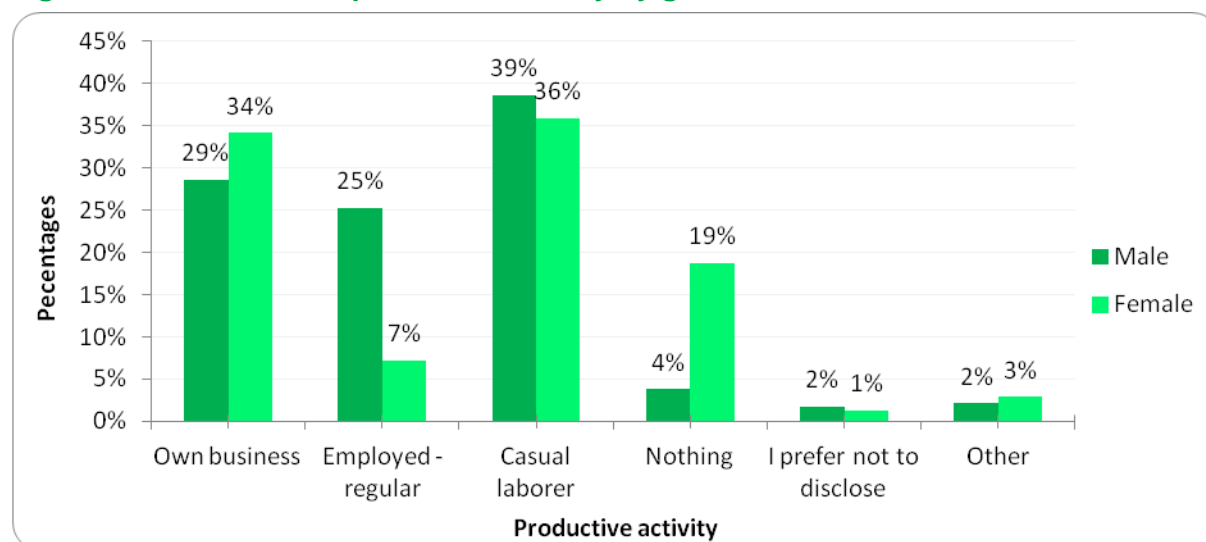
Activity	Men	Women
Social functions (e.g. Wedding and funerals)	54.3%	46.3%
Clean up exercise	18.3%	24.1%
Fundraising for social amenities	10.0%	14.4%

Participation in most activities at community level was almost similar for both men and women, except for social functions such as wedding and funerals, where slightly more men (54%) than women (46%) participated. No statistical differences were noted between males and females with regards to their participation in community activities. Data from FGDs however, revealed that activities in the community were still divided along gender lines. Examples provided by men only FGDs in Mathare and Kawangware on community roles indicated that men were involved in planning, offering security and executing funerals, while in the same function, women cooked, wailed and comforted the bereaved. In some of the FGDs, men’s roles as providers of security were underscored. This was explained due to high insecurity prevalence in informal settlements.

It was also noted that there are groups of men, sometimes organized by the local government, that facilitate entry into informal settlements. Some of them accompanied our team of researchers to the households and were also instrumental in identifying FGD participants.

c) Gender division of labour at economic sphere (productive roles)

Figure 3: Distribution of productive activity by gender



There were more men (92%) engaged in productive activities—i.e. total of those running own business, employed and in casual labour—than were women (77%). Casual labour was highest form of productive activity that both men and women in the informal settlements were engaged in. A higher proportion of women (19%) than men (4%) reported that they were engaged in ‘nothing’⁶.

In FGDs with women, however, they indicated that men engaged in less productive work (did “nothing”) than women, especially if they failed to get casual work. It was reported that men’s activities included “eating and relaxing, watching TV, sleeping and doing nothing else”.

In one of the FGDs, it was mentioned by a woman that;

“Men idle a lot”, spend a lot of time in leisure activities such as watching TV.”

From the FGDs with men, the productive activities men engaged in were listed as including: pulling carts (*Mkokotenī*), employment as watchmen, garbage collection, car wash, kiosk business, hawking, construction (*mjengo*) and small scale trading. Women on the other hand listed small scale trade (trade in food and non-food items), domestic services such as washing clothes and cleaning houses for clients as some of the productive activities. In Korogocho, men and women, boys and girls were involved in scavenging in the dumpsite.

In summary, the findings affirm societal gender inequalities in the division of labour with women being more engaged in reproductive roles while men are more engaged in productive roles. At community level, both gender seemed to be almost equally involved, even though there were specific aspects of social functions assigned to either men or women.

The societal value placed on each gender role was deduced from the motivation for undertaking a task and the factor reported as key in defining the role allocation. The most common reason given by men and women for undertaking reproductive roles were “it is my duty” and “I have no choice” while a small proportion of both male and female reported that they “like their roles”. This trend can be interpreted to mean that reproductive roles were less valued by both men and women as their performance often goes unrecognized when compared with productive work. Furthermore, it is often unpaid and is not counted in conventional economic statistics.

4.1.2 Access to and Control over Productive Resources

Understanding access and control of skills and productive resources is an important step in gender empowerment programming. This is because, while men and women may have access to resources that would empower them, the persons or institutions who control the resource may have more influence over its utilization. In this study, access to education and skills

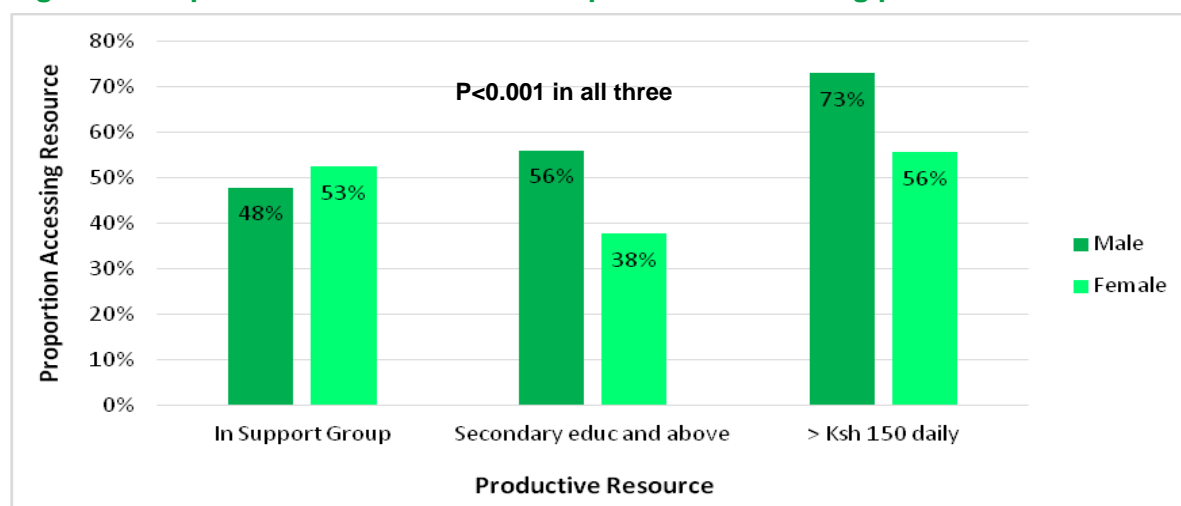
⁶ “Doing nothing” in the context of this report, was described as not engaging in tasks that generate income. Therefore women who spent most their time in household chores, were apt to report that they ‘did nothing’.

training, belonging to social support group and earning at least Kshs.150 or USD.2 per day were analysed.

a) Access to skills and productive resources/ labour services

Figure 4 below illustrates that 48% of male and 53% of female household respondents reported belonging to a social support group; 56% male and 38% female reported having at least secondary education; and 73% male, 56% females said they had access to a daily income of at least Kshs.150 (USD.2⁷). In all three aspects, the differences between males and females were significant (p<0.001).

Figure 4: Proportion of the household respondents accessing productive resources



Females fared better than males only with regards to support groups. This was likely because it does not cost much money to join a support group. The motivation for belonging to a support group varied as shown in the Table 6 below. The main purpose of these support groups was welfare (48%) and savings and credit (44%), and business investment vehicle reported by 24% of respondents.

Table 7: Belonging to a social support group by gender of the respondent

Variables	Total (n=794)		Males (n=230)		Females (n=564)		χ ² value	df	p value
	N	%	n	%	n	%			
Belong to a social support group?									
Yes	406	51.1%	110	47.8%	296	52.5%	1.418	1	0.234
No	388	48.9%	120	52.2%	268	47.5%			
If yes, main purpose of the support group									
Welfare	193	47.5%	54	49.1%	139	47.0%	0.938	3	0.816

⁷ 1 USD = Kenya Shillings (Kshs). 95, was the average rate by Central Bank of Kenya for period May, 2015. <https://www.centralbank.go.ke/index.php/rate-and-statistics/exchange-rates-2>. However, this rate was not used at the time of designing the data collection tool due to high fluctuation rates; a more stable rate of Kshs.75 per USD was applied in this study

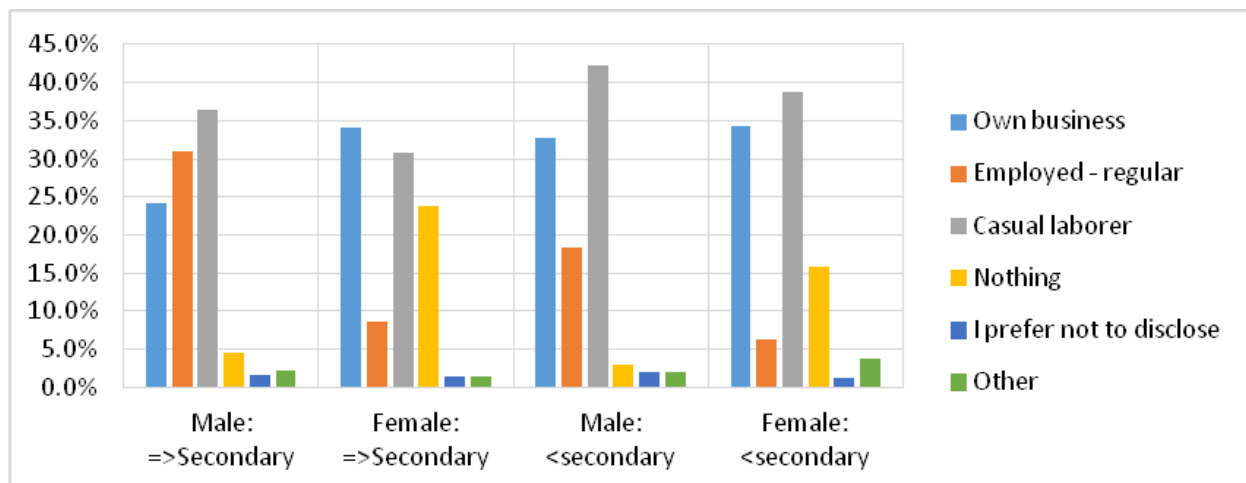
Savings and credit	179	44.1%	45	40.9%	134	45.3%
Business investment	24	5.9%	8	7.3%	16	5.4%
Other	10	2.5%	3	2.7%	7	2.4%
N/A	388		120		268	

The fact that half the population reported belonging to a social support group should be an important consideration for the project as these groups are possible entry points for skills training and organizing for collective action. For instance, those in saving and credit as well as business investment groups may have their capacity enhanced to grow these activities thereby reaping more benefits.

b) Control of skills and productive resources/ labour services

There were slightly more men (92%) than women (77%) who were engaged in a productive activity such as owning a business, in regular (full-time) employment or in casual labour.

Figure 5: Proportion of men and women in productive activity by level of education



Lower participation of women in productive roles was explained by key informants and some FGDs as due to limited access to skills and capital for women as demonstrated. Ferrant *et al*, (2014) also linked it to overly being engaged in reproductive activities.

c) Relationship between access to education and productive roles

Access to education and ownership of business: Figure 5 above indicates that there were more men owning businesses (33%) among those with no secondary education compared 24% who owned business and had secondary education. The proportion of women owning businesses (34%) was equal among those with and those without secondary school education. This could mean that accessing secondary school education, on its own, did not provide leverage in initiating or owning a business for women as much as it did for men.

Access to education and employment: There were more men with secondary education that reported having a regular employment (32%) compared to those with no secondary education

and were in employment (17%). Among the women, the difference in proportion of those reporting that they were in regular employment was small – 8% of those with secondary education and 6% of those with no secondary education (figure 5 above).

Overall, men were more likely (49%) to get into regular employment than women (14%). The level of education was a leveraging factor for men but not for women. This could mean that access to education alone did not seem to enable women to access employment and that the existing opportunities to those living in the informal settlement (such as domestic service in the higher income neighbourhoods, small scale businesses in the settlements and factories) may have barriers to women or discriminate against women with higher education.

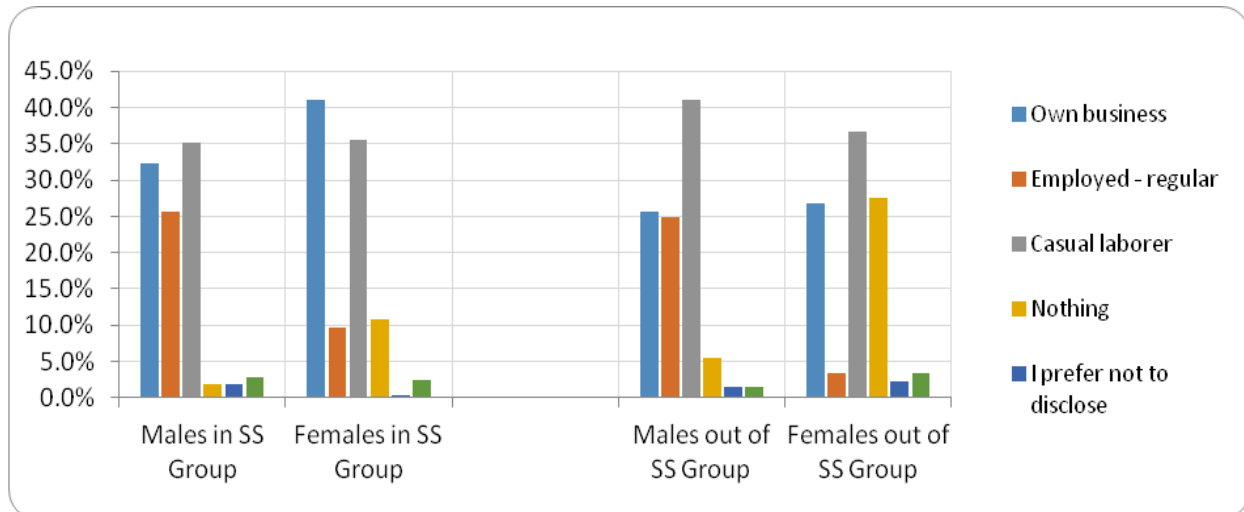
While higher education empowered men only towards accessing regular employment; this was not the case in accessing casual labour. There were more men and women with no secondary education employed as casual labourers (42% and 38% respectively) compared to the proportion of men and women with secondary education employed in casual labour which was 37% and 31% respectively.

Access to education and 'doing nothing': As presented in figure 5 above, 4% of men with secondary education reported that they “do nothing” compared to 2% of men without secondary education. Among the women, a higher proportion of 24% of those with secondary education reported that they did ‘nothing’ compared to 16% of those without secondary education. In both men and women, those with secondary education were more apt to report that they did ‘nothing’. This could be due to the expectation that an educated person should gain access to formal or regular employment. It did not matter that this group reporting doing ‘nothing’ may have been engaged in other productive or reproductive activities; the study found out that those reporting ‘doing nothing’, were actually engaged in reproductive activities.

d) Relationship between access to a social support group and productive roles

Social support groups (self-help groups) are informal structures that are common in Kenya for the purpose of promoting welfare and social security needs of members. They are more common in poor communities where individuals may not have the ability to pay insurance premiums and social security contribution to the formal structures. They have also served to promote access to money saving and credit services. Social support group is therefore a resource that has been shown to be important in mobilizing the poor and providing access to financial and non-financial resources. Figure 6 below illustrates the relationship between access to social support groups and control over the productive activities.

Figure 6: Proportion of men and women in productive activity against belonging to a support group



Access to social support group and ownership of business: There were more men owning a business among those in social support groups (32%) compared to those not in support groups (26%) as is shown in Figure 6 above. Among women, belonging to social support groups seemed to provide even greater benefit, with 41% of those in the groups owning a business compared to 26% of those not in the groups who owned a business. Some key informants and in FGDs reported that these social support groups (*chamas*) provided affordable business loans unlike the banks. In an interview with a program officer from FIDA, the *chama* groups have successfully been used to build confidence, self-esteem, and instil discipline in financial management, accountability in debt repayment, served as security for business loans. *Chamas* were therefore, described as a best practice.

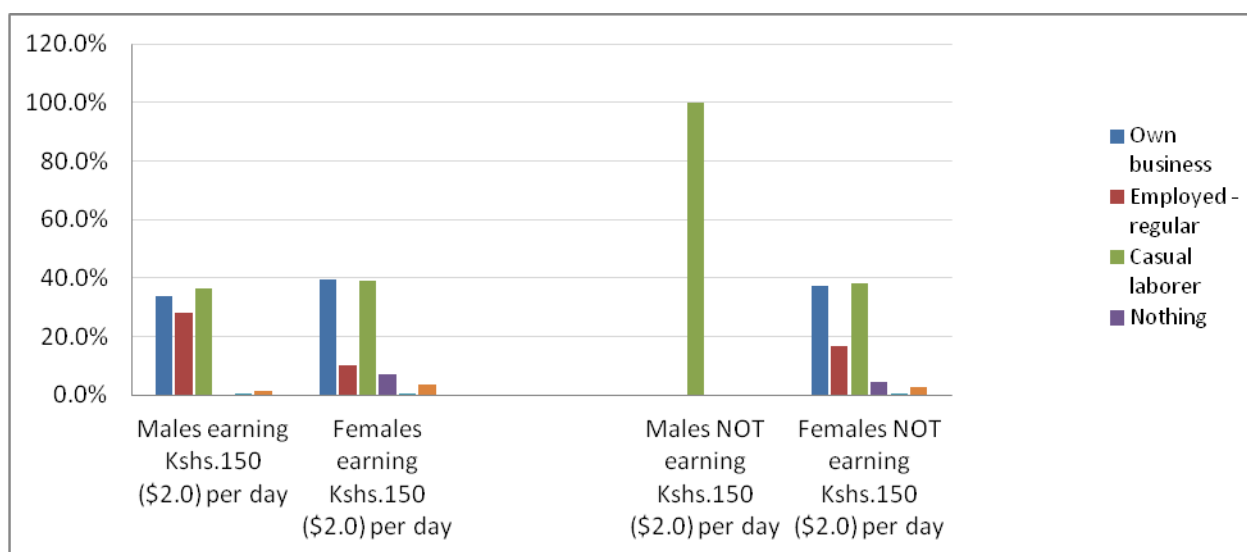
Access to social support group and employment: Belonging to social support group did not seem to increase chances of men accessing regular employment; there was only a slight difference of 27% of men in the support groups who were employed, compared to 25% of those not in the groups who were employed. Among the women however, those in support groups were more likely to access regular employment compared to those who did not belong to a support group at 10% and 4% respectively (see figure 6 above). Self support groups are likely sources of information on where employment opportunities exist and they increase confidence to seek or create employment as described by Chepchirchir (2013) and Das (2012).

Belonging to social support group and possibility of 'doing nothing': Among the men who belonged to support groups, a smaller proportion of 2% reported doing 'nothing' compared to 6% of those not in support groups. For women, belonging to support group seemed to give them greater access to productive resources. There were 11% of women in support group who reported doing nothing compared to 26% of those not in support groups (see figure 6 above). A general observation therefore, is that social support groups play a critical role in ownership of business.

e) Relationship between income and productive roles

Daily income of the respondent was assessed as an asset, especially when there is a surplus. In this study, the international daily minimum living wage of USD. 2⁸ was used as a measure of wealth as shows in figure 7 below.

Figure 7: Proportion of men and women earning at least Kshs.150 (USD.2) per day in productive role



Access to income and ownership of business: Reference to figure 7 above, about a third (33%) of the men who earned at least USD 2.0 daily reported that they owned a business compared to 0% of those with less than this amount. On the other hand, there was only a marginal difference in income between the proportions of women who reported owning a business (39%) and those who reported not owning a business (37%). This suggests that nearly half of women in business were earning very little when compared to men.

Access to income and employment: The scenario figure 7 above is also repeated in employment. While 28% of men who were in regular employment earned at least USD.2 per day and none earned less than this amount, 10% of women in regular employment earned at least USD 2 per day while 17% in employment earned less than this amount. These findings show gender inequalities in earnings among those in regular employment - women in employment earned less than men. This could also be explained by the different kind of employment jobs that men and women do; with men perhaps taking up higher pay jobs than women.

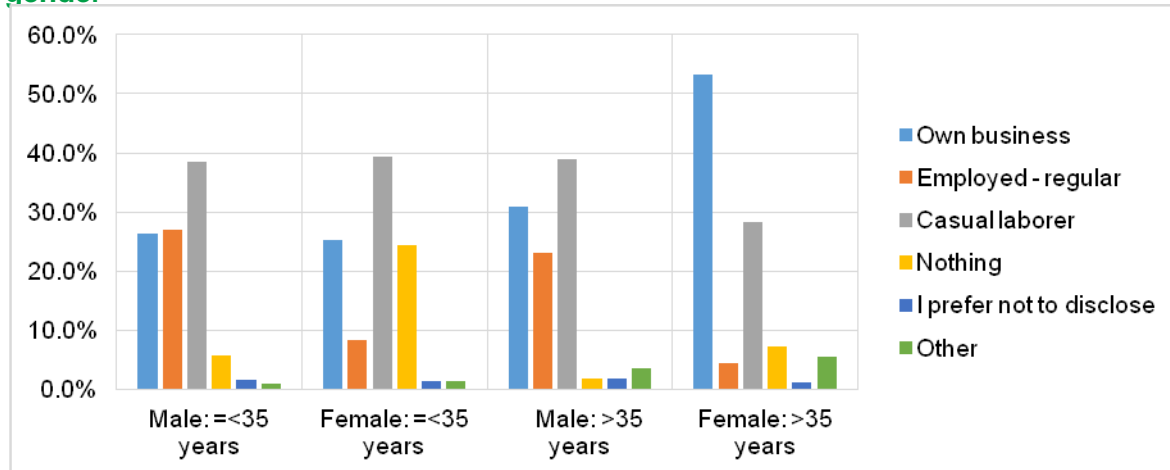
⁸ 1 USD = Kenya Shillings (Kshs). 95, was the average rate by Central Bank of Kenya for period May, 2015. <https://www.centralbank.go.ke/index.php/rate-and-statistics/exchange-rates-2>. However, this rate was not used at the time of designing the data collection tool due to high fluctuation rates; a more stable rate of Kshs.75 per USD was applied in this study.

4.1.3 Other Factors that may Determine Access to Productive Resources

Other factors that are known from literature as determining utilization of productive resources were analysed. The findings are presented below.

a) Age as factor in exploiting productive resources

Figure 8: Proportion of men and women engaged in productive activity by age and gender



An analysis of age as a factor in exploiting productive resources was conducted and results presented in (figure 8 above). In relation to owning a business, older men and older women were more likely to own a business (31% and 53% respectively) than the younger ones (26% and 25% respectively).

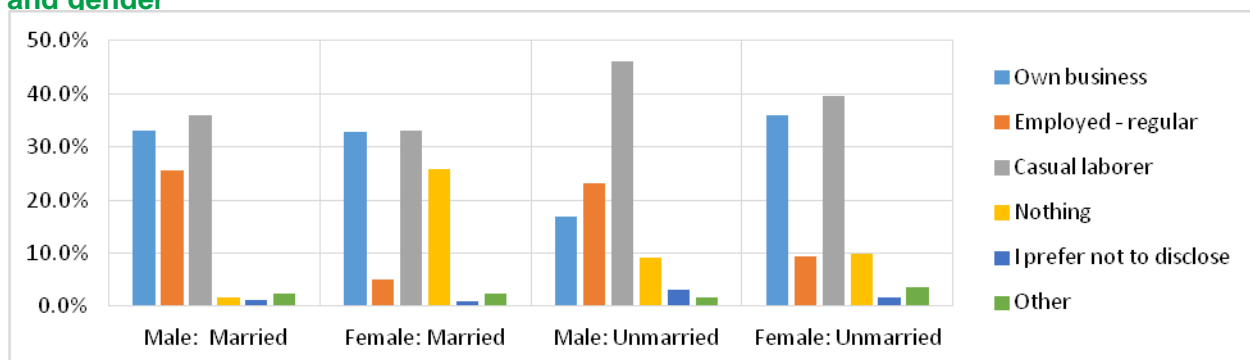
In the employment category, there were more younger men and women in regular employment (27% and 8% respectively) compared to the older ones (24% and 4% respectively).

Of those in casual labour, there was almost equal proportion of younger men and women (38% and 39% respectively); among the older women and men, slightly more men (38%) than women (27%) were engaged in casual labour. This could be due to competing household responsibility among older women who are likely to be married and having children.

b) Marital status as factor in exploiting productive resources

Figure 9 below illustrates how marital status could affect ability to engagement in a productive activity.

Figure 9: Proportion of men and women engaged in productive activity by marital status and gender



The data indicated that married men were more likely to own a business (33%) than unmarried men (17%); among the women however, the proportion of married women owning a business (33%) was almost equal to those of unmarried women (36%). Overall, proportion of married men and married women owning a business was equal.

Access to regular employment was almost equal among married and unmarried men (25% and 23% respectively). For the women however, there were slightly fewer married women in regular employment (5%) compared to the unmarried women (9%). Among those engaged in casual labour, there were far more unmarried men (46%) than the married men (36%); the same trend was observed among women, with a higher proportion of unmarried women (40%) engaged in casual labour compared to the married women (33%).

Being in a marriage union therefore, seemed to be a limiting factor for women in accessing jobs and owning businesses; this was not the case for men. This could be indicative of the unequal responsibilities that marriage places on women and men.

4.1.4 Status of Women Participation in Decision Making and Development Activities

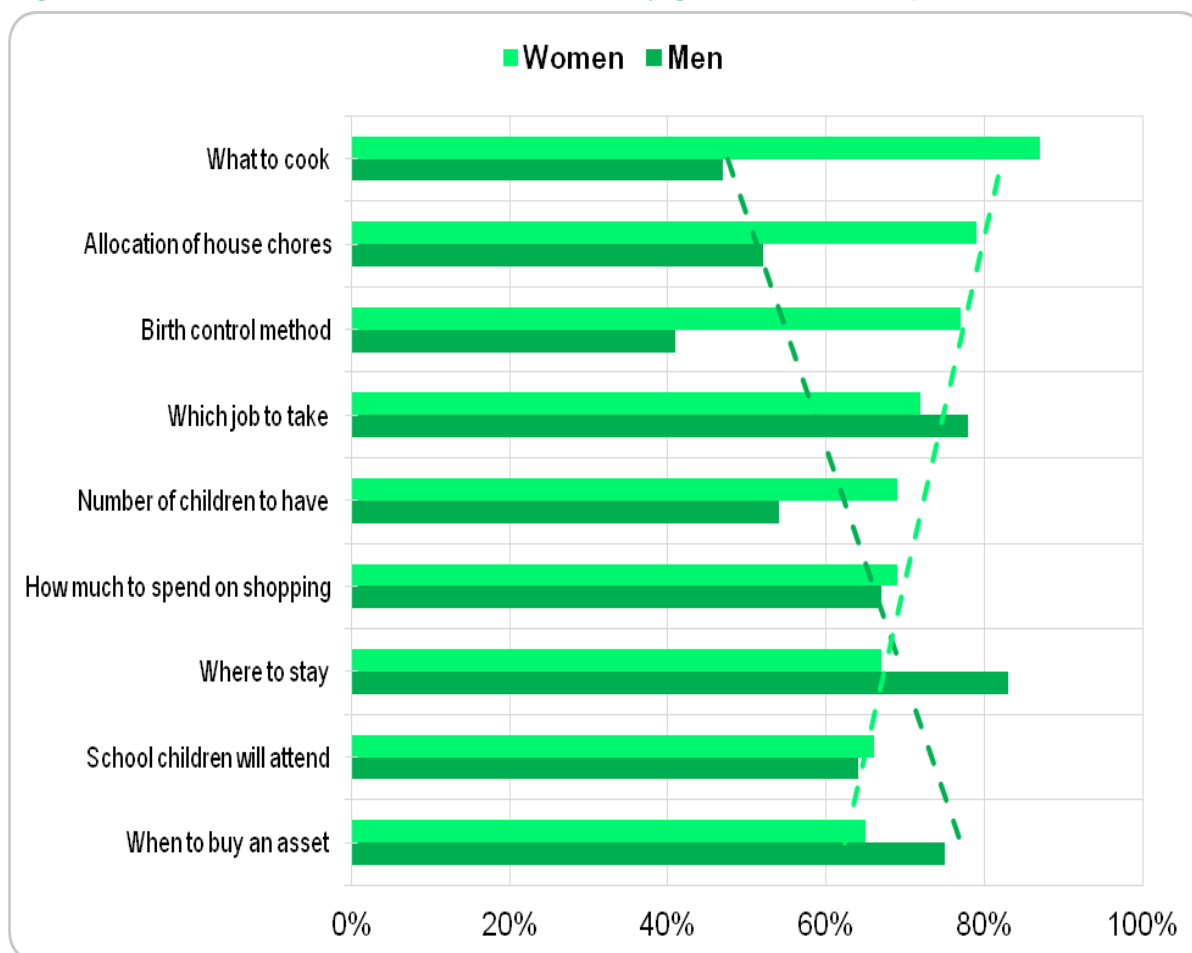
This section of the report presents findings on status of women participation in decision making at household level, community level and in development activities. This provides information on status of gender and power relations.

a) Status of participation of women in decision making at household level

Respondents in this study were asked to list decisions they often make from a list of 9 possible household-level decisions. Their responses are presented in figure 10 below. The types of the decisions often made were listed in order of importance. The importance of the decisions was verified in FGDs. Decisions were also ranked by considering the implication it had on household resources such as time, money and its effect in either securing or not securing the household as proposed by Qualls and Jaffe, (1992).

The result indicate that decisions on “what to cook” was considered least important by both men and women, while decisions of “when to buy an asset” was considered most important and therefore often made by men. The trend lines in figure 10 below show the differences in the types of decision made by each gender.

Figure 10: Decisions made in the household by gender of the respondent



As can be seen above, the decisions predominantly made by women were on issues around reproduction and household chores. Men were prominent in decisions involving earning or expending money at household level, where to stay and when to buy an asset. Women on the other hand decided what to cook, birth control method, allocation of household chores, and number of children to give birth to.

Table 8 below shows the differences between men and women with regards to fair opportunity in household level decision making.

Table 8: Have fair opportunity to participate in making decisions in the household

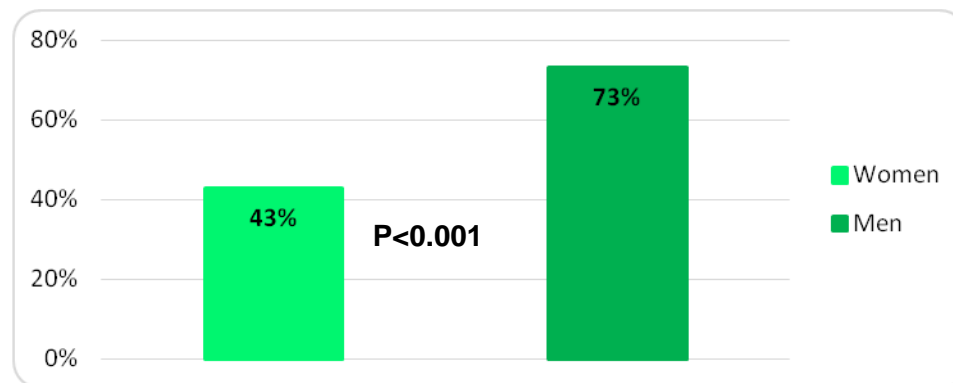
Variables	Total (n=794)		Males (n=230)		Females (n=564)		x square	df	p value
	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Strongly agree	362	45.6%	137	59.6%	225	39.9%	29.250	4	<0.001
Agree	311	39.2%	71	30.9%	240	42.6%			
Not sure	35	4.4%	10	4.3%	25	4.4%			

Disagree	65	8.2%	10	4.3%	55	9.8%
Strongly disagree	21	2.6%	2	.9%	19	3.4%

The results in table 8 above show that significantly fewer women (40%) strongly felt they had a fair (based on their own perception on what fair stands for) opportunity in decision making at the household level when compared to men (60%).

This study also sought to establish who between women and men had a final say in decision making when there was a difference in opinion. As can be seen in figure 11 below, 73% of men reported having the final say compared to 43% of women. This difference was significant. According to Pambe et al.. (2013), participation in decision making can be pinned on one’s level of education. Therefore it is significant to note that education is also a contributing factor to empowerment.

Figure 11: Respondent gets the final say when there is difference in opinion



A significant difference was also noted with regards to consultation when making the most important decisions in the household. While 43% of women said they consulted their husbands, only 3% of men said they consulted their wives.

These findings were corroborated by FGDs in Korogocho where men asserted that whenever there were differences in opinion, they (men) had the final say. In addition, women in Mukuru informal settlement said that

“Men influence decisions particularly on income; hence, they make the final decision”.

Further, women domestic workers in Mukuru also said that

“Husbands sometimes dominate over women in decision making”.

The findings imply that there is minimal use of mechanisms that would allow for dialogue, negotiation and consensus building in decision making processes. The position taken by men reflects male dominance in decision-making which is an attribute associated with masculinities.

Therefore, in as much as the focus of the project is on women, men should not be left aside when programmes are being developed because they may determine if the project is to succeed or not. This is attributed to fact that they are the ones who have the final say when

decisions are being made. In this case they can deter women from participating in any projects whatsoever. This may be done by ensuring men's support for the project by underscoring its value for the family in training women to appreciate and support collective efforts to improve the wellbeing of their families. There is also the need to train both men and women on dialogue and negotiation and how to come to a consensus whenever there are differences of opinion.

b) Status of participation of women in decision making at community level

The survey also sought to establish the extent to which men and women were involved in decision making at the community level. Table 9 below shows the level of involvement in community level decisions by gender.

Table 9: Involvement in decisions at community level by gender of the respondent

Variables	Total (n=794)		Males (n=230)		Females (n=564)		χ ² value	df	p value
	n	%	n	%	n	%			
How often do you contribute your views when these decisions are made at community level									
Always	113	14.2%	67	29.1%	46	8.2%	59.052	3	<0.001
Sometimes	383	48.2%	90	39.1%	293	52.0%			
Never	276	34.8%	67	29.1%	209	37.1%			
I don't know	22	2.8%	6	2.6%	16	2.8%			
In the last 12 months someone in the community sought respondent's views when making a decision that affects the respondents									
Yes	209	26.3%	100	43.5%	109	19.3%	50.040	2	<0.001
No	557	70.2%	126	54.8%	431	76.4%			
Don't know	28	3.5%	4	1.7%	24	4.3%			
Accessibility to institutions that make important decisions that affect the respondent in his/her community									
Not accessible	67	8.4%	25	10.9%	42	7.4%	11.413	4	0.022
Difficult to access	130	16.4%	39	17.0%	91	16.1%			
Accessible	460	57.9%	137	59.6%	323	57.3%			
Easily accessible	104	13.1%	17	7.4%	87	15.4%			
Very accessible	33	4.2%	12	5.2%	21	3.7%			

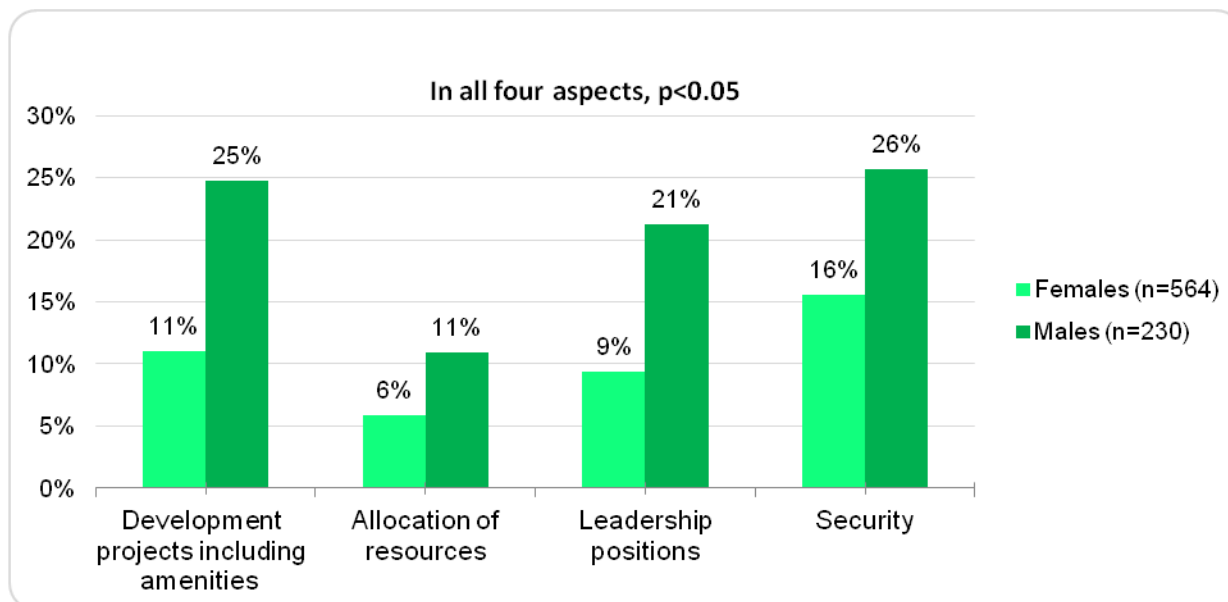
The findings in table 9 above show that most respondents ,men and women were not consulted in decisions made at the community level. For instance, only 26% of respondents had been consulted in the 12 months prior to the study in connection with decisions that directly affect them. This was despite the fact that most respondents (74%) said that the individuals and institutions that make important decisions such as politicians, religious leaders, provincial administrators and NGOs were accessible to them.

It can also be seen from table 9 that female respondents reported even lower levels of being consulted with only 19% reporting being consulted in the last 12 months compared to 44% males. This suggests that the gender inequality in decision making extended from the

household to the community level. There was therefore, a need to interrogate and dispel beliefs that impede participation in decision making, especially by women.

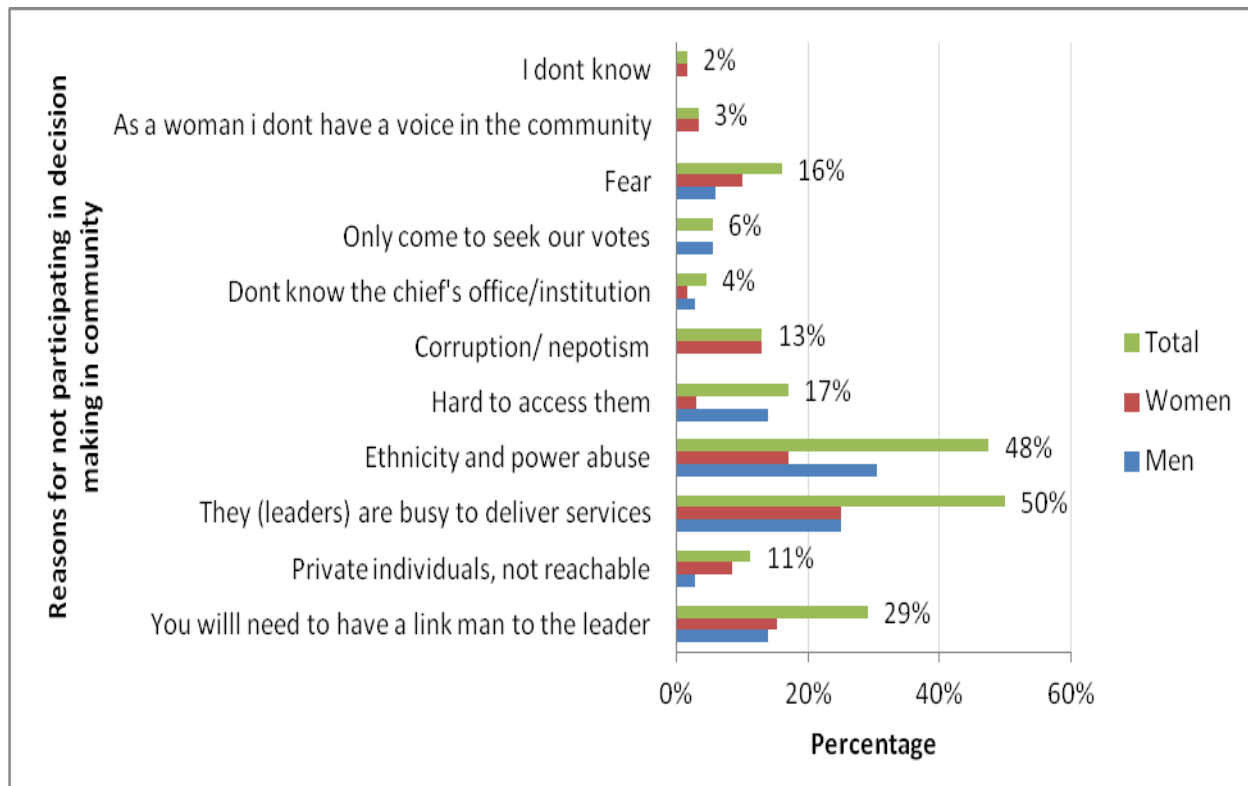
The study then assessed the extent to which respondents were involved in community decisions in four critical aspects: development projects and amenities, allocation of resources, leadership positions and security. Figure 12 below presents the proportions of respondents who said they were “very much” involved in decisions in these four aspects.

Figure 12: Proportions of respondents who reported being “very much” consulted in community decisions



In general, majority of men and women reported low involvement, in nearly all aspects of decision making at community level. The proportion of women who reported being “very much” involved in decision making was half or less than that of men. Possible underlying causes of low participation of both men and women were determined by analysing answers to the question posed to household survey respondents on “what are the obstacles/ barriers to accessing decision makers?”. The responses were grouped and presented in figure 13 below.

Figure 13: Proportion of heads of household reporting a reason for inability to participate in community decision making



The most reported barriers to participation in decision making at community level include ‘leaders are too busy to deliver services’ reported by 25% of women and 25% of men. The other reason was ‘ethnicity and power abuse’ by decision makers reported by 17% of women and 31% of men. There is therefore need to train community leaders and decision makers on ensuring that the voices of women are deliberately sought during community decisions. The programme should also build the skills of women and empower them to pursue their rights to participate in community decisions.

The FGDs showed that decisions at the community level are made by men, headmen, area chiefs and local leaders. The key informants also confirmed that men generally dominate decisions at the community level as most of them are done at the chief’s *barazas* which are dominated by them. One chief reported that in his area, the men dominate discussions and debates in *barazas* hence women’s views are not considered. A Community Health Worker (CHW) said:

“Men are more than women in the barazas because security issues are more dependent on men. We need to be given a lady chief and police women. Men dominate women.”

Yet, even where more women attended *barazas*, it seemed like the dominance of men still prevailed. A chief in Kawangware informal settlement reported:

“Women are discriminated here in Kawangware, that they have no voice in giving their opinion. While women always come to barazas in large numbers than men (60:40 ratio respectively), men dominate the decision making in the forum”.

This low involvement of women is likely to result in low prioritization of issues that they care most about. Some of these issues are different from what men care about. Table 10 below for instance shows the list of most important community decisions as ranked by respondents of either gender in FGDs.

Table 10: Ranking of most important decisions at community level by FGD respondents

Men	Women
1. Security	1. Security
2. Social amenities e.g. school, hospitals	2. Environmental/sanitation
3. Sanitation/water	3. Development projects e.g. hospitals
4. Infrastructure	4. Financial hand-outs (who gets)

The findings in table 10 suggest similarities in most important decisions; however, further interrogation showed that women and men attached different meanings to these. For instance, security for men was about how to offer/ ensure security for communities and households (some groups of men even offer security at a cost). For women, the concern was more about how insecurity/ the constant threat to insecurity in the neighbourhoods affected them.

4.1.5 Barriers to Participation of Women in Leadership, Decision Making and their Root Causes

a) Attitudes, cultural beliefs and practices that promote gender and class inequalities

Culture and attitudes held by men and women were perceived as primary barriers to participation of women in leadership or decision making. The survey found out that while culture was often perceived as static it changed in response to contextual social needs. The statements below are based on verbatim presentations from discussion in the FGDs and KIIs.

On effects of cultural beliefs, a respondent in an FGD noted that;

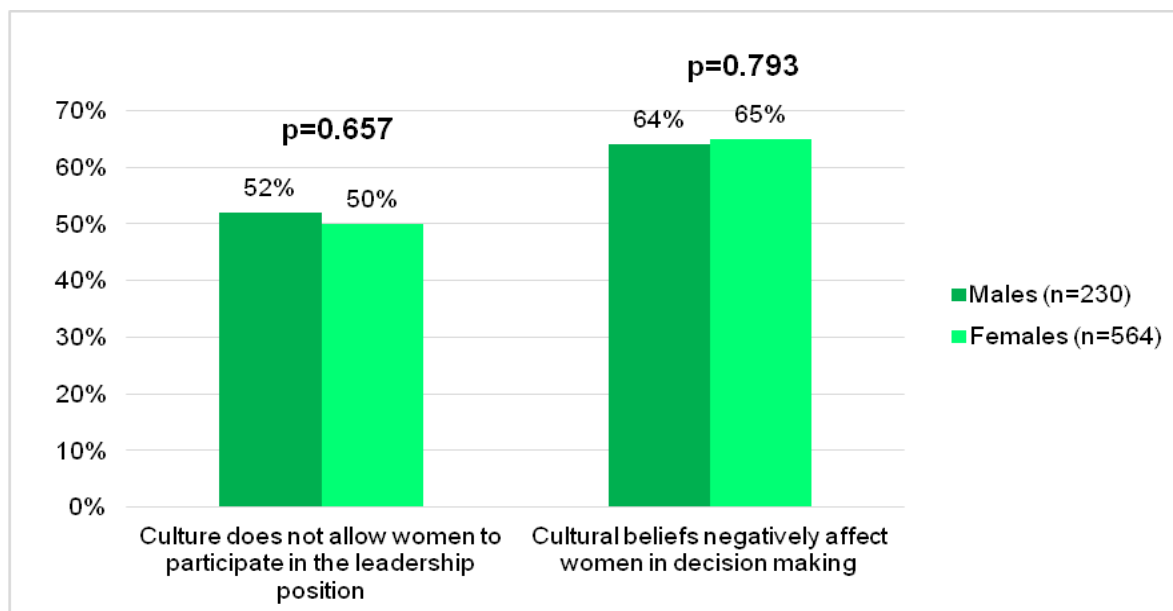
“Culturally, it is not acceptable for men to do domestic work”

African culture dictates that a man should be respected⁹ and he should be the final decision maker (men FGD Korogocho informal settlement)

⁹ Respected was a phrase often used by respondents in the context of division of labour at household level; it often referred to not involving men in domestic chores

In addition, FGD and KII notes were scrutinized for evidence of such attitudes, beliefs and practices. Figure 14 below illustrates the findings.

Figure 14: Proportions of respondents who agreed/ strongly agreed on select cultural barriers



Most respondents agreed that cultural beliefs negatively affected women in decision making while about half agreed that culture hinders women’s participation in leadership position. There were no significant differences in responses between men and women. From the FGDs and KIIs, both women and men brought out aspects of attitudes, cultural beliefs and practices some of which are presented below in verbatim;

Mila zetu zimekataa mwanamme kufanya kazi za nyumbani (Our culture does not allow men to perform household chores (FGD by men in Korogocho informal settlement)

Mume husaidia mke wake na kazi za nyumbani kama bibi ni mgonjwa ama amepata mtoto. (A husband can only assist a woman with household chores under special circumstances like when she has given birth or she is sick(FGD by Men Mukuru Kayaba)

A good woman does all her household chores and is polite to her husband (FGD Women Small Scale Traders in Korogocho informal settlement)

These views indicate women and men’s belief that household chores are women’s responsibility while men only help in these functions. In our view therefore, this may explain why gender division of labour in the household is unequal. A government officer in Korogocho informal settlement stated that when women are given a chance in the chief’s *baraza* (discussion forum),

“...they are too confined in gender roles when given a chance to speak” (Chief, Korogocho).

This kind of perceptions may be used to deny women opportunities to communicate their concerns. While such forums are important, it should be noted that the agenda may not include women’s concerns because they are trivialized. Therefore, what is really crucial is, women learning to, voice and prioritize their issues, being equipped with knowledge on how to interrogate them and skills on how ensure their concerns form part of the agenda in leadership forums. To realize this, the women would require skills and mentorship on public speaking, communicating their concerns clearly, lobbying and advocacy.

The survey also established that customary regulations as reflected in the social construction of gender roles were still an impediment to empowerment in the study areas. Most participants in the FGDs and respondents in KIIs still maintained that the place of women is at home while men were considered family providers (who must be out there earning a living) and protectors.

Below are some of the views from respondents in FGD and key informant interviews.

“The family will be happier and it will be much easier if domestic work is left to the wife and husband provides for the finances (according to Kikuyu community). Men from Kikuyu community are not supposed to perform household chores.” – Chief, Kawangware.

Man in FGD (Kawangware):

“Though women can be good leaders, culture does not allow them to be elected as leaders.”

Based on these views, it is clear that positive and negative attitudes towards women do exist even in communities where both men and women share the same contexts.

b) Beliefs and attitudes on women participation on political leadership

As presented in figure 15 below, significantly more women (86%) than men (74%) believed that women can lead just like men. Some women still believed that women could not lead as effectively as their male counterparts. For instance, during an FDG in Korogocho, a female domestic worker observed,

“Women should not be elected into leadership positions as they do not have good personality to be in power or ability to relate with people well”. (Women DWs FGD Korogocho).

Such perceptions may be as a result of a low opinion of women’s ability in general or bad experiences from their female employers. Either way, such perceptions will continue to perpetuate the belief that women cannot effectively carry out leadership roles, hence hindering efforts being made to ensure gender equality in leadership roles. Concerted efforts must therefore, be made in changing these through popular education whose aim is to interrogate

and dismiss shaky beliefs upon which gender discrimination is anchored, and role modelling among other forms of capacity building.

Figure 15: Proportions of respondents who agreed to select barriers to political empowerment

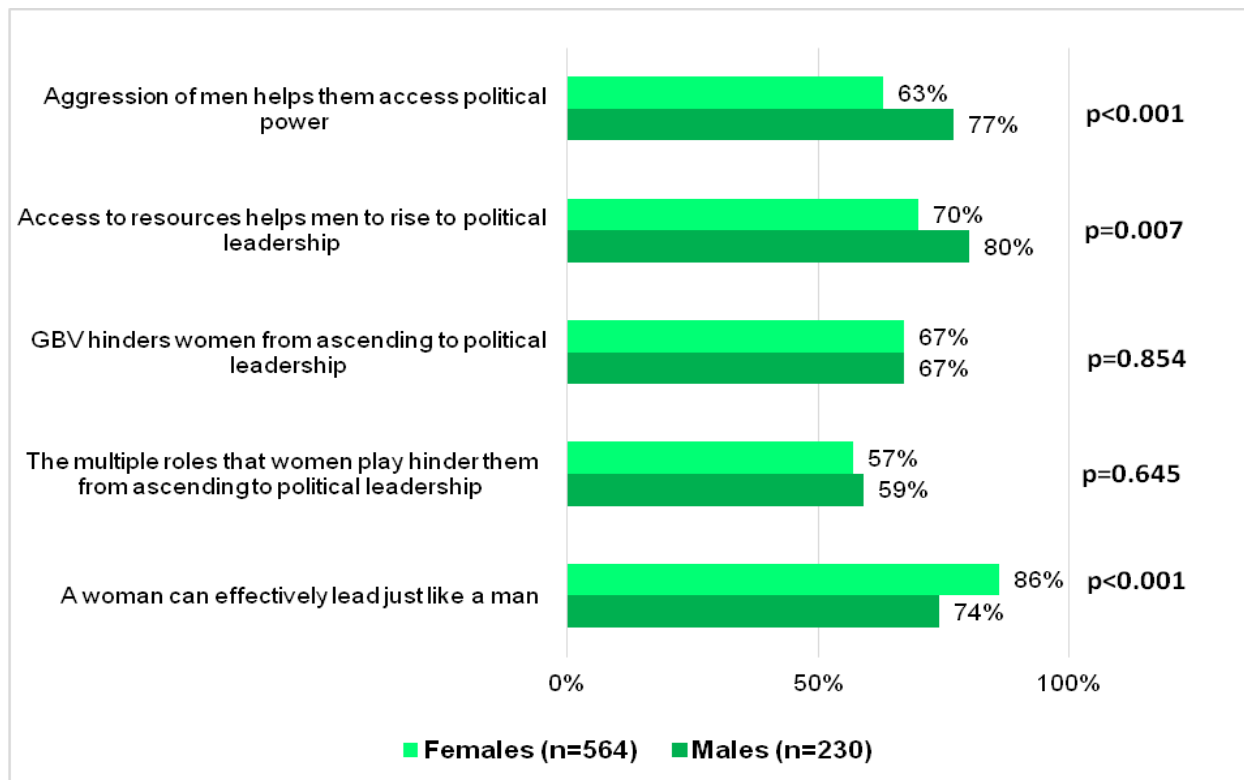


Figure 15 above also shows that a high proportion of respondents felt that the things that helped men access political power were aggression¹⁰ and access to resources¹¹. Significantly more males held this view than females. On the other hand, women were hindered by GBV and multiple reproductive and productive notes. Some key informants at community level proposed that there should be special support to women running for political party seats through special seats in political party nomination of candidates, a special funding kitty and voter education to address the discrimination against women.

Asked if they would elect a woman into political office, men and women FGDs in the same location (Korogocho) had varied opinions as shown below. Men answered in the affirmative, and explained that ‘it depends on how she presents her case before us and if she truly has the community at heart’ and that ‘women have a right to want leadership positions’.

While the household survey data indicate support for women leadership by women, the women FGD in Korogocho presented in the table above reported that ‘women do not have good

¹⁰ Aggression was described in FGDs as ability to assert and make demands for one’s own benefit

¹¹ Resources were described as money and people that support one’s political campaign

personality to be in power or ability to and relate with people well'. This was explained by other key informants as likely to be due to perceived failure of most recent woman member of parliament for their constituency.

4.1.6 Poverty and Gender Inequality

a) How poverty was defined in the context of this study population

A poverty score for each of the respondents was determined using a model constructed from four of the elements of Oxfam's definition of poverty (table 11 below). A composite score was generated in SPSS for the four factors for which data were available (see annex 7.2.2).

Note: The higher the score, the higher the poverty (i.e. poverty increases as the score increases).

Table 11: Elements included in the poverty score model (based on Oxfam's definition of poverty)

FACTORS OF POVERTY	Income	Assets	Access to basic services & opportunities	Inequality	Security	Access to opportunity for development
Measure or proxy measure used	% earning <Ksh.150 (USD 2) per day	Perception of wealth status used as proxy: % who self-rated themselves as not rich due to owning property	Education used as proxy: % with < secondary education	No Data	No Data	Productive activity used as proxy: % who do not own business, or regular employed, or in casual labour

From the FGDs respondents, poverty was defined narrowly as compared to the elements described in the table above. Majority of the respondents defined poverty as inability to cater for their families' basic needs, such as paying rent, buying food and clothes, paying school fees for their children; poverty was also considered relative or intellectual. One respondent said;

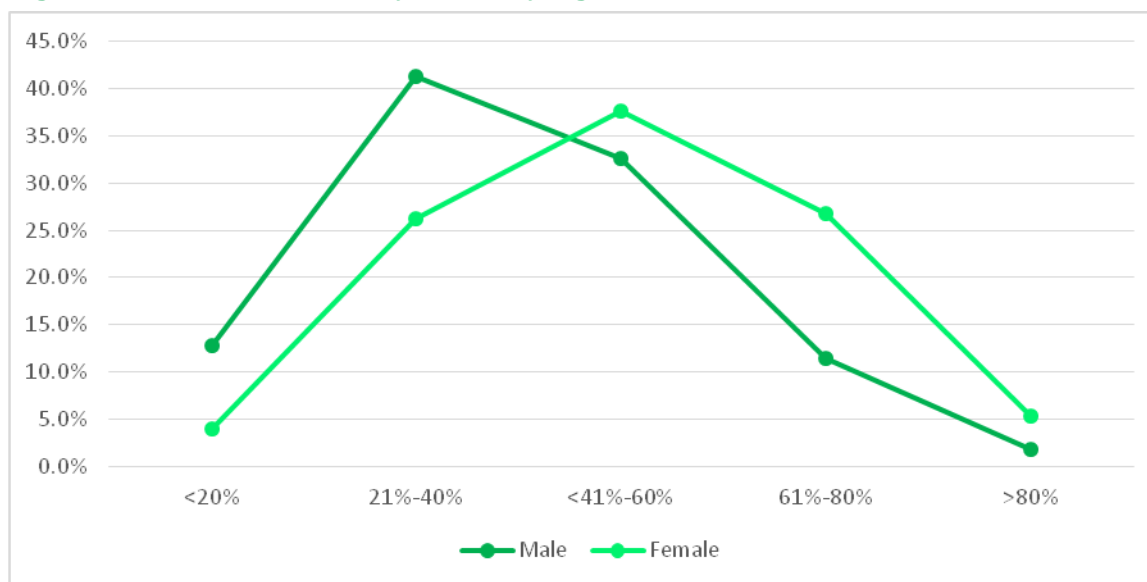
"Poverty is intellectual – because you can have money and still say you are poor."
(Men FGD – Korogocho).

In the informal settlements therefore, poverty was seen in the light of inability to access to basic services and opportunities. Other elements such as inequality and insecurity were not considered important in describing poverty by the research participants.

b) Proportion of men and women living in poverty

Figure 16 below presents findings of the score on poverty by gender.

Figure 16: Sustained Poverty Score by Age and Gender



The graph above shows that there were more women who were poor compared to men.

This result demonstrates that a combination of factors such as access to income, assets, basic education increased gender inequality with regards to poverty.

Most respondents in the household survey (61%) earned above Kshs 150 (approximately USD 2) a day, which means that more than half of the respondents should be considered to live above the universal poverty line which currently stands at \$2.00 a day. Although this income would imply they are not poor, the fact that most households in the informal settlements spend about \$1.5 per day on water, toilets and other basic needs, limits their ability to save or invest.

c) Root causes that contribute to poverty among women and men

To determine root causes of poverty, a linear regression analysis of the data on poverty score was conducted. The model included testing the relationship between poverty score and other socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, age, marital status, community, and head of household (education was excluded since it had been included in the model for poverty score). The full model is presented in annex 7.1 (table 13). A reduced model showing only variables that were significant after controlling for all other factors is presented in table 11 below.

Table 11: Predictors of Less Poverty Level

	AOR	95% CI		P-Value
		Lower	Upper	
Sex of Respondent				
Female (ref)	1.00			
Male	1.95	1.12	3.38	0.018
Who heads household structure				
Female head	0.37	0.14	1.00	0.049
Male head	0.37	0.20	0.68	0.002
Grandparent headed	29401860.80	0.00		0.999
Other (ref)	1.00			

The results in table 11 above indicate that gender was the main predictor of poverty, with women more likely to be poor than the men.

From the FGDs, the root cause of poverty was often reported as unemployment. It was noted that lack of formal jobs made most men laze around and contributed to their inability to provide for their families and those who got little funds from casual labour used them to indulge in illicit brews. According to one community health worker (CHW) in Kibera, another cause of poverty was over dependency on financial hand-outs given to the people in the informal settlements by the NGOs working in the area. She said that the financial hand-outs promoted laziness and men and women no longer worked hard to earn a living. When the funds were not available, most men and boys turn to crime. The same situation was reported in the Men FGD in Mathare where the men said

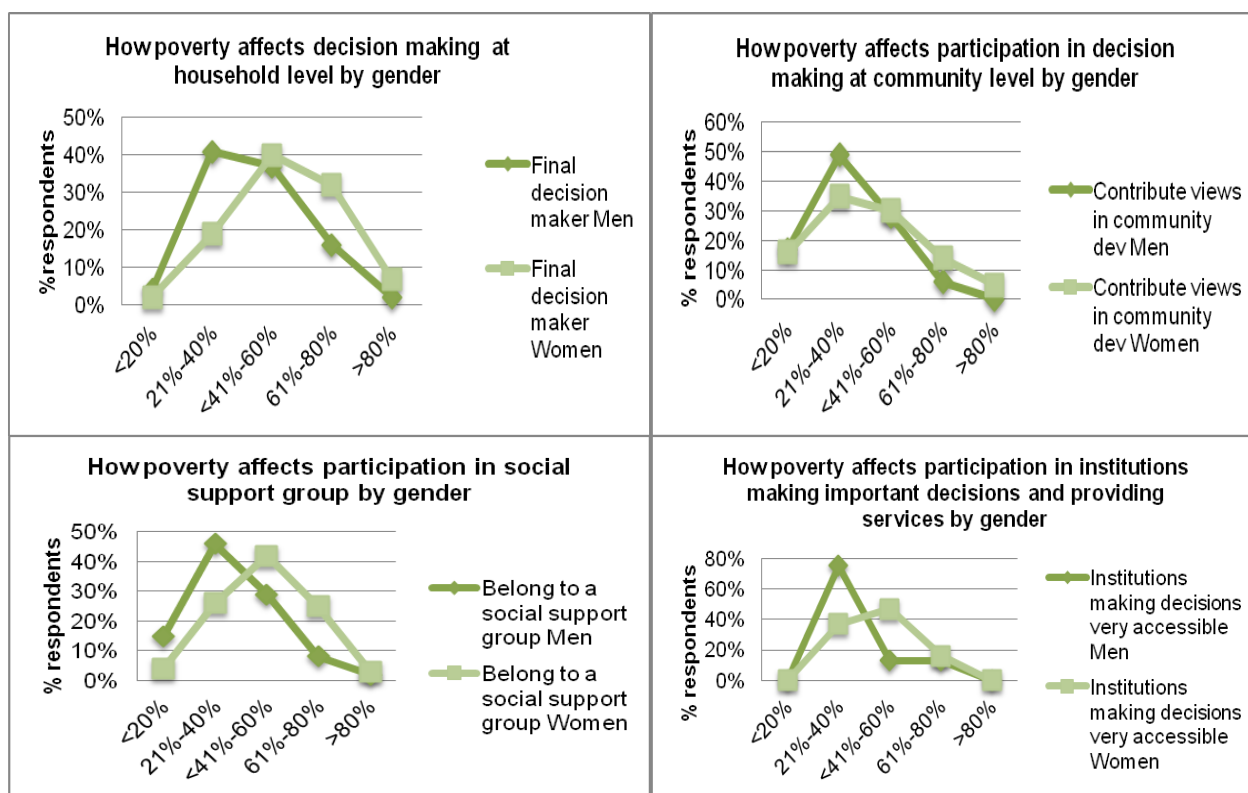
“Our women pretend to be Muslims to benefit from alms.”

Other factors that exacerbate poverty as identified by the research participants included lack of financial planning where people only work when they do not have money, illiteracy, laziness, alcoholism and lack of ambition. These disempowers the individual, in this case, mostly women and has been linked to sustained poverty as presented by Kabeer (2005), Agarwal (1997). Suggestion from the research participants concur with those of Molynux (2008), that empowerment of women therefore ought to include supporting them acquire skills and abilities to enable them achieve legal and material independence and be able to demand their rights. This improves effectiveness in participation in community development.

d) Distinction on how poverty affects Women from Men and the underlying causes.

Poverty and disempowerment go hand in hand as described by Kabeer (2005). In this section, an analysis of how distinctly poverty affects women from men was conducted in reference to four factors of empowerment. Factors analyzed were ‘ability to make final decisions in the household level’, ‘ability to participate in decision making at community level’, ‘participation in social support groups’ and ‘ability to access institutions that make important decisions and provide services to the informal communities’.

Figure 17: How poverty distinctly affects men from women



The graphs above indicate that there were common trends on how poverty affected women and men. In poorer households (tending towards >80% score on poverty scale), more women than men were in charge of the four empowerment factors - that is, they made final decision, contributed their views in community development, participated in social support groups and engaged with institutions making important decisions. The reverse was observed in less poor household where men were more in control of the four empowerment factors than women; this difference was greatest in engagements at community level and interaction with institutions that make decisions, in favour of men

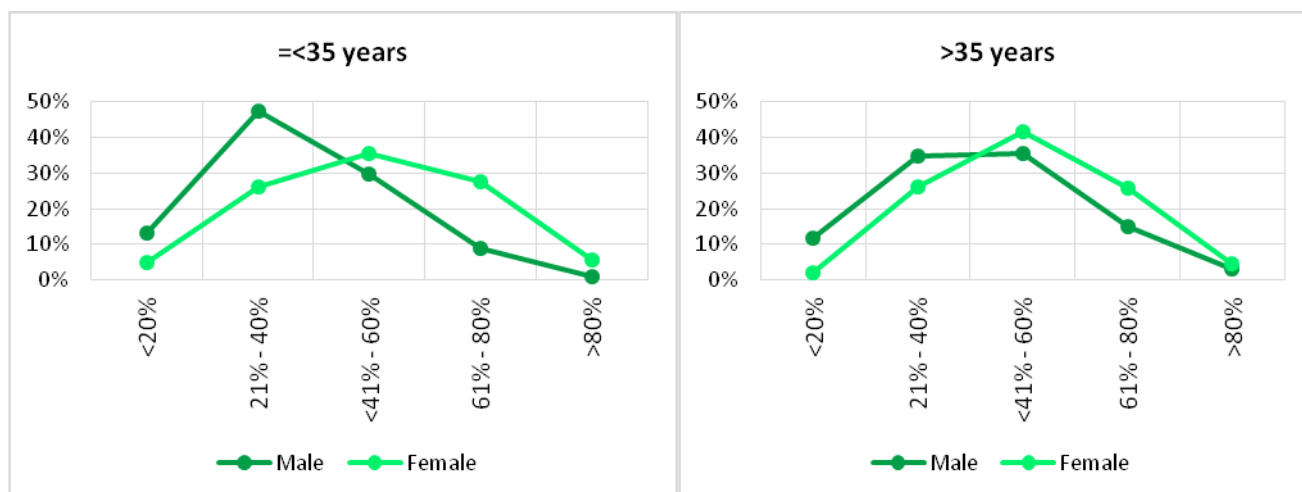
Key informants explained that this trend was possibly a reflection of the fact that poorer household were largely women led; and that women had more responsibility in both

reproductive and productive activities. These data may imply that poorer households need special targeting for empowerment programs, specifically targeted at women. All women, however, irrespective of their poverty levels, would need empowerment to effectively engage in decision making at community level and with institutions that make important decisions or provide services.

e) Gender inequalities as a factor that sustains poverty of the poor and marginalized groups

Analysis by age showed that the poverty score was higher among women compared to men in both the younger generation (35 years or younger) and older generation (above 35 years). This implies that gender inequality is a factor in sustaining poverty.

Figure 18: Poverty score by sex among younger and older respondents

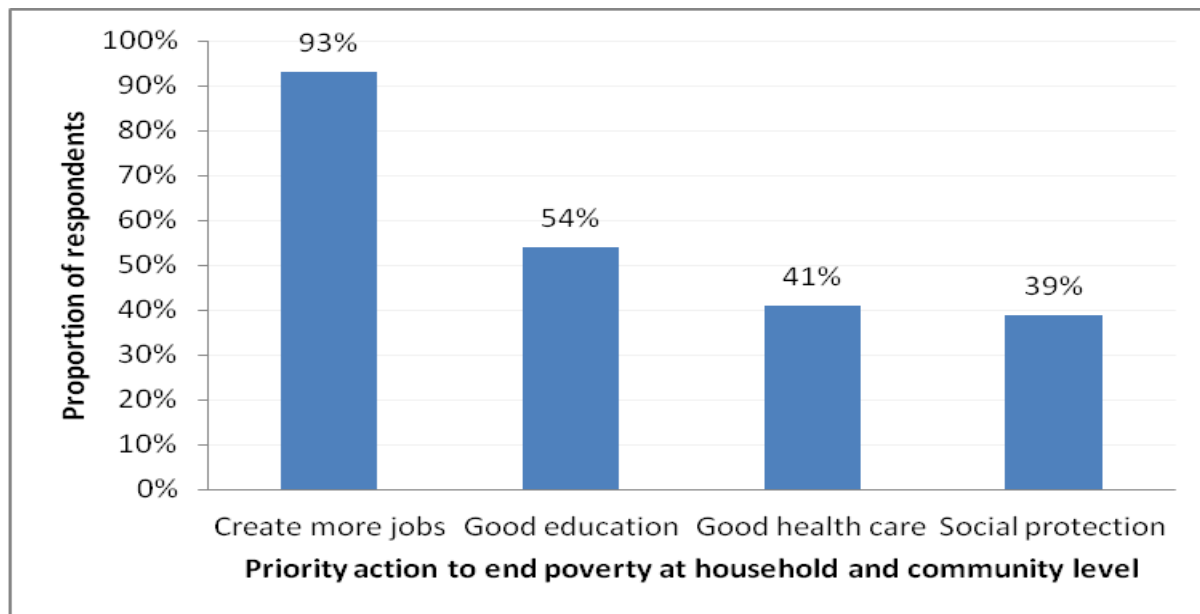


f) Proposed interventions to end poverty among women and men

Interventions by government and other development partners that would lead to creating more jobs was identified as a priority intervention of ending poverty by most (93%) of the respondents in this study. The second priority action proposed by community members was improving access to education for children (54%), followed by improving access to health care services as presented in the figure 19 below.

Using Caroline Moser Framework (2012) to identify intervention for empowerment of women and ending poverty, almost all the respondents (98%) reported that effective strategies for ending poverty should integrate the needs and concerns of women, men, boys and girls. The perception that meeting women need is important to enable them perform their gender roles was also popular, with about a third (75%) of both men and women agreeing to the statement. This is an indication of low levels of empowerment among both men and women, because providing basic needs in itself does not bring poverty to an end.

Figure 19: Proposed intervention to end poverty in order of priority



Most respondents agreed that an all inclusive approach at household and community level was necessary to end poverty. Some of the reasons provided by respondents for supporting this inclusive approach were:

“There is need to support each other on income generation (30% of respondents);
To have a greater impact;
Ensuring that all groups feel included;
To uplift the whole family without leaving anyone behind;
Each of the family members has a role in supporting the initiatives;
Women are backbone/hold families together;
When people work they fight poverty better;
Availability of more finances/money;
All have a role to play.”

4.1.7 Violence and Gender Inequality

This section analyses the main forms of violence that women face in the five target informal settlements, the underlying causes of violence against women (VAW), the extent to which they can affect the project's success and strategies on how to address the identified causes.

a) *Main forms and types of violence against women*

Table 12: Forms of Violence

Slums	Types of Violence
Kibera	Husband/wife battering, Rape, Sexual harassment, Denial of sexual intimacy in marriage.
Mukuru	Rape, Sexual harassment, Husband/wife battering.
Kawangware	Sexual harassment, Denial of sexual intimacy in marriage, Wife battering
Korogocho	Rape, Sexual harassment, Wife battering
Mathare	Sexual harassment, Unfaithfulness, Wife battering, Lack of provision of basics needs, Denial of sexual intimacy in marriage.

From the FGDs, it was noted that violence exists against both men and women in these slums. However, the rate of violence against women is reported to be higher than that of men. According to one chief, the cases of men beating their wives were on the increase. A chief in Mukuru said he handled¹² about 35-40 cases of gender based violence (GBV) and about 75 marital disputes in less than a month.

b) *Causes of violence against women*

According to respondents in FGDs and KIIs, the causes of GBV were poverty, which was described as lack of basic needs, unemployment; drug and alcohol abuse. Others were culture, multiple sexual partners, and misunderstandings amongst couples. In Mukuru, a woman in an FGD said,

“Mwanaume akija nyumbani anaitisha chakula fulani na kama hapewi ni vita. Naujue hakuwacha pesa”.

Translation: “When a man comes home and demands a specific meal, if it is not provided, he becomes violent. Mind you, he never left any money”

The above statement was agreed by all the women in the group (FGD).

A community health worker interviewed in Kawangware noted,

¹² ‘handled’ –was used to encompass various ways of dealing with GBV ranging from recording in the incidence book, counselling the partners, offering advice on what to do and reconciling them among others. They were hardly any cases reported to police for proper legal action.

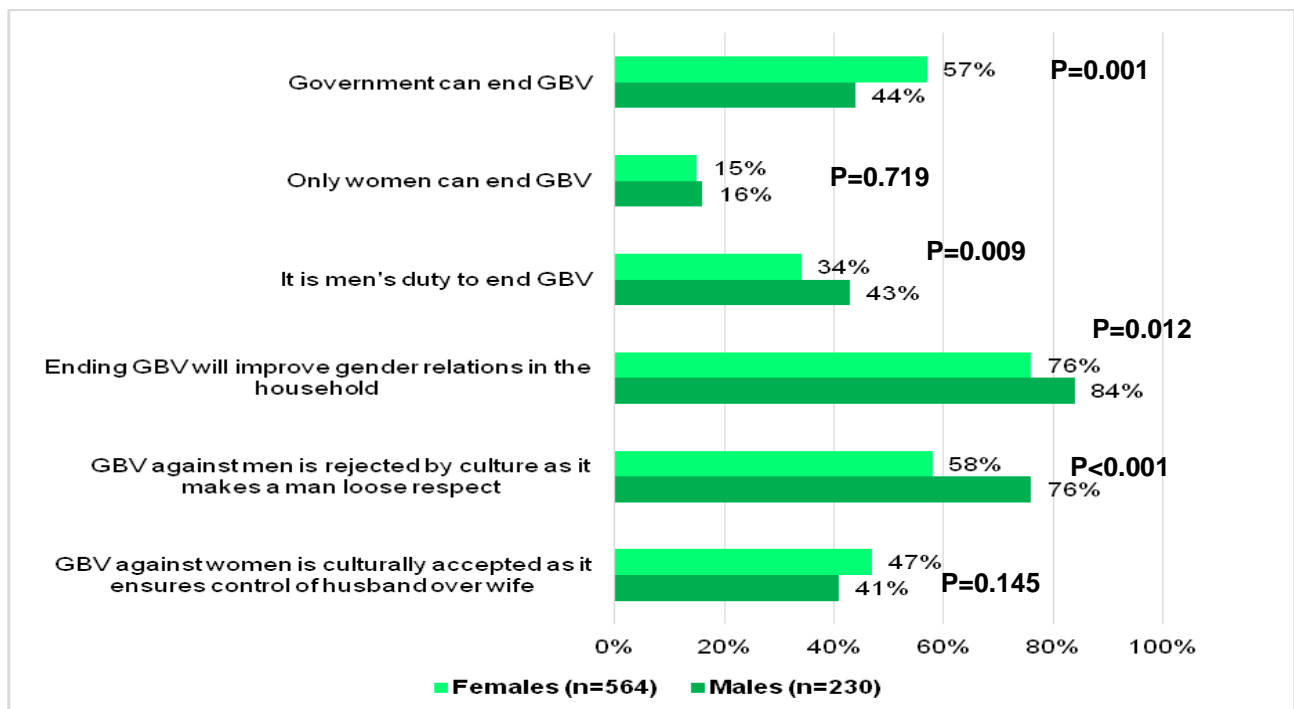
“Women beat their husbands when they fail to provide and sometimes because the little money they have at home they use for illicit brews”.

The key informants also reported that women who depended solely on men for financial support were more likely to suffer gender based violence.

c) Strategies on how to address the identified causes of violence

Several statements regarding GBV were presented to respondents in the household survey. Figure 20 below shows the proportions that strongly agreed/ agreed with these statements.

Figure 20: Proportions of respondents who strongly agreed/ agreed to statements on GBV



These findings reveal the kind of issues that need to be addressed to end GBV. First, very few respondents believed that women alone or men alone can end GBV, even though significantly more men than women believed men alone can end GBV. The very low proportion of women who believed women can end GBV indicates the sense of helplessness that most females in abusive relationships feel with regards to GBV.

Encouragingly, most respondents agreed that ending GBV will improve household gender relations. In fact, significantly more males (84%) than females (76%) held this view. This is goodwill that the project can build upon to engage men in addressing GBV. On the other hand, the acknowledgement by nearly half of respondents that GBV against women is culturally

acceptable indicates the need to identify and address the cultural factors that promote GBV against women.

The Sexual Offences Act 2006, Marriage Act 2014 and Security Act 2014 are some of the laws that have been passed in Kenya, to curb GBV. Unfortunately, according to the findings from the KIs, most police stations had officers handling GBV cases yet they hardly applied GBV related laws as specified by the penal code. According to one police officer, if the spouse lodged a legal complaint at he station:

“General counselling is done to ensure that the couple is in talking terms, and then left to go home.”

At the community level, from the information gathered from the FGDs, GBV cases are reported to the chief to take action. However, actions taken were considered inadequate or unresponsive to the needs of the survivor. Women in one group in Mukuru reported that;

“When we report any form of abuse to the chief, we are told to go home and solve our issues with our husbands. In such cases, the chief has been bribed by the victim’s husband not to take up the case. When we get back home, our husbands jeer us and even beat us the more”.

The participants further said that they are now used to the situation and have learnt to persevere because no matter how much they try to report their husbands to the chief, it is always an exercise in futility.

Some community leaders and service providers interviewed as key informants acknowledged that support services to survivors of gender based violence was not adequate due to insufficient resources such as means of transport; long and often delayed justice system; ineffective referral mechanisms such in accessing health services.

In response to a question on how to handle GBV in the area, most FGD respondents said that employment, providing funds for women to do business and sensitizing women on gender laws would help. There is however need to clearly think through employment and provision of funds for women to do business, as interventions aimed at redressing GBV. There is therefore need to include men in such economic empowerment projects targeting women to mitigate the risk of increased violence as described by Ochako *et al* (2011) and Davis (1994).

4.2 Addressing Gender Inequality in the Urban Informal Settlements

4.2.1 Practical Strategies for Addressing the Identified Gender and Power Imbalances and Inequalities

In this section, practical strategies for addressing gender inequalities and power imbalances are considered. These gender inequalities were noted in division of labour, access and control of resources and participation in decision making sections discussed above. An integrated

approach in developing a programme whose central component is addressing gender and power imbalances and ensuring more gender equal communities in the informal settlements.

a) *Inequalities in reproductive roles*

The study found out that reproductive roles were performed mostly by women due to prevalent social and cultural perceptions on division of domestic activities. As noted in earlier sections, women consider it their duty to solely perform household chores while some men consider it the duty of women to perform these chores. Therefore, economic empowerment projects may increase women's workload as described by Chant (2006). Thus, there is need to ensure that men and women, boys and girls also perform reproductive activities. To achieve this, there is need to incorporate strategic aspects within women economic empowerment training. Some of the elements that may be infused into the primary and secondary school curriculum include "cultural beliefs and perceptions on domestic chores, communication and positive elements of gender equal sharing of roles. Appropriate participatory approaches can be used in this process of deconstructing the undesirable and reconstructing the desired. These could be through awareness raising on benefits of gender empowerment targeting men, women boys and girls on gender. Possible sites for sensitization include, households, schools, religious centres (e.g. churches and mosques), and community spaces such as social halls among others.

b) *Inequalities in productive role (ownership of business; regular employment and casual labour)*

There were equally high proportion of women and men engaging in productive roles; however, men were slightly more at 92% compared to women at 77%. Factors exacerbating gender inequalities in productive activities as per the primary and secondary data were: lower levels of education, lack of skills, women's micro businesses that bring in minimal income, GBV, non-conducive environment all leading to poverty which affects more women than men. Efforts towards achieving education for all are noted at national level but access to public schools in the study sites was limited. This is an area that would require more of public demand for services but also addressing community based barriers to education (negative attitudes, lack of role models etc). It is also noted women hold fewer formal jobs and although their participation in business was higher than that of men; most of these are micro income generating activities.

Elements that could be included are; the multifaceted dimensions of poverty (time poverty, information poverty and awareness of rights); the specific contributions women make to ensuring well-being of families and communities. GBV in general and VAW in particular and how these affect involvement in productive activities should be covered. Through popular education, Oxfam and partners can enhance women's ability to realize the power they possess that is, 'power with' (working with others) and the 'power within' (self-initiative drive) in overcoming challenges related to productive activities. This should largely involve acquiring assets such as land and property as proposed by Chowdry (2011).

c) *Inequalities in decision making*

Gender Inequalities in decision making were noted at the household and community levels. In this regard, women's low participation in decision making was explained in terms of the

influence of patriarchy as expressed in perceived cultural beliefs and social norms. The existence of legal and policy frameworks that could address women's subordination was also noted. The problem was awareness of these as well as effective ways of implementing them. Therefore, Oxfam and partners should infuse into the program, actions aimed at increasing women's capacity to claim their rights to adequate participation in decision making as provided in the constitution. This may be done by collective identification of would be representatives of women, enhancing specific capacities such as identifying gender needs, ensuring that these are included at relevant governance levels and budgetary allocations to meet them. Some good practices identified by World Bank (2011) in empowering women to realize equality in decision making were strengthening women's voice in policy making, monitoring and evaluation, advocacy and leadership.

4.2.2 Legislations and Policies that Address Gender and Class Inequalities in Kenya; and the Gaps

a) Mapping of legislations and policies that address gender and class inequalities in Kenya

As part of this gender and power analysis, a mapping of the existing legislations and policies that seek to address gender and class inequalities in Kenya was undertaken as discussed below:

International legislative frameworks ratified by Kenya that promote gender equality

In Kenya's Constitution (2010), Article 2(6) provides that "any treaty or convention ratified by Kenya shall form part of the law of Kenya under this Constitution". Some of these include;

- **CEDAW:** Kenya ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1984 thus making it legally obliged to implement its provisions in the fight against gender inequality. CEDAW articles outline what constitutes discrimination against women; it is defined as any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field. (CEDAW Article 1). In order to end discrimination against women, countries that ratified CEDAW committed themselves to among others articles:- a) pursue a policy of eliminating discrimination against women by incorporating the principle of the equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation; b) take all appropriate measures to modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women; and c) take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country; d) to ensure elimination of all acts of discrimination against women by persons, organizations or enterprises and e) establish competent national tribunals and other public institutions to ensure the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination.
- **BPFA:** The Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) is the outcome declaration of the Fourth World Conference on Women held in 1995 in Beijing, China. Kenya adopted the BPFA in

1995. The Declaration set the stage for addressing Gender Equality and the Empowerment of women. Some of the critical areas of concern in the BPFA included; women in power and decision making, institutional mechanism for the advancement of women, women and poverty, women and the environment, education and training of women, women and armed conflict, women and health, violence against women, human rights of women, and the girl child. Under each area of concern, BPFA set objectives and outlined action points to be undertaken not only by the governments but also other relevant institutions such as education institutions and even non-governmental organizations. Reviews and appraisals were set to be done in 5 year intervals. Beijing +15 report by the Kenya CSOs outlines the achievements made by Kenya in its commitment to the BPFA such as; the enactment of the Sexual Offences Act in 2006, the establishment of the Women's Enterprise Fund in 2007, progress in the formulation of various policies and laws that seek to bridge the gender gap and end discrimination, particularly in the areas of employment and education (Beijing +15 Kenya CSOs Taskforce, 2009)

- **The Maputo Protocol:** This is the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa adopted in Maputo Mozambique by the African Union. Some of the rights to women guaranteed in the protocol include; Elimination of Violence against Women, Access to Justice, Marriage, Elimination of harmful practices against women such as Female Genital Mutilation, Economic and Social Welfare Rights, Education and Training, Health and Reproductive Rights, Widow's Rights and Inheritance. Kenya signed the Maputo Protocol in 2003 and ratified it in 2010

National legal frameworks promoting gender equality:

Kenya has passed various laws which seek to protect the rights of women in order to bring gender equality;

- **The Constitution of Kenya, 2010:** This is Kenya's supreme law. (The Constitution promotes equality and freedom from discrimination by stating that (Article 27): i) every person is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and equal benefit of the law; (2) equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and fundamental freedoms; (3) Women and men have the right to equal treatment, including the right to equal opportunities in political, economic, cultural and social spheres; and (4) the State shall not discriminate directly or indirectly against any person on any ground, including race, sex, pregnancy, marital status, health status, ethnic or social origin, color, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, dress, language or birth.
- **The Criminal Procedure Code (Revised Edition 2012)** makes provision for the procedure to be followed in criminal cases which include gender-based violence offences and sexual offences. Section 3 of the Criminal Procedure Code (CPC) requires that offences under any law which includes the sexual offences shall be investigated, tried and dealt with in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Code (ibid).
- **The Sexual Offences Act, 2006:** This Act criminalizes gender-based violence in Kenya. Its primary purpose is to ensure complainants of sexual offences get justice equal to the harm caused to them. It makes provisions for the sexual offences, their definition, prevention and protection of all persons from harm arising from unlawful sexual acts (Aura, 2013).

- **The Children Act, 2001:** This Act provides for the protection of child sexual violence survivors, among other stipulations. Together with the Prohibition of **Female Genital Mutilation Act 2011**, they criminalize female genital mutilation (FGM).
- **The Marriage Act, 2014:** An Act of Parliament that amend and consolidate the various laws relating to marriage and divorce and for connected purposes. **The Matrimonial Property act 2013:** An Act of Parliament that provides for the rights and responsibilities of spouses in relation to matrimonial property and for connected purposes (CIC). Both Acts seek to protect the rights of women during marriage and its dissolution (Gender policy 2011, *Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development*).
- **Protection against Domestic violence Act 2015:** This law seeks to protect spouses, children and dependants within the household. It also recognizes marital rape as an offence.
- **The National Gender and Equality Commission Act, 2011:** An Act of Parliament to establish the National Gender and Equality Commission as a successor to the Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission pursuant to Article 59(4) of the Constitution; to provide for the membership, powers and functions of the Commission, and for connected purposes. The National Gender and Equality Commission promotes gender equality and freedom from discrimination (Ngec, 2011).

In its **Vision 2030**, one of the priority areas to be addressed under the Second Medium Term Plan 2013-17 is equity in access to opportunities and lower cost of living: The government will lay emphasis on implementation of affirmative action in employment opportunities in public sector, and ensure resource distribution addresses regional imbalances.

National policy frameworks promoting gender equality:

Kenya has adopted several policies geared towards realizing gender equality. These include but not limited to;

- **The National Policy on Gender and Development (2000)** requires that the government addresses gender inequalities through gender mainstreaming (Gender policy 2011, Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development).
The Kenya Adolescent Reproductive Health Policy (2003) recognizes that both boys and girls can be victims of sexual abuse, but girls are up to three times more likely to be sexually abused than boys. Accordingly the policy recommends development of safety nets and rehabilitation and rescue mechanisms for victims of sexual abuse and violence and enhancing measures to protect young people in penal institutions from sexual abuse (Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development, 2009, M &E Framework).
- **Sessional Paper No. 2 (2006) on Gender and Development:** provides the operational framework for gender mainstreaming in national policies, strategies and programs (ibid).
- **Education Gender Policy (2007)** aims at prevention and response to school related gender based violence. It recommends mainstreaming of all policies that address gender based violence at all education levels.

b) Gaps in legislations and policies that address gender and class inequalities in Kenya

Despite the positive strides that Kenya has made in ensuring that it achieves gender equality, gender inequalities still exist. According to a key informant; a gender officer from FIDA the major challenges Kenya face are; delay in implementing laws related to gender equality and lack of awareness of these laws not only to the general public but also the judiciary. “Implementation of the gender laws is really slow. It would be better to start by coming up with the legislation then policies on implementation rather than start with policies then legislation and keep on reviewing these laws.” She adds that The Constitution lacks clarity on implementation of some of its articles. For example, it is not clear how the issue of the 2/3rd gender rule should be handled, making it not only slow to be implemented but also enabling a continuation of the state of gender inequality. “These unclear laws affecting both women and men, such as the 2/3rd gender rule are taken back to the parliament to be debated and relevant legislations a process which is often frustrated due to male dominance at the National and County assemblies.”

Another key informant noted that due to the socio-cultural beliefs of our societies that elevate men over women, “Men are still in control even of communication.” She said. She explained that many women who do business, did not make final decisions over their finances and instead their husbands did. Therefore, as suggested by Aura (2013) and AfDB report on gender inequality (2014), addressing gender inequality should include a redress of the cultural practices and strengthening the legal framework to counter any GBV or discrimination.

The study also noted gaps in some provisions required to realize gender parity; the Sexual Offences Act’s legal and policy framework mostly focuses on bringing the accused to justice without a corresponding obligation of alleviating the condition of the survivor. Further, its enactment has not been matched with adequate training and dissemination of the Act to law enforcement officers and relevant justice system agents. There is also no legislation that makes provision for establishment of shelters for survivors to seek temporary refuge to escape further violence (Aura, 2013). Provision of shelter to victims of domestic violence had been included in the Protection against Domestic Bill but it was removed during the amendment just before the Act was passed into law in 2015.

Despite ratifying the CEDAW, Kenya has not yet signed the Optional Protocols to either the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR), or the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which recognize the competence of the Committees governing these Conventions to hear individual complaints or institute investigations into breaches and make recommendations to States Parties as pointed out by FIDA and COHRE (2011).

4.2.3 Capacity, Preparedness and Practice by the Government Institutions, Community-Based Institutions and Local CSOs in Promoting Gender Equality, the Challenges they face and Existing Opportunities

Local capacities, potentials and opportunities in the target informal settlements can play a key role in promoting active women’s participation and addressing gender inequality. In determining these, the study focused on several indicators used to assess institutional capacities in addressing gender equality. They included; structural understanding of gender inequalities, stakeholder involvement and availability of resources.

a.) Stakeholders addressing gender inequalities in the target informal settlements:

Reference to the best practices in service delivery described by Walby *et al* (2013), most organizations assessed during this study reported that they addressed specific women/gender related challenges and had limited target groups. In some cases, the beneficiaries were discriminated against other inclusion criteria such as membership, and the services limited to specific needs of the members. For example, KUDHEIHA (a trade union), while aware of the plight of women domestic workers, said they would only address needs of registered members in relation to employee and employer conflicts.

Table 13: Mapping of stakeholders addressing gender inequalities in the target informal settlements

Area of Focus/ Service	Organization focusing on the service	Location
Platform for participation in socio-economic and political development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Miss Koch, Nairobi City Council, Department of Gender 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Korogocho All the five informal settlements
Advocacy on policies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> KUDHEIHA Women Empowerment Link (WEL) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National
Provision of information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Centre for Rights Education and Awareness (CREAW) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National
Legal aid and counselling services for GBV survivors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Federation for Women Lawyers in Kenya (FIDA), CREAW, Wangu Kanja Foundation St. Joseph Catholic Korogocho Kenya Women and Children's Wellness Centre 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All the five informal settlements All the five Mukuru kwa Reuben Korogocho Mathare
WASH, HIV and Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Carolina for Kibera Stara Biogas National Peer Educators (NOPE) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kibera Kibera
Economic empowerment programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stara Biogas Jamii Self Help Group St. Joseph Catholic Korogocho Women Empowerment Link (WEL) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kibera Kibera Korogocho

A program officer from FIDA indicated during the key informant interview that they focus on women who mostly suffer from gender inequality cases including GBV. FIDA has the capacity to offer abused women access to justice, they also offer legal clinics. Apart from that, they create awareness on GBV. However, they are not able to provide shelter to all those women undergoing GBV.

b.) Structural understanding of gender inequalities:

For an organization to handle gender inequalities fully, then it is important for it to be aware of what these inequalities entails across various strata including social, economic, cultural, religious and political. This demands that organizations collect appropriate data and compile knowledge on gender inequalities across the strata.

A common weakness noticed during this assessment among CSOs and state agencies was lack of sex disaggregated data in key areas such as number of cases of GBV handled and employment strata. At institutional level, there was no conscious effort to document numbers of men and women at workplaces.

According to one of the local administrative Chiefs¹³ interviewed during this study, not adequate measures have been taken by the government to create capacity for gender equality responsive programs in the slums; in particular, he mentioned that there were no interventions being done to address GBV. Another Chief said that only FIDA addresses issues of abused women in his area.

c.) Stakeholder involvement:

There are local FBOs and CBO such as St.Joseph's Catholic Church, Wangu Kanja Foundation and Miss Koch in Korogocho whose programmes include gender matters. For instance, the former offers civic education with a focus on gender representation and ensures equal participation of men and women in discussion forums (*barazas*). They have an economic empowerment programme for women, a youth banner organization and run GBV awareness forums in schools. The project implementers may consider partnering with some of those whose programmes (see table 13) resonate with the project objectives as they already have established networks and on-going programmes (e.g. in schools, health centres and churches) where desired gender power balance issues may be incorporated . There is need for context/ issue specific mapping of CBOs, FBOs, NGOs and CSOs operating in the five informal settlements. Those working with women and men could be considered for capacity building on specific aspects of the project so as to integrate these in their programmes.

d.) Availability of resources:

Generally, local institutions indicated a constraint in accessing resources to deliver services. Some of the inadequate services due to resource constraints were provision of shelters for survivors of GBV. Stakeholders including the government rely on the NGOs to provide these services; this is often unsustainable. This inadequacy of resources has also been associated with lack of regular monitoring and evaluation of policies and legislations by authorised bodies such as National Gender Commission¹⁴.

¹³ Key informant interview with area administrative chief responsible for Kawangware informal settlement.

¹⁴ Key Informant Interview with a senior lecturer and gender specialist in Kenyatta University.

4.3 Potential Risks that are Likely to Affect Effective Empowerment of the Target Groups and Relevant Mitigation Strategies and Measures

4.3.1 Potential Risks

- a) Cultural status: Gender roles strongly defined by social cultural beliefs and attitudes. In the case of this study, women reported they undertook reproductive roles 'because it is their duty' and that they would be 'ashamed' if their husbands were to be seen undertaking such roles. This implies that gender equality programs can be perceived as likely to tilt the existing relationships or cause disorientations / confusion in gender roles. Studies have shown that the perceptions or philosophies on which the gender relations are anchored are likely to be shaken. Gender equality efforts may therefore be resisted by men because of likely perceived loss of privileges and women due to intrusion of their perceived socially allocated spaces in household.
- b) Religion: in this study, this was the second most reported factor (figure 2) determining gender roles. Yet, there are those religious perceptions and beliefs that oppose or those who support women leadership. Religious teachings in regard to roles of men and women may be in conflict with gender equality matters as expounded in this study. An example is among the Muslims where the Kadhi is always a man and in some churches such as the Catholic Church where the Priest is always a man. Therefore gender equality interventions should seek to work with the religious institutions to promote equality without confronting the leadership of these religions.
- c) Security possesses a challenge in the informal settlements. This is a threat to project staff and beneficiaries who may be perceived to have money from the project and related productive activities.

4.3.2 Relevant mitigation strategies and measures

Resistance is a possibility considering the programme is challenging 'the way things have been' for long. To mitigate this, the project staff should make sure both women and men understand the purpose of the project and what is in it for them. As much as possible equip male role models with skills and knowledge to powerfully share their success stories on the importance of sharing household chores, egalitarian relationships, and the benefits of having a spouse who brings home income, among others. It is noted men's negative attitudes to women's increased involvement in economic empowerment activities often shift once the benefits to the community, households, and women themselves have been demonstrated.

Perceived bias towards women and men's fear of the women included in the programme could be mitigated by constantly assuring men, involving them and creatively responding to any concerns they may have from time to time. Project staff should use a well-developed and detailed monitoring and evaluation criteria so that changes are documented. It is also important for Oxfam, partners and communities to celebrate all the positive achievements (changes in gender relations) by including prize giving forums to award individuals and groups that embrace gender equality within the project programme.

Overall, there is need to build gender-sensitive partnerships between project beneficiaries, community representatives, local leaders and the project staff. This is one of the measures that may lead to project ownership and sustainability but also support from leaders in the communities.

5 CONCLUSIONS

5.1 On gender inequalities

Gender inequality was observed in division of labour at the household level with women and girls engaging more in reproductive roles than men. Marked inequalities in decision making at the household and community levels were reported. Thus, women were minimally involved in making decisions even on matters that touched on their welfare. Efforts to incorporate women in decision making at community level were noted. However, these could not have any meaningful influence as the spaces to speak were compromised by women's low capacity on issues and limited participation indecision making.

5.2 Factors contributing to these inequalities

Cultural beliefs and perceptions acquired by both men and women in specific societies and socio- cultural contexts had an influence on gender division of labour at the household and community levels.

Poverty disproportionately affects women and men in informal settlements. Further, women were generally poorer than men. The study established that poverty is a multi-dimensional reality differently described in the informal settlements. The residents generally associate poverty with lack of basic needs and inability to live a dignified life. The connection between poverty and unequal gender and power relations was hardly made by residents in informal settlements yet this was one of the factors that exacerbates poverty.

The study also established that physical, sexual and psychological forms of gender-based violence are prevalent in the five target informal settlements. Common types of violence against women included; wife beating and rape but husband beatings were prevalent in all the five settlements whose main cause was gender inequalities and poverty. GBV and VAW were exacerbated by inability to provide for the family, drug and substance abuse, infidelity and/ or accusations of infidelity among others. These social vices, however, reflect unequal power relations between men and women. GBV and other forms of violence are therefore, a means of establishing and maintaining gender and power relationships and inequalities at household and community levels. The study concluded that GBV in general and violence against women in particular are largely fuelled by the environment in the informal settlements, poverty and social problems such as alcoholism, irresponsibility and prostitution.

The Constitution of Kenya provides a legal framework among other legislative and policy frameworks offer opportunities to women and other marginalized groups to participate in decision making. However, power of these, and the benefits therein have not been tapped due to low levels of awareness of the relevant provisions and implementation.

5.3 Possible strategies to address challenges/ inequalities

To effectively address gender and power imbalances, this project should employ a multi-pronged strategy that includes men at household and community levels. The strategies should include the use of media and other popular awareness creation mechanisms such as theatre to challenge common perceptions and stereotypes. In addition, there are many NGOs, FBOs and CBOs working in the five informal settlements which have programmes focussing on various gender related aspects some of which are relevant to this project's target groups. It would be important that these organizations are mapped out adequately in order to make informed choices on which ones to work or collaborate with in order to consolidate efforts and ensure that development partners are communicating messages that are similar.

5.4 Potential Risks

The greatest risk to a gender empowerment program was associated with economic empowerment programs that target women only. Such programs, if not involving men, could be perceived as titling societal of men as bread winners. However, when such interventions provide for participation of men, these risks could be alleviated.

6 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Addressing gender inequalities in division of labour at household level

We recommend awareness raising on the need for sharing household chores between women, men, boys and girls. The project implementers should use various platforms such as schools, religious meetings and households to raise such awareness. Door to door discussions as well as community wide forums involving men as champions of change and women should be embraced.

6.2 Addressing gender inequality in access and control over reproductive and productive resources

- a) We recommend targeted advocacy for affirmative action in equal allocation of employment opportunities for men and women where residents of informal settlements work especially factories and small businesses. For example, companies' management to provide shifts that allow women with small babies to go home early and capacity building on gender programming for the trade unions.
- b) We recommend that the programs should use support groups as an entry point to economic empowerment interventions. These groups would serve as platform for table banking, increase savings and provide access to cheap credit.

6.3 Addressing gender inequality in participation of women in decision making at community level

- a) Awareness raising: The project implementers should organize awareness raising forums for women and men on gender equity and equality in the informal settlements. Public discourses as well as individual or private discussions could carefully be employed to communicate the desired changes in gender power relations. For effective execution,

trainings for implementing staff from all the organizations may be necessary to harmonize approaches in gender power relational matters.

- b) Involving men: Oxfam and partners should design creative but effective ways of involving men in the women empowerment programmes. This may be done by selecting men (role models) equipping them with skills and knowledge in powerfully sharing their success stories on the importance of sharing household chores, egalitarian relationships, and the benefits of having a spouse who brings home income among others. There are also, NGOs, CBOs etc that work with men which could provide service under the supervision of Oxfam and partners.
- c) Using the popular education model¹⁵: that allows individuals and communities to examine their own situation/ problems critically, interrogation of societal/ cultural myths, beliefs and practices that limit women's possibilities and take action to solve their issues
- d) Entry activity: There is need to identify a non-political activity (such as a community saving and loans scheme, or cleaning neighbourhood) in which women and men work together and which addresses a collective need. A well selected collective activity will enhance appreciation of men and women's inputs in solving community problem. This will demonstrate the power of collective effort, in addressing common problems. This could be used to lobby national and county government to provide service to informal settlement communities.
- e) Security: Oxfam and partners should consider ways of engaging the security groups in the informal settlements in promoting gender equality as these groups have an important role in taking care of new projects. For instance, they can be trained on GBV interventions so that they can implement them as they carry out their duties.
- f) To mitigate risks: Theatre arts and media can be used to communicate desired change messages. If well selected, performances for instance attract crowds easily. Messages to be communicated via these should be carefully developed so that intended goals are achieved. To this end Oxfam and partners should work on a communication strategy as well as simple slogans that can be used on communication materials.

6.4 Addressing gaps in policies, legislations and institutional capacities that are barriers to gender equality

- a) Stakeholders recommended regular audit of policies and legislations to determine effectiveness. This could explain the challenge the research team had in accessing up to date sex disaggregated data demonstrating effectiveness of the policies. This should in the form of capacity building program for National Gender Commission and CSOs network on gender equality to conduct the regular surveys and disseminate findings.

¹⁵ Popular education is a human development model that is based on Paulo Freire. It emphasizes the use of people knowledge, stories and experiences in identifying and solving social problems. Such education is active, fun and participatory.

- b) It would be important that these organizations are mapped out adequately in order to make informed choices on which ones to work or collaborate with.
- c) There is need to create awareness on the existence of policies and legislations that aim at gender equality to all those living in the informal settlements and the law enforcement agencies.
- d) Provision of shelters: The current policies do not address or provide for all services such as shelter for abused women. Oxfam should consider working with other stakeholders to provide shelters for the victims of domestic violence as this gives them time not only to recover but also to rebuild their lives.

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8 APPENDICES

8.1 Appendices 1: Tables summarizing findings from quantitative study

Table 14: Analysis of data on poverty score generated from the four elements*

	Less Poverty		More Poverty		X ² value	df	P- value
	n	%	n	%			
Sex of respondent							
Male	118	54.1%	100	45.9%	37.0	1	<0.001
Female	147	30.1%	341	69.9%			
Age of respondent							
Below 18 yrs	0	0.0%	6	100.0%	22.6	5	<0.001
18-25 yrs	46	29.3%	111	70.7%			
26-35 yrs	126	44.1%	160	55.9%			
36-45 yrs	66	39.8%	100	60.2%			
46-60yrs	24	32.9%	49	67.1%			
Over 60 yrs	2	8.7%	21	91.3%			
Marital Status							
Married	195	46.0%	229	54.0%	35.9	5	<0.001
Separated	14	18.7%	61	81.3%			
Divorced	7	29.2%	17	70.8%			
Widowed	11	22.9%	37	77.1%			
Single	39	27.7%	102	72.3%			
Other	0	0.0%	1	100.0%			
Community							
Mukuru	60	40.8%	87	59.2%	15.9	4	0.003
Korogocho	44	30.8%	99	69.2%			
Mathare	42	27.8%	109	72.2%			
Kibera	68	47.6%	75	52.4%			
Kawangware	51	39.5%	78	60.5%			
Highest level of education completed							
None	1	3.7%	26	96.3%	239.6	6	<0.001
Pre-school	0	0.0%	18	100.0%			
Primary	57	15.3%	315	84.7%			
Secondary	179	70.8%	74	29.2%			
College	26	70.3%	11	29.7%			
University	3	50.0%	3	50.0%			
Vocational training	1	25.0%	3	75.0%			
Who heads household structure							
Female head(no	45	21.1%	168	78.9%	37.4	3	<0.001

husband				
Male head	130	46.4%	150	53.6%
Grandparent headed	0	0.0%	6	100.0%
Other	60	38.0%	98	62.0%

*Income, assets, Access to basic services & opportunities, Access to opportunity for development.

8.2 Data Analysis: How empowerment and poverty scores were generated

8.2.1 Empowerment Score

An empowerment score was generated using variables listed as follows;

- e) Decisions made in the household by the respondent
 - Where to stay (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - How much to spend in a shopping trip (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - What food to cook (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Which school the children will attend (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Which job to take up (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - When to buy an asset (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Which birth control method to use (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Allocation of household chores (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Number of children to have (1=Yes, 0=No)
- f) Who often gets the final say when there is difference in opinion (1=Self, 0=others)
- g) Who often consults the respondent before he/she makes the most important decision in the household?
 - Son (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Daughter (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Husband/ Wife (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Mother (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Father (1=Yes, 0=No)
 - Religious Leader (1=Yes, 0=No)

How much the respondent is involved in making the following decisions at community level

- Development projects including amenities (2=Very much, 1=Somehow, 0=Never)
- Allocation of resources (2=Very much, 1=Somehow, 0=Never)

- Leadership positions (2=Very much, 1=Somehow, 0=Never)
- Security (2=Very much, 1=Somehow, 0=Never)

How often do you contribute your views when these decisions are made at community level (2=Always, 1=Sometimes, 0=Never/I don't know)

In the last 12 months, someone in the community sought the respondent's views when making a decision that affects them (1=Yes, 0=No)

How accessible are these institutions to respondent (4=Very accessible, 3=easily accessible, 2=Accessible, 1=Difficult to access, 0=Not accessible)

The variables were aggregated into a variable called empowerment score. A percentage score was computed based on the maximum attainable score (31). <20% was considered as *Very low*, 20 - 40% as *Low*, 41 - 60% as *Moderately high* and $\geq 60\%$ as *High*. A score of $\geq 40\%$ was considered as adequately empowered.

8.2.2 Poverty Score

The poverty score took into account Oxfam's definition of poverty. This definition incorporates income, assets, access to basic services and opportunities, inequality, security and access to opportunity for development. The table below shows each of the factors that were included

FACTORS OF POVERTY	Income	Assets	Access to basic services & opportunities	Inequality	Security	Access to opportunity for development
Measure or proxy measure used	% earning <Ksh.150 per day	Perception of wealth status used as proxy: % who self-rated themselves as not rich	Education used as proxy: % with < secondary education	No Data	No Data	Productive activity used as proxy: % who do not own business, or regular employed, or in casual labour
SPSS workings	The income variable was recoded into bivariate : An income	The wealth status variable was recoded into bivariate. Respondents who	The education variable was recoded into bivariate. Those with secondary education or above were given a value	Not included in model	Not included in model	The productive activity variable was recoded into bivariate. Respondents who said they owned a business, had

	of >150 daily was given a value of or 1; income <150 or others were given a value of 2.	rated themselves as rich were given a value or 1; those who rated themselves as not rich or preferred not to say a value of 2.	of 1; those with less than secondary education were given as value or 2.			regular employment or were in casual labour were given a value of 1; The rest were given as value or 2.
--	---	--	--	--	--	---

These four recoded variables were aggregated into a composite variable called poverty score. The variable was then explored and had a minimum score of 4 and maximum score of 8; an inter-quartile range of 2; a mean of 5.87; and a median of 6.0. The distribution was nearly normal around the median. Based on this exploration, the poverty score was calibrated as follows:

Total value	Allocated Poverty Score	Interpretation
4.00	<20%	Less poor
5.00	21% - 40%	
6.00	41% - 60%	
7.00	61% - 80%	
8.00	>80%	More poor

To facilitated further analysis through logistic regression, this poverty score was recoded into bivariate. Those with a score or below 40% were coded as less poor while those with a score of 40% of more as more poor.

8.3 Appendices 2: Data collection tools

Project: Promoting livelihoods and Inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders

Gender and Power Analysis

Tool 1: Interview Guide for Heads of Household (Survey)

My name is _____ I am working for the African Institute for Children’s Studies. We are conducting a research on gender and power analysis on behalf of Oxfam with a focus on promoting livelihoods and inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders. You have been randomly identified as one of the residents in the target areas and therefore request your opinion and experiences. There is no known major risk associated with your participation. Confidentiality will be maintained, hence no name is required. There would be no direct compensation for your participation; however, the information collected will be used in various interventions. Do you have any questions? Are you willing to voluntarily participate?

Section A: Questionnaire Identification Information

A1: Date _____ A2: Name of Research Assistant _____

No.	Question/ Data to be Collected	Response Options (Circle the appropriate response)	For official Use (Print the code for the response e.g. 4, in the box below after data cleaning)
A3:	Sub- County in Nairobi	Makadara, Kamukunji, Starehe, Lang’ata, Dagoretti, Westlands, Kasarani, Embakasi.	<input type="checkbox"/>
A4:	Community	Mukuru, Korogocho, Mathare Kibera,	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section B: Socio-Demographic Data

No.	Question/ Data to be Collected	Response Options (Circle the appropriate response)	For official Use (Print the code for the response e.g. 4, in the box below after data cleaning)
B1:	Sex of respondent	Male Female	<input type="text"/>
B2:	How old are you?	Below 18yrs 18-25yrs 26-35yrs 36-45yrs 46-60yrs Over 60yrs	<input type="text"/>
B3:	What is your current marital status?	Married Seperated Divorced Widowed Single Other (Specify)_____	<input type="text"/>
B4:	Household Structure	Polygamous(man+ more than one wife) Monogamous(man + wife)	<input type="text"/>
B5:	Who heads the household structure	Female headed (no husband) Male headed (No wife) Grandparent headed Child headed Other(specify)-----	<input type="text"/>
B6:	Religion	Islam Christian African Traditional Other (Specify)_____	<input type="text"/>

B7:	What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?	None Pre-school Primary Secondary College University Vocatioal training (Specify course)-----	<input type="checkbox"/>										
B8	Do you belong to a social support group?	Yes No I prefer not to respond	<input type="checkbox"/>										
B9:	If yes, what is the main purpose of the support group?	Welfare (e.g. bereavemnt support/ tribal grp) Savings and credit Business investment Other: specify_____	<input type="checkbox"/>										
B10:	What other additional benefits do you get from being a member of a support group?	Get advice on how Meet other peers to talk about shared problems Learn about how to access support services (e.g FIDA, Nairobi women hospital) Advice on business opportunities Get information on market prices Get market for my goods Other specify	<input type="checkbox"/>										
B11:	No. Of Dependants	0 1-3 4-6 7-8 Over 10	<table border="1"> <tr> <td colspan="2"><i>Circle one</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td>M</td> <td>F</td> </tr> <tr> <td>M</td> <td>F</td> </tr> <tr> <td>M</td> <td>F</td> </tr> <tr> <td>M</td> <td>F</td> </tr> </table>	<i>Circle one</i>		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
<i>Circle one</i>													
M	F												
M	F												
M	F												
M	F												
			<p><i>Official to write total after data cleaning</i></p> <p>_____ M</p>										
Section C: Gender Activity Profile													

C1:	Which of the following tasks is/ are your direct responsibility in your household (Yes/ no)	Cooking Bathing children Fetching water Cleaning the house Other specify _____	Yes No Yes No Yes No Yes No Yes (circle one)
C2:	Why do you do the household jobs mentioned above (C1) (e.g. if male, why do you bathe children)	Its my duty I have no choice I like to do them Roles can be done by both men and women Wife gets home late Husband cannot do them (Other specify) _____	<input type="checkbox"/>
C3:	If any of the roles in C1 is marked "No", why do you consider it as someone else's duty? (Research assistant to skip question if all tasks in C1 are marked yes)	Culture Religion Shame There is always someone to do them No time Other(Specify) _____	<input type="checkbox"/>
C4:	What do you do to earn money?	Own business Employed – regular Casual laborer : Specify____ Nothing I prefer not to disclose Other (Specify) _____	<input type="checkbox"/>
C5:	What else do you do for a living?	Wash clothes for people Clean compounds Cut grass Sell sex Work in a bar I prefer not to disclose Other(specify) _____	<input type="checkbox"/>
C6:	Who else contributes to household income?	Husband Wife Son Daughter Male (partners)	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Female (partners) Parents Other (Specify)	
C7:	How much time do you spend working to earn money in a day?	Less than 3hrs Between 3 – 8hrs Over 8hrs I prefer not to disclose	<input type="checkbox"/>
C8:	How much time does your wife/ husband spend in earning money	Less than 3hrs Between 3 – 8hrs Over 8hrs I prefer not to disclose	<input type="checkbox"/>
C9:	Who decides how money is spent?	Husband Wife Son Daughter Husband+ Wife Husband, wife son, daughter. Other (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>
C10:	Explain why this persons (in C9) is the one who decide on how much money is spent in your household?	_____	
C411:	Which community activity/ies do you often engaged in?	Wedding/ funerals Clean up exercise Fundraising for social amenities Other: specify_____	<input type="checkbox"/>
C12:	Who joins you in community activities?	Husband Wife Son Daughter No one	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Explain why-----	
		-	

Section D: Power Analysis: Gender Inequalities in Decision Making

No	Question/ Data to be Collected	Response Options (Circle the appropriate response)	Yes	No
				<i>Circle one – Either Yes/ No or Men/ Women</i>
D1:	I will read some decisions	Where to stay How much to spend in a shopping	Yes Yes	No No

commonly made in the households, kindly state if you often do the same in your households. (Research assistant to circle all mentioned)	trip	Yes	No
	What food to cook	Yes	No
	Which school the children will attend	Yes	No
	Which job to take up	Yes	No
	When to buy an asset	Yes	No
	Which birth control method to use	Yes	No
	Allocation of household chores	Yes	No
	Number of children to have		
	Other (specify)-----		

D2	Who makes these decisions, men or women?	Where to stay	Men	women
		How much to spend in a shopping trip	Men	women
		What food to cook	Men	women
		Which school the children will attend	Men	women
		Which job to take up	Men	women
		When to buy an asset	Men	women
		Which birth control method to use	Men	women
		Allocation of household chores	Men	women
		Number of children to have	Men	women
		Other(specify	Men	women
_____		(circle appropriately)		

D3i	Who do you often consult before you make the most important decision in your household?	No one	For official Use (Print the code for the response e.g. 4, in the box below after data cleaning)
		My son	
		My daughter	
		My husband (for women)	
		My wife (for men)	
		My mother	
		My father	
		My religious leader	
		I don't know	
		10.Other (specify) _____	

D3ii Why do you consult this person before making the important decisions (explain)?

D3iii	Who often gets the final say when there is	My self	<input type="text"/>
		No one	

difference in opinion?	My son My daughter My husband (for women) My wife (for men) My mother My father My religious leader I don't know 10.Other
------------------------	---

D4	Who often consults you before he/she makes the most important decision in your household? <i>(Multiple responses apply)</i>	No one My son My daughter My husband (for women) My wife (for men) My mother My father My religious leader I don't know Other _____	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 100px; height: 100px;"></div>
----	--	--	---

D4i Why do you think they often consult you?

D5	How often are your opinions taken when the person finally makes decisions?	All the time Sometimes Never I do not know No response Other (specify) _____	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 80px; height: 80px;"></div>
----	--	---	---

D5:	Which of these sentences describe your opinion towards decisions made in your household?	Always includes opinion of household members Always meets needs of most household members Always effective Other: Specify _____	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Yes</td> <td>No</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Yes</td> <td>No</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Yes</td> <td>No</td> </tr> </table> <i>(circle one)</i>	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Yes	No								
Yes	No								
Yes	No								

D6	What decisions, made at the	Development projects including social amenities
----	-----------------------------	---

community level matter to you most?

Allocation of resources
Leadership positions
Security

(Multiple responses apply)

Others _____

D7	How much have you been involved in making the following decisions made at community level?	Very much	Somehow	Never	Examples:
	Development projects including amenities				_____ _____
	Allocation of resources				_____ _____
	Leadership positions				
	Security				
	Other Specify*				
D8	How often are the following involved in making key decisions at your community?	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER	Reasons?
	Men				_____ _____
	Women				_____ _____
	Boys and Girls				_____ _____

D9 How often do you contribute your

Always
Sometimes

	views when these decisions (in D7) are made at community level?	Never I don't know	
D1 0	In the last 12 months, has anyone in your community sought your views when making a decision that affects you?	Yes No I do not know	<input type="checkbox"/>
D1 1	If never in D9, how do you make sure that your views are included in decisions that are critical/ important to you?	Influence/ lobby decision makers Demand for direct participation Complain I do nothing Other: specify _____	<input type="checkbox"/>
D1 2:	Which institutions make important decisions that affect you in your community? <i>(Multiple responses apply)</i>	Informal groups: Specify _____ Political positions Specify _____ Religious leaders Local administration e.g chiefs NGOs Other(Specify) _____ How (Explain) ----- ----- Why do you think they make these decisions?----- -----	<input type="checkbox"/>
D1 3:	How accessible are these institutions to you?	Not accessible Difficult to access Accessible Easily accessible Very accessible Other(specify)-----	<input type="checkbox"/>

14 D:	If not accessible, what are the obstacles/barriers	Explain:	
D1 4:	What are the key factors that enable people to ascend to decision making positions?	Ethnicity Gender Economic/financial status Political affiliation Race Age Religious affiliation Others (specify)	<input type="text"/>

Section E: Poverty

No.	Question/ Data to be Collected	Response Options (Circle the appropriate response)				For official Use (Print the code for the response e.g. 4, in the box below after data cleaning)	
E1:	How do you rate yourself in terms of wealth?	Very rich	Fairly rich	Not rich	I prefer not to rate myself		
E2:	I will now read some sentences, kindly state the extent to which you agree?		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	You are have fair opportunity to participate in making decisions in your household						
	You having enough time to rest/sleep						
	You having to socialise						

		You having safe spaces to socialise in					
		Your earn at least Kshs.150 per day (or 6,000 per month)	Yes				
			No			<input type="checkbox"/>	
			I do not know				
			Prefer not to disclose				
E3:	What do you consider necessary for to enjoy quality life	Owning land Owning a house Good shelter Having basic needs (e.g. food, clothing and shelter) Being able to access or pay for medical services Owning a car Having children in good schools Good income Others (Specify)_____				<input type="checkbox"/>	

Section F. Men and Women's Experiences of Poverty

I will now read a number of sentences on poverty, kindly state when you agree with the statement by saying

F1:	Poverty affects men more than women <i>(Research assistant to circle one)</i>	Yes No Sometimes Don't know No difference	<input type="checkbox"/>
F2	Poverty makes men do the following; <i>(Research assistant to circle all that respondent agrees with)</i>	Abandon family Indulge in cheap brews Steal/ get into crime Sell sex Beat wives Kill the family Other(specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

F3	Poverty makes women do the following; <i>(Research assistant to circle all that respondent agrees with)</i>	Get into prostitution Sell cheap brews Neglect children Cheat on their husbands Steal/ get into crime Other (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>
F4	The following could be done to end poverty at household and community level? <i>(Research assistant to circle all that respondent agrees with)</i>	Create more jobs Good education Good health care Social protection Slum upgrading Other(specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>
F5	Ending poverty at the household level will have to involve all members of households <i>(Research assistant to circle one)</i>	Yes No Sometimes Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/>

Explain

Section G: The Social, Economic, Cultural, Political, Legal and Policy Barriers

I will read some more sentences, kindly state the extent to which you strongly agree (SA), agree (A), neutral (N), disagree (D) or strongly disagree (SD)?

(Research Assistant to marx (X) in box matching response)

SOCIAL						
Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Example/ explanation notes
A woman's role should be limited to domestic care work						
A woman has no role in the decision making process both at the household level and at the community level						
ECONOMIC						
Both men and women should have equal access to productive income generating activities e.g employment						
Belief in financial handouts hinders development						
POLITICAL						
Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Example/ explanation notes
A woman can effectively lead, just like a man						
The multiple roles that women play hinder them from ascending to political leadership						
Gender based violence hinders women from ascending to political leadership						
Access to resources helps men to rise to political leadership						

Aggression of men helps them access political power						
CULTURE						
Culture does not allow women to participate in the leadership position						
Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Example/ explanation notes
Cultural beliefs negatively affect women in decision making						
Gender based violence against women is culturally accepted as it ensures control of husband over wife						
Gender based violence against men is rejected by culture as it makes a man lose respect						
Ending gender based violence will improve gender relations in the household						
It is men's duty to end gender based violence						
Only women can end gender based violence						
Government (police, chiefs) can end gender based violence						

Any other comment on Gender based violence? -----

H1. CAROLINE MOSER FRAMEWORK: FOR INTERVENTION AND WOMEN EMPOWERMENT						
WELFARE						
Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Example/ explanation notes
Providing women with with basic needs will enable them meet their gender roles						
EQUITY						

Equal Representation of both women and men in the decision making process leads to meaningful and responsive development						
ANTI-POVERTY						
Effective strategies for ending poverty should integrate the needs and concerns of women, men, boys and girls.						
Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Example/ explanation notes
EFFICIENCY						
Involvement of women and men in decisions will ensure efficient use of family/ community resources						
EMPOWERMENT						
Holistic capacity building for women will spur development both at household and community levels						

H2: What is your dream/ hope regarding your economic situation and that of your household?-----

H3: What will bring the biggest change in gender relations in your household and community/ (remove obstacles to equitable gender relations)?

Household -----

Community-----

Project: Promoting livelihoods and Inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders

Gender and Power Analysis

Tool 2: Focus Group Discussion

My name is _____ I am working for the African Institute for Children’s Studies. We are conducting a research on gender and power analysis on behalf of Oxfam with a focus on promoting livelihoods and inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders. You have been randomly identified as one of the residents in the target areas and therefore request your opinion and experiences. There is no known major risk associated with your participation. Confidentiality will be maintained, hence no name is required. There would be no direct compensation for your participation; however, the information collected will be used in various interventions. Do you have any questions? Are you willing to voluntarily participate?

Date _____ Name of Research Assistant _____

Sub- County in Nairobi _____ Community _____

Section A: Gender Activity Profile

A1. What are the major roles/activities that boys, girls, women and men in your community engage in? When and where are these roles/activities carried out?

Household chores

Men			Women		
Activity	When/Time	Where/Place	Activity	When/Time	Where/Place

1.			1.		
2.			2.		
3.			3.		
4.			4.		
5.			5.		
Boys			Girls		
Activity	When/Time	Where/Place	Activity	When/Time	Where/Place
1.			1.		
2.			2.		
3.			3.		
4.			4.		
5.			5.		

For income generating

Men			Women		
Activity	When/Time	Where/Place	Activity	When/Time	Where/Place
1.			1.		
2.			2.		
3.			3.		
4.			4.		
5.			5.		

Boys			Girls		
Activity	When/Time	Where/Place	Activity	When/Time	Where/Place
1.			1.		
2.			2.		
3.			3.		
4.			4.		
5.			5.		

In the community

Men			Women		
Activity	When/Time	Where/Place	Activity	When/Time	Where/Place
1.			1.		
2.			2.		
3.			3.		
4.			4.		
5.			5.		

Boys			Girls		
Activity	When/Time	Where/Place	Activity	When/Time	Where/Place
1.			1.		
2.			2.		
3.			3.		
4.			4.		
5.			5.		

A2. Is it fair how these roles are shared?

A3. What should be done to improve equity in distribution of these roles?

Section B: Power Analysis: Gender Inequalities in Decision Making

B1. What are the needs of a) women, b) men that we have that affect our

Household activities.

Economic activities.

B2. What are some of the most important decisions made by a) men and b) women in your Household and Community (give rankings in order of priority).

B3. Who benefits from these decisions in B2 above? (Ask and indicate whether men or women on the responses given)

B4. What do you think influences the decision makers? e.g culture, ethnicity, financial strength

B5. Do these decisions made meet our needs? a) as men , b) as women

B6. What should be done to ensure that the decisions made a) meet our needs and b) ensure gender equality?

Section C: Poverty

C1. When is someone considered to be poor in your community?

C2. What in your opinion makes those people poor?

C3. How do you think poverty affects;

men

women

boys

girls.

Decision-making

C4. What should be done to improve livelihoods?

Section D: The Social, Economic, Cultural, Political, Legal and Policy Barriers

D1. What do you consider the place of a) Man and b) Woman in your community? Why?

D2. Should men perform household chores? Why?

D3. Would you elect a woman as your political leader/representative? Give reasons

D4. What is your view on equal participation of women and men in leadership positions?

D5. What types of gender based violence do you face at a) home b) community?

D6. What causes this violence against women in your community?

D7. Why do you think there are currently many cases of gender based violence?

D8. What do you think should be done to address the issue of gender based violence?

Section E: Interventions

E1. What are some of the laws addressing gender issues that you know?

E2. Do you think that they are effective?

E3. What should be done to ensure these laws are implemented?

Gender and Power Analysis

TOOL 3: Interview Guide for Key Informants at County Level

My name is _____ I am working for the African Institute for Children's Studies. We are conducting a research on gender and power analysis on behalf of Oxfam with a focus on promoting livelihoods and inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders. You have been randomly identified as one of the residents in the target areas and therefore request your opinion and experiences. There is no known major risk associated with your participation. Confidentiality will be maintained, hence no name is required. There would be no direct compensation for your participation; however, the information collected will be used in various interventions. Do you have any questions? Are you willing to voluntarily participate?

Date _____ Name of Research Assistant _____

Sub- County in Nairobi _____ Community _____

h) Section A: Gender Activity Profile

A1. Are there ways in which the productive work done by men and women living in the slum in the informal settlements benefit the county government and people residing in Nairobi? How?

i) Section B: Power Analysis: Gender Inequalities in Decision Making

B1. How do you make sure that funds are allocated to meet both women and men's developmental needs at the Nairobi informal settlements?

j) Section C: Poverty

C1. In your view what factors explain increasing poverty levels in the Nairobi informal settlements?

C2. What is your view on the financial hand-outs given to men and women in the Nairobi informal settlements?

C3. What is the representation of resource allocation for the Nairobi informal settlements compared to the national budget?

C4. Is resource allocated according to gender representation?

C5. Which other decisions in allocation of resources do you consider important?

Section D: The Social, Economic, Cultural, Political, Legal and Policy Barriers

D1. What is the state of gender based violence in the informal settlements?

D2. What leads to gender based violence in the informal settlements?

D3. What is being done to address Gender based violence in the informal settlements? (In terms of programmes.)

D4. What policies exist that ensure equal access to justice and decision making for women and men?

D5. In your view are these policies sustainable in addressing inequalities?

k) Section E: Interventions

E1. What measures have been put in place to address problems women, men, boys and girls face?

E2. What measures have been put in place to curb dependency on financial hand-outs and improve economic sustainability in the Nairobi informal settlements?

E3. What measures have been put in place to ensure that women and men equally take leadership position both at the community level and at the national level?

E4. What needs to be done and by who to bring about improvement in the wellbeing of all people in the Nairobi informal settlements?

Gender and Power Analysis

TOOL 4: Interview Guide for Government officials, Local Authority, Opinion Leaders and CSOs

My name is _____ I am working for the African Institute for Children's Studies. We are conducting a research on gender and power analysis on behalf of Oxfam with a focus on promoting livelihoods and inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders. You have been randomly identified as one of the residents in the target areas and therefore request your opinion and experiences. There is no known major risk associated with your participation. Confidentiality will be maintained, hence no name is required. There would be no direct compensation for your participation; however, the information collected will be used in various interventions. Do you have any questions? Are you willing to voluntarily participate?

Date _____ Name of Research Assistant _____

Sub- County in Nairobi _____ Community _____

l) Section A: General information

A1. What is the gender representation of the domestic workers from the Nairobi informal settlements? (Get disaggregated data).

A2. What forms of domestic work do they engage in? E.g casual, live-in etc.

A3. What are the major challenges faced by the women domestic workers in the Nairobi informal settlements?

m) Section B: Interventions

B1. What practical strategies does Kudheihia have to help women domestic workers in Nairobi informal settlements address the challenges they face? E.g capacity building, policies etc.

B2. What challenges does Kudheihia face in implementing legislations in favour of women domestic workers?

B3. What recommendations does Kudheihia have concerning these challenges?

Gender and Power Analysis

TOOL 5: Interview Guide for Local Authority, Opinion Leaders, FBOs and CSOs

My name is _____ I am working for the African Institute for Children's Studies. We are conducting a research on gender and power analysis on behalf of Oxfam with a focus on promoting livelihoods and inclusion of vulnerable women domestic workers and women small scale traders. You have been randomly identified as one of the residents in the target areas and therefore request your opinion and experiences. There is no known major risk associated with your participation. Confidentiality will be maintained, hence no name is required. There would be no direct compensation for your participation; however, the information collected will be used in various interventions. Do you have any questions? Are you willing to voluntarily participate?

Date _____ Name of Research Assistant _____

Sub- County in Nairobi _____ Community _____

Section A: Gender Activity Profile

A1. What are the activities women and men, boys and girls engage in their households and community?

A2. What is your view on the value of these in relation to the wellbeing of households and community?

A3. Are their ways in which the work done by women domestic workers and small scale traders benefit the county government and people residing in Nairobi?

Section B: Power Analysis: Gender Inequalities in Decision Making

B1. What is the representation of the chief's baraza? a) no. of men, b) no. of women. Give reasons.

B2. Suppose there are community forums addressing any issues related to the wellbeing of the community how do you make sure that there is gender equality (in this case women's views are sought for and they equally participate) in the decision making process?

B3. How do you make sure that there is gender equity in the allocation of funds for development at the community?

Section C: Poverty

C1. In your view what factors lead to the increase of poverty at the community level in relation to gender and power?

C2.What is your view on the financial hand-outs given to men and women at the community?

Section D: The Social, Economic, Cultural, Political, Legal and Policy Barriers

D1. Is there gender based violence in this area? If yes, what is the state?

D2. What leads to gender based violence in this area?

D3. What is being done to address Gender based violence in this area? In terms of programmes.

D4. What policies exist in addressing gender inequalities?

D5. Does the policy recognize the strengths, skills and activities of men and women?

D6. In your view are these policies sustainable in addressing inequalities?

Section E: Interventions

E1.What measures have been put in place to address such factors?

E2.What measures have been put in place to curb dependency on financial hand-outs and improve economic sustainability at the community?

E3.What measures have been put in place to ensure that women take leadership position both at the community level and at the national level?

8.4 Appendices 3: Lists of Respondents

8.4.1 Key Informants Interviewed

Key informant interviewed	
A. In the Informal settlements	
Organization	Position/Department
1. Government	1. Chief - Mukuru Kwa Reuben
	2. Senior chief - Korogocho
	3. Chief - Kawangware
	4. Chief - Kibera - Makina
	5. Police - Gender desks in-charge
2. Social Workers	6. CHW - Kawangware
	7. CHW Chairman - Mukuru
	8. CH and Social Worker - Mathare
	9. CHW - Korogocho
3. FBO	10. SW Catholic Church -Korogocho
4. Local Organizations	11. Jamii Self-help group - Kibera
	12. Stara Biogas (Sweden funded project) - Kibera
	13. Social help group - Mathare
	14. Headman/Chairman Mathare 3B
	15. CREAM - Kibera
	16. Wangukanja Foundation - Mukuru
B. County and National Level.	
Organization	Position/Department
1. Maendeleo ya Wanawake	1. Gender Officer
2. Ministry of Devolution	2. Gender Officer
3. KUDHEIHA	3. Programme Officer
4. Nairobi City County government	4. Gender Officer
5. FIDA, Kenya	5. Gender Program Officer

8.4.2 Appendices 4: List of FGD groups conducted by location

FGD	Location
Slum Community	
1. Kawangware	
Women general population 1	Soko Mjinga
Women general population 2	Kawangware 56
Men general population 1	Muslim
Men general population 2	Kawangware 56
Women Small Scale traders	Mau Mau
Women domestic workers	Katina
2. Mukuru	
Women general population	Fuata Nyayo
Men general population	Kayaba
Women Small Scale traders	Fuata Nyayo
Women domestic workers	Kayaba
3. Kibera	
Women general population 1	Darajani
Women general population 2	Kambi Muru
Men general population 1	Mashimoni
Men general population 2	Kambi Muru
Women Small Scale traders	Lindi
Women domestic workers	Mashimoni
4. Mathare	
Women general population 1	Mlango Kubwa
Women general population 2	Village 1
Men general population 1	Mlango Kubwa
Men general population 2	Village 1
Women Small Scale traders	Kosovo
Women domestic workers	Village 2
5. Korogocho	
Women general population	Kariobangi Catholic Church
Men general population	Kariobangi Catholic Church
Women Small Scale traders	Kariobangi Catholic Church
Women domestic workers	Kariobangi Catholic Church