



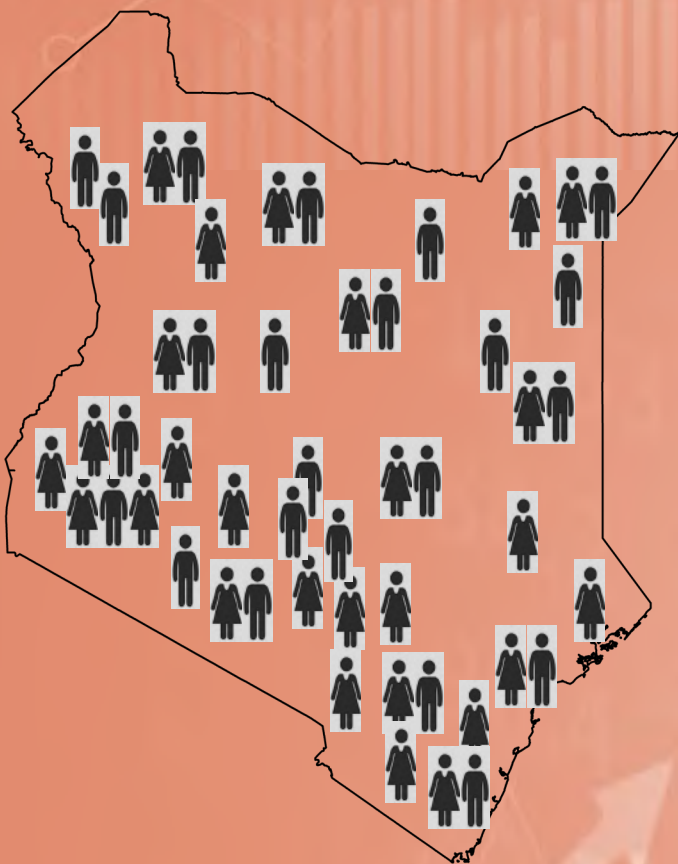
Republic of Kenya



2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census

Analytical Report on Gender Dimensions

Volume XIV



April, 2022



2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census

“Counting Our People for Sustainable Development and
Devolution of Services”

Analytical Report On Gender Dimensions

Volume XIV



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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

4G	Fourth Generation
ADL	Activities of Daily Life
ANC	Antenatal Care
AfDB	African Development Bank
AICS	Italian Agency for Development Cooperation
ASAL	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
ASFR	Age-Specific Fertility Rate
CA	Communication Authority of Kenya
CBC	Competency Based Curriculum
CD	Children Dead
CEB	Children Ever Born
CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CSPPro	Census and Survey Processing System
EA	Enumeration Area
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GCM	Global Compact for Migration
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDI	Gender Development Index
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GoK	Government of Kenya
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GSMA	Groupe Speciale Mobile Association
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ICC	International Chamber of Commerce
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
KDHS	Kenya Demographic and Health Survey
KIHBS	Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
KPHC	Kenya Population and Housing Census
KVSR	Kenya Vital Statistics Registration
LE	Life Expectancy
LPG	Liquefied Petroleum Gas
LTR	Lifetime Risk of Maternal deaths
MCDAs	Ministries, Counties, Departments and Agencies
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
MoE	Ministry of Education
NCPD	National Council for Population and Development
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training

NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NHIF	National Health Insurance Fund
NSSF	National Social Security Fund
ONS-UK	Office of National Statistics, United Kingdom
POA	Plan of Action
PWA	Persons with Albinism
PWDs	Persons with Disabilities
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SGBV	Sexual Gender Based Violence
SMAM	Singulate Mean Age at Marriage
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
TV	Television
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
USMR	Under Five Mortality Rate
UN	United Nations
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNRCO	United Nations Resident Coordinator's Office
UNSD	United Nations Statistical Commission
WHO	World Health Organization
WSIS	World Summit on the Information Society

Foreword

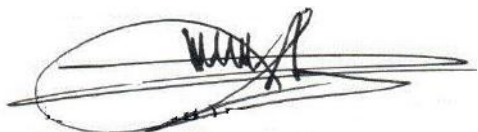
The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC) was conducted from the night of 24th/25th to 31st August 2019 and followed the United Nations principles and recommendations for conducting the 2020 round of censuses. The theme of the Census was “Counting Our People for Sustainable Development and Devolution of Services”. This resonated very well with Kenya’s development agenda - *Vision 2030* and the Big Four, as well as other regional and international development initiatives such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the African Union Agenda 2063. The main objective was to provide the Government and other stakeholders with essential information for evaluating policies and easing planning and budgeting processes.

The first set of the census reports (basic volumes I-IV) were released in a record 6 months after enumeration. The second set of the census reports covers the thematic areas of: Fertility and Nuptiality; Mortality; Migration; Education and Training; Youth and Adolescents; Information and Communication Technology; Housing Conditions, Amenities and Household Assets; Gender Dimensions; Older and Vulnerable Population; Urbanization; Disability; Household and Family Dynamics; Labour Force Dynamics; Agriculture; Population Dynamics and Population Projections.

This monograph presents trends in Gender Dimensions. From the data, early childbearing and marriage is prevalent among adolescent girls. For every 1000 women under age 15, four have had a child. There are more girls (10.8%) age 15 – 19 compared to boys (4.2%) of the same age, who are married. Nationally, labour force participation rate for women is lower at 53 per cent compared to that of men at 56 per cent. Almost an equal proportion of male (25.1 %) and female (24.1 %) Persons With Disabilities age 5 to 17 years are out of school. Net Enrolment Rate for boys with disability is slightly lower than that of girls with disability in pre-primary, primary, and secondary levels of education.

The information in this monograph provides valuable programmatic evidence to policymakers for use in the formulation of policies and plans explicitly intended to achieve SDG targets. The report not only adds knowledge but also serves as a foundation for assessment, reporting and eventually monitoring achievement of SDGs by 2030, *Vision 2030*, formulation of MTP IV, County Integrated Development Plans, and other sector-specific plans. Specifically, the evidence is expected to contribute immensely towards measuring and monitoring SDGs numbers 1, 3, 5 and 16 that relate to social sector outcomes with a special focus on gender.

On behalf of the Government, I wish to thank the staff, management and Board of Directors of the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics as well as the authors for their contribution towards the preparation of this report. I further wish to extend special thanks to our development partners, especially UNFPA, UNICEF, UN-Women, WHO and UNDP under the coordination of UN Resident Coordinators’ Office and all the other stakeholders who were involved in the process for their technical and financial support.



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Acknowledgement

The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC) was implemented under the provisions of the Constitution of Kenya, 2010 and the Statistics Act, 2006. The census was the sixth to be conducted in Kenya since independence and the first that was fully digitized, where the latest technology was embraced. This monograph is among the set of 16 such reports, addressing various topical areas regarding the demographic, social, and economic profiles of the Kenyan population.

The 2019 KPHC implementation process was accomplished through a concerted effort of various government ministries, departments, agencies, International and local organizations and individuals who assisted during preparation, collection, compilation, processing, analyzing and publishing the results. Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS), on behalf of the Government, takes this opportunity to sincerely thank all those who participated in the preparation of this report.

The Bureau is indebted to all the organs of government, the private sector, and the general public for the overwhelming support and participation that led to the successful implementation of the 2019 Census. Special gratitude goes to United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA); United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women); United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF); United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA); World Health Organization (WHO); and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) under the coordination of UN Resident Coordinators' Office (UNRCO); African Development Bank (AfDB); Statistics Sweden; Office of National Statistics, United Kingdom (ONS-UK) and Italian Agency for Development Cooperation (AICS) for their immense support. I also recognize the census personnel (coordinators, content and ICT supervisors, enumerators, village elders and security) for the role they played in the overall success of the 2019 KPHC.



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Executive Summary

This report presents findings on the gender analysis of the 2019 Census carried out to measure sex/gender differences, and gender inequality. The report is organized into ten thematic areas synthesized from the 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC) analytical reports, which informed the development of this analytical report on gender dimensions. The thematic areas present information on; a gender lens that shows the status of the relative access to services and personal achievements between women, men, girls and boys; and the gender gaps in different sectors that were covered in the census and which play key roles in achieving progress towards gender equality.

The Constitution of Kenya promulgated in August 2010 introduced substantive gender gains and marked the onset of a series of gender-responsive laws as it is centred on the principle of equality. The equality clause, Article 27, acknowledges the right of equal treatment of women and men in all spheres of life. There are additional provisions that are aimed at improving gender parity in specific areas such as the public service, devolution, family, parliament, constitutional commissions, and political parties, among others. In addition, the Government's commitment and efforts to promote gender equality and women's empowerment are reflected in the ratification of numerous international conventions and instruments such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Convention for Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA), and the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN-UDHR), among others.

Gender Dimensions

Introduction: Chapter 1 presents information about the history of conducting the past census, the objective of the 2019 KPHC, the methodology of 2019 KPHC process, the objectives and rationale of this monograph, and the key concepts and terms used in this monograph.

Fertility: Chapter 2 presents information on Fertility. Fertility refers to the actual reproductive performance of an individual, a couple, a group, or a population. Fertility is influenced by social values and norms in which culture and traditional beliefs play a significant role. Nationally, the 2019 Census revealed that among adolescent girls aged below 15, about 4 per 1000 have had a child. Further, this phenomenon is seen to be higher among girls from rural (5 per 1000) than urban areas (3 per 1000). This in turn affects the demographic dividend that is realized from a rapid decline in fertility. Notably, counties with the highest early childbearing include; Mandera, Samburu, Migori, Narok, West Pokot, Tana River, Wajir, Turkana and Homa bay.

Consequently, early childbearing may be partly due to the prevalence of child or early marriage as highlighted in the chapter on marriage. These same counties with a high prevalence of early childbearing also exhibit a high prevalence of child marriage. Early marriage is more pronounced among girls. There are more girls (10.8%) age 15 – 19 compared to boys (4.2%) of the same age, who are married.

Mortality: Chapter 3 presents information on Mortality. Mortality is age and sex-selective, and its measurement is determined at various ages at death. At the national level, in rural and urban areas, the gender gap in life expectancy at birth is approximately six years; meaning women live longer than men by about six years. By extension, this may infer that there are more women at older ages than men, especially after age 60. Therefore, men at older ages may not benefit much from social security protection support as it starts at age 70 years, as they are likely to die earlier than women;

Migration: Chapter 4 presents information on Migration. Gender influences reasons for migration, who and to where, how people migrate and the networks they use, opportunities and resources available at destinations, and relations with the country of origin. Nationally, a total of 8.4 million current internal migrants were enumerated out of which, females constituted at least one in every two migrants at 53.5 per cent. Urban areas accounted for 68.3 per cent of the internal migrants (5.7 million). Women accounted for 59.4 per cent of the rural migrant population, compared to males who accounted for 40.6 per cent.

In general, migration in Kenya is selective to young age groups (15-34). After the age group 30-34, the rate of migration declines. At age 60 migration rises for both sexes in both rural and urban areas. Patterns of current internal migration are changing in Kenya, as more women are migrating in both rural and urban areas in 2019 compared to the 2009 census. Despite the increased propensity for females to migrate, women mainly moved for marriage and family-related issues while men migrated mainly for economic reasons.

Marriage: Chapter 5 presents information on Marriage. According to the Marriage Act, 2014, marriage is the voluntary union of a man and a woman whether in a monogamous or a polygamous union and registered under the Act. Nationally, early marriage is more pronounced in girls. There are more girls (10.8%) age 15 – 19 compared to boys (4.2%) of the same age, who are married. The proportion of women in a polygamous union decrease with the increase in the level of education completed. Consequently, more women (38.1%) age 60 and above compared with men (6.9%) of the same age, are widowed. Finally, the Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM) is 27.3 and 23.1 years for men and women indicating that women on average enter into first marriage about 4 years earlier than men.

Household, Families, Living Conditions And Poverty: Chapter 6 presents information on households, Families, Living Conditions and Poverty. The household is the basic unit in which economic production, consumption, inheritance, child-rearing, and shelter are organized and carried out. The household may or may not be synonymous with family but for census purposes, it is the basis of enumeration from which individuals are identified. The distribution of individuals within households determines the living arrangements of families. The household and family status classification provides a picture of the living situation of women and men.

Nationally, there are nearly twice as many elderly women (age 60 and over) living alone than males. The phenomenon is higher in Homabay, Migori, Siaya, Kisumu, Busia and Kisii counties. These counties not only exhibit large differences in male-female survival but also high youth out-migration rates. Older persons living alone are more vulnerable in terms of their general well-being.

In terms of poverty as a dimension, the 2019 census results indicate that a higher proportion of households headed by single mothers age 18-34 with children are poor (13.1%) compared to those headed by single fathers with children at 1.9 per cent. Therefore, women are predisposed to poverty compared to men because of the existing gender norms, which assigns them the role of being the primary caregivers to vulnerable persons.

Education and Training: Chapter 7 presents information on Education and Training. Education and training are key component in human development and transformation of the society. Overall, among the population age, 25 years and above, a higher proportion of women compared to men had no education attainment (gender parity of 1.18). The analysis of access rates revealed that there was a huge disparity in favour of females for secondary net enrolment rates while at the tertiary level, the net enrollment rate favours males. Thus, the major differences between males and females in access to education lies at the tertiary level.

Labour force Participation: Chapter 8 presents information on participation in economic activities for all persons aged 5 years and above. Specifically, this included information on activity status, main employer, status in employment, hours of work, industry/economic activity and occupation in the main job. Nationally, the labour force participation rate for women is lower at 52.6 per cent compared to that of men at 55.3 per cent. More elderly women (age 60 and over) are outside the labour force at 16 per cent compared to that of elderly men at 11 per cent. The elderly population mainly work in the agriculture sector with a higher proportion of these workers being elderly women.

Nationally, the 2019 Census data shows that there are 1.4 million young persons of age 15-34 years who are not in employment, education or training of which 57.4 per cent are women. About 692.9 thousand young men and women of age 15-24 years are not in employment, education or training in 2019 of which 56 per cent were women. Thus, there are more young women outside the education system, not working or not being trained for work than young men.

Disability: Chapter 9 presents information on Disability. The Census data provided information for monitoring the equalization of opportunities, measuring the social and living conditions of Persons with Disabilities (PWDs) in terms of school attendance, educational attainment, employment, marital status and living arrangements, among others. Overall, most of PWDs who have never attended school and were not engaged in any economic activity due to their disability were female (54.0 per cent). More females (55.4 per cent) with a disability who are age 15 years and above were not engaged in any economic activities in the reference period due to their disabilities.

ICT: Chapter 10 presents information on Information Communication Technology, which is a potent force in transforming global social, economic, and political life. More women compared to men share the use of the mobile phone (those who use mobile without owning them). Mobile phone use sharing is more prominent in; Tana River, Kilifi, Narok, Lamu and Bungoma counties.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background Information

A population census is a total process of collecting, compiling, evaluating, analyzing and publishing or otherwise disseminating demographic, economic, and social data pertaining, at a specified time, to all persons in a country or a well-delimited part of a country. It is vital for effective national development planning because it provides detailed bench-mark data on all population characteristics.

The first known population census in Kenya was conducted in 1897 and was basically a headcount. This was followed by the 1948 census that focused on non-natives. A complete census that enumerated 8.6 million persons was conducted in 1962 and was used to set up political and administrative structures. The first post-independence census was undertaken in 1969 and enumerated 10.9 million persons. Since then, the country has conducted decennial population and housing censuses on a *de facto* basis with the midnight of 24th/25th August as the reference point. The censuses have been implemented under the United Nations (UN) Principles and Recommendations for conducting population and housing censuses. Table 1.1 presents census results since 1897.

Table 1. 1: Summary of Census Counts in Kenya, 1987-2019

Year	Population (millions)
1897	2.5
1948	5.4
1962	8.6
1969	10.9
1979	15.3
1989	21.4
1999	28.5
2009	37.7
2019	47.6

The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census was conducted under the provisions of the Constitution of Kenya, 2010 (Fourth Schedule Part 1 Item 11), the Statistics (Amendment) Act, 2019 and the Statistics (Census of Population) Order, 2018 - Legal Notice No. 205 and the Cabinet Memorandum of May 2017 on the implementation of the 2019 population and housing census process. The theme for the census was “*Counting Our People for Sustainable Development and Devolution of Services*”.

1.2 Objectives of the 2019 Census

The main objective of the 2019 KPHC was to collect information on the size, composition, distribution and socio-economic characteristics of the population. The specific objectives were to ascertain:

- Population size, composition, and spatial distribution;

- Levels of fertility, mortality and migration;
- Educational attainment;
- Household composition;
- Rate and pattern of urbanization;
- Size and deployment of the labour force;
- Distribution of persons with disability;
- Housing conditions and availability of household amenities; and
- Agricultural indicators to inform the creation of an agriculture sampling frame.

This information will be used in planning, budgeting and programming for important services; future policy formulation, resource allocation; creation of administrative and political units; monitoring and evaluation of programmes and projects; research; development of a master household sampling frame; development of a geospatial database; and benchmark for agricultural censuses/surveys.

1.3 Overview of the Gender Dimensions

The term gender refers to the social roles and relations between women and men. This term includes the different responsibilities of women and men in a given culture or location and the allocation of power and resources based on social constructions. This report provides an overview of the assessment/analysis of the 2019 KPHC data and information to reveal the processes of differential social roles, variance in social treatment and discrimination that may explain the observed differences between men and women in Kenyan society.

This report presents information that has been synthesized from the basic reports on the 2019 KPHC and analytical reports prepared covering; Fertility and Nuptiality, Mortality and Health, Migration, Education, Labour Force Participation, Housing Conditions and Household Amenities and Assets, Disability and Wellbeing, and Household and Family Dynamics, and ICT. It presents information to provide gender dimensions that may emanate from the observed socio-demographic characteristics of the population. It is anchored on the gendered life course approach that considers that disparities may become more pronounced or attenuated and is even reversed in opposite direction as the life cycle progresses. For example, there may not be major differences for girls and boys in education in Early Childhood, as a child ages and becomes a young adult, any minor differences may become more and more apparent. Further, the indicators generated will provide a benchmark to monitor progress of the national policy vision that seeks to ensure a society where women, men, children and persons with disabilities enjoy equal rights, opportunities and a high quality of life.

1.3.1 Objectives

The main objective of this analytical report is to provide an evidence-base informing development policies and programmes in a way that takes into account the specific needs of women and men, and girls and boys in Kenyan society. Specifically, the monograph seeks to:

- 1) Present the key findings from the 2019 Census based on a gender lens that shows the status of the relative access to services and personal achievements between women, men, girls and boys;
- 2) Present gender gaps in different sectors that were covered in the Census and which play key roles in achieving progress towards gender equality.
- 3) Sensitize stakeholders on the need and importance of sex-disaggregated data for policy formulation, decision making and budgeting.

1.3.2 Rationale for the analytical report

The 2030 agenda for sustainable development called for the need to address inequalities and promote human rights in development efforts. Countries were also called upon to eradicate poverty, ensure individual human rights, well-being, gender equality and women's empowerment, while maintaining sustained and inclusive economic growth and protecting the environment for current and future generations. The human rights approach to programming envisages that data and information provide evidence on the status of individuals concerning aspects of discrimination, lack of opportunities and capabilities that may arise because of their social position in society. Gender analysis seeks to assess the existence of differential access and control over resources by men and women, as well as how the various dimensions of wellbeing may be socially constructed. Thus, gender analysis of any statistical data seeks to provide information necessary to build human rights approach to programming. It focuses on gender-related social inequalities, discriminatory practices and unjust power relations that may exist in society. Carrying out a gender analysis of census data can contribute to better and more sustainable human development outcomes by providing evidence on the existence of certain forms of gender-discriminatory practices, inequalities or unjust power relations. To decipher gender aspects of the data, the synthesis involves a critical examination of the differences in women's and men's lives; searches for the underlying causes of inequality that may exist between women and men and boys and girls; and highlighting gender-specific variables and is generally (though not exclusively) used to achieve positive change for women and girls.

1.3.3 Gender Policies and Programs

The Government's commitment and efforts to promote gender equality and women's empowerment are reflected in the ratification of numerous international conventions and instruments such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA), and the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN-UDHR), among others. The Government has also instituted various laws and policy frameworks and set up several bodies at national as well as decentralized levels to advance, coordinate and monitor gender issues. The Constitution promulgated in August 2010 introduced substantive gender gains and marked the onset of a series of gender-responsive

laws as it is centred on the principle of equality. The equality clause, Article 27, acknowledges the right of equal treatment of men and women in all spheres of life. There are additional provisions that are aimed at improving gender parity in specific areas such as the public service, devolution, family, parliament, constitutional commissions, and political parties, among others.

In terms of laws and regulations, the enactment of several legislations such as the Children Act in 2001 which contains provisions protecting the girl child against derogatory cultural practices such as early marriages and female circumcision; the Sexual Offences Act of 2006 which protect women and girls from sexual violence and bring perpetrators to book; and the Employment Act of 2007 which contains provisions prohibiting any kind of discrimination in the workplace. The Citizenship and Immigration Act of 2011, allows women the same rights to pass their citizenship to their spouses and children. In the area of family law, The Matrimonial Property Act of 2013 and The Marriage Act of 2014 emphasize the equality of the parties of marriage before, during and after the resolution of the marriage.

Programmes and policies to reduce gender disparities include provision of Free Primary Education and Free Day Secondary Education; affirmative action in recruitment, employment and appointment in the public sector to reduce gender disparities in leadership and decision making levels (e.g. in the Public Service, the Judiciary and local authorities); development of a National Policy on Gender and Development (NPGD); establishment and strengthening of institutions to address gender issues (including National Gender and Equality Commission (NGEC), and gender units in all line ministries and state corporations); inclusion of an indicator on gender mainstreaming in the Performance Contract Guidelines in the public sector; the Political Parties Act, (2007) provides for at least one-third representation of either gender in political parties.

1.4 Methodology of 2019 Census Process

1.4.1 Use of Technology

Kenya adopted the use of mobile technology to collect data during the 2019 Census as recommended by the UN for the 2020 round of censuses. This was the first census in Kenya's history to use mobile technology in the capture and transmission of data for both cartographic mapping and enumeration. During mapping, the GPS coordinates for homesteads, households and other points of interests within the locality were collected using the mobile devices with an accuracy of plus or minus 5 Meters. The enumeration area (EA) maps were developed using Arc GIS Software on a background of aerial photographs and satellite imageries that were not more than six months old from the date of the field cartographic data collection. The EA maps were then uploaded into the tablets assembled by two local universities to facilitate the 2019 Census enumeration exercise.

1.4.2 Recruitment and Training

Recruitment of census personnel who included supervisors (both content and ICT) and enumerators was undertaken by the County and Sub-County Census Committees through a competitive process. The training of this personnel was conducted in a cascaded manner from the training of trainers to the training of enumerators. The training for various cadres was conducted

for seven days for each cadre. These trainings were sequentially conducted between 14th July and 20th August 2019.

1.4.3 Enumeration

The Census enumeration was preceded by enumeration area (EA) boundary identification and pre-enumeration listing of households in each EA for two days prior to the census night. The pre-enumeration listing exercise helped in gauging the expected workload during the seven days of enumeration and also in monitoring the level of coverage as enumeration progressed.

The actual enumeration took place from the night of 24th/25th August 2019 and ended on 31st August 2019. A mop-up exercise was conducted on 1st and 2nd September 2019. Special populations were strictly enumerated on the night of 24th/25th August 2019. The 2019 Census adopted the *de facto* approach where all persons within the boundaries of Kenya were enumerated depending on where they spent (or were found on) the Census night. The canvasser method of enumeration, where information for each individual or household is collected and recorded by a trained census official designated to perform the tasks in the assigned area, was used.

1.4.4 Data Transmission and Storage

Data collected by enumerators using mobile devices (tablets) were subsequently transmitted to a central server. The data were encrypted before transmission and backed up in off-site locations.

1.4.5 Data Processing

Editing of the census data was guided by the United Nations Handbook on Population and Housing Census Editing. The data were processed using CPro, Stata and SPSS softwares. In addition, validation checks were done to ensure that all EAs, aligned to administrative boundaries, were accounted for in the dataset. Outputs were generated based on administrative and geopolitical units.

1.4.6 Quality Assurance

Quality assurance was integrated into all phases of the census process. Comprehensive guidelines were developed and shared with census personnel. Field supervision followed a three-tier structure to ensure adequate support, real-time response to emerging issues, and feedback during data collection. In addition, enumeration reporting schedules and control forms were used to facilitate the monitoring of activities. Field monitoring teams oversaw technical, logistical and administrative aspects of enumeration in each region. Further, independent observers, drawn from the international community and national statistics offices across Africa, monitored and observed the 2019 census enumeration process.

1.4.7 Data Quality

The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC), just as during the previous censuses encountered some administrative and logistic challenges. These give rise to coverage and content errors, which vary both in nature and magnitude from one country to another and one region to another. Coverage errors result from the omission of certain pockets of the population, while

content errors pertain to misreporting or misclassification of events. The errors cause biases and distortion in the estimates based on such data.

1.5 Definitions of Key Concepts and Terms

1.5.1 Empowerment

A process through which women and men in disadvantaged positions increase their access to knowledge, resources, and decision-making power and raise their awareness of participation in their communities to reach a level of control over their environment.

1.5.2 Gender

Gender is a socio-cultural construct of the society that determines and identifies, roles or functions, entitlements and deprivations of women and men and girls and boys in the society. Therefore, it defines the position of women and men in their society. Gender classification changes with time, space and the needs of society. It refers to the roles and responsibilities of women and men are socially rather than biologically determined. It explains how social and cultural values and traditions determine how women and men are perceived and expected to think and act.

1.5.3 Sex

Sex is a biological identification of females and males based on their physiological characteristics. Sex characteristics are natural; compared to gender which identifies qualities that are shaped through the history of social relations and interactions.

1.5.4 Gender Analysis

An analytical tool that examines the differences and disparities in the roles that women and men play, the power imbalances in their relations, their needs, constraints and opportunities and the impact of these differences on their lives. It is a process of examining roles and responsibilities or any other situation regarding women, men, boys and girls, to identify gaps, raise concerns and address them, investigating and identifying specific needs for policy and programme development and implementation.

1.5.5 Gender Relations

Socio-cultural relationships between men and women in a given culture. They are socially constructed and not derived from biology. Gender relations distinguish social relations between men and women from those characteristics which can be derived from biological differences.

1.5.6 Gender Issues

Refers to opportunities, challenges and constraints that affect both women, men, girls and boys in society. Gender issues are not synonymous with women's issues.

1.5.7 Women's Issues

Refers to opportunities, challenges and constraints that affect women and girls only. Women's needs are, therefore, not addressed by relevant organs at all levels due to poor representation and this affects women.

1.5.8 Gender-Aware Planning

The process of considering gender (gender mainstreaming) in planning; planning with women or girls and men or boys in mind because development programmes are accessed and impact women and men differently. The increasing awareness of gender issues has led the Government and development partners to set up sections or focal points responsible for integrating women's and men's issues into the administration's projects. Collection and use of sex-disaggregated data in policy, decision making, planning and budgeting is key to gender-aware planning.

1.5.9 Gender Inequality

Gender inequality means unequal access to resources and benefits by women and men and therefore, holds back the growth of individuals, development of countries and evolution of societies.

1.5.10 Gender Gaps

Gender gaps refer to the measure of differences between women and men concerning their participation in and benefits from different socio-economic sectors. Gender gaps come about as a result of unequal power relations between women and men.

1.5.11 Gender Parity Index

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) is a socio-economic index usually designed to measure the relative access to education for both females and males. It is calculated as the ratio of the number of female students enrolled at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education to the number of male students in each level.

1.5.12 Gender Development Index (GDI)

This is a tool designed to measure gender inequalities in the social, cultural, economic and political fields.

1.5.13 Gender Statistics

Gender statistics is a policy-oriented approach to data analysis, focusing on gender (the socio-cultural construct) rather than sex (the biological marker) as an analytical category. It involves producing and disseminating statistics that reflect the realities of females and males of all ages, to inform gender equality initiatives and policies.

It is customary to distinguish between two categories of gender statistics, namely; sex-disaggregated statistics and other gender-relevant statistics.

- i. **Sex-disaggregated data** are data that are cross-classified by sex, presenting information separately for men and women, boys and girls; male vs female respectively.
- ii. **Other gender-relevant statistics** provide information on the situation of either sex or the gender relations between men and women, but that cannot be meaningfully compared between the sexes.
- iii. **Statistics on women** refers to women-only statistics produced mainly to report on the situation of women in different contexts. One limitation is that they do not allow for comparisons between men and women and thus cannot provide data on gender gaps.

1.5.14 Household

Is a person or a group of persons who reside in the same homestead or compound but not necessarily in the same dwelling unit. They have the same cooking arrangement and are answerable to the same household head. For purpose of 2019 KPHC, households were categorized into conventional and non-conventional. Conventional were the ordinary households while non-conventional households referred to people live together but cannot be said to belong to “ordinary” households. Examples were students in boarding schools and colleges, hospital in-patients, people in police cells, guests in hotels, or prison inmates, outdoor sleepers, nuns, brothers in a monastery and other religious organizations with some institution-like living arrangements.

1.6 Organization of this report

This report was prepared following the Methodological Guidelines for the Gender Analysis of National Population and Housing Census Data prepared by United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), in collaboration with UN Women, the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Statistics Division published in 2014. A key issue from various reports indicates that countries should be able to monitor the key goals of the SDG. The overarching goal for monitoring the gender-related commitments in the 2030 Agenda are two-fold: to serve as a “management tool” and to serve as a “report card” for development programs. In addition, SDG indicators should be monitored not only at the national level but also within pre-defined population sub-groups, such as sex, age, residence (rural vs. urban), geography (counties) or wealth status in line with the principle of leaving no one behind. This is the basic purpose of this report and it is organized into 11 chapters.

Chapter 1 presents a general introduction giving an overview of the 2019 KPHC process, including the objectives, census methodological processes, the objectives and rationale for this monograph and definition of the key terminology. Chapters 2 to 4 outline the overall population dynamics and social and environmental living arrangements highlighting key gender issues. Chapter 5 provides an overview of marriage which is the socially sanctioned process of reproduction in society. Chapter 6 reports on the key social and physical living environment and wellbeing of the population, which is a key aspect of gender analysis. Chapters 7 and 8 highlight the status of human capital specifically on education and economic activity (work). Chapter 9 reports on the gender status of special groups of the population (those with disabilities) and focuses on their status concerning human capital. Chapter 10 highlights the use of information and technology which has become an important aspect of society in terms of living arrangements especially access to information and their use to enhance acquisition of the services, and market

transactions. Chapter 11 provides a summary of the key gender issues for advocacy, policy and programming.

Chapter 2: Fertility

2.1 Introduction

Fertility refers to the actual reproductive performance of an individual, a couple, a group, or a population. Fertility is influenced by social values and norms in which culture and traditional beliefs play a significant role. Fertility decisions (including the decision not to have children) are part of the key principles of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action. Principle 8 (pg. 10), states: “All couples and individuals have the basic right to decide freely and responsibly the number and spacing of their children and to have the information, education and means to do so.” Even though the right to “found a family” is protected by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1948), women’s reproductive freedom remains less than full. Fertility stands as an important subject to examine, monitor and understand women’s position in society (UNFPA Gender Manual, 2015: Pg. 87).

The Kenya Government is committed to promoting gender equality and women’s empowerment. This is as reflected in the National Policy on Gender and Development of 2019 whose goal is to “achieve gender equality and women’s empowerment in national development to enhance participation of women and men, boys and girls, vulnerable and marginalized groups for the attainment of sustainable development”. The policy sets legislative and administrative measures to address existing gaps in the realization of gender equality and women’s empowerment, which entails the integration of gender equality and women’s empowerment in all sectors of the economy.

2.2 Relevance of Fertility in Gender Analysis

As discussed in the ICPD Plan of Action (PoA), fertility patterns have key consequences for the lives of both women and men. The number of children one has may be an important indicator of status, for both women and men. For women, marriage and childbearing at young ages and/or bearing a large number of children can limit their opportunities for education and employment as well as put them at increased risk of morbidity and mortality.

Fertility is therefore a key variable for gender analysis, as it may reveal situations of vulnerability for women. Gender norms may be a factor in explaining fertility behaviour both at the individual and the societal level for example on son preferences. High fertility rates often limit women’s opportunities suggesting a complex causal relationship between fertility outcomes and gender norms. In this way, women’s lower status shapes fertility outcomes at the same time that fertility may also adversely affect women’s and girls’ status as compared to their male counterparts in society (UNFPA Gender Manual, 2015: Pg. 88).

Pregnant teenagers face many health and socio-economic issues at their young age. The health issues may include increased possibility of anaemia, premature and complicated labour and delivery, and low birth weight of babies, compared to women aged over 20 years. Socio-economic issues may include social stigma (for unmarried teenagers), difficulties in providing or accessing child care, child neglect, lower educational levels (due to discontinuation of education once pregnant, they are expelled from school and in some cases from home), and poverty among other issues.

The UN publication on World's Women in 2015 observed that biological factors, along with gender inequality and gender norms, influence sex differences in health trajectories throughout the life cycle. Adolescence and young adulthood should be a time of general good health with low mortality rates. Yet in developing regions, complications linked to pregnancy and childbirth, as well as sexually transmitted infections, particularly HIV, continue to take a heavy toll on the lives of adolescent girls and young women. This is due not only to underdeveloped health systems that are unable to adequately address women's health but also to gender issues. Poor access to information and education, early marriage, and lack of decision-making power among girls who are married or are in relationships increase their exposure to HIV and AIDS, sexually transmitted infections, unwanted pregnancies and the risk of unsafe abortion (The UN World's Women 2015, Pg 10). The Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) number 3 seeks to ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all people of all ages. Specifically, indicator 3:7.2 seeks to continuously monitor data on adolescent birth rate (age 10–14 years; age 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group. To achieve healthy lives, early pregnancy and childbirth complications, which are the leading cause of death among girls aged 15–19, must be reduced to zero.

2.3 Limitations

In Kenyan censuses, fertility data is collected by asking all women of reproductive age (12-49 years) to provide complete birth histories of all children they had borne, those currently living with them, those living elsewhere, and those who had died. One limitation with the data collected, particularly on adolescent girls, age 12-14 years, is that the number not stating their parity is always high. In addition, the birth history approach has some limitations that might distort fertility levels and patterns. For instance, women may include relatives' children as their own or omit children who died young, while older women may forget grown children who have left home.

2.4 Early Childbearing

Early childbearing has been shown to hurt the health outcomes and educational attainment of women and men, which, in the latter case, particularly in the case of young women, has implications on their earning potential. Early childbearing can reduce the capability of an individual to participate in the labour force, thus limiting chances for empowerment and improved well-being leading to greater vulnerability especially in later years of life.

Figures 2.1(a) and 2.1(b) present the average number of children ever born per 1000 females age 12-14 and 15-19 and place of residence, respectively. Childbearing is still prevalent among adolescents in Kenya. Overall, the average number of children per 1,000 teenagers age 15-19 is about 126. Generally, childbearing is high in rural compared to urban areas.

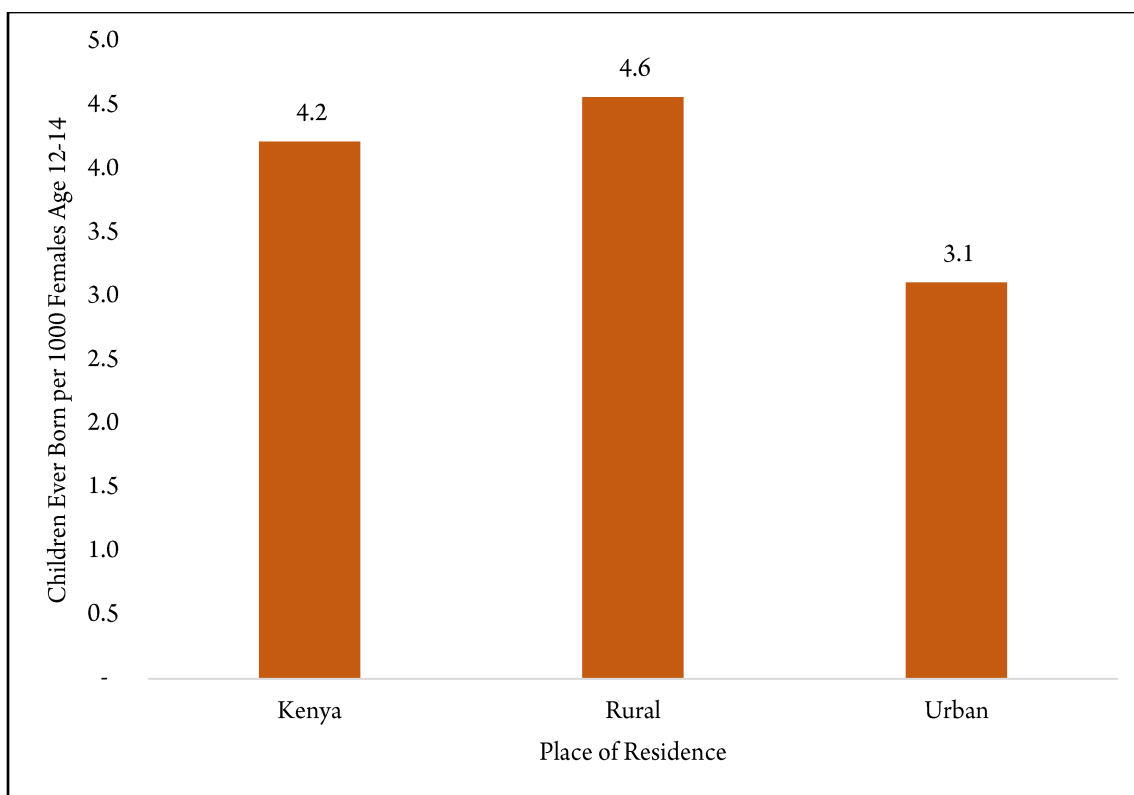


Figure 2.1(a): Average Number of Children Ever Born per 1,000 Females age 12-14 by Place of Residence, 2019



Figure 2.1(b): Average Number of Children Ever Born per 1,000 Females age 15-19 and Place of Residence, 2019

Figure 2.2 is a map showing the proportion of children ever born per 1,000 females age 12-19 by county. Counties with the highest childbearing, 111.7 births and above per 1,000 women are Mandera, Samburu, Migori, Narok, West Pokot, Tana River, Wajir, Turkana and Homabay.

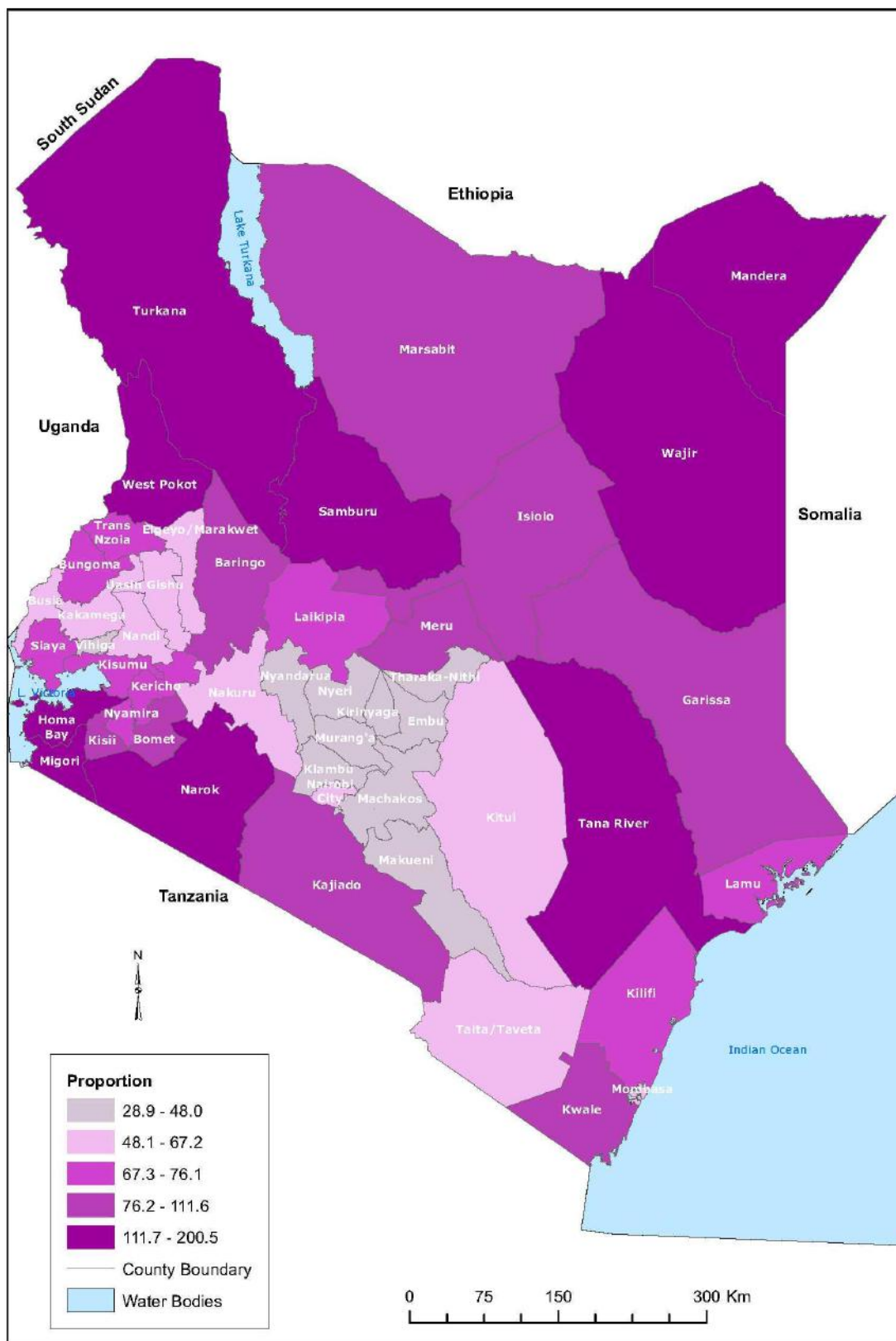


Figure 2.2 Proportion of Children Ever Born by Female Population Age 12-19 by County, 2019

2.5 Age-Specific Fertility Rate

Figures 2.3(a) and 2.3(b) present the Age-Specific Fertility Rates (ASFR) among the female population age 12-14 and 15-19 years by place of residence. Nationally, the number of births for every 1,000 teenagers age 12-14 and 15-19 is estimated at about 2 and 46, respectively. Among the female population 15-19 years, births in rural are higher compared to urban areas by about 19 births for every 1,000 teenagers.



Figure 2.3(a): Age Specific Fertility Rates among Females age 12-14 by Place of Residence, 2019

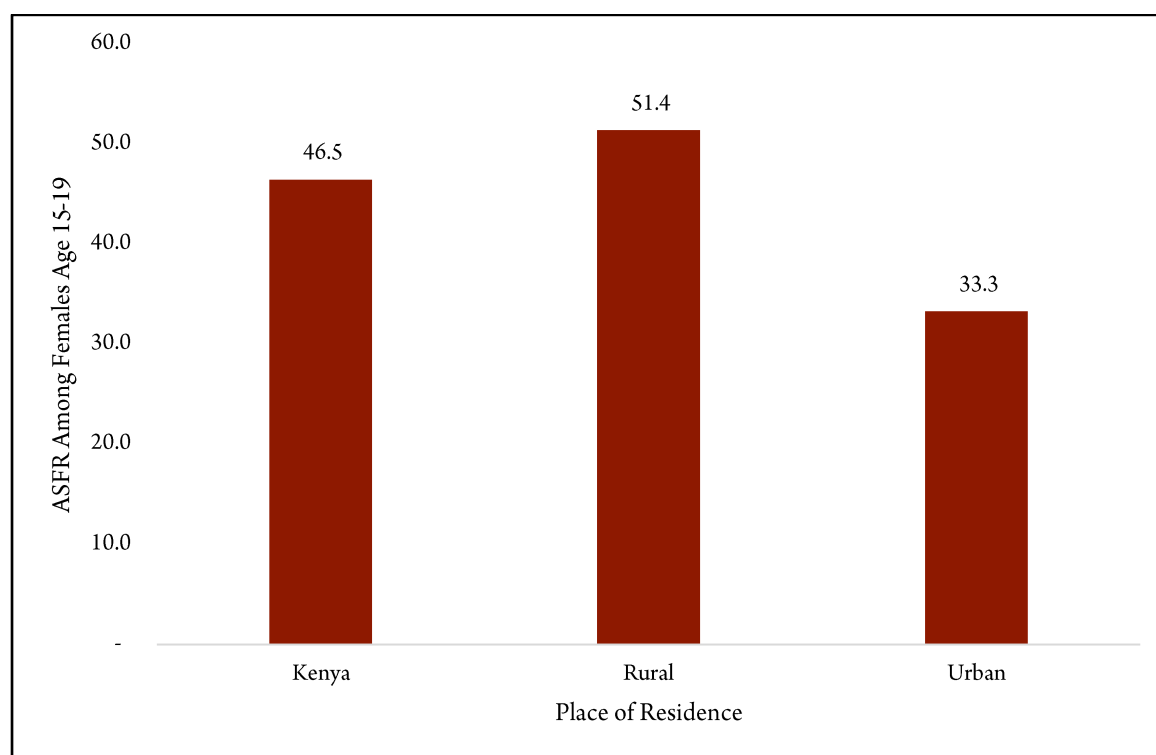


Figure 2.3(b): Age-Specific Fertility Rates among Females age 15-19 by Place of Residence, 2019

Figure 2.4 illustrates the distribution of ASFR among females 15-19 by county. Counties with the highest teenage births (59 and above per 1,000 teenagers) are; Narok, Migori, Tana River, West Pokot, Samburu, Homabay, Kwale, Mandera and Kisii.

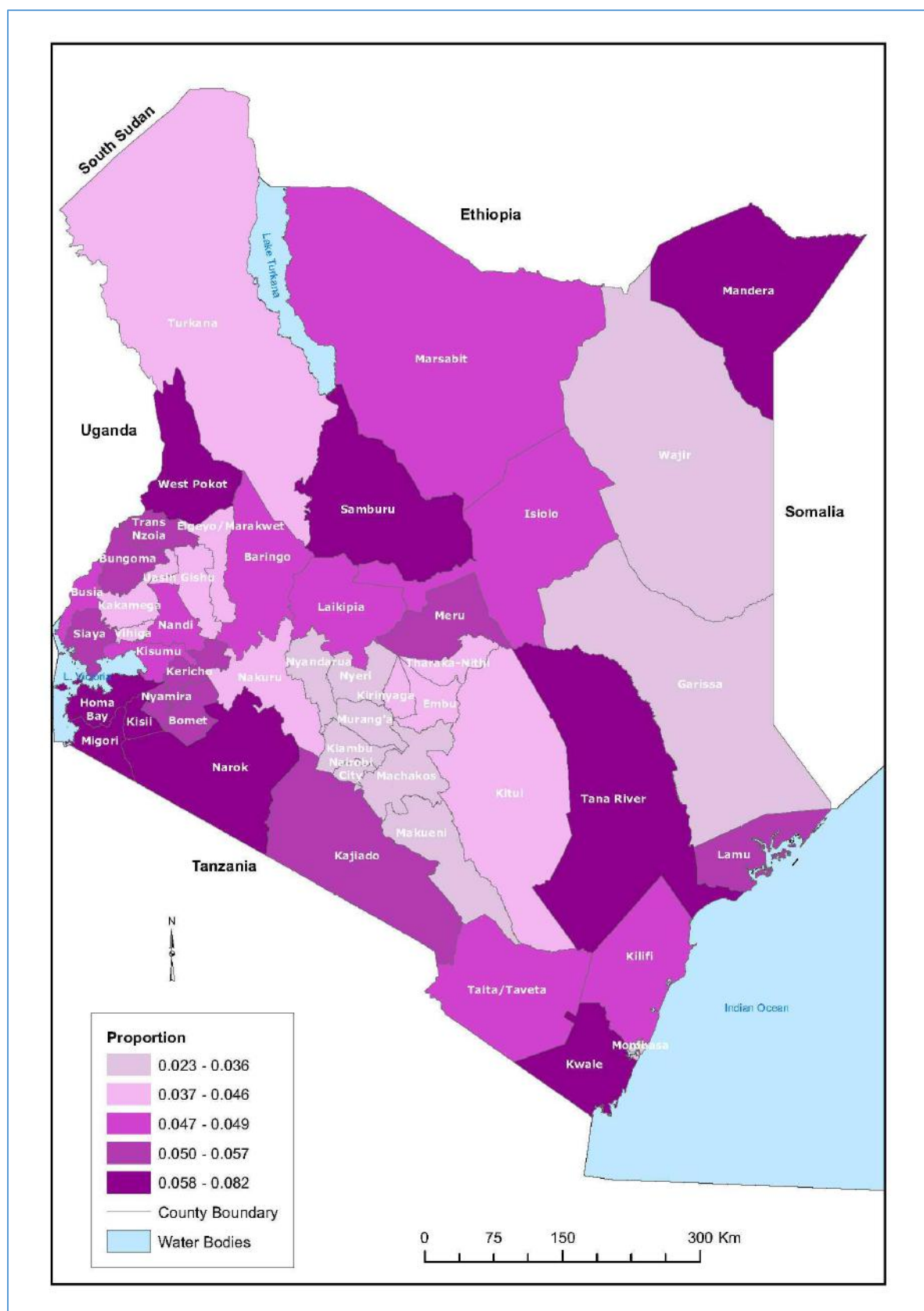


Figure 2.4: Age-Specific Fertility Rates among Females Age 15-19, 2019

2.5.1 Age-Specific Fertility Rates by Education Attainment

Education is critical in the reduction of adolescent pregnancy. Studies have shown that teenage girls with low educational attainment are more likely to become mothers than those with higher educational attainment. Moreover, early and unintended pregnancy risks girls dropping out of school and can cause stigmatization by their families. This in turn can make them vulnerable to violence, leading to greater poverty, maternal deaths and health complications.

Figure 2.5 presents age-specific fertility rates by education attainment. Childbearing among females begins early, between 12-19 years. Although teenage childbearing is still high among all women with various levels of education attainment, about 8 in every 1000 teenagers with no education have started childbearing. The results further show that the ASFRs decline with the increase in the level of education attained. Education is thus critical in preventing adolescent pregnancy.

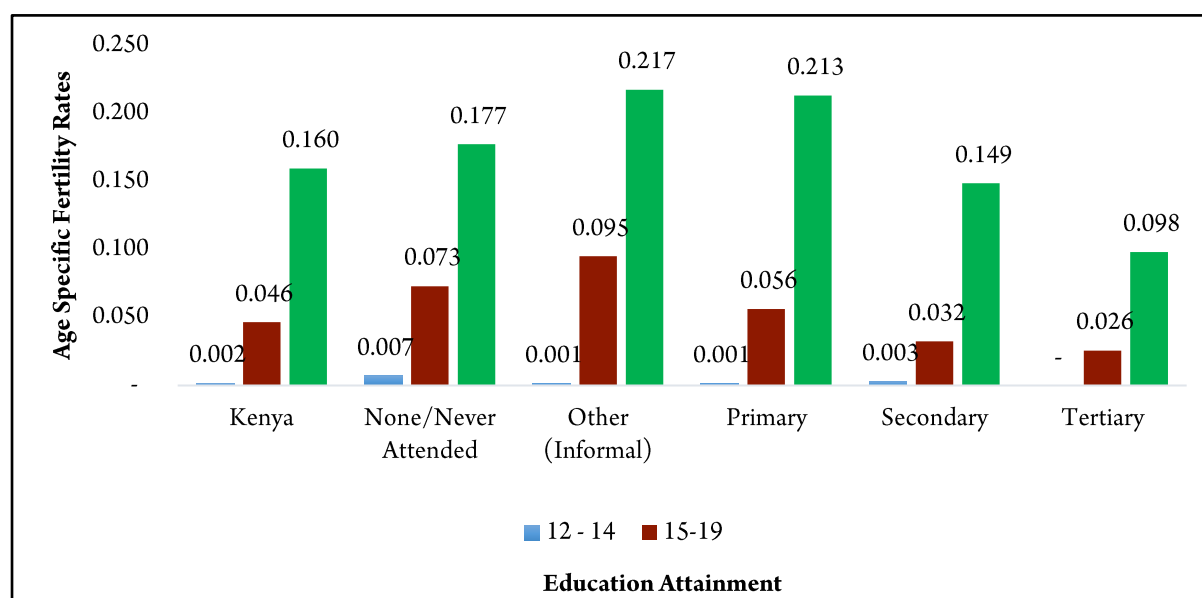


Figure 2.5: Age-Specific Fertility Rates by Education Attainment, 2019

2.5.2 Total Fertility Rate

The conventional Total Fertility Rate (TFR) is usually defined as the number of children a woman would have over her childbearing years if, at each age, she experienced the current ASFR. Figure 2.6 presents the total fertility rate among youthful women age 12-24 by place of residence. The reported cumulative fertility among females age 12-24 in Kenya is about one child. The total fertility rate is higher among females in rural areas, about 1.2 births, compared with 0.8 births in urban areas.



Figure 2.6: Total Fertility Rate among Women Age 12-24 by Place of Residence, 2019

The distribution of TFR among youthful women age 12-24 by county is presented in Figure 2.7. Counties with the highest TFR (1.2 and above) among youthful females are; Narok, West Pokot, Samburu, Tana River, Migori, Kwale, Homabay, Siaya and Laikipia.

2.5.3 Total Fertility Rate by Education Attainment

Education plays a critical role in addressing fertility among the youthful population. Figure 2.8 presents the total fertility rate among women age 12-24 by education attainment. Females with no education, informal or primary education had higher fertility compared to those who have attained secondary or tertiary levels of education.

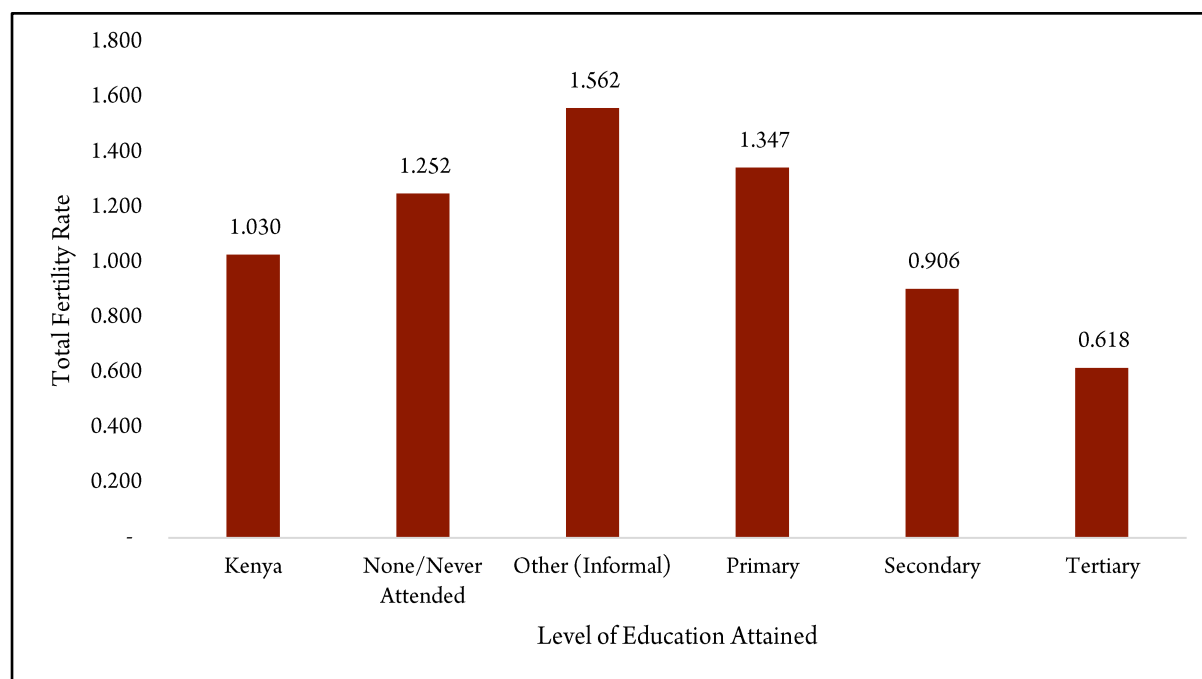


Figure 2.8: Total Fertility Rate among Women 12-24 by Education Attainment, 2019

2.6 Proportion of Living Children

Number of living children can influence fertility decisions of couples, depending on whether the existing children are boys or girls. This means, if couples do not attain the desired sex composition, they will continue giving birth until their desired composition is met. This means that the children born to the couple may end up being more than can be provided for. High fertility is a threat to maternal and child health. It also has tremendous implications on women's development and empowerment.

Figure 2.9 presents information on the proportion of living children by age of a woman. Generally, the proportion of living children declines with the age of the mother. In regard to place of residence, proportion of living children among women in rural declines faster than those in urban areas.

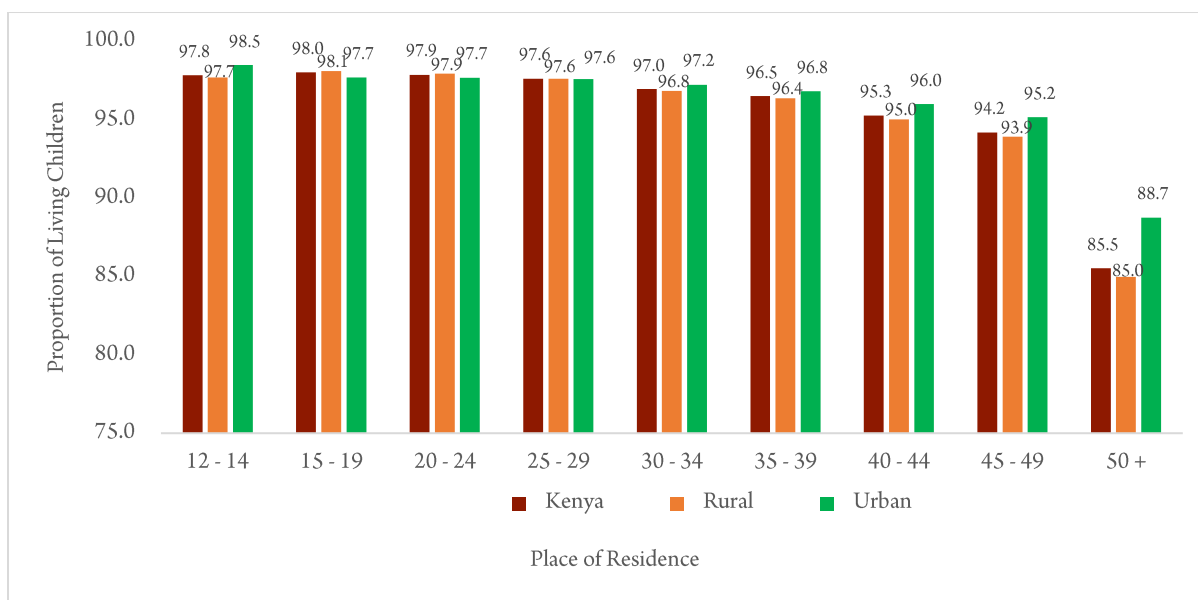
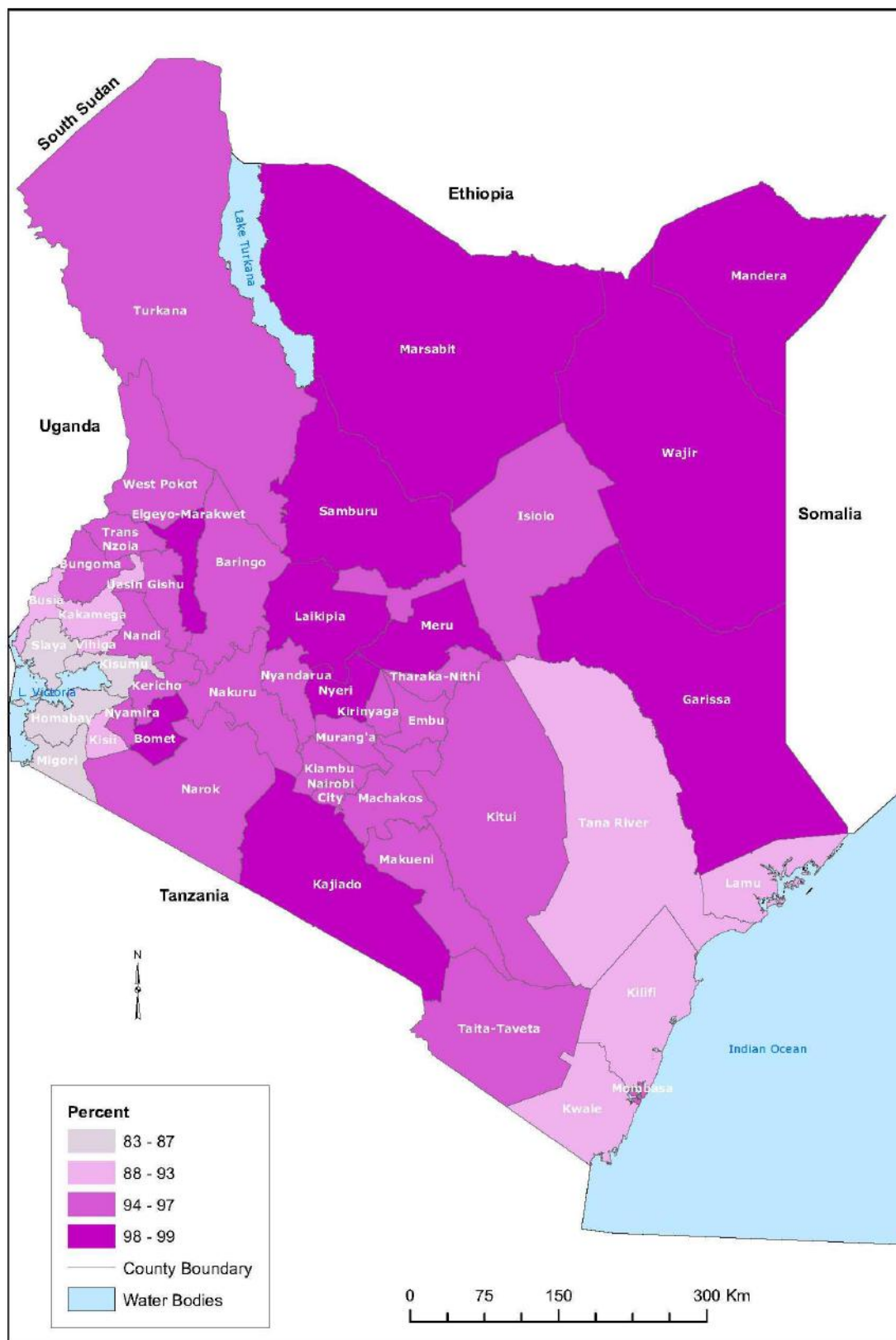


Figure 2.9: Proportion of living children by Age of Woman, 2019

Figure 2.10 presents the proportion of living children among women age 45 – 49 and county. Counties with the highest proportion of living children are Wajir, Marsabit, Mandera, Samburu and Garissa. However, the proportion of living children in these counties could be due to underreporting of deaths by the respondents.



2.7 Childlessness

Childlessness refers to infertility in a population of women of reproductive age, as opposed to infecundity, the biological incapability of conceiving. Children are believed to cement bonds that hold a husband and wife together. In most societies, women are blamed for childlessness irrespective of which partner is actually clinically infertile. Childless women experience physical, mental and emotional abuse from husbands and their relatives, especially, during the later years in life. In many cases, they are socially excluded from important family events, are threatened with divorce and in many cases, their husbands end up marrying another wife. Over the past few decades, the prevalence of childlessness worldwide has been generally on the increase (United Nations, 2015).

Figure 2.11 presents the proportion of childlessness among ageing women (age 30-49). Generally, childlessness declines with the age of a woman. In terms of the urban/ rural, the proportion of childlessness is higher in urban compared to rural areas. At age 45-49, about 4 per cent of the women remain childless.

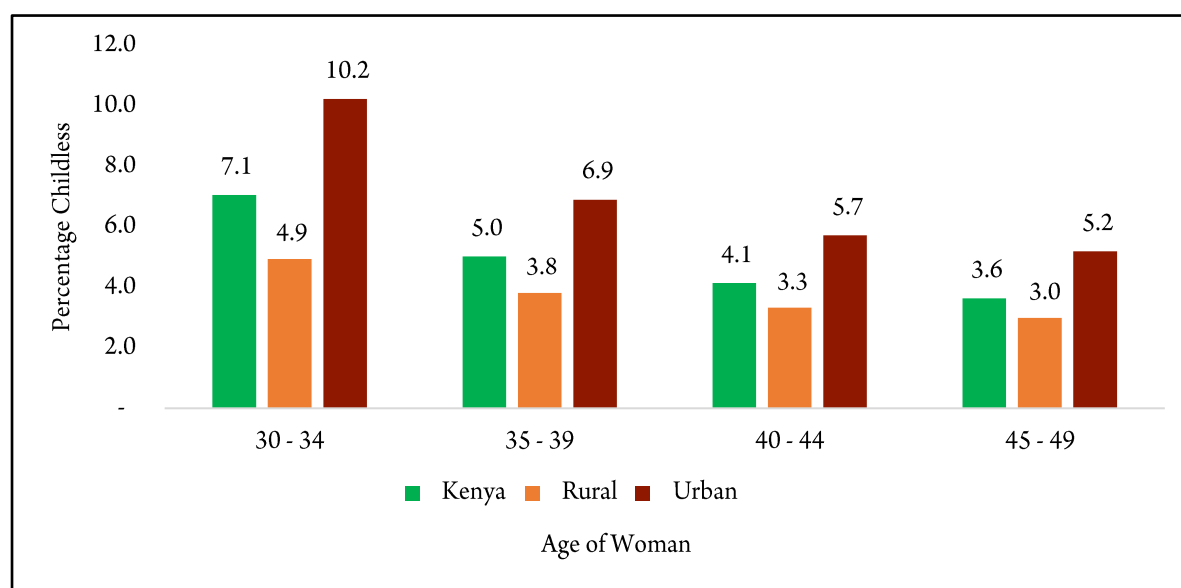


Figure 2.11: Percentage of Childless Women by Age and Place of Residence, 2019

Childlessness among ageing women, 30-49 years by marital status is presented in Figure 2.12. About one fifth (19 per cent) of childless unmarried women end up not marrying at age 45-49. The proportion of childlessness among married, divorced/ separated and widowed remain stable between ages 30-49.

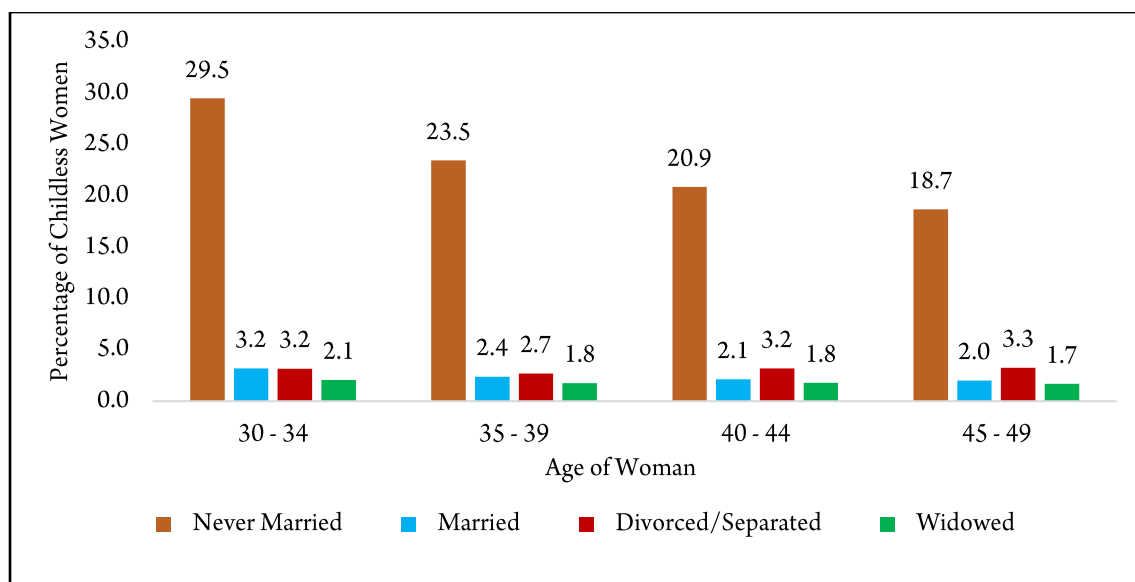


Figure 2.12: Childlessness among Women by Age and Marital Status, 2019

2.8 Conclusion and Recommendations

2.8.1 Conclusion

- i. The results show that early childbearing is still prevalent in Kenya. The phenomenon is higher among girls from rural than urban areas. Counties with the highest level of early childbearing, 111.7 births and above per 1,000 women are; Mandera, Samburu, Migori, Narok, West Pokot, Tana River, Wajir, Turkana and Homabay.
- ii. When cumulative fertility by age 24 is used as an indicator of early childbearing (Total Fertility Rate by age 24), the results show that the fertility rate is higher among females in rural areas compared to those in urban areas. Counties with the highest early childbearing (TFR 1.2 and above) are; Narok, West Pokot, Samburu, Tana River, Migori, Kwale, Homa Bay, Siaya and Laikipia.
- iii. Childlessness declines with the age of a woman. The proportion of childlessness is higher in urban compared to rural areas. At age 45-49, about 4 per cent of the women remain childless. In regard to marital status, about one fifth (19 per cent) of childless unmarried women end up not marrying at age 45-49. The proportion of childlessness among married, divorced/separated and widowed remain stable between ages 30-49 years.

2.8.2 Recommendations

To achieve women empowerment, improve their well-being and reduce poverty, there is need to:

- i. Substantially reduce the occurrence of early childbearing and high fertility observed in rural areas especially in the northern parts of Kenya.
- ii. Put in place programmes on sexual and reproductive health targeting both girls and boys in rural areas and counties with high teenage fertility which may lead teenage females to prematurely drop out of school.

- iii. Initiate program spearheaded by parents, teachers, community, religious and government leaders to promote among youth the general understanding about their reproductive well-being including risks associated with adolescent fertility.
- iv. Enforce the current government policy on “Return to School” amongst teenage girls who may become pregnant while in school.

Chapter 3: Mortality

3.1 Introduction

One of the targets in Kenya's population policy is to reduce both fertility and mortality rates (Sessional Paper No. 3 of 2012, NCPD). For mortality reduction programs, it is important to know what sections of the population are at risk or exposed to higher mortality rates. Broadly, mortality is age and sex-selective, and its measurement is determined at various ages at deaths. These measures are childhood mortality, adult mortality (including maternal) and summarized life tables.

In Kenya, childhood and to some extent adult mortality, has generally been, on the decline as shown in the 2014 KDHS. This is observed from the continuous drop in Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) and a rise in life expectancy for both men and women. However, how these rates vary between the sexes needs to be compared by age and with various geographical domains for the formulation of effective health and population policies.

This chapter presents, a brief on the gender dimension on mortality and where possible estimates are provided at rural-urban and county levels.

3.2 Relevance of Gender Dimensions in Mortality

Mortality can be analyzed in terms of levels, differentials and trends. This report focuses more on differentials especially by sex, age and place of residence. Differentials are valuable for identifying relevant target groups for population programmes and for understanding the socio-economic and cultural factors driving mortality levels. A better gender analysis of sex-disaggregated mortality indicators would be computed if the information on causes of death it is known. In Kenya, the vital statistics that can be used for such analysis are incomplete and their quality remains uncertain.

Early childhood deaths may be a result of the health status of the mother during maternity, environmental and health factors during pregnancy, birth and after childbirth or the birth itself. This has a bearing on the survival status of the mother as well as the child, further compounded by its sex. It is known that at birth more boys are born than girls with sex ratios of over 100 (Moultrie TA, 2013; Moultrie TA, 2013). Generally, the sex ratio at birth is about 103 for most African Countries, depicting more male than female births. However, childhood deaths are higher for boys than girls, thus favouring higher females' survival chances during childhood. This is due to biological and genetic factors that may not be controlled. The female advantage in survival status is more pronounced at older ages.

The male over-mortality from violent causes, particularly homicides, has also been a major issue in some developing countries such as Brazil. There is a moderately strong positive relationship between the level of the overall homicide rate in a country and the percentage of victims that are male¹. In countries where data is available, there is evidence that most of the perpetrators of homicides are males². In sub-Saharan Africa including Kenya, little literature is available on the study of violent deaths.

¹ UNFPA 2014

² Ibid

There tend to be significant gaps of attempted and completed suicide between males and females are worth a study. The gap also called the gender paradox of suicidal behaviour, vary significantly between different countries and societies. In their study, Canetto concluded that the gender paradox of suicidal behaviour is a real phenomenon and mortality from suicide is typically lower for females than for males (Canetto S. S. et al. 2010).

3.3 Data Issues

The 2019 KPHC had a set of questions that captured information on deaths at individual and household levels. Some of the questions were on children ever born (CEB) and children dead (CD), orphanhood and household deaths 12 months prior to the census. There were subsequent questions on household deaths that elicited causes of deaths. These questions provide a basis for further analysis to determine differentials in mortality by gender. The core indicators discussed in this chapter are infant mortality rate (IMR), life expectancy, probabilities of dying between ages 60 and 80; male-female differentials on external causes of deaths (homicide, suicide, accidents) and differentials on death registration among boys and girls before attaining age one.

Aspects of under-reporting of deaths were noted in the data and particularly information on maternal deaths. Estimates on MMR required further adjustments.

3.4 Infant Mortality Rate (IMR)

Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is a health indicator that is universally used as a measure of the health status and the socio-economic development of a population. SDG 3.2 aims at reducing preventable deaths of children under five years of age to about 25 per 1,000 live births (UNSD, 2017). Commitment number 2 of Kenya Country's 17 Commitments to the ICPD25+ Action Plan is to eliminate preventable maternal and newborn morbidity and mortality. It is the Government's priority to improve the health and nutritional status of its people through various programmes and health initiatives to meet these targets. To measure the success of these initiatives, the levels, patterns, and distribution of IMR are important. More so, understanding which sections of the childhood populations are at a higher risk of childhood deaths is valuable in helping make targeted interventions and reduce gender disparities as these cohorts move to adult ages. Sex differentials in infant mortality vary widely across populations. Newborn girls are biologically advantaged in surviving to their first birthday. Sex differentials in infant mortality typically arise from genetic factors that result in higher male infant mortality rates (Pongou, 2013).

Table 3.1 presents IMR by sex and county. Nationally, the male infant mortality rate is slightly higher than female by 19 percentage points. Thus, male children are more likely than female to die during their first year of life (39 deaths versus 32 deaths per 1,000 live births)

Table 3.1 Infant Mortality Rates (per 1,000 live births) by Sex and County, 2019

COUNTY/RURAL/URBAN	IMR (Male)	IMR (Female)
Kenya	38.5	32.4
Rural	37.9	33.5
Urban	37.6	34.0
Mombasa	36.3	24.7
Kwale	42.2	29.1
Kilifi	47.1	32.8
Tana River	59.1	35.8
Lamu	48.1	26.8
Taita Taveta	30.8	21.7
Garissa	52.3	31.9
Wajir	57.1	26.6
Mandera	52.2	30.4
Marsabit	31.1	21.6
Isiolo	41.0	29.2
Meru	39.4	27.5
Tharaka-Nithi	21.7	15.2
Embu	30.5	22.1
Kitui	29.6	20.1
Machakos	34.1	22.9
Makueni	36.3	25.5
Nyandarua	36.3	23.9
Nyeri	31.0	27.0
Kirinyaga	26.1	22.1
Murang'a	39.3	22.0
Kiambu	21.8	16.9
Turkana	44.7	34.9
West Pokot	47.9	28.1
Samburu	25.3	22.9
Trans Nzoia	35.4	27.9
Uasin Gishu	29.1	20.3
Elgeyo Marakwet	39.9	25.5
Nandi	30.2	22.6
Baringo	32.7	20.1
Laikipia	20.3	14.3
Nakuru	36.9	28.6
Narok	48.0	26.5
Kajiado	35.5	23.4
Kericho	37.8	24.4
Bomet	42.9	23.4
Kakamega	42.9	31.7
Vihiga	45.9	44.9
Bungoma	35.0	26.0
Busia	46.5	35.2
Siaya	47.8	35.8
Kisumu	43.9	34.3
Homa Bay	65.3	49.6
Migori	78.6	55.8
Kisii	30.2	21.5
Nyamira	30.3	23.9
Nairobi City	40.5	31.0

3.5 Differentials in IMR

Nationally, the IMR for male is 38.5 deaths per 1000 live births, while the IMR for female is 32.4 deaths per 1,000 live births. In urban and rural areas, there are far more male-child deaths than female-child deaths per 1,000 live births.

At the county level, the gender gap in IMR is highest in Wajir with 30 more male child deaths per 1,000 live births and the least is Vihiga with a difference of one more male death per 1,000 live births. Other counties with higher parities are Tana River, Migori, Mandera, Narok, Lamu, Garissa, West Pokot and Bomet; all with differences of 20 or more male deaths.

3.6 Trends in IMR

Figure 3.1 shows that the IMR by males and females over time, from 1989 – 2019. The gap between males and females has continued to narrow with the highest gap occurring in 2009 (12.0) and lowest in 2019 (6.1).

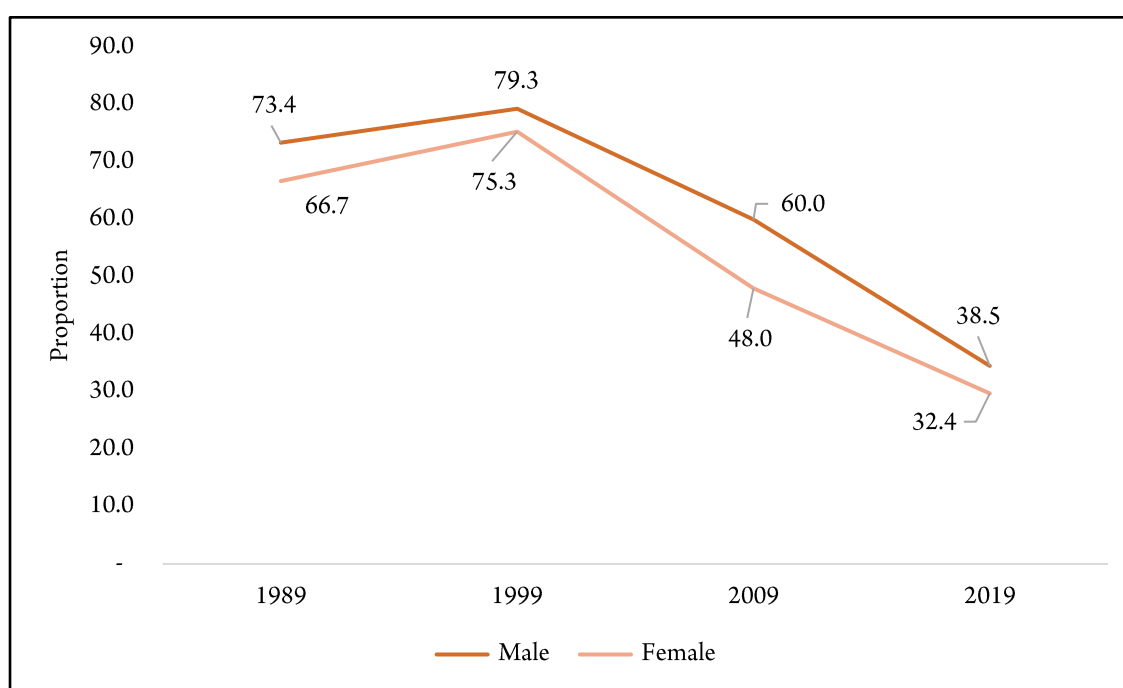


Figure 3.1: Trends in IMR by Sex and Census, 1989-2019

3.7 Maternal Mortality

There are three indicators for measuring maternal mortality, the Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR), Maternal Mortality rate (MMRate) and the Lifetime Risk of Maternal deaths (LTR). MMR is the most commonly used indicator. MMR is one of the SDG indicators relevant to gender statistics. Elimination of preventable maternal deaths is one of Kenya's commitments under the ICPD25 Action Plan. Provision of obstetric care from a health professional during delivery and a continuum of care during pregnancy, labour and delivery, and the postnatal period results in reduced maternal morbidity and mortality (KDHS, 2014). All the key maternal care requirements: receiving ANC services and making the minimum number of Ante Natal Care visits, delivery in a health facility, assistance by the skilled health provider and making post-natal

care checkups were observed and well above 50 per cent, by a majority of women age 15-49 and this would imply low levels of maternal mortality.

The 2014 KDHS shows that 39 per cent of women make their own decisions on health care compared to 51 per cent of men; 21 per cent of health care decisions of wives are made by husbands compared to only 6 per cent by wives. Thus, literature from the 2014 KDHS shows that health-seeking behaviour may not be a factor in maternal mortality, while decision making on health care has some gender disparities. The report shows that sixty-two per cent of births were assisted at delivery by a skilled birth attendant.

The findings of the levels and distribution of maternal mortality rates are available in the 2019 Analytical report on mortality. However, adjusted MMRs were estimated and nationally, an MMR of 355 per 100,000 live births was obtained.

3.8 Life Expectancy at Birth, Ages 20 and 60

Life expectancy varies by age and sex. Factors associated with survival of an individual are determined by age and the prevailing social-economic, demographic and cultural factors.

3.9 Life Expectancy at Birth

The Life Expectancies (LE) were extracted from individual life tables disaggregated by sex, county and rural-urban residence. A life table summarizes the mortality experience in a population cohort from birth to the death of the last member. The Male-Female gap life expectancy at birth is presented in Table 3.2.

At the national level, in rural and urban areas of residence, the gender gap in life expectancy at birth is approximately six years; meaning women live longer than men by about six years. By extension, this may infer that there are more women at older ages than men, especially after age 60.

Table 3.2: Life Expectancy at Birth by Sex and County, 2019

COUNTY/RURAL/URBAN	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Birth (Male)-(Years)	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Birth (Female)- (Years)	Female- Male Gap
Kenya	60.6	66.5	5.9
Rural	60.3	66.2	5.9
Urban	63.0	68.6	5.6
Mombasa	65.7	71.1	5.4
Kwale	58.2	60.7	2.5
Kilifi	57.8	59.2	1.4
Tana River	56.2	58.6	2.4
Lamu	64.1	68.9	4.8
Taita Taveta	61.2	69.2	7.9
Garissa	57.4	60.5	3.1
Wajir	56.7	62.0	5.3
Mandera	57.3	60.5	3.2
Marsabit	57.9	62.6	4.6
Isiolo	60.1	59.6	-0.5
Meru	62.2	68.2	6.1
Tharaka-Nithi	63.8	70.3	6.6
Embu	58.7	70.1	11.4
Kitui	55.7	68.8	13.1
Machakos	57.9	63.9	6.0
Makueni	58.1	62.4	4.3
Nyandarua	58.0	63.2	5.2
Nyeri	66.4	75.8	9.4
Kirinyaga	59.9	71.1	11.2
Murang'a	58.1	64.7	6.6
Kiambu	60.8	72.8	12.0
Turkana	55.9	60.0	4.1
West Pokot	57.6	61.1	3.5
Samburu	58.5	67.4	8.9
Trans Nzoia	64.4	67.9	3.6
Uasin Gishu	63.6	71.7	8.1
Elgeyo Marakwet	57.9	62.5	4.6
Nandi	60.0	70.4	10.4
Baringo	65.4	68.9	3.5
Laikipia	59.2	71.9	12.7
Nakuru	58.3	69.1	10.8
Narok	57.8	61.9	4.1
Kajiado	57.8	63.5	5.7
Kericho	58.1	62.9	4.8
Bomet	58.1	63.6	5.5
Kakamega	63.4	66.1	2.8
Vihiga	59.8	62.1	2.3
Bungoma	65.5	68.2	2.7
Busia	62.3	66.2	3.9
Siaya	53.4	61.6	8.2
Kisumu	54.0	63.1	9.2
Homa Bay	50.5	60.2	9.7
Migori	50.5	60.6	10.1
Kisii	56.1	66.9	10.8
Nyamira	55.3	66.2	10.9
Nairobi City	62.6	65.2	2.6

The highest age gap in life expectancy at birth was recorded in Kitui County (13 years, followed by Laikipia (12.7) and Kiambu (12). Other counties with huge disparities include Embu,

Kirinyaga, Nyamira, Nakuru, Kisii, Nandi and Migori. This gender gap exceeds levels recorded in most developed countries where such ranges between 4 to 7 years. Kilifi County and Isiolo County have the least gender gap in life expectancy at birth. Figure 3.2 shows a graphical representation of these differentials.

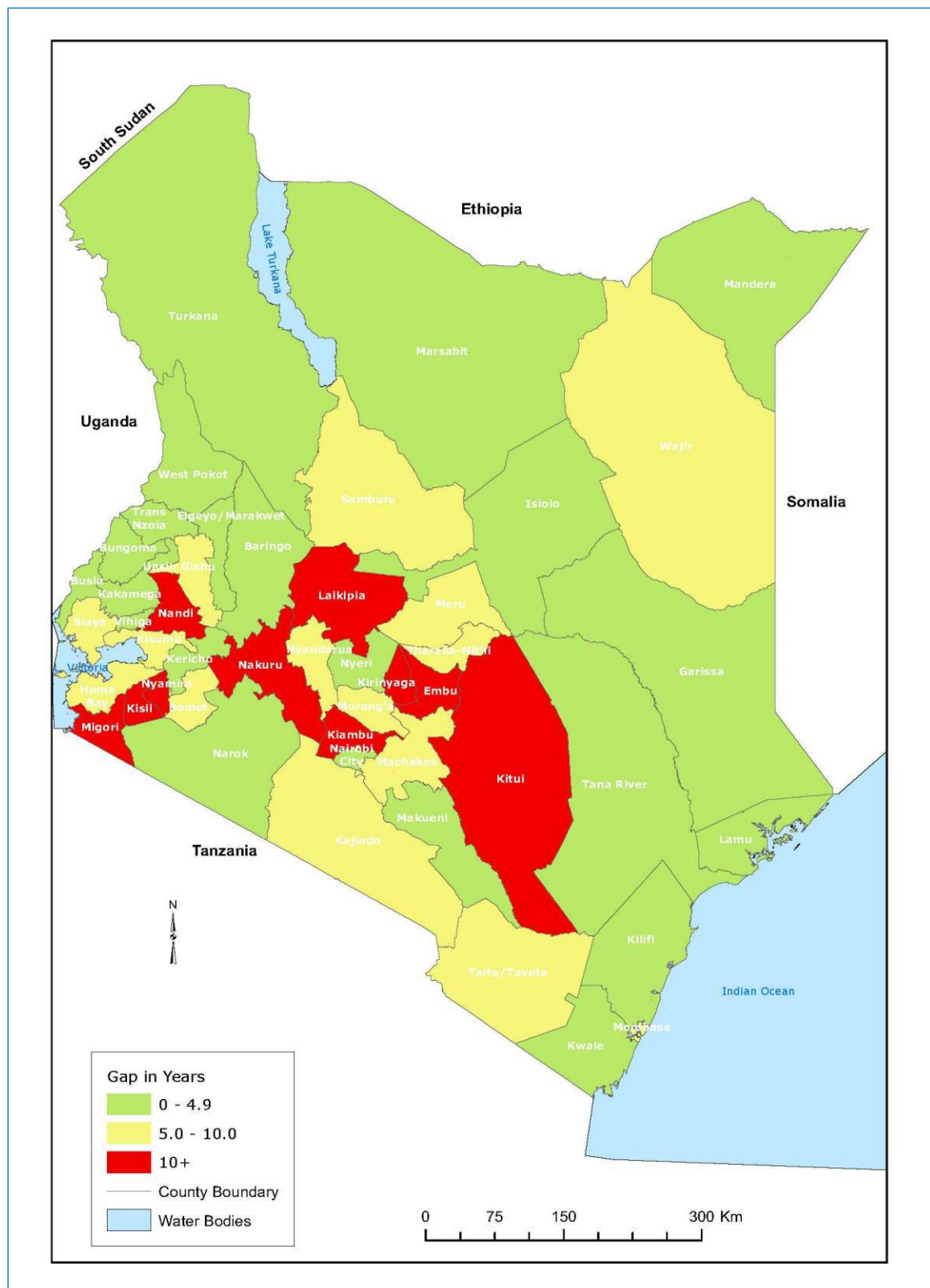


Figure 3.2: Female-Male Gap in Life Expectancy at Birth by County, 2019

3.10 Trends in Life Expectancy at Birth

Figure 3.3 shows trends in life expectancy at birth based on the last five waves of censuses conducted in Kenya. There has been a general increase in LE at birth for both men and women since 1979. Overall, there has been a gender gap in LE at birth in favour of women. This phenomenon is historical across populations of the world citation. LE at birth has increased from 53 years among men and 55 years among women to 60 years among men and 66 years among women over the last four decades. According to the 2019 Census, women live six more years than men and this can be attributed to biological factors as well as men's lifestyles. Thus men at older ages are at risk of dying earlier than women and this may also affect women remaining widowed.

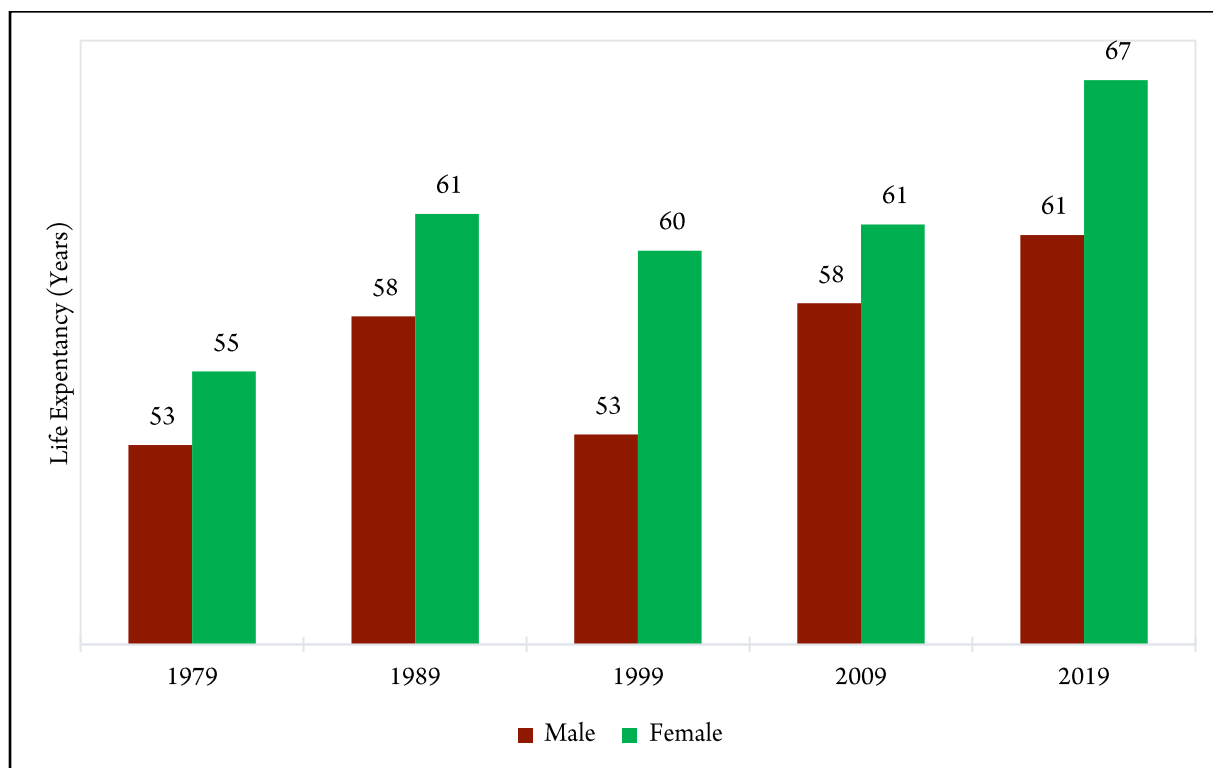


Figure 3.3: Trends in Life Expectancy at Birth, 1979-2019

3.11 Life Expectancy at Age 20 (Years)

The female survival advantage over men is still observed in early adulthood with a gap of about six years as shown in Table 3.3. At the county level, life expectancy at age 20 years takes a similar pattern as was witnessed for expectancy at birth.

Table 3.3: Life Expectancy at Age 20

COUNTY/RURAL/URBAN	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Age 20 (Male)-(Years)	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Age 20 (Female)- (Years)	Female- Male Gap
Kenya	45.1	51.1	6.0
Rural	44.6	50.9	6.3
Urban	47.2	52.9	5.7
Mombasa	51.0	55.3	4.3
Kwale	42.9	45.5	2.6
Kilifi	43.0	44.6	1.6
Tana River	42.5	44.4	1.9
Lamu	50.9	53.3	2.4
Taita Taveta	45.9	52.9	7.0
Garissa	43.1	45.6	2.5
Wajir	42.8	46.4	3.6
Mandera	43.0	45.5	2.5
Marsabit	42.6	46.4	3.8
Isiolo	45.9	44.4	-1.5
Meru	47.8	52.8	5.0
Tharaka-Nithi	47.3	53.1	5.8
Embu	43.3	53.9	10.6
Kitui	40.3	52.3	12.0
Machakos	41.9	47.7	5.9
Makueni	42.2	46.6	4.4
Nyandarua	42.2	47.2	5.0
Nyeri	49.9	59.6	9.7
Kirinyaga	44.0	54.8	10.8
Murang'a	42.6	48.3	5.7
Kiambu	44.4	55.8	11.4
Turkana	42.1	45.6	3.4
West Pokot	42.9	45.8	2.9
Samburu	42.6	51.3	8.7
Trans Nzoia	49.6	52.5	3.0
Uasin Gishu	48.0	55.2	7.2
Elgeyo Marakwet	42.4	46.7	4.3
Nandi	44.6	54.3	9.7
Baringo	50.3	52.4	2.1
Laikipia	42.6	54.5	11.9
Nakuru	43.6	53.8	10.2
Narok	43.0	46.3	3.3
Kajiado	41.9	47.4	5.5
Kericho	42.4	47.0	4.6
Bomet	42.9	47.5	4.6
Kakamega	49.5	51.3	1.8
Vihiga	46.2	49.0	2.8
Bungoma	50.6	52.6	2.0
Busia	48.8	51.8	3.0
Siaya	39.9	47.2	7.3
Kisumu	40.1	48.6	8.5
Homa Bay	38.7	47.6	8.9
Migori	40.1	48.9	8.8
Kisii	40.7	50.6	9.9
Nyamira	48.4	59.3	10.9
Nairobi	48.4	50.2	1.8

However, where life expectancy at age 20 for females is higher than that of males, this may signify issues with data quality; such as reporting of deaths in early adulthood rather than female advantage in survival status of young adults. The male disadvantage at this age may be attributed to the adventurous and risky lifestyle for boys during their youthful years.

3.12 Life Expectancy at Age 60 (in Years)

Life expectancy at age 60 is an estimate of the additional number of years to be lived by a woman or man who has survived to age 60, based on current age-specific mortality rates. The indicator, when disaggregated by sex, indicates sex differences in survival into older ages.

Table 3.4 presents life expectancy at age 60. Overall, women live longer than men by about two and a half years. There are minimal differences by residence. Women from urban areas and those from rural areas live longer than men from the same residence by about 3.2 years and 3.1 years respectively. Kiambu and Laikipia counties have the highest age gap in life expectancy at age 60 estimated at five years.

Table 3.4: Life Expectancy at Age 60 (in Years) by Sex and County, 2019

COUNTY/RURAL/URBAN	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Age 60 (Male)-(Years)	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Age 60 (Female)-(Years)	Female- Male Gap
Kenya	15.4	17.9	2.5
Rural	14.5	17.7	3.2
Urban	15.3	18.4	3.1
Mombasa	17.7	20	2.3
Kwale	14.0	16.2	2.2
Kilifi	14.1	15.9	1.8
Tana River	14.0	15.9	1.9
Lamu	17.7	18.9	1.2
Taita Taveta	15.7	18.7	3.0
Garissa	14.1	16.2	2.1
Wajir	14.1	16.4	2.3
Mandera	14.1	16.2	2.1
Marsabit	14.7	16	1.3
Isiolo	15.7	15.4	-0.3
Meru	16.4	18.7	2.3
Tharaka-Nithi	16.2	18.8	2.6
Embu	14.9	19.2	4.3
Kitui	14.0	18.4	4.4
Machakos	13.7	16.8	3.1
Makueni	13.8	16.5	2.7
Nyandarua	13.8	16.7	2.9
Nyeri	16.3	22.2	0.0
Kirinyaga	15.1	19.7	4.6
Murang'a	13.9	17.0	3.1
Kiambu	15.2	20.2	5.0
Turkana	14.5	15.7	1.2
West Pokot	14.1	16.3	2.2
Samburu	14.6	18.0	3.3
Trans Nzoia	17.1	18.5	1.5
Uasin Gishu	16.5	19.9	3.4
Elgeyo Marakwet	13.9	16.5	2.6
Nandi	15.3	19.4	4.1
Baringo	17.4	18.5	1.1
Laikipia	14.7	19.5	4.8
Nakuru	15	19.2	4.2
Narok	14.1	16.4	2.3
Kajiado	13.7	16.7	3.0
Kericho	13.9	16.6	2.7
Bomet	14	16.8	2.8
Kakamega	17.1	18.0	0.9
Vihiga	15.8	17	1.2
Bungoma	17.6	18.6	1.0
Busia	16.8	18.2	1.4
Siaya	13.9	16.2	2.3
Kisumu	14	16.8	2.8
Homa Bay	13.7	16.5	2.8
Migori	14	17	3.0
Kisii	14.2	17.7	3.5
Nyamira	14	17.5	3.5
Nairobi	16.6	17.5	0.90

These results point to the importance of providing social security health insurance covers to the increasing population of older persons.

Health insurance cover, for instance, is important for illness management and access to quality health care, and in managing costs associated with treatment, and health care. Data from 2014 KDHS, shows that 79 per cent of women and 82 per cent of men age 15-49 do not have health insurance cover. Figure 3.4 shows a widening gap between men and women having any form of insurance by age and sex. From age 38 and above, more men than women, have access to health insurance and are thus likely to get better health-care services than women.

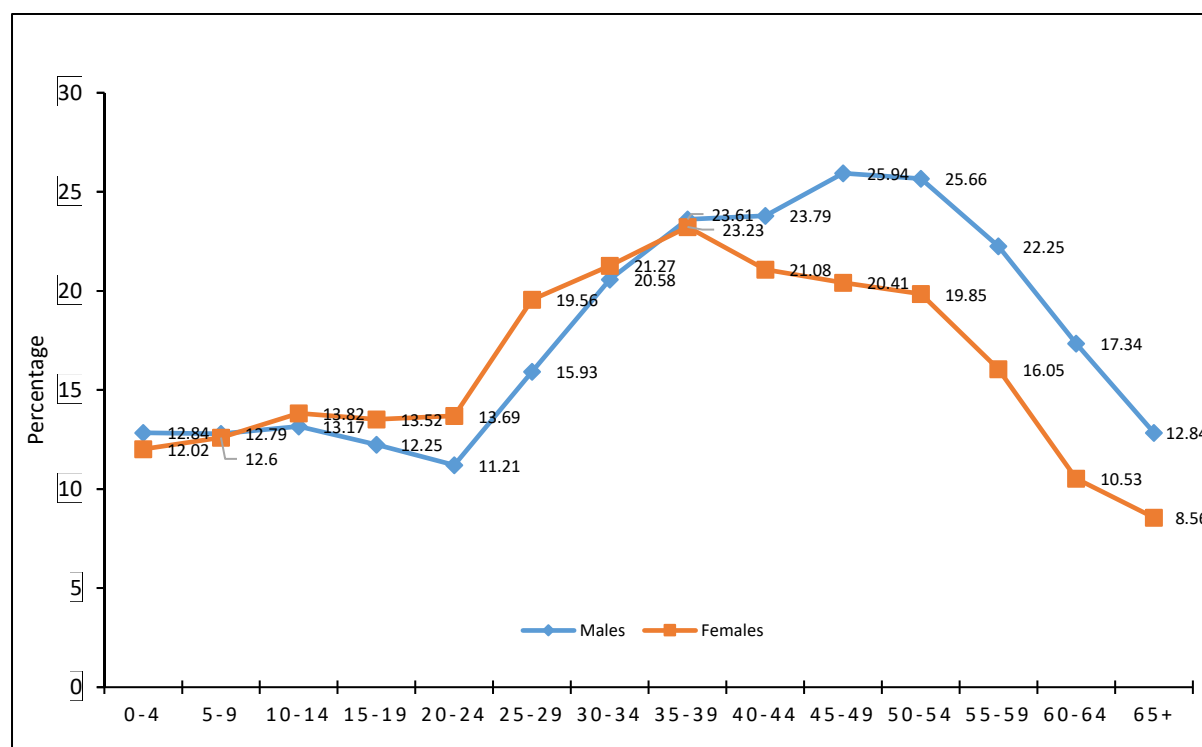


Figure 3.4: Per cent Distribution of Population having any Health Insurance by Sex, 2014 KDHS

More specifically only 14 per cent of women and 18 per cent of men are covered by the National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF). Figure 3.5 shows that for those age 30 and above more men compared to women are covered by NHIF. This insurance advantage is likely to be carried onto older populations. For those with employer-based health insurance cover, men are twice the number of women covered.

Data on life expectancy at age 60 combined with data on coverage of health insurance points to possibilities of women at older ages being exposed to higher health care burdens than men. Since more men are covered by health insurance and yet die earlier than women, widows are likely to live without health insurance cover, which increases their risks of ill-health.

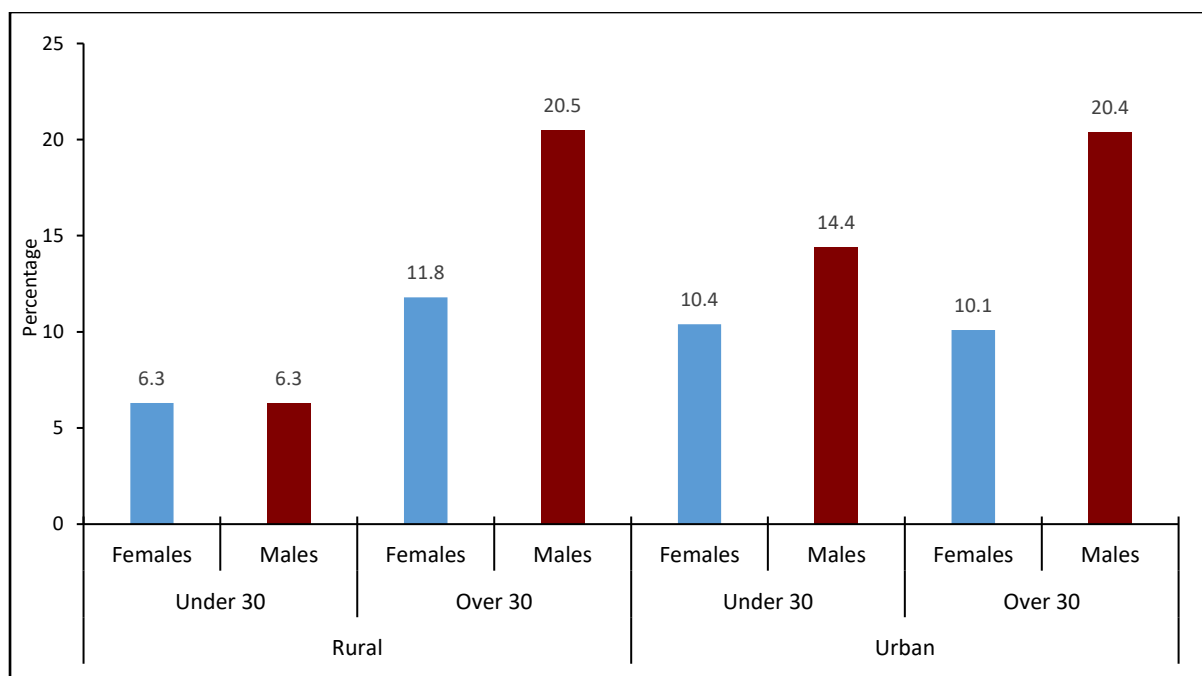


Figure 3.5: Percentage Distribution of Current use of NHIF by Age, Sex and Residence (2014 KDHS)

The National Social Security Fund (NSSF) is the major umbrella body in the country for both mandatory and voluntary contributions. In 2019, the number of NSSF registered members was 4.2 million out of whom women were 1.2 million (28.6%) and men 3.0 million (71.4%) (KNBS, 2020). This implies that at retirement, fewer women would benefit from social protection programmes compared to men. Further, the death of men due to their shorter life expectancy is likely to negatively affect the quality of life of their spouses, especially where spouses are not enrolled in a social security program.

3.13 Deaths due to External Causes

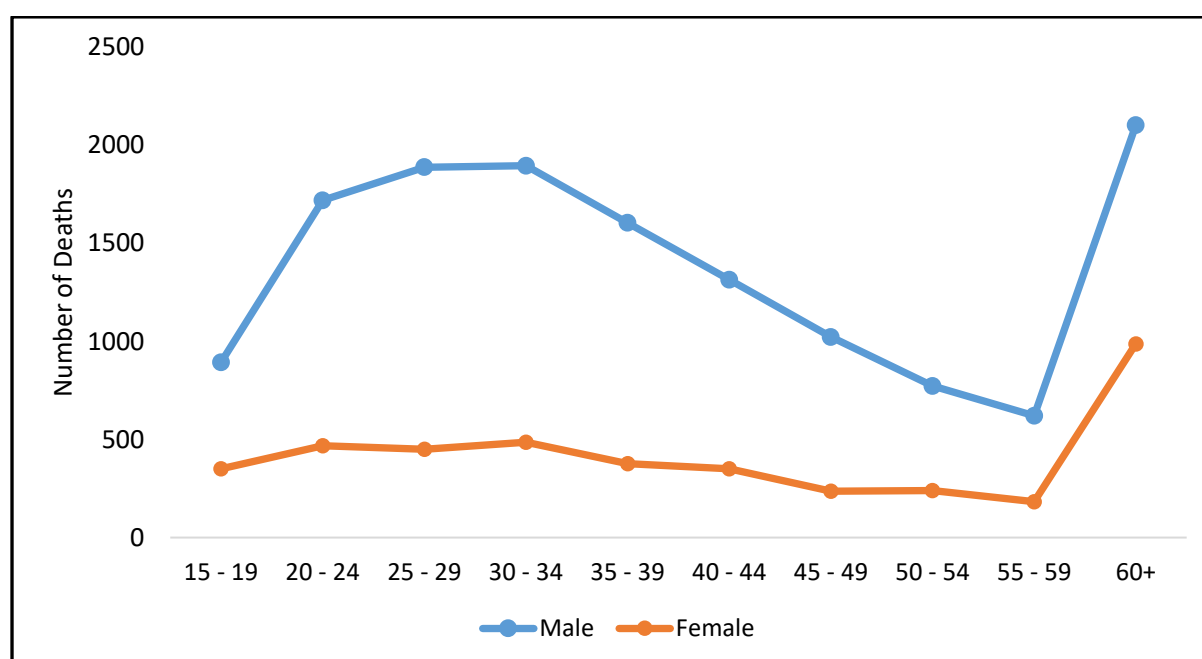
SDG Target 3.4 aims to reduce by one-third premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment and promote mental health and well-being by 2030. This target is measured largely through indicator 3.4.2 on suicide mortality rate. Due to the limitation of the Census data, a proxy measure of this indicator was applied. Data on cases of homicide, suicide and accidents was collectively used to determine gender deaths-gaps between men and women in this report.

Table 3.5 presents information on deaths due to external causes as reported in the 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census for the population age 15 and above. At the national level, there are four male deaths for every one female death, due to external causes. This shows a high propensity for men to die from external causes compared to women. The gender gap is highest among deaths occurring between ages 20 to 49. This can be attributed to men's lifestyles including dangerous driving, use of alcohol and other substances, and risky occupations men normally engage in. These findings may to some extent explain the lower male survivorship as computed in the life table as more males are likely to die from external causes at all ages of life and this deficit is often carried over in older years.

Table 3.5: Deaths due to External Causes by Selected Age Groups and Sex, 2019

Age Group	Total	Male	Female	Male/Female Ratio
Total Deaths due to Ext(All Ages)	24,453	17,889	6,564	2.7
Total Age 15+	21,058	15,942	5,116	3.1
15 - 19	1,244	894	350	2.6
20 - 24	2,188	1,720	468	3.7
25 - 29	2,340	1,889	451	4.2
30 - 34	2,382	1,896	486	3.9
35 - 39	1,982	1,605	377	4.3
40 - 44	1,665	1,315	350	3.8
45 - 49	1,259	1,023	236	4.3
50 - 54	1,012	773	239	3.2
55 - 59	804	621	183	3.4
60+	3,091	2,103	988	2.1

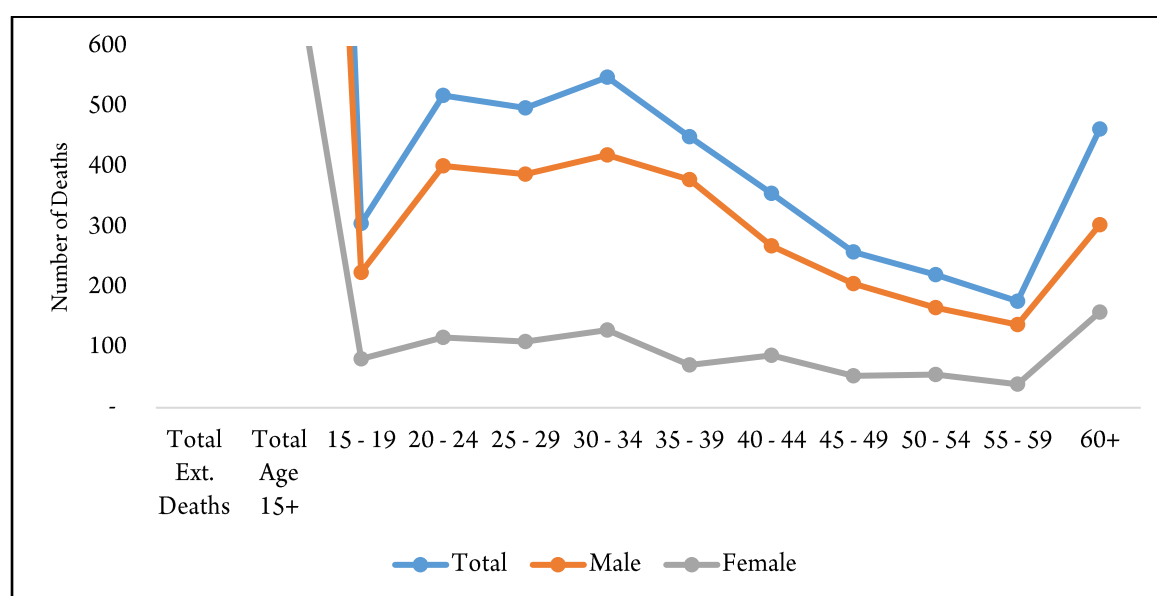
Past sections show males survival chances are lower than that of females in almost all parts of the country and at every age. It is important to examine the male-female differences in reported causes of death. However, a limitation of census data is that causes of death were asked for homicides and maternal deaths due to a number of reasons. Perhaps, this could explain partly the observed lower male survivorship.

**Figure 3.6: Male-Female Gap in deaths due to External Causes, Kenya 2019.**

Males in rural areas were more likely to die from external causes compared to females. The gender gap in deaths from external causes is widest during the youthful years as shown in Tables 3.6 and 3.7 and Figure 3.7. At these ages, in both rural and urban areas, men are four times likely to die from preventable causes than women. This may be attributed to lifestyle behaviours and health-seeking attributes.

Table 3.6: Deaths due to External Causes by Selected Age Groups and Sex, Rural Kenya (2019)

Age Group	Total	Male	Female	Male/Female Ratio
Total Deaths due to Ext(All Ages)	18,892	13,912	4,980	2.8
Total Age 15+	14,169	10,942	3,227	3.4
15-19	938	669	269	2.5
20-24	1,669	1,318	351	3.8
25-29	1,842	1,501	341	4.4
30-34	1,833	1,476	357	4.1
35-39	1,532	1,226	306	4
40-44	1,309	1,046	263	4
45-49	1,000	817	183	4.5
50-54	791	607	184	3.3
55-59	627	483	144	3.4
60+	2,628	1,799	829	2.2

**Figure 3.7: Gender gap in deaths due to external causes in Urban areas****Table 3.7: Deaths due to External Causes by Selected Age Groups and Sex, Urban Kenya (2019)**

Age Group	Total	Male	Female	Male/Female Ratio
Total Deaths due to Ext(All Ages)	5,561	3,977	1,584	2.5
Total Age 15+	3,798	2,897	901	3.2
15 - 19	306	225	81	2.8
20 - 24	519	402	117	3.4
25 - 29	498	388	110	3.5
30 - 34	549	420	129	3.3
35 - 39	450	379	71	5.3
40 - 44	356	269	87	3.1
45 - 49	259	206	53	3.9
50 - 54	221	166	55	3
55 - 59	177	138	39	3.5
60+	463	304	159	1.9

3.14 Deaths Registration of Children Under Age Five by Sex

Death registration in Kenya aims to align with the international standards stipulated in the United Nations Principles and Recommendations on death registration (UNESA, 2014).

At the national level irrespective of the place of residence, the death of a boy child is 25 per cent more likely to be registered than that of a girl child as presented in Table 3.8.

At the county level, a similar pattern is observed except for Vihiga County. In Lamu and Garissa, the death of a boy child is 81 per cent and 53 per cent respectively, more likely to be registered compared to the death of a girl child.

Table 3.8: Deaths Registration of Children Under Age Five by Sex

County	Male	Female	M/F Ratio	Both Sexes Notified
Kenya	12,844	10,259	1.25	31,409
Rural	8,007	6,396	1.25	20,919
Urban	4,837	3,863	1.25	10,490
Mombasa	496	361	1.37	1,062
Kwale	250	203	1.23	651
Kilifi	347	279	1.24	810
Tana River	102	87	1.17	368
Lamu	56	31	1.81	113
Taita-Taveta	103	81	1.27	210
Garissa	211	139	1.52	1,146
Wajir	170	112	1.52	772
Mandera	217	161	1.35	989
Marsabit	46	36	1.28	206
Isiolo	42	30	1.40	128
Meru	224	159	1.41	454
Tharaka-Nithi	59	56	1.05	142
Embu	172	135	1.27	334
Kitui	263	212	1.24	592
Machakos	285	231	1.23	579
Makueni	194	156	1.24	381
Nyandarua	179	139	1.29	339
Nyeri	133	128	1.04	286
Kirinyaga	137	124	1.10	292
Murang'a	232	158	1.47	449
Kiambu	711	596	1.19	1,465
Turkana	166	144	1.15	685
West Pokot	128	86	1.49	550
Samburu	38	32	1.19	146
Trans Nzoia	252	212	1.19	622
Uasin Gishu	238	189	1.26	506
Elgeyo-Marakwet	82	62	1.32	190
Nandi	156	129	1.21	373
Baringo	136	94	1.45	477
Laikipia	102	79	1.29	227
Nakuru	697	584	1.19	1,495
Narok	231	158	1.46	574
Kajiado	249	201	1.24	561
Kericho	178	135	1.32	418
Bomet	209	134	1.56	415
Kakamega	680	534	1.27	1,397
Vihiga	163	182	0.90	409
Bungoma	457	386	1.18	1,032
Busia	341	272	1.25	760
Siaya	499	380	1.31	1,100
Kisumu	470	384	1.22	1,095
Homabay	408	333	1.23	1,243
Migori	456	332	1.37	1,240
Kisii	311	257	1.21	688
Nyamira	117	95	1.23	253
Nairobi City	1,451	1,251	1.16	3,185

In comparison, the findings on the registration of deaths by sex published in the Kenya Vital Statistics Report (KVSr) 2019 also reveal a similar trend in the existing male-female gap. Figure

3.8 shows that between 2015 and 2019 death of males were more likely to be registered compared to the deaths of females.

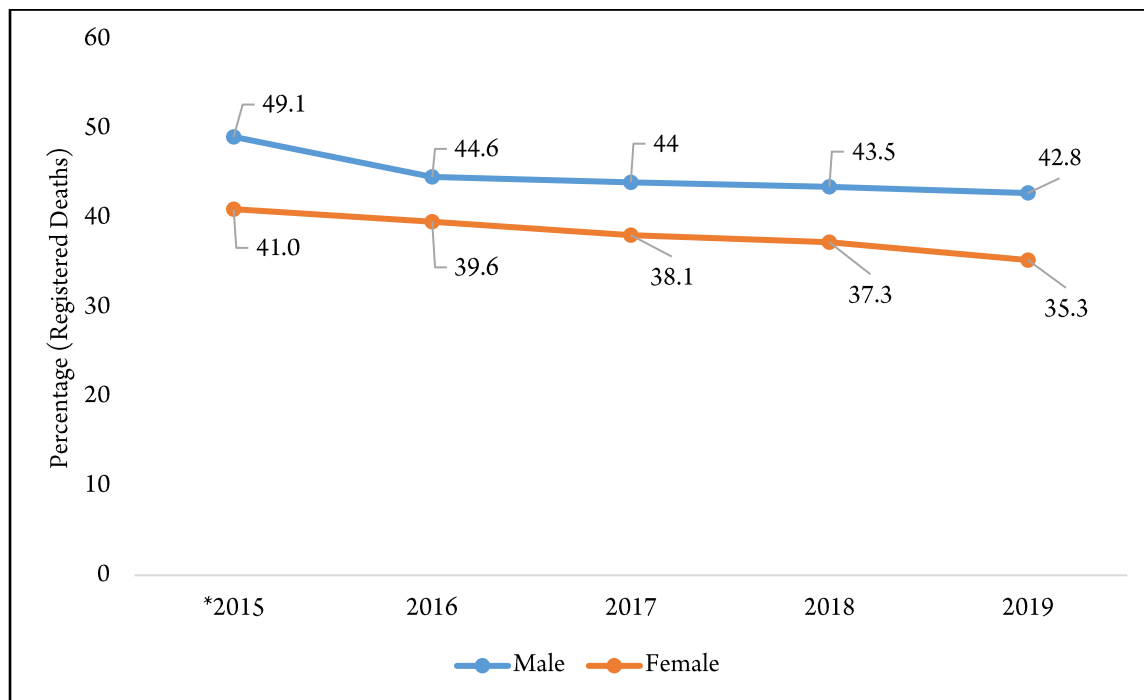


Figure 3.8: Trends in Deaths Registration (All ages), KVSr, 2019

3.15 County Differentials in Deaths Registration of Children Under Age 5

The differentials in registration of deaths between male and female is illustrated in Figure 3.9. Deaths registration is twice as likely for men/boys than women/girls in the counties of Lamu, Bomet, Garissa, West Pokot, Murang'a and Narok. Vihiga County has the least differentials. Male death registration is dominant across all counties.

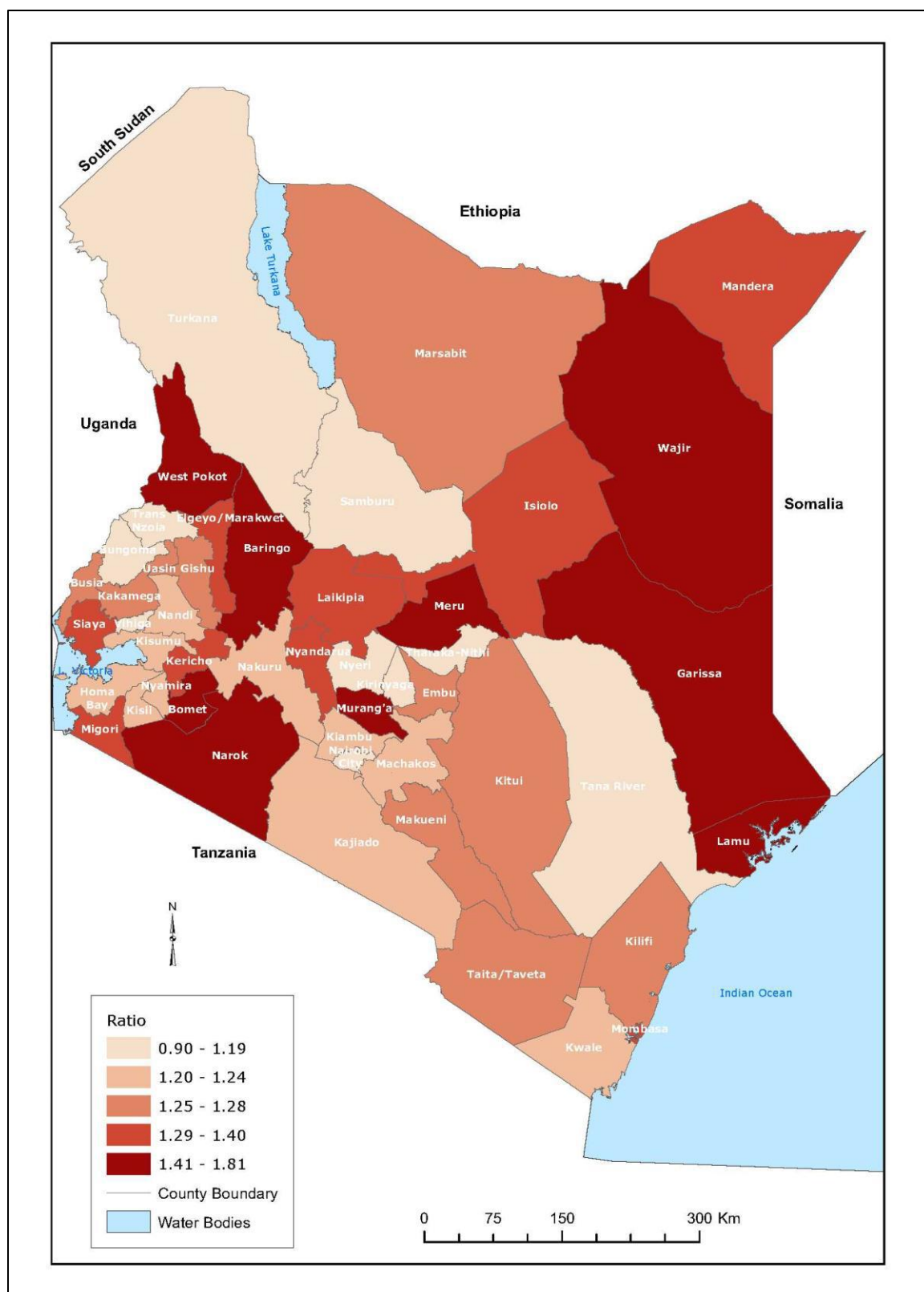


Figure 3.9 Under 5 Death Registration Male/Female Ratios by County, 2019

3.16 Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

3.16.1 Summary

Analysis of the 2019 Census mortality data by sex shows that gender dimensions do exist among the deceased and to those related to the deceased that are left behind especially widows. Gender biases are also observed on age at death or in life expectancy. Causes of death are also age and sex-selective as observed from data on death due to accidents, homicide or suicide combined, where the ratio of men to women deaths is over-unity across all ages.

- It was established that more men than women are likely to die from violent deaths (homicide, or suicide).
- Life expectancy at all ages and more so at birth and older ages favours women over men.

3.16.2 Conclusion

- Men at older ages may not benefit much from social security protection support as it starts at age 70 years, as they are likely to die earlier than women;
- There is a wide gap between female and male adult mortality
- The gap for IMR between male and female has narrowed.

3.16.3 Recommendations

- A better gender analysis of sex-disaggregated mortality indicators would be computed if the information on causes of death were known, however the census was not intended for such purpose and the vital statistics that can be used for such analysis in Kenya is incomplete and its quality remain uncertain. There is a need for the concerned departments to enhance collection and analysis of such data as well as undertake mortality specific surveys;
- There is also a need to provide medical cover for both men and women at older ages;
- Identify the 60+ women who are widowed and provide enhanced social protection. The NSSF should put in place measures to provide social security for women especially at age 60 and above;
- Further studies should be undertaken to shed light on why more males than females commit;
- To reduce the gender gap, programmes such as social protection and health need to target more men at these ages and also make health and social protection provisions for women at older ages

Chapter 4: Migration

4.1 Introduction

Gender analysis is a systematic analytical process based on sex disaggregation and gender information. The process is used to identify, understand, and describe gender differences and the relevance of gender roles and power dynamics in a particular context (UNDP 2016). Gender analysis helps ensure equitable participation of women and men in development processes and projects.

Gender influences reasons for migration, who and to where, how people migrate and the networks they use, opportunities and resources available at destinations, and relations with the country of origin. Risks, vulnerabilities and needs of persons migrating are also shaped to a great extent by one's gender and often vary for different groups. The roles, expectations, relationships and power dynamics associated with being a man, woman, boy or girl, significantly affect all aspects of the migration process. Women and men migrate for different reasons related to gender including, employment, education, marriage, human trafficking, just to mention a few, that leads to different social outcomes for both sexes.

Women may migrate because of gender-based structural inequalities and discrimination at home (Ferrant et al. 2015). Gender-based discrimination prompting migration include early marriage, female genital mutilation, gendered social stigma, or the potential for gender-based violence (Ferrant et al. 2014). Further, female and male migrants make different social contributions to their host and home countries, which are effective in improving the income, education and participation of individuals, as well as enhancing their children's future prospects (World Bank, 2006).

Migration is a key element of human freedom, a matter of concern in human rights treaties and plays an important role in the development policy agenda (UNDP, 2009). Rights should be exercised in the absence of discriminatory actions and policies (ICPD, 1994). Where women and girls are seen as vulnerable groups, migrant women and girls can be regarded as bearing a double burden.

There is substantial evidence that supports the usefulness of a gendered examination of migration. An analysis of migration from a gender perspective can breathe an in-depth understanding into the association across migration, economic growth and poverty reduction, and serve as a measure toward the goal of promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls (Curran et al. 2000).

Global Compact for Migration (GCM) for safe, orderly and regular migration ensures that the rights of women, men, girls and boys are respected at all stages of migration, their specific needs are properly understood and addressed and they are empowered as agents of change. GCM promotes the achievement of SDG 5 on gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls. Implementation of GCM is an opportunity to ensure that migration policies advance gender equality and the ability of all women and girls to enjoy their full human potential.

4.2 Relevance of Migration in Gender Analysis

Gender is a key component in shaping migrants' experiences and social realities. Further, it shows the linkages between inequalities at different societal levels as gender relations intersect with many categories of social identities, such as religious, political affiliation, ethnicity, social status, age, and sexual orientation. A person's status as a migrant in a country is sometimes associated with human rights violations and other forms of discrimination that exacerbate existing gender inequalities. If the linkages are not made explicit, there is a risk of reinforcing existing imbalances and discrimination.

Migration laws affect women and men differently, and their social and economic realities as migrants may also differ greatly (Docquier et al., 2007). Research suggests that female and male migrants make different social contributions to their host and home countries. The many complex and gendered features of population movements in the 21st century, especially in developing countries, where motives for migration differ vastly are captured in gender analysis. There is substantial evidence that supports the utility of a gendered examination of migration. In addition to the sheer numbers of women migrants and the different reasons for migration across women and men, research suggests that the nature of female and male migrant networks is qualitatively different for women and men, and this can, in turn, shape their migratory outcomes.

4.2.1 Feminization of Migration

Historically, women were thought to migrate primarily for marriage or family reunification, both internationally and internally. According to a survey in India in 2007-08, marriage was the cause of 91 per cent of rural female migration and 61 per cent of urban female migration (Ghosh 2009). In Taiwan, migrating for marriage account for more than half of the migrant population (Ghosh, 2009).

Women are increasingly migrating on their own to enhance economic opportunities by seeking jobs or employment. Female migration is growing faster than male migration in many countries that receive high levels of migrants, a trend referred to as the "feminization of migration." Women are about half of the global migrant population and in some countries constitutes 70-80 per cent (ILO, 2008).

Migration can improve autonomy, human capital, and self-esteem, as well as women's authority and worth in their families and communities. Migration can change traditional norms as women gain access to education and economic opportunities (KNOMAD, 2016).

When migrant women return home, they often maintain their newfound autonomy and bring new norms, skills, and expertise. With these new skills, returning migrant women often start their own businesses (KNOMAD 2016). Migration influences gender norms at home, and supports creation of gender equality and agency. When women remain behind as husbands migrate, they often gain greater control and authority in their households, acting as the decision-maker for the family's choices and finances (KNOMAD, 2016).

Remittances have led to an increase in women running and owning businesses. When women receive remittances, family welfare improves, and the health and education of the family's children often improve. In contrast, when men receive remittances the family's assets are more likely to

increase. In general, women remit a higher proportion of their incomes than male migrants, though total remittances may be lower because they receive lower wages (UNFA 2006, UNDP 2009). Women are the majority of remittances recipients in Lesotho, but not in Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, or Uganda (Deere et al., 2015).

Women also show more stability and frequency in sending remittances and are more likely to remit when unexpected shocks occur, serving as a form of insurance. Some studies note that remittances increase education, especially for girls.

Legal restrictions impede migration for women more than men. In some countries, women's employment and mobility from their homes, communities, or countries is legally restricted. As a consequence, many international conventions, declarations, and laws have been established to protect women and the risks and vulnerabilities for migrants. Although these efforts are laudable, migrant women continue to face risks, and the full benefits and opportunities of migration to advance gender equality are yet to be realized (KNOMAD, 2016).

4.3 Data Issues

Interest in migration across national boundaries has grown steadily among countries. Consequently, census items and tabulations relative to migration have grown in importance (United Nations, 2009). Data limitations is an issue in migration analysis (IOM, 2010).

Migration is treated as a 'transition' in a census, rather than as an 'event' as is the case in a population registry, making it limited in capturing and measuring circular or seasonal movement of persons. Further, other gender issues related to migration cannot be investigated based on census data alone, including the nature of migration (regular, irregular, forced, or voluntary) and the link between migration and gender-based violence (UNFPA Gender Manual, 2014 para. 517).

The 2019 Census used a number of questions to elicit migration status. These were the place of birth (P19), previous residence (P20), duration of residence (P21/P22), place of enumeration and emigrants (H-40). Members of households were also asked to provide information on emigrants in the last fifteen years (H 40). However, migrations involving entire families could not be captured using this question. The emigrant short questionnaire captured information on educational attainment, professional training, country of destination, country of current residence, year of departure, reason for emigration and remittances, among other variables. Most of the information was captured through proxy reporting. The household questionnaire was used to collect number of households with immigrants and emigrants.

4.4 Findings

A total of 8.4 million current internal migrants were enumerated. Of these migrants, females constituted 53.5 per cent. Urban areas accounted for 68.3 per cent of the internal migrants (5.7 million). Migrants found in an urban area are migrants who came from other counties but does not include urban migrants from the same county. There were more female migrants in rural population. Women accounted for 59.4 per cent for the rural migrant population, compared to males who accounted for 40.6 per cent. Six out of every ten (60.6%) of the migrants were of age 20-39 years, with migrants age 25-29 accounting for the highest proportion of 17.5 per cent. Migrants in age 20-24 accounted for 16.5 per cent.

In general, migration in Kenya is selective to young age groups (15-34). After age group 30-34, the rate of migration declines. At age 60 migration rises for both sexes in both rural and urban areas. Patterns of current internal migration are changing in Kenya, as more women are migrating in both rural and urban areas in 2019 compared to the 2009 census. As regards international migration, the propensity to migrate is almost the same for both males and females. This is in contrast to most developing countries. The propensity to migrate is greater among young adults (age 15-34).

4.4.1 Distribution of Current Internal Migrant Population by Place of Residence and Age

Table 4.1, Figure 4.1 and Appendix 1 present current internal migrant population by place of residence, age and sex. Of the total (8.4 million), 31.7 per cent (2.7 million) were from rural. Migrants in rural areas cited marriage and family-related issues (38.3 per cent) as the main reason for migration. Economic and settlement reasons for migration accounted for 22.8 per cent and 21.6 per cent, respectively.

In urban areas, about half (51.6%) had migrated for economic reasons. This reason did not vary much by gender. Other reasons cited were marriage and family-related issues (17.7%), education (12.6%) and settlement (9.6%). Noteworthy, there were more female migrants in both rural and urban migrant populations. Women accounted for 59.4 per cent and 50.8 per cent of the rural and urban migrant population, respectively. These results reveal the benefits of feminization of current internal migration in Kenya according to the ILO findings. Hence, women are increasingly migrating on their own to enhance economic opportunities by seeking jobs or employment (ILO, 2008).

As shown in Figure 4.1, the age pattern of migration in both rural and urban areas follows the inverted U shape as is the case in many developing countries. The propensity to migrate is greater in the age group 20-24 (13.8%) followed by 25-29 (12.4%) among rural male migrants compared to a peak at age group 25-35 (13.6 %) followed by 20-24 (13.5%) among rural female migrants. The same trend is observed in urban areas. Migration for urban males peaks at age 25-29 (18.9 %) followed by age group 30-34 (16.7%). The propensity to migrate peaks in the age group (20-29) followed by 30-34 (16.7%) for urban women. After age group 30-34, the rate of migration declines up to age 60 where it goes up for both sexes in rural and urban areas. The fact that the proportion of internal male migrants in Kenya peaks at age 20-24 (13.8%) compared to females at 13.5 per cent shows that males are more economically advantaged as they make more employment moves earlier than females.

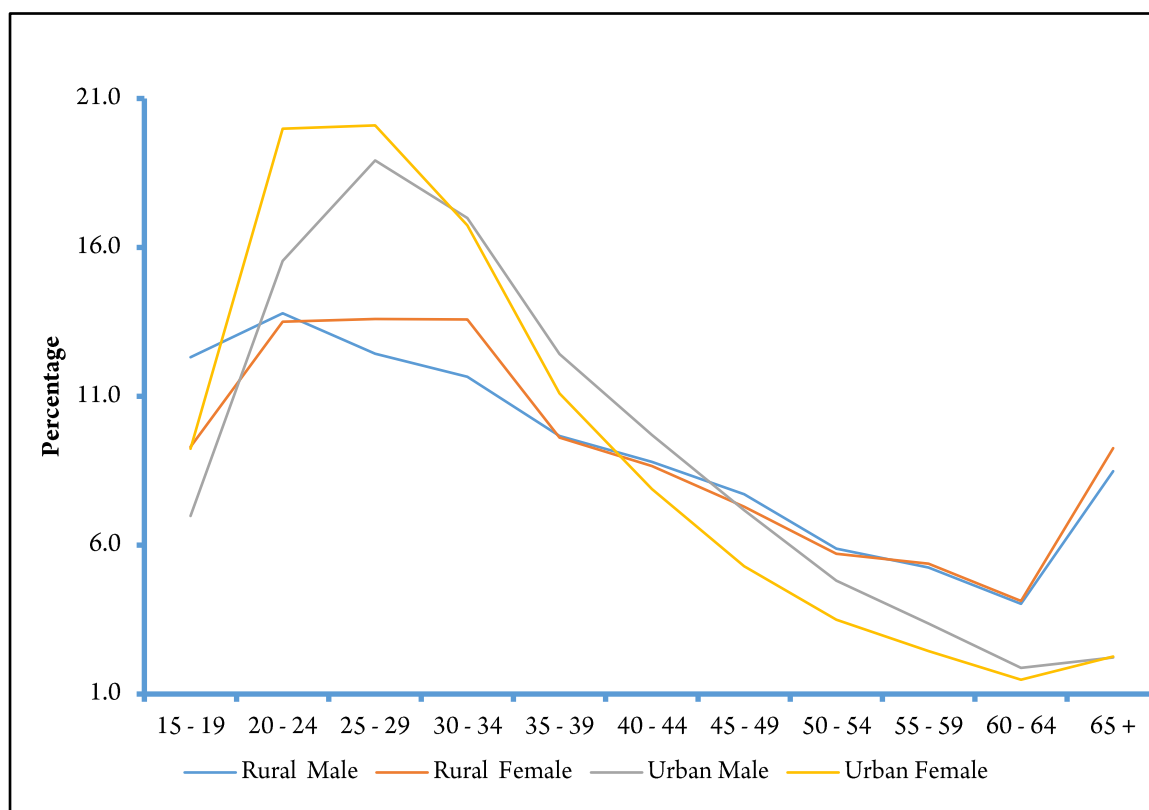


Figure 4.1: Current migratory population by place of residence and by sex/age

Table 4.1: Percentage Distribution Of Recent Migrants By Reason For Migration, Place Of Residence, Sex And Age

Male																		
	Total	Economic Reasons	Marriage	Family Related Issues	Education	Settlement	Forced Displacement	Other	Don't Know	Total	Economic Reasons	Marriage	Family Related Issues	Education	Settlement	Forced Displacement	Other	Don't Know
Total	40.6	39.5	0.6	13.9	4.4	26.2	4.9	4.4	6.1	49.2	63.7	0.3	8.0	13.0	8.3	1.5	3.8	1.5
15 - 19	12.3	9.6	0.2	36.3	14.8	18.4	7.3	9.9	3.5	7.0	10.5	0.1	34.9	25.6	12.4	2.4	12.1	2.0
20 - 24	13.8	41.0	0.3	16.8	11.6	11.7	4.9	7.0	6.8	15.5	48.1	0.1	10.8	26.0	6.4	1.3	5.6	1.7
25 - 29	12.4	56.6	0.5	10.5	3.7	12.4	3.9	4.0	8.5	18.9	67.4	0.3	5.7	14.8	5.9	1.2	3.2	1.5
30 - 34	11.7	55.2	0.6	9.7	1.4	17.3	4.2	3.4	8.1	17.0	73.1	0.4	4.9	9.6	6.7	1.3	2.5	1.5
35 - 39	9.7	50.7	0.7	9.8	1.0	22.7	4.3	3.1	7.8	12.4	74.3	0.4	4.7	7.5	7.9	1.4	2.4	1.4
40 - 44	8.8	47.5	0.7	9.2	0.8	27.5	4.3	2.9	6.9	9.7	74.7	0.4	4.6	6.5	8.9	1.4	2.2	1.4
45 - 49	7.7	44.1	0.7	9.2	0.8	32.3	4.5	2.5	5.9	7.2	74.5	0.4	4.4	6.0	10.0	1.5	2.2	1.1
50 - 54	5.9	39.1	0.8	9.3	0.7	36.9	4.9	2.5	5.8	4.8	73.0	0.4	4.6	5.9	11.2	1.7	2.1	1.2
55 - 59	5.2	33.1	0.8	9.9	0.7	43.8	4.6	2.2	5.0	3.4	71.9	0.4	4.8	5.9	11.9	1.8	2.3	1.0
60 - 64	4.0	25.6	1.0	10.2	0.7	50.8	5.0	2.5	4.2	1.9	67.6	0.4	5.6	6.4	13.8	2.0	3.2	1.0
65 +	8.5	19.1	1.1	8.9	0.6	60.0	5.9	2.6	2.0	2.2	57.4	0.6	7.3	6.1	18.5	3.2	5.9	1.0
Female	Rural									Urban								
Total	59.4	11.4	43.4	11.1	2.8	18.5	3.5	4.6	4.7	50.8	40.0	14.3	12.5	12.2	10.9	1.5	7.0	1.5
15 - 19	9.3	4.2	10.1	33.3	13.4	16.8	5.1	12.7	4.4	9.2	12.8	3.9	30.2	22.2	11.1	1.8	16.0	1.9
20 - 24	13.5	13.0	40.6	13.6	6.0	9.3	2.7	7.3	7.6	20.0	34.7	14.1	12.8	19.5	8.2	1.0	7.9	1.8
25 - 29	13.6	15.7	49.3	8.8	2.0	9.6	2.6	4.8	7.3	20.1	44.3	16.2	10.2	12.5	8.7	1.1	5.5	1.5
30 - 34	13.6	15.4	50.5	7.8	1.1	12.5	3.0	3.7	5.9	16.7	47.7	15.5	9.8	9.1	10.0	1.3	5.1	1.4
35 - 39	9.6	15.2	48.3	7.7	0.9	15.8	3.6	3.2	5.1	11.1	48.2	14.6	9.6	8.0	11.8	1.6	4.9	1.3
40 - 44	8.7	13.5	49.3	7.5	0.8	19.0	3.5	2.7	3.7	7.9	47.8	14.9	9.7	6.8	13.0	1.8	4.8	1.2
45 - 49	7.3	11.5	48.5	7.9	0.6	22.3	3.7	2.5	3.0	5.3	46.1	15.5	10.0	6.0	14.4	2.1	4.8	1.1
50 - 54	5.7	9.6	47.7	8.1	0.6	25.4	3.8	2.3	2.6	3.5	43.4	15.9	10.2	5.5	16.0	2.4	5.4	1.2
55 - 59	5.4	7.1	47.8	8.3	0.5	28.7	3.5	2.1	2.0	2.4	38.8	17.1	10.9	5.7	17.3	2.5	6.5	1.2
60 - 64	4.1	5.6	47.5	7.9	0.4	31.4	3.5	2.2	1.6	1.5	32.8	18.1	11.7	5.3	18.7	3.0	9.1	1.1
65 +	9.3	3.9	40.2	8.0	0.2	39.1	4.7	2.8	1.1	2.3	21.7	17.7	15.2	3.2	22.0	4.4	14.6	1.3

4.4.2 Distribution of Current Migrants by Reason for Migration

Table 4.2 presents the distribution of recent migrants by reason for migration, by age and sex. Nationally, the analysis shows that economic activities was cited as the main reason for migration at 42.5 per cent followed by marriage and family-related reasons 24.2 per cent, settlement 13.4 per cent, and education, 9.7 per cent. Men mainly migrated for economic reasons (56.9%) compared to about a third (29.9%) of females who moved for the same reason. It implies therefore that the chance of male migrating for economic reasons is three times that of females.

Women mainly moved for marriage and family-related issues (36.5%). Almost the same proportion (13.2 and 13.6 per cent) of both sexes gave settlement as the reason for migration.

Table 4.2 Percentage Distribution of Current Migrants by Reasons For Recent Migration By Sex And Age

	Family Related								
National	Economic Reasons	Marriage	Issues	Education	Settlement	Forced Displacement	Other	Don't Know	
Total/Age	100.0	42.5	13.3	10.9	9.7	13.4	2.3	5.2	2.7
15 - 19	8.9	9.9	3.5	33.1	20.0	13.9	3.6	13.2	2.7
20 - 24	16.5	36.3	12.3	12.7	18.6	8.2	1.8	7.0	3.2
25 - 29	17.5	49.6	13.8	8.4	11.0	8.1	1.6	4.4	3.0
30 - 34	15.6	52.4	14.3	7.7	7.2	9.9	1.9	3.8	2.8
35 - 39	11.1	52.9	13.2	7.5	5.9	12.2	2.1	3.5	2.7
40 - 44	8.8	51.4	14.1	7.3	4.8	14.5	2.3	3.2	2.5
45 - 49	6.6	48.9	14.6	7.4	4.1	17.1	2.6	3.0	2.3
50 - 54	4.7	45.1	15.4	7.6	3.7	19.9	2.8	3.1	2.3
55 - 59	3.7	39.2	17.4	8.1	3.4	23.7	2.9	3.2	2.1
60 - 64	2.4	31.6	19.3	8.6	3.0	28.3	3.3	4.0	1.9
65 +	4.4	20.1	19.6	9.4	1.8	37.7	4.7	5.4	1.4
Males									
Total/Age	46.5	56.9	0.4	9.7	10.6	13.2	2.4	4.0	2.8
15 - 19	8.4	56.9	0.4	9.7	10.6	13.2	2.4	4.0	2.8
20 - 24	15.1	10.1	0.1	35.5	21.2	14.8	4.4	11.2	2.6
25 - 29	17.1	46.3	0.2	12.3	22.3	7.8	2.2	6.0	3.0
30 - 34	15.5	65.2	0.3	6.7	12.6	7.2	1.7	3.4	2.9
35 - 39	11.7	69.4	0.5	5.9	7.9	8.9	1.9	2.7	2.9
40 - 44	9.4	68.9	0.5	5.9	6.0	11.3	2.0	2.5	2.9
45 - 49	7.3	67.6	0.5	5.8	5.0	13.7	2.2	2.4	2.8
50 - 54	5.1	65.6	0.5	5.8	4.5	16.5	2.4	2.3	2.5
55 - 59	3.9	62.1	0.5	6.1	4.2	19.4	2.7	2.2	2.7
60 - 64	2.4	57.4	0.5	6.7	3.9	23.9	2.8	2.3	2.5
65 +	4.0	48.7	0.7	7.7	3.8	30.5	3.3	2.9	2.4
Females									
Total/Age	53.5	29.9	24.5	12.0	8.9	13.6	2.2	6.2	2.6
15 - 19	9.3	9.8	6.1	31.3	19.1	13.1	3.0	14.9	2.8
20 - 24	17.7	28.9	21.2	13.0	15.9	8.5	1.5	7.7	3.4
25 - 29	17.8	36.6	25.1	9.8	9.7	8.9	1.5	5.3	3.1
30 - 34	15.6	37.8	26.2	9.2	6.7	10.8	1.8	4.7	2.7
35 - 39	10.6	37.7	25.4	9.0	5.7	13.1	2.2	4.4	2.5
40 - 44	8.2	35.0	27.8	8.9	4.6	15.2	2.4	4.0	2.2
45 - 49	6.0	31.3	29.6	9.1	3.7	17.8	2.8	3.8	1.9
50 - 54	4.3	27.5	30.9	9.2	3.2	20.4	3.0	3.9	1.9
55 - 59	3.5	21.6	33.8	9.5	2.9	23.5	3.0	4.1	1.6
60 - 64	2.4	16.5	35.8	9.4	2.3	26.3	3.3	5.0	1.4
65 +	4.7	9.4	33.3	10.2	1.1	33.8	4.6	6.4	1.2

4.5 International Migration

4.5.1 Emigrants by Main Reason for Departure

Table 4.3, Figure 4.2 and Figure 4.3 show the distribution of emigrants by the main reason for departure by age and sex. The propensity of emigration is nearly the same for males (50.3%) and females (49.7%). Male migrants accounted for more than half of all emigrants for employment (56.5%), education (50.3%) and sports (76.2%). Females accounted for more than half of emigrants due to marriage (92.2%), family related issues (59.2%) and settlement (51.7%).

Emigrants for employment and marriage and family issues accounted for 56.5 and 10.3 per cent, respectively. Education purposes accounted for 24.3 per cent of all emigrants with almost an equal share for both males and females. About 3.0 per cent of the emigrants' main reason for departure was sports. More males, 76.2 per cent compared to females, 23.8 per cent emigrated because of sport-related reasons.

As shown in Figure 4.2, the age pattern of migration follows the inverted U shape as in many developing countries. In general, migration is selective to young age groups (15-34). The propensity to migrate is greater in the age group 15-29. After that age group, the rate of migration is declining to age 60 when it starts to slightly rise. The same pattern is observed in both males and females except that the peak age for emigration is 20-24 for females compared to age 25-29 for males. Among the migrants, the majority of them belong to the age group 25-34 (37.2%) followed by 15-24 (29.9 %).

Table 4.3 Percentage Distribution of Emigrants by Reasons For Migration

Total/Sex	Total			Work			Education		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Ages/Ages	100.0	50.3	49.7	56.5	54.7	45.3	24.3	50.3	49.7
0-14	4.4	49.2	50.8	0.7	58.4	41.6	5.6	47.8	52.2
15 - 24	29.9	45.3	54.7	21.7	46.0	54.0	53.7	49.0	51.0
25 - 34	37.2	50.3	49.7	43.6	53.7	46.3	28.6	51.6	48.4
35 - 49	17.8	58.4	41.6	23.2	62.1	37.9	7.2	56.9	43.1
50 - 64	3.4	54.8	45.2	3.3	69.3	30.7	0.7	56.6	43.4
65+	0.7	48.0	52.0	0.2	74.0	26.0	0.1	77.3	22.7
Don't Know	6.7	49.9	50.1	7.3	55.5	44.5	4.2	49.9	50.1
Total/Sex	Sports			Marriage			Family related		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Ages/Ages	0.7	76.2	23.8	4.9	7.8	92.2	5.5	40.8	59.2
0-14	2.7	63.0	37.0	1.8	5.5	94.5	33.7	49.5	50.5
15 - 24	39.3	72.9	27.1	32.3	4.0	96.0	18.9	44.3	55.7
25 - 34	36.3	75.8	24.2	43.2	8.8	91.2	15.0	34.8	65.2
35 - 49	15.0	89.5	10.5	13.4	12.6	87.4	11.4	36.4	63.6
50 - 64	0.9	77.8	22.2	1.5	23.2	76.8	10.3	26.1	73.9
65+	0.1	100.0	0.0	0.1	42.9	57.1	4.3	33.3	66.7
Don't Know	5.7	72.4	27.6	7.6	6.7	93.3	6.4	34.8	65.2
Total/Sex	Settlement			Others			Don't know		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Ages/Ages	3.3	48.3	51.7	4.2	49.2	50.8	0.7	55.0	14.3
0-14	13.4	48.3	51.7	5.1	55.2	44.8	8.0	55.6	25.2
15 - 24	22.3	46.4	53.6	19.8	47.2	52.8	16.3	51.2	12.3
25 - 34	29.6	49.0	51.0	29.7	50.6	49.4	23.1	55.4	11.4
35 - 49	17.2	50.4	49.6	21.7	55.4	44.6	12.7	67.2	7.0
50 - 64	7.3	45.7	54.3	11.4	40.6	59.4	4.3	60.5	4.0
65+	2.3	55.8	44.2	5.3	41.8	58.2	0.9	77.8	1.0
Don't Know	7.8	46.9	53.1	7.1	44.5	55.5	34.7	50.6	70.3

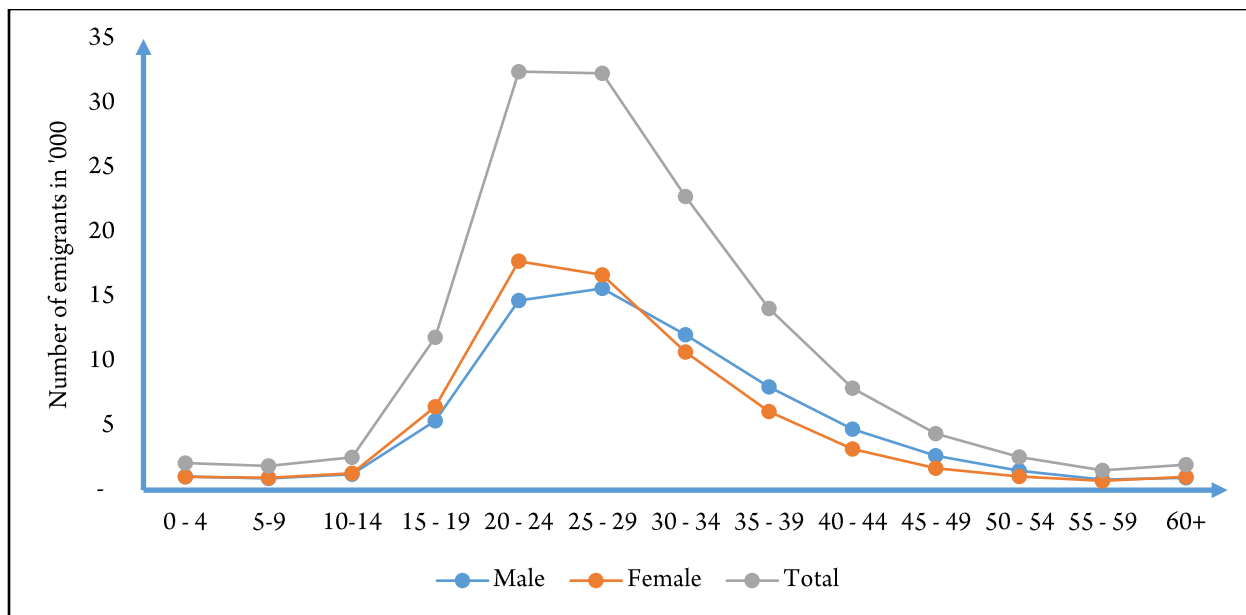


Figure 4.2: Number of emigrants by Age and Sex

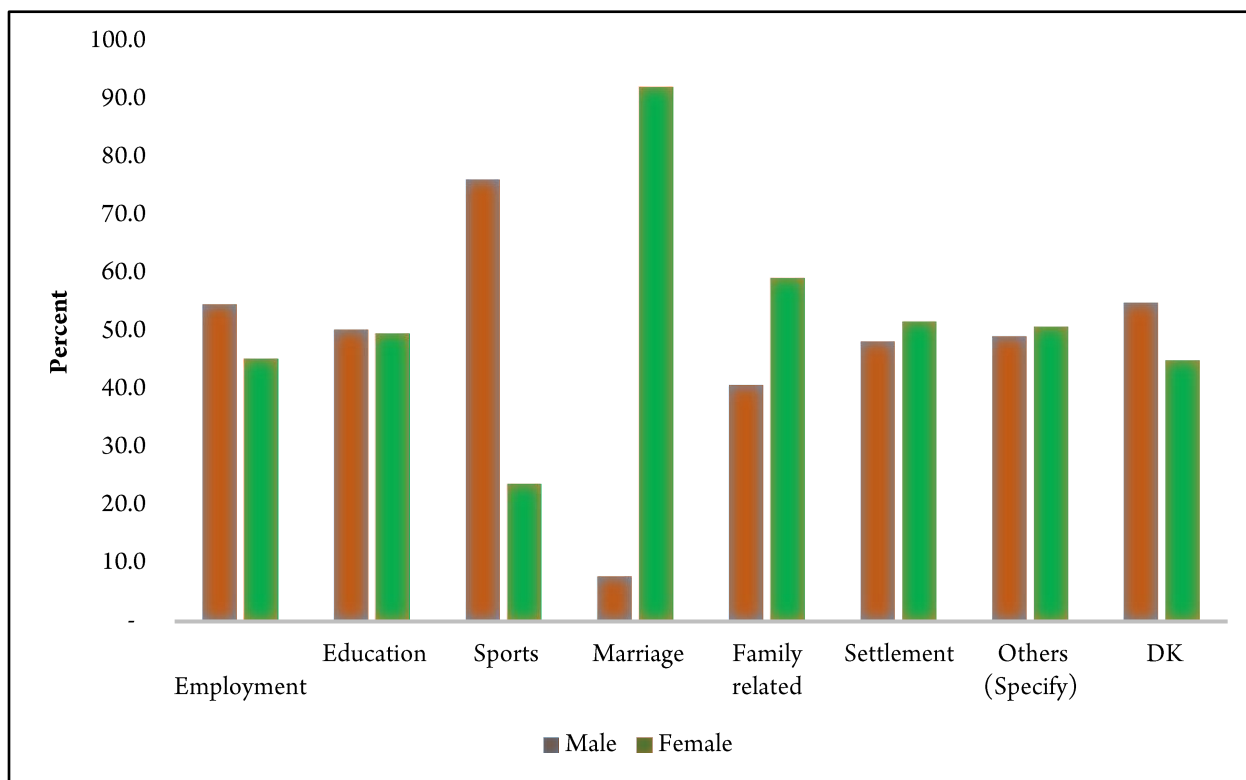


Figure 4.3: Reasons for Migration

4.6 Conclusions

- The data shows that slightly over one half of the internal migrants were females 53.5 per cent. Just above two thirds (68.3%) of the populations migrated to urban areas from other counties. There were more female migrants in rural population (59.4%) compared to males (40.6%). It is clear therefore that the proportion of females migrating in both rural and urban areas from other counties is higher compared to males.
- Migration in Kenya is selective to young persons of age groups (15-34). After age group 30-34, the rate of migration declines and pick up again at age 60. Six of every ten (60.6%) of the migrants were persons of age 20-39 with migrants age 25-29 accounting for the highest proportion of 17.5 per cent. Migrants in age 20-24 accounted for 16.5 per cent.
- Males migrated mainly for economic reasons (56.9%) compared to about a third (29.9%) of females who moved for the same reason. Women mainly moved for marriage and family-related issues (36.5%).
- On international migration, the propensity of emigration is nearly the same for males (50.3%) and females (49.7%). Emigrants for employment accounted for 56.5% while marriage and family issues accounted for 10.3 per cent. Education purposes accounted for 24.3 per cent of all emigrants with almost an equal share for both males and females. About three per cent of the emigrants' main reason of departure was sports. More males, compared to females emigrated because of sport-related reasons.
- Male migrants accounted for more than half of all emigrants who migrated for employment (56.5%), education (50.3%) and sports (76.2%). Females accounted for more than half of emigrants due to in marriage (92.2%), family related issues (59.2%) and settlement (51.7%).

4.7 Recommendations

1. There is a need to undertake a detailed study on migration in Kenya to better understand the causes, drivers and consequences of migration as a number of observations cannot be explained because of limitations of census data on migration. The study should provide adequate gender perspectives in migration patterns.
2. Due to high number of females migrating to both urban and rural areas for various reasons and the concentration of migrations among younger populations, there is a need for enhancing protection and promotion of rights of women and girls irrespective of residence. Such programs must acknowledge, appreciate and exploit the dividends for feminization of migration, including identification of new skills and opportunities. Similarly, internal female migrants present to the host communities, skills and opportunities learnt and tapped from networks in their new destinations, just to mention a few.
3. The higher proportions of internal migrations among young women in both rural and urban areas is a positive pointer to the increased freedoms and liberty among these populations to move and search for better opportunities without constraints from traditional and cultural norms.

4. Data shows males and females migrated to urban areas mainly for economic opportunities. Programs promoting equitable development between rural and urban areas have great potential of reducing population pressure on urban areas and reduce rural-urban migration.
5. The state should enhance migration protection rules and guidelines to promote and protect the rights of youthful labour force migrating to other countries. Special focus should be made to young female and male emigrants who are more vulnerable to exploitation, abuses, exposure to poor terms of service and employment.

Chapter 5: Marriage

5.1 Introduction

The Marriage Act, 2014 consolidates all marriage laws and removes all discriminatory provisions, in line with international conventions, regarding different ages for marrying for both boys and girls. According to the Act, section 3(1), marriage is the voluntary union of a man and a woman whether in a monogamous or a polygamous union and registered under the Act. The UN summit on International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD25) held in November 2019 in Nairobi, Kenya reaffirmed its commitment to address Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV), harmful practices, in particular child, early and forced marriages, and Female Genital Mutilation (FGM). The country also committed to the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women and girls, to realize all individuals' full socio-economic potential (Kenya Country Commitments for ICPD25).

Marriage, therefore, remains the conventional path to establishing a family, and an important factor in determining not only population growth but also desirable social aspects of living. In the context of the family, marriage represents the initial step in furthering group survival and family expansion. The Sessional Paper No. 3 of 2012 on population policy for National Development recognizes the family as the basic unit of society. Family formation patterns are thus key determinants of population change. The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC) classified marital status as either never married, married monogamous, married polygamous, widowed, divorced or separated. This chapter looks at marriage and associated gender dimensions in Kenya.

5.2 Relevance of Marital Status in Gender Analysis

According to Kenyan laws, the minimum legal age of marriage for both men and women is 18 years. This conforms to various international agreements such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (United Nations, 1979), and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (United Nations, 1989). An important gender issue related to marriage is its timing (Singulate Mean Age at Marriage). Child marriage defined as a formal marriage or informal union before age 18, is a fundamental violation of human rights. Sustainable Development Goal 5.3 aims at ending child marriage.

Child marriage is determined by various social, cultural, religious and economic factors. The most significant among them are: prevailing gendered social and cultural norms; poverty; financial transactions around marriage such as bridewealth, and lack of positive alternatives for girls and families such as quality education and opportunities for decent work. The most commonly used indicator of marriage is the proportion ever married by age while the proportion ever married by age 50 is used to determine the universality of marriage.

A notable feature of marriage in sub-Saharan Africa is the age difference between men and women. According to the 2019 KPHC, the Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM) is 27.3 and 23.1 years for men and women, respectively. The age differences between marital partners are due to a variety of social and demographic factors and norms in societies. These include the prevalence of polygamy, bridewealth (a compensation given upon marriage by the family of a groom to the bride's family), migration and level of education. The high cost of bridewealth may lead to increases in the age of men

at first marriage because their families must find sufficient wealth to pay for their son's marriages, as well as fulfil basic socially determined requirements before marriage such as the ability to provide shelter or food to the bride.

5.3 Limitations

The census data on marriage is limited to status and there is no inquiry about its legality or whether it was formal or informal. Furthermore, Kenyan censuses do not inquire about the time when marriage was consummated. The other aspect is that the 2019 KPHC question on marriage was asked of women and men age 12 and higher. This limits detailed analyses of gender issues related to marriage. However, the Constitution of Kenya 2010, Marriage Act 2014 and recent literature on marriage complement the census data to give it a gender dimension.

5.4 Marital Status Differences by Sex

Table 5.1 shows the distribution of population age 15 and above by marital status, age and sex. The overall proportion of 'never married', men (48.2%) is higher than that of women (39.2%). There is a progressive decline in the proportion of 'never married' men and women by age.

Conversely, there is a continual increase in the proportions of married men and women with succeeding age. More women than men are married between age 15 – 19 and 30 - 34. Between age 35 - 39 and above, the situation is reversed with a higher proportion of married men than women. A higher proportion of married polygamous men than women starts at ages 45 – 49. The proportion of widowed steadily increase with age. The highest concentration was at 60 years and above for both women (38.1%) and men (6.9%). A higher proportion of women (3.6%) is either divorced or separated compared to men (2.3%).

In a study on marriage and family by Klinger-Vartabedian, whether a marriage is a first or a subsequent one, the majority of wives are younger than their husbands (Klinger-Vartabedian, 1989). This implies that men marry at a slightly older age compared to women. The National Marriage Study Project conducted in the United States found that men do not want to commit to marriage because they face few social pressures to marry. Although some felt the need to wait until they are older to have children, this study shows that men feel that marriage require too many changes and compromises. Men want to enjoy single life as long as they can (Whitehead and Popenoe, 2002).

Studies have found that age at first marriage among women is mainly influenced by religion, polygamy and urbanization. Other factors promoting early marriages include customs that encourage the early marriage of women as a source of wealth, such as dowry (NCPD, 2013)

Table 5.1: Population Distribution by Marital Status, Age and Sex, 2019

Age group	Never Married		Married Monogamous		Married Polygamous		Widowed		Divorced		Separated	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Kenya	39.2	48.2	48.1	45.6	3.0	2.8	6.0	0.9	1.1	0.6	2.5	1.7
15 - 19	88.7	95.6	10.4	4.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.1
20 - 24	49.6	80.7	46.9	18.1	1.4	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.1	1.3	0.4
25 - 29	24.2	44.7	68.5	52.2	2.5	1.0	0.7	0.1	1.1	0.4	2.9	1.4
30 - 34	14.7	21.7	73.7	72.1	3.6	2.2	2.0	0.2	1.6	0.9	4.3	2.8
35 - 39	12.4	13.6	73.0	77.6	3.8	3.3	3.3	0.4	2.0	1.2	5.2	3.8
40 - 44	10.2	9.0	71.3	79.9	4.9	4.8	6.1	0.8	2.2	1.4	5.1	4.0
45 - 49	9.3	6.5	69.3	81.1	5.4	5.7	9.0	1.3	2.2	1.4	4.7	3.9
50 - 54	8.5	5.1	65.9	80.9	5.9	7.1	13.2	2.0	2.2	1.4	4.3	3.4
55 - 59	7.0	3.9	62.9	81.1	6.5	7.9	18.0	2.8	2.0	1.3	3.5	3.0
60+	4.1	2.9	47.4	75.6	7.1	11.4	38.1	6.9	1.4	1.0	1.8	2.0

5.5 Polygamy

A polygamous union refers to a union in which a man has more than one wife. The practice is associated with limited access to household support and opportunities and may negatively affect children and spouses. According to CEDAW, polygamy “contravene(s) a woman’s right to equality with men and can have such serious emotional and financial consequences for her and her dependents that such marriages ought to be discouraged and prohibited” Polygamous unions tend to be associated with wider age gaps between wives and husbands, lower contraceptive use and high fertility.

Figure 5.1 illustrates the per cent distribution of population in a polygamous union by age and sex. At age 30-34, four per cent of women are in a polygynous union compared with men (2.2%). The situation levels at ages 40 – 44 with more men (11.4%) than women (7.1%) being in a polygamous union at age 60 or more years. The 2014 KDHS data shows that the proportion of men with 2 or more wives increased from 3.7 per cent for age 30 – 34 to 7.1 per cent for age 35 – 39 and 10.9 per cent for age 45 – 49. This implies that more men than women are getting into a polygamous marriage with the increase in age.

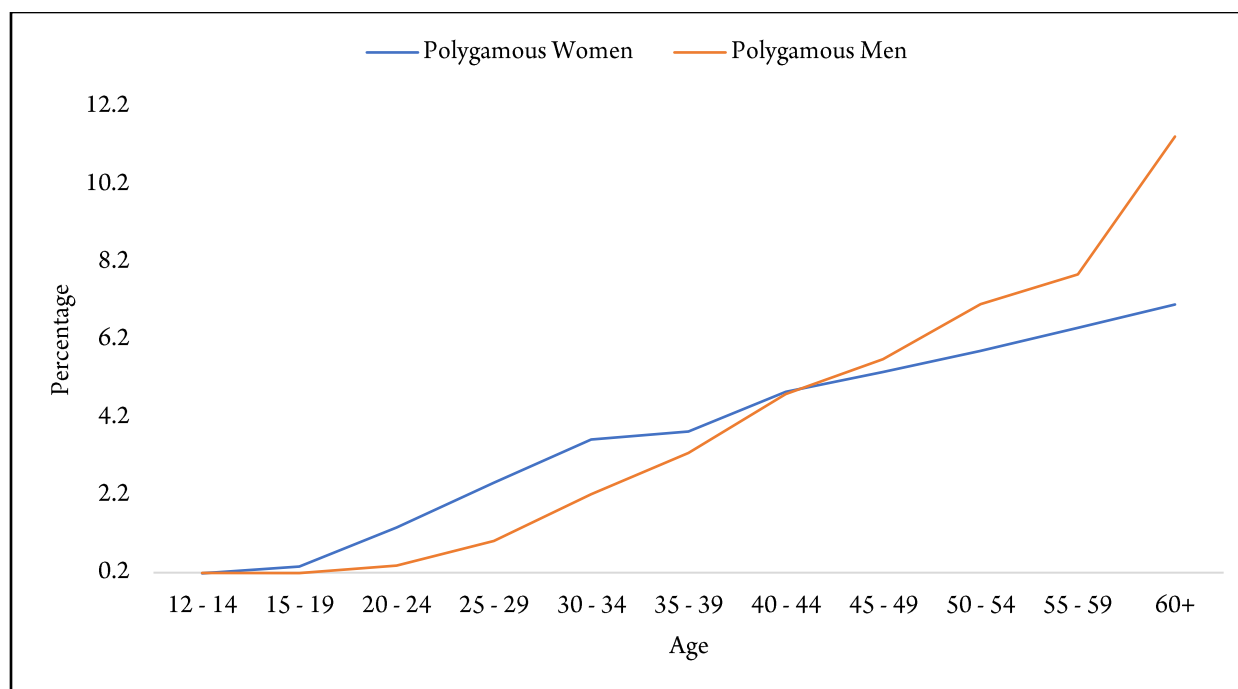


Figure 5.1: Percentage Distribution of Population in a Polygamous Union by Age and Sex, 2019

5.5.1 Polygamous Unions by Education Level Attained

Although the reasons for marital delay vary, recent studies have shown that education is a causal factor for postponing marriage. While in the past this delay mainly characterized men's marriage patterns, as men were expected to provide for the family, today it is also characteristic of women, who are also expected to participate in paid employment (Sabbah-Karkaby M. and Stier H., 2017). A study by Shafer and Qian (2010) found that educational attainment affects both age at marriage and the likelihood of marriage for men and women.

The 2019 census shows that of the 944,000 women and men in polygamous unions, 52 per cent are women. The proportion of men and women in polygamous union by education level completed is illustrated in Figure 5.2. A higher proportion of women (47.4%) with no education compared with men (37.2%) were in a polygamous union. More men (17.5%) compared with women (10.8%) in a polygamous union had completed secondary level of education. The same trend was sustained at the higher level of education with more men than women being in a polygamous union.

The 2014 KDHS data shows that education is negatively associated with polygamy for both men and women, with the proportion of women decreasing from 32 per cent among those with no education to 6 per cent among those with at least some secondary education (2014 KDHS). This difference can be attributed to the effect of schooling in that staying longer in school decreases the chances of early marriage (NCPD, 2013).

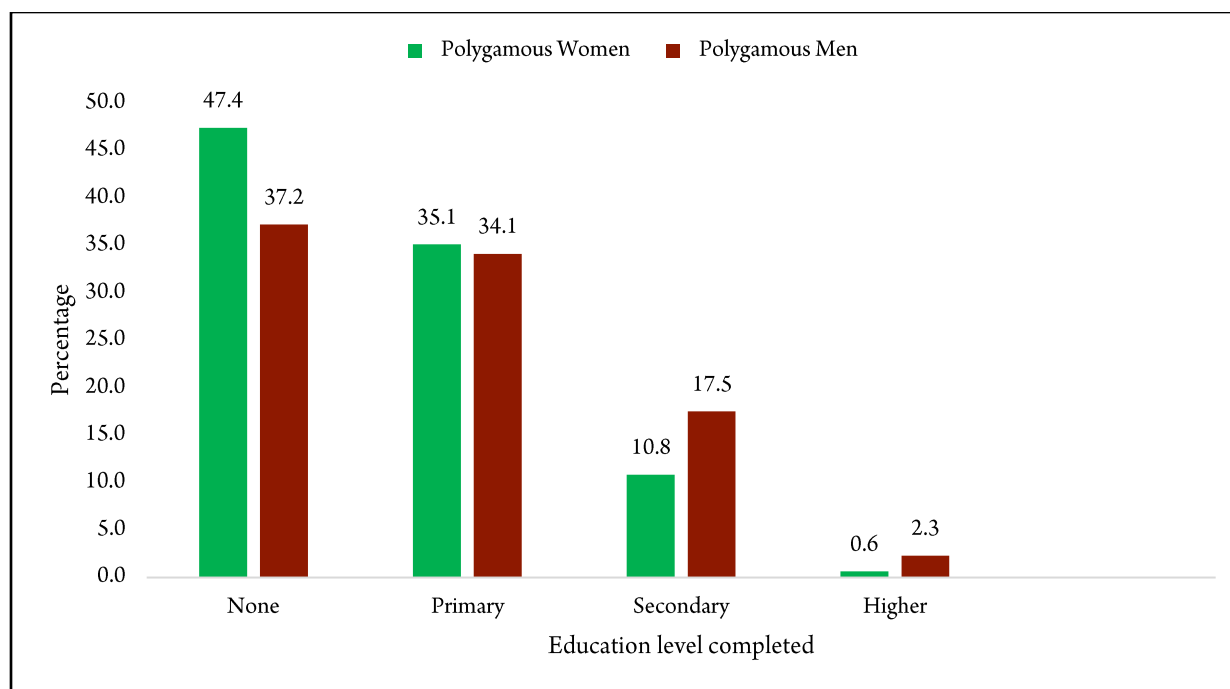


Figure 5.2: Percentage Distribution of Population in a Polygamous Union by Education Level Completed, 2019

5.6 Widowhood

In many societies, widows are socially disadvantaged. Not only do they face several forms of social, economic, psychological and cultural deprivation, they also lack attention from policy makers and public interest. For a number of reasons, more females than males are affected by widowhood. Figure 5.4 illustrates the per cent distribution of population widowed by age and sex. The 2019 census show that women are slightly over one million (87.1%) out of about 1.1 million who reported as widowed. Variation clearly starts at age 30 and is more pronounced with advancement in age. At age 60 and above, 38 per cent of women are widowed compared with men (6.9%).

Studies show that men are more likely to remarry after death of a spouse or divorce compared with women. Research by Pew Research Center in the United States in 2014 reveals that two-third of widowed and divorced men remarried compared to only half of women (Livingston and Gretchen, 2014). This explains why fewer men reported being widowed compared to women. Men are known to be less socially connected and commit suicide more often than women and usually die of heart disease more often at a younger age. Mostly, men are far more likely to skip routine health screens and far less likely than women to have seen a doctor of any kind during the previous year (Shmerling, 2016).

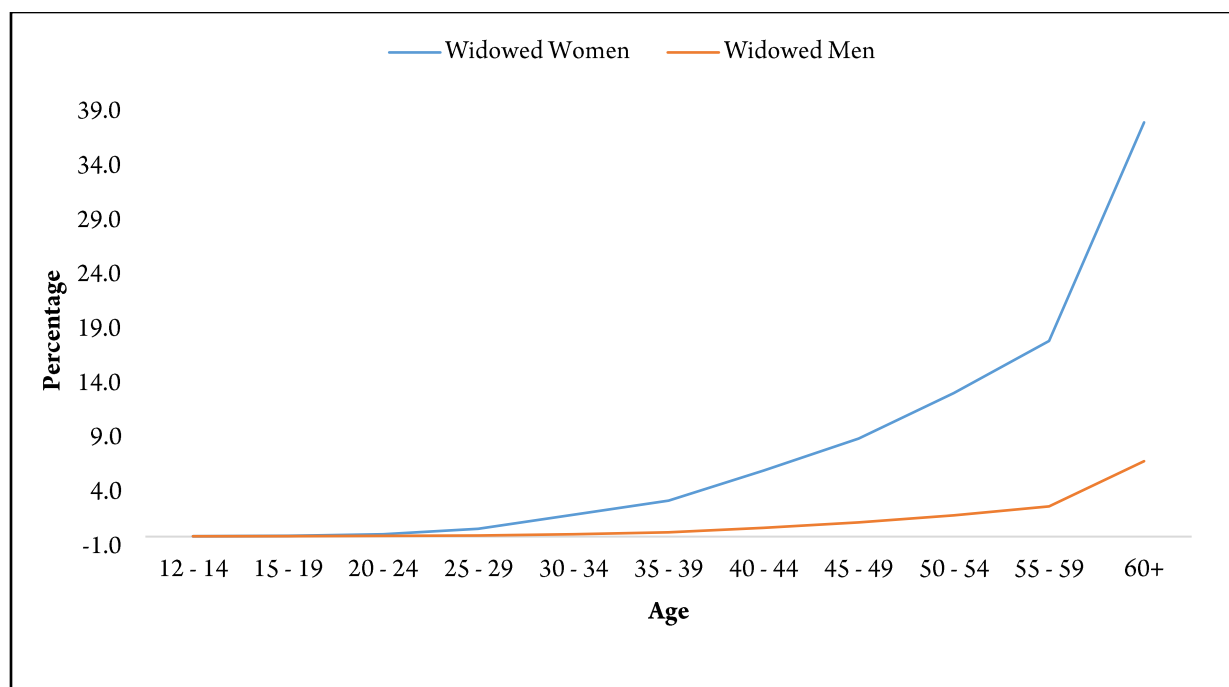


Figure 5.3: Percentage Distribution of Population Widowed by Age and Sex, 2019

5.7 Divorce and Separation

Divorce or separation can have multiple disruptive and lasting consequences not only for both partners, but also for children and other dependent family members. In addition, studies show that women are less likely than men to re-marry after a divorce, and often times find themselves in more vulnerable social and economic situations.

While many divorce settlements are equitable on the surface, societal expectations and pressures create situations that disadvantage women in the longer term. Women shoulder the child-rearing responsibilities since social values suggest children are best situated with their mothers. Women usually earn slightly less than men leading to unequal earning potential which is exacerbated by child care responsibilities (Rosen, 2020). The census data shows that divorce and separation remains relatively low for both men (2.3%) and women (3.6%). Cases of separation are higher compared with divorce, with more separations experienced at ages 35 – 49.

5.8 Child Marriage

Child marriage is a marriage in which one or both spouses are under 18 years old. This inevitably denies children their right to the education they need for their personal development, their preparation for adulthood, and their effective contribution to the future wellbeing of their family and society.

5.8.1 Child Marriage by Age

The 2019 census shows that slightly more than half a million adolescents age 12-19 are either in a monogamous or polygamous marriage. Seventy-three per cent of them are adolescents age 15-19 with four per cent in a polygamous marriage. Figure 5.4 shows the proportion of married adolescents by

sex. More girls (10.8%) age 15 – 19 are either in a monogamous or polygamous marriage compared with boys (4.2%) of the same age.

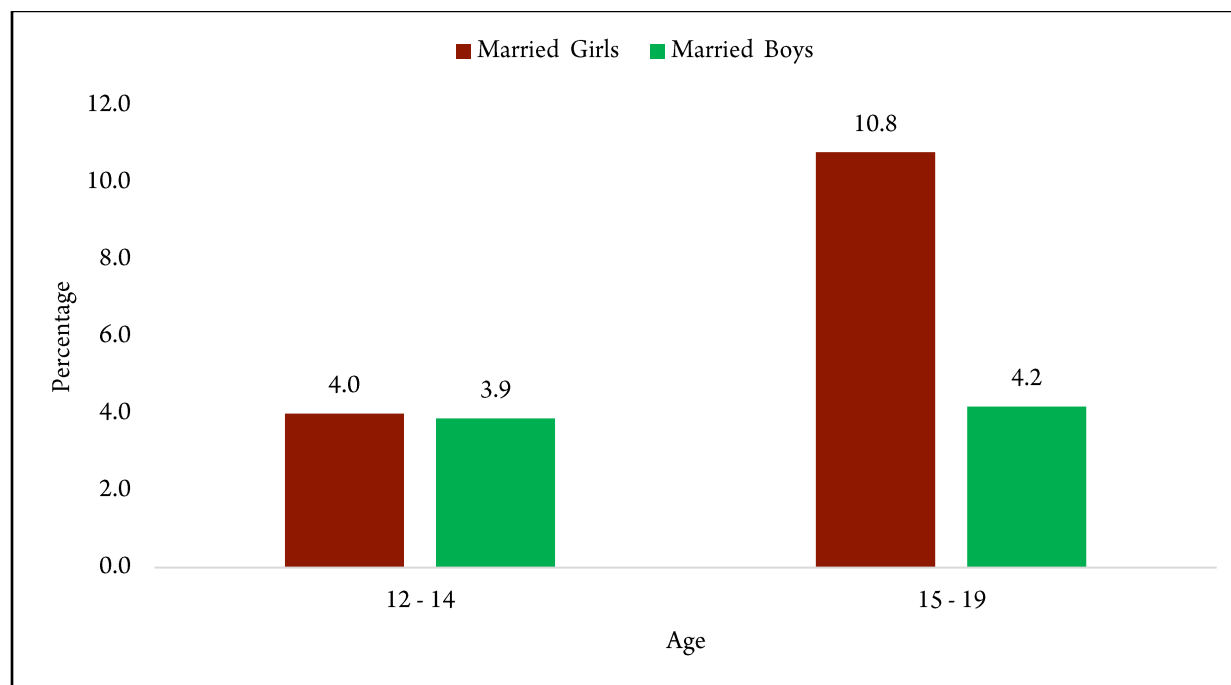


Figure 5.4: Percentage Distribution of Married Adolescents by Sex, 2019

5.8.2 Trends in Child Marriage

Figure 5.5 presents the trend in the proportion of married adolescents by sex from 1999 - 2019. Since 1999, the proportion of married girls has been on a downward trend recording a decline of 8.0 percentage points. In contrast, the proportion of married boys recorded a gradual increase of 1.3 percentage points over the same period. Compared to married boys, the proportion of married girls remained relatively high.

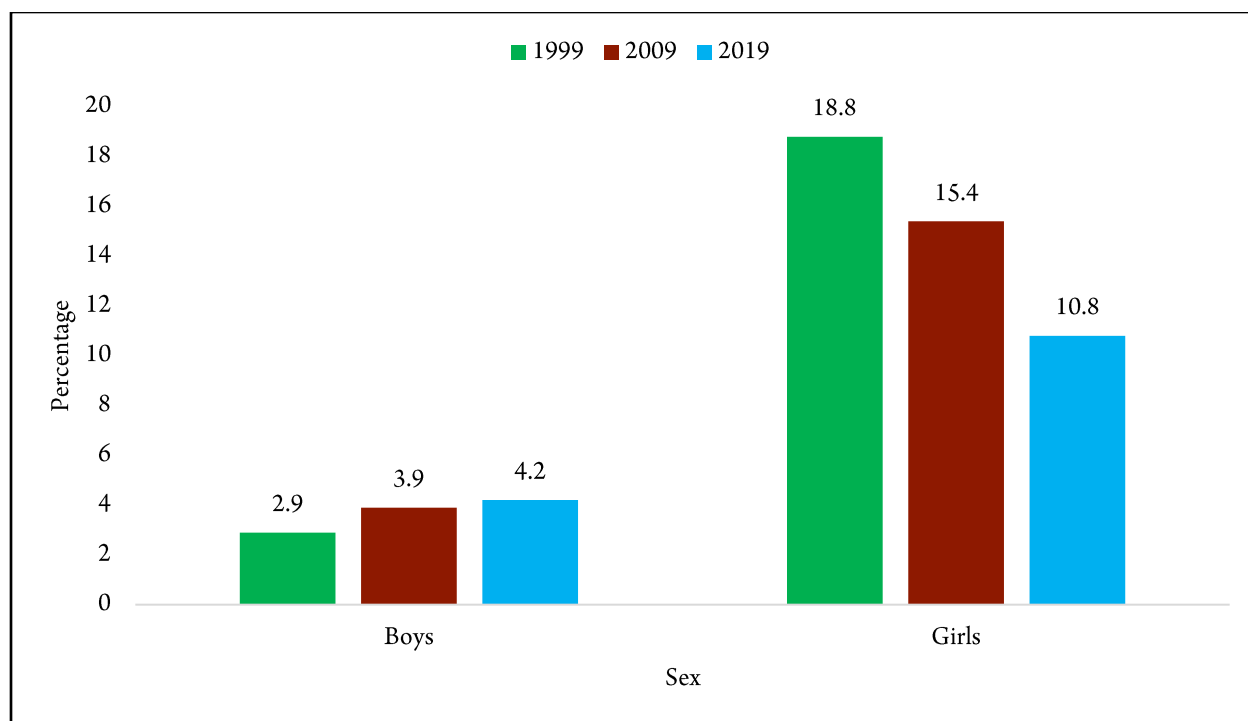


Figure 5.5: Percentage Distribution of Married Adolescents by Sex, 1999 - 2019

Child marriage affects girls in far greater numbers than boys. In Kenya, cultural practices over the years have contributed to the unequal treatment of the girl child when compared to the boy child. Girls are viewed as a source of wealth thereby encouraging early marriage so that the bridewealth paid can be used to improve the family's economic status. Communities practicing FGM consider it a rite of passage from childhood to adulthood and therefore girls who have undergone this practice, their young age notwithstanding, are viewed as ready for marriage giving rise to child brides. Poverty also triggers early entry into marriage, motherhood and family establishment (NCPD, 2013).

The boy child is forced to take on adult responsibilities for which they may not be prepared. The union may bring early fatherhood and result in additional economic pressure in the form of providing for the household. This constrains the boy's access to education and opportunities for career advancement (UNICEF, 2020). Participants in a baseline study on child marriage, teenage pregnancy and FGM/cutting in Kenya mentioned various reasons for child marriage and stated that the decision to marry was often a result of coercion or a means of addressing other issues such as (extreme) poverty, pregnancy or preserving family honour; or peer pressure (Gitau et. al, 2016). However, the practice of child marriage is slowly declining.

5.9 Conclusion

- Early marriage is more pronounced in girls. There are more girls (10.8%) age 15 – 19 compared to boys (4.2%) of the same age, who are married.
- More women (51.1%) are in a monogamous or polygamous union compared with men (48.4%).
- The proportion of women in a polygamous union decrease with the increase in the level of education completed. Fewer women than men with secondary or higher level of education completed are less likely to enter into a polygamous union.
- More women (38.1%) age 60 and above compared with men (6.9%) of the same age, are widowed.
- The proportion of population divorced or separated remain low for both sexes.
- The Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM) is 27.3 and 23.1 years for men and women indicating that women on average enter into first marriage about 4 years earlier than men.

5.10 Recommendations

- Child marriage is still prevalent in Kenya. More girls compared to boys reported being in union. Enforcement of the marriage law (Marriage Act, 2014) barring marriage of people below age 18 and from marriage and enforcement of complimentary laws protecting the rights of children is a priority (Basic Education Act, 2013).
- Education is a key driver towards progressive gender norm change. Education achievement leads to delay in marriage and has a bearing on the type of marriage consummated. Therefore, more emphasis should focus to universalize education by improving access and participation for both men and women.
- Promote young men and women's education to know and exercise their rights, develop skills to support their own life plans and to have opportunities to connect with their peers and support each other. This will be achieved by introducing learning areas in the school curriculum, to ensure that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes.
- Further research is needed on the drivers of the practice and effect of child marriage.

Chapter 6: Household, Families, Living Conditions and Poverty

6.1 Introduction

The household is the basic unit in which economic production, consumption, inheritance, child-rearing, and shelter are organized and carried out. The household may or may not be synonymous with family but for census purposes, it is the basis of enumeration from which individuals are identified.

The distribution of individuals within households determines the living arrangements of families. The household and family status classification provides a picture of the living situation of women and men. Important highlights in the living arrangements relevant to gender issues are; single mothers and fathers, elderly women and men living alone and households hosting vulnerable groups.

The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action (United Nations, 1994) emphasizes the importance of understanding the implications of household and family compositions to adequately respond to human wellbeing. The government should “develop the capacity to monitor the impact of social and economic decisions and actions of the well-being of families, on the status of women within families, the ability of families to meet basic needs of their members.” In this regard, the Constitution of Kenya, 2010 and Sessional Paper Number 3 of 2012, recognize family as the natural and fundamental unit of the society and the necessary basis of social order and shall enjoy the recognition and protection of the State.

Housing conditions are useful physical indicators of the social and economic well-being of the population. In the 2019 Census, household respondents were asked questions about the proprietary and physical conditions of their dwellings, specifically concerning:

1. Accommodation (number of dwelling units and habitable rooms)
2. Tenure status of the main dwelling unit
3. Construction materials of the main dwelling unit (roof, wall and floor)
4. Amenities (main source of drinking water, main mode of human waste disposal, and main type of cooking and lighting fuels).

Poverty which is an indicator of well-being is a societal problem which has prompted continuous development of strategies to reduce its impact (Banovcinova, Levicka, & Veres, 2014). Poverty is defined as including both lack of material or monetary resources plus the structural and systemic factors, which impact an individual's opportunities, capabilities, and agency in political, socio-economic spheres. The causes of poverty are structural and systemic and hinge on the social organization that relegates women to a position of lesser power over resources, decision making in the management of national affairs and access to opportunities. Poverty denies women the chance to realize rights in areas such as politics, education, health, decision- making, the economy, and access to justice (NPGAD, 2019).

The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action (United Nations, 1994) underscores poverty as a key challenge to efforts geared towards

development. Consequently, poverty is normally associated with women, illiteracy, unemployment, exposure to environment-related risks and restricted access to social and health services. Therefore, to alleviate poverty, the government through the *Vision 2030* has committed to eliminate poverty through enhancing equity and wealth creation opportunities for the poor.

Consumer durable assets owned by the household members together with housing characteristics are important variables for deriving the aggregate asset index used to measure poverty. The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census collected data used to compute the asset index, namely: ownership of household assets, livestock currently owned/reared/managed within the household in the county, housing conditions and amenities, dominant construction material of the main dwelling unit (roof, wall and floor), main source of drinking water, main mode of waste disposal, main mode of solid waste disposal, main type of cooking fuel, and main type of lighting.

6.2 Gender Dimensions in Household, Families and Living Conditions

Household and family dynamics are useful in planning and developing special policies for vulnerable population. Households and families with young children, elderly persons members with disabilities, or even with persons suffering from chronic illnesses analyzed by gender are useful dimension in understanding the differential status of women and men, boys and girls at the household level. Analysis on the living arrangements helps to explain the differentials in the individual wellbeing as well as access to household-based opportunities by sex.

Studies have established that women and men do not often have the same opportunities in all aspects of life. Potential needs and problems in regard to gender inequalities especially on income, poverty, education and ability of household members to work from outside the home, maybe highlighted through household characteristics. Families or households without children present a lower likelihood of vulnerability and poverty than those with children (OECD, 2011).

Elimination of the “feminization of poverty” is crucial as female-headed or female-maintained households are more susceptible to poverty compared to male-headed households (Chant, 2003). In most cultures, women are associated with and perform most of the domestic and care work. This affects their school attendance and social life, consequently, jeopardizing their life opportunities. Poverty risks are often lower in double-earner families or households compared to single-earner ones. Women’s participation in the Labour market considering other roles such as domestic and care work shows the double burden of women’s work especially in single-earner households.

Needs by sex are often different depending on living arrangements, for example needs of lone mothers may differ from lone fathers and from those of teenage mothers. An in-depth analysis of household composition highlights the diversities in families and households needs which include the most vulnerable groups.

Most studies have shown that the presence of grandparents especially grandmothers have a positive impact on children’s wellbeing (UNFPA, 2014). For instance presence of grandmothers is associated with; taking care of children whose mothers work outside home, improved school attendance of children, and improved reproductive health of both mothers and children (UNFPA, 2014)

Housing amenities are important physical attributes that enhance the quality of housing and the living environment. The availability of drinking water and type of cooking fuel are important in understanding gender dimensions and roles in communities. In informal settlements and rural households, some studies have shown that women spend much time preparing food in poorly ventilated rooms, they use biomass fuels, most likely with small children next to them (UNFPA, 2014). This exposes them to indoor air pollution and consequently risks to upper respiratory illnesses.

6.3 Relevance of Poverty in Analysis of Gender Issues

The entitlement to social protection as enshrined under the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1948), underscores the fact that everyone has the right to social security. On the contrary, the entitlement to social security is often linked to employment. Therefore, the limited participation of women in paid employment prejudices them to vulnerability, particularly on poverty. The protection from poverty, which in turn is linked to equal access to social security is considered requisite for gender equality.

The ICPD Programme of Action identifies the increasing number and proportions of elderly persons, thus emphasizing the need to develop and ensure effective systems of economic and social security at old age. According to United Nations(1995c), the Beijing Declaration on Women affirmed the international commitment to eliminate the burden of poverty for women to deal with the structural causes of poverty through the provision of equal access for both rural and urban women to productive resources, opportunities, and public services. The difference between women and men in ownership, use and control over assets and wealth is an important indicator for gender analysis. As a matter of fact, gender gaps come out in ownership of housing property and land, which are the primary means to storing wealth among the rural communities (Beegle & Christiaensen, 2019).

Ending poverty in all its forms everywhere is a global call, which all countries have endeavoured to achieve through the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals. For instance, the proportion of the world's population living under extreme poverty declined to 10.0 per cent in 2015 from 15.7 in 2010 per cent (United Nations, 2020). Nationally, the Government of Kenya through *Vision 2030* acknowledges equity as a key principle for its economic, social and political programmes.

As highlighted in the chapter on mortality, women have a longer life expectancy than men. Further, studies have revealed that in countries with stable socio-economic order, women outlive men by an average of between 4-7 years. The longevity of female life expectancy is attributable to higher cardiovascular sickness and mortality in men, which shortens their life expectancy (Ginter & Simko, 2013). Therefore, women constitute majority of the elderly persons.

In addition, the chapter on marriage, shows that divorce or separation has multiple disruptive and lasting consequences not only for both partners but also for children and other dependent family members. For example, the findings of a study revealed that after marital disruption, the most crucial discriminators for women's ability to remain or move out of poverty were employment status, education, job- training and the presence of children below six years (Mauldin , 1991). Therefore, women are more likely to fall into poverty when carrying out childcare responsibilities and reproductive roles which limit their participation in productive economic activities like paid employment.

In addition, Sections 53 to 57 of Chapter 4 of the Constitution of Kenya provides for the right of children, youth, and elderly persons. Therefore, it is important to carry out a gender analysis to highlight the existing gender gaps between men and women.

6.4 Limitations of Data

All the Kenyan censuses since 1969 are de facto and therefore interpretation of headship of households need to take this into account. The 2019 KPHC was a de facto census and this affected the definition of a household more so, who is considered to be a household member or not. This is because individuals who did not spend the night of the Census in their particular households would be considered household members in another household. This is not the case for the de jure censuses.

The usage of male household heads and female household heads for gender analysis should be taken into considerations when interpreting the results. There are several issues identified on this; first and foremost, the definition and operationalization of “head of the household” is not uniform and it is vague. Secondly, gender inequalities exist within the household and intra-household level and focusing on the female/male-headed households may not address these inequalities. Lastly, biased policy priorities may arise by focusing on female-headed households.

Another limitation on data is that the relationships between household members are described with respect to the household head, therefore, limiting the extent to which mapping could be done on all relationships between household members.

In evaluating the wellbeing of individuals within the population, the level of personal and/or household income plays a crucial role in determining whether a household is poor or not. The 2019 KPHC data did not capture information which can be used to determine the known aggregate indices of poverty such as the headcount index, poverty gap and severity. The wealth index used in this report serves as a proxy for a household’s long-term standard of living.

6.5 Household and family composition

Household and family dynamics which are associated with gender issues include: single mothers and fathers, elderly women and men living alone, households hosting vulnerable groups and elderly household heads with dependents under their care (UNFPA, 2014). Living in poverty for these vulnerable groups makes the situation even worse. This section focuses on the living arrangements in households in lower socio-economic strata and, therefore, more likely to be vulnerable. The indicators used for choosing such households were the household wealth quintiles that were constructed using household amenities and assets to indicate the likelihood of cumulative poverty.

6.5.1 Single Parent Households with Children

This section presents the per cent distributions of single-parent poor households by sex and age of the household head as shown in Table 6.1a. Analysis shows that households headed by single mothers age 18-34 with children have a higher chance of being poor (13.1%) compared to those headed by single fathers with children at 1.9 per cent. A similar observation is noted when comparing the single-parent households with children for those headed by the elderly age 60 and above. Female-headed households with grandchildren experience more poverty (10.7%) compared to the male-headed households with grandchildren at 0.7 per cent. Therefore, women are predisposed to poverty

compared to men because of the existing gender norms, which assigns them the role of being the primary caregivers to vulnerable persons.

6.5.2 Single Member Households

This section presents the per cent distributions of single-member poor households by age of the household head as shown in Table 6.1a. Approximately 19.0 per cent of the single-member households among the poor constitute elderly persons. Studies show that the proportion of single-member households among the elderly continues to increase due to factors such as longer life expectancy for women, rise in the number of divorces, and those who choose to live alone. Nationally, the gender gap in life expectancy at birth is six years. This means that in Kenya, women live longer than men by about six years because of the prevailing mortality circumstances. As a result, there are more women at older ages than men.

Consequently, the standard of living in single-member households headed by the elderly, majority of whom are women, is low. Some of the factors identified as determinants of a household's diversity and the consumption situation are the place of residence, marital status, education level, gender, and source of income (Piekut, 2020). The loss of opportunities during the reproductive ages causes women to be left out of social security schemes, which then, exposes more elderly women to poverty compared to men.

Table 6.1a Percentage Distribution of Poor Households by Sex and Age of the Household Head

	Poor							Number of Households
	Single Member Household	Head and Spouse only	Male Head and Children	Female Head and Children	Male Head and GrandChildren	Female Head and GrandChildren	*Other	
18+	13.7	4.7	1.9	13.1	0.3	4.9	61.4	2,455,212
18-34	9.3	3.7	1.6	19.2	0.0	0.0	66.1	1,322,250
60+	18.7	5.9	2.3	5.9	0.7	10.7	55.8	1,132,962

*includes Head, Spouse and Grand Children, Mixed Household, Non-relative Household, Relatives Household and Nuclear Household

Table 6.1b shows the living arrangements for persons age 60 and over by sex and residence. Out of about 2.7 million older persons, about 11 per cent lived with minors and 14 per cent lived alone. The proportion of older women living with minors is higher in both rural and urban areas compared to men. Overall, women tend to live alone compared to men, however, the situation is different when data is disaggregated by place of residence (rural and urban). In urban areas, men of age 60 and over tend to live alone compared to women of the same age while in rural areas, the phenomenon is different. Proportion of elderly males residing with other adults is higher in rural areas however, the difference in rural areas is small.

Table 6.1b: Per cent distribution of persons age 60 and over by sex, type of living arrangement and area of residence

		Living arrangement			
		Total number of persons	Older person living with at least one other adult	Older person living with minors only	Older person living alone
Total	Total	2,721,459	67.2	10.8	14.1
	Male	1,234,157	72.5	6.8	12.3
	Female	1,487,238	62.8	14	15.7
Rural	Total	2,283,027	67	11.7	13.4
	Male	1,018,371	73.3	7.5	10.6
	Female	1,264,604	61.9	15	15.6
Urban	Total	438,432	68.3	6	18.3
	Male	215,786	68.9	3.7	20.1
	Female	222,634	67.6	8.3	16.5

Table 6.1c shows the distribution of older persons living alone by sex and county. Nationally, there are nearly twice as many elderly women living alone than men. Mombasa, Lamu and Nairobi Counties have the highest proportion of elderly men living alone, at 69, 65 and 63 per cent respectively. Homabay, Migori, Siaya, Kisumu, Busia and Kisii counties have the highest proportions of elderly women living alone, 83, 81, 77, 73, 71 and 70 per cent respectively. Figure 6.1 shows distribution of elderly women living alone by county, whereas, figure 6.2 shows the same distribution for elderly men.

Table 6.1c: Distribution of Households with Elderly Persons Living Alone by Sex and County

County	Male	Female
Total	39	61
Mombasa	69	31
Kwale	56	44
Kilifi	52	48
Tana River	48	52
Lamu	65	35
Taita-Taveta	56	44
Garissa	48	52
Wajir	54	46
Mandera	47	53
Marsabit	42	58
Isiolo	51	49
Meru	36	64
Tharaka-Nithi	41	59
Embu	36	64
Kitui	42	58
Machakos	44	56
Makueni	44	56
Nyandarua	34	66
Nyeri	36	64
Kirinyaga	34	66
Murang'a	34	66
Kiambu	38	62
Turkana	39	61
West Pokot	41	59
Samburu	31	69
Trans Nzoia	51	49
Uasin Gishu	54	46
Elgeyo-Marakwet	53	47
Nandi	48	52
Baringo	51	49
Laikipia	42	58
Nakuru	44	56
Narok	49	51
Kajiado	53	47
Kericho	39	61
Bomet	36	64
Kakamega	35	65
Vihiga	48	52
Bungoma	35	65
Busia	29	71
Siaya	23	77
Kisumu	27	73
Homabay	17	83
Migori	19	81
Kisii	30	70
Nyamira	34	66
Nairobi City	63	37

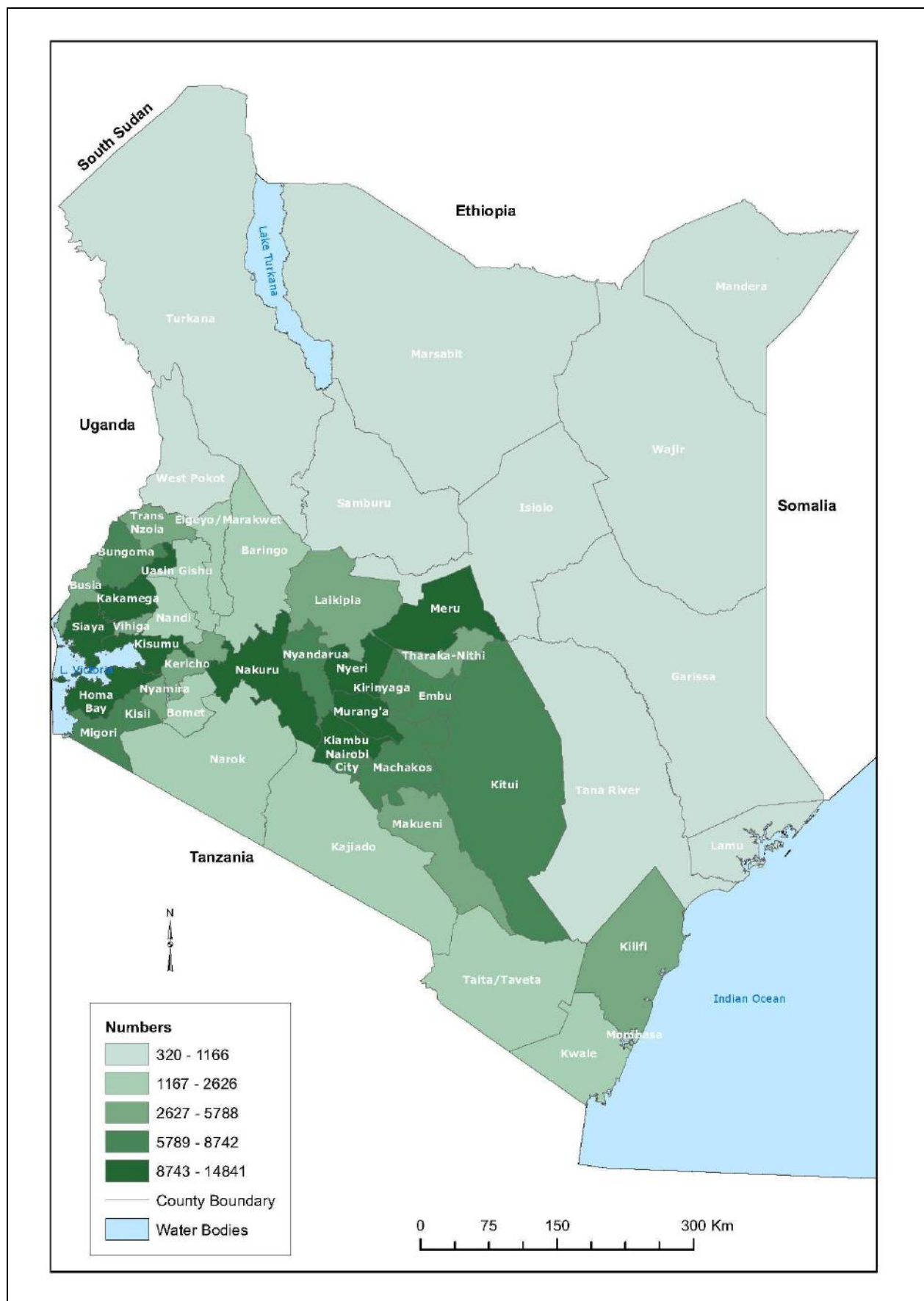


Figure 6.1: Distribution of Elderly Women Living Alone by County

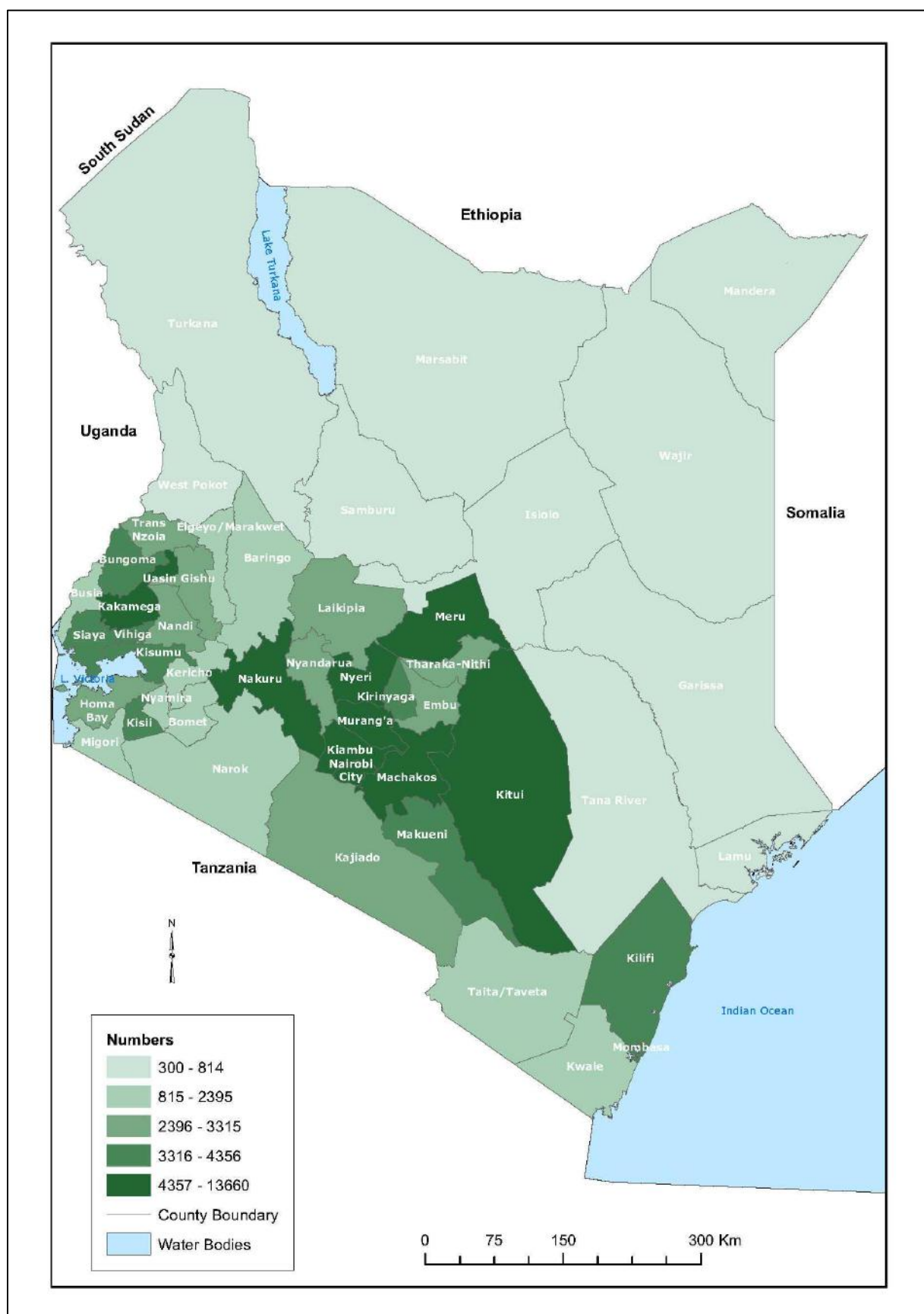


Figure 6.2: Distribution of Elderly Men Living Alone by County

6.6 Educational Attainment

This section presents the distribution of the poor population by educational attainment and sex as shown in Table 6.2. The analysis is based on individuals age 18 years and above. Educational systems at the micro and macro level play an important role in enabling social upward mobility. Education is a key factor in breaking the vicious circle of intergenerational transmission of poverty. Countries are creating educational and training systems, which are more inclusive at all levels and for all ages. These levels include primary, secondary, higher, or vocational training as well as education for adult persons (Mihai, TiTan, & Manea, 2015).

According to World Development Report on Gender and Development (2012), improvement in closing the gender gap in education has been stable and sustained at all levels, which include primary, secondary, and tertiary. In several countries, and particularly for higher education, the gender gap is reversing with boys and young men increasingly being at a disadvantage. While a majority of countries have reached gender parity in primary education enrolments, girls in over one-third of these significantly outnumber boys in secondary education. This shift has created new opportunities for women's employment, hence having a direct impact on poverty reduction (World Bank, 2012).

Table 6.2: Percentage Distribution of Poor Population by Educational Attainment , Age and Sex.

	Population (N)	Poor							Total
		Primary	Secondary	Middle Level/Technical and Vocational Training(TVET)	University	None/Never Attended	NOT STATED/DK	Other*	
18+	7,563,244	49.7	36.8	7.2	2.3	0.3	0.6	3.1	100.0
Male	3,805,621	47.7	38.2	7.3	2.9	0.3	0.6	2.9	100.0
Female	3,757,623	51.7	35.4	7.1	1.7	0.3	0.6	3.2	100.0
18 - 34	6,456,698	46.7	40.0	7.6	2.6	0.2	0.4	2.5	100.0
Male	3,162,237	44.8	41.3	7.4	3.3	0.2	0.5	2.5	100.0
Female	3,294,461	48.5	38.8	7.7	1.9	0.2	0.3	2.5	100.0
60+	1,106,546	67.5	18.0	5.1	0.6	0.9	1.6	6.3	100.0
Male	643,384	62.3	22.8	6.8	0.9	0.7	1.3	5.3	100.0
Female	463,162	74.6	11.5	2.7	0.1	1.2	2.0	7.7	100.0

*pre-primary, vocational training, adult education, madrassa/duksi

6.6.1 National

The findings show the rate of poverty decreases with upward mobility in educational attainment. Analysis shows that for those persons who have attained primary education as their highest educational attainment level, there is a 4.0 per cent point difference between males and females, with females being the poorer. Notably, poverty is a key factor for determining a girl's ability to access education. Households in poverty with many children prioritise investing in boys' education instead of the girls'. The girls are then relied on to support their families with household chores and childcare responsibilities. This ultimately limits their opportunities in building their human capital (World Bank, 2021).

6.6.2 Youth, Age 18-34

Analysis by educational attainment at the primary level shows that women account for a high proportion of the poor compared to men among individuals aged 18-34. The findings depict that among the poor individuals who have attained a primary level of education, women of age 18-34 account for a slightly high proportion (48.5%) compared to men (44.8%). Therefore, there is a 3.7 per cent point difference in favour of men with primary level of education as the highest level attained. It is worth noting that, for those who have acquired at least secondary level of education, there is a paradigm shift that shows that men are more likely to be poor compared to women. The analysis shows that there is a 2.5 per cent difference in favour of women compared to men. This can be attributed to the affirmative action taken by the Government in recent years to support women's education. The World Bank Fact Sheet on the education of Girl Child show that the enrolment of girls attending secondary school increased in 2007. Further, Kenya developed a gender policy aimed at elimination of gender disparities in education, training, enrolment, retention, transition, completion quality and outcomes (Syomwene & Kindiki, 2015).

6.6.3 Older Persons, Age 60+

Analysis by educational attainment for individuals age 60 and above show that a higher proportion of women are poor. The results indicate that more women with no education are poorer (1.2%) compared to their male counterparts with 0.7 per cent being poor. Studies show that elderly women are vulnerable in retirement due to their longevity in life expectancy and low career earnings (Morrissey, 2016). The low earnings are attributed to little or no educational attainment levels. Therefore, education is a key driver of upward mobility in eliminating social exclusion, which is a fundamental element in the fight against poverty. This shows that women are more likely to be poor because they are often disadvantaged by their reproductive roles, lack of opportunities for education and gender discrimination which limit their participation in the labour market (Mihai, TiTan, & Manea, 2015).

6.7 Main Type of Cooking Fuel

The type of cooking fuel has a direct influence on levels of indoor air pollution which contributes to health risks such as respiratory infections. Women and girls spend more time in domestic and unpaid work than men and boys (Ferrant et al., 2014). Cooking and fetching cooking fuels in many households is mostly done by women and girls (role specializations) and consequently exposes them to indoor air pollution, especially when cooking is carried out in poorly ventilated areas (UNFPA, 2014)³. Moreover, as women spend a considerable amount of their time preparing for food, small children are likely to be with them. Consequently, this predisposes children to indoor air pollution. "...According to WHO, indoor air pollution is responsible for an estimated 1.6 million deaths per year and about half of these deaths are among small children under the age of 5 ..." (UNFPA,2014).

The time spent fetching cooking fuels puts women and girls in a disadvantaged position, who would rather be engaged in other economically productive activities such as attending school and labour

³ This makes women and girls to be vulnerable to health related complications, like upper respiratory diseases. "...According to WHO, indoor air pollution is responsible for an estimated 1.6 million deaths per year (see <http://who.int/heli/risks/indoorair/indoorair/en/> for more details). About half of these deaths are among small children under the age of 5." (UNFPA,2014).

participation. Lastly, cleaner cooking fuels such as electricity and solar are usually more expensive compared to unclean cooking fuels such as paraffin and firewood.

Table 6.3 shows the percentage distribution of households by the main type of cooking fuel and area of residence. Overall, firewood forms the highest proportion of the main source of cooking fuel. About 55.2 per cent of households use firewood for cooking. Among rural populations firewood is the main source of fuel for cooking (84.2 per cent) followed by charcoal (7.7 per cent). In urban areas, LPG (gas) is the most commonly used source of cooking fuel (52.9%), followed by charcoal (17.8per cent) and paraffin (17.7 per cent). Women in rural areas are therefore more likely to be exposed to upper respiratory illnesses due to exposure to indoor air pollution from firewood. Solar is the least commonly used source of cooking fuel in Kenya

Table 6.3: Percentage distribution of Households by Main Type of Cooking Fuel and Area of residence

	Number of Households	Clean Sources				Unclean Sources		
		Electricity	LPG (gas)	Biogas	Solar	Firewood	Charcoal	Paraffin
Total	12,040,701	0.8	23.9	0.5	0.2	55.2	11.6	7.8
Rural	7,376,595	0.3	5.6	0.3	0.2	84.2	7.7	1.6
Urban	4,664,106	1.6	52.9	0.7	0.0	9.3	17.8	17.7

Table 6.4 shows the percentage distribution of households by the main type of fuel and by county. Wajir, Mandera, Marsabit, Tharaka Nithi, Kitui, Turkana, West-Pokot, Elgeyo-Marakwet, Nandi, Baringo, Bomet, Vihiga, and Nyamira Counties, have over 80 per cent of their main source of cooking fuel as firewood. Therefore, these are the counties where women and girls are likely to suffer from respiratory illnesses brought about by indoor air pollution. Firewood is the main source of cooking fuel across all counties apart from Mombasa, Kiambu, Kajiado and Nairobi whose main source of cooking fuel is liquefied petroleum gas(LPG). Figure 6.3 shows the percentage distribution of households who use firewood as the main type of cooking fuel by County.

Table 6.4 Percentage distribution of households by the main type of fuel and County.

County	Electricity	Paraffin	LPG (gas)	Biogas	Firewood	Charcoal	Solar
Kenya	0.8	7.8	23.9	0.5	55.2	11.6	0.2
Mombasa	1.3	32.1	37.6	1.1	4.7	23.2	0
Kwale	0.5	5	8.6	0.4	69.8	15.5	0.2
Kilifi	0.7	7.4	11.1	0.5	58.3	21.9	0.1
Tana River	0.7	0.9	2.4	0.3	63.7	31.5	0.5
Lamu	0.7	1.6	9	0.5	60.7	27.3	0.3
Taita-Taveta	0.4	6.8	14.2	0.4	55.4	22.8	0.1
Garissa	3.9	0.7	1.5	0.7	72.5	19.4	1.3
Wajir	2.2	0.3	0.7	0.6	90.1	5.3	0.8
Mandera	1.6	0.3	0.4	0.4	86.4	10.4	0.5
Marsabit	0.5	1.1	4.6	0.4	84.9	8.3	0.3
Isiolo	1	1.1	12.6	0.5	60.7	23.9	0.3
Meru	0.5	2.2	12.6	0.5	74.4	9.8	0.1
Tharaka-Nithi	0.2	1.5	10	0.3	82.3	5.7	0.1
Embu	0.4	4	18.4	0.4	70.3	6.2	0.2
Kitui	0.2	2.7	6.7	0.3	81.3	8.6	0.2
Machakos	0.7	11.1	27.5	0.5	53.4	6.7	0.1
Makueni	0.2	4.6	8.6	0.2	76.1	10.1	0.1
Nyandarua	0.2	1.3	12.5	0.2	70	15.6	0
Nyeri	0.5	3.3	23.2	0.5	64.9	7.5	0
Kirinyaga	0.3	5.5	23.8	0.4	65.4	4.4	0
Murang'a	0.4	4.7	17.1	0.4	74.8	2.6	0
Kiambu	0.8	11.1	58.1	0.7	22.3	7.1	0
Turkana	0.3	0.4	1.9	0.4	79.9	16.8	0.2
West Pokot	0.5	0.6	2.3	0.3	88.1	7.9	0.4
Samburu	0.5	0.3	4.5	0.4	73	21.1	0.3
Trans Nzoia	0.5	3	8.7	0.4	70	17.3	0.2
Uasin Gishu	0.7	5.6	24.6	0.4	46.6	22	0.1
Elgeyo-Marakwet	0.5	0.4	3.1	0.2	87.2	8.5	0.2
Nandi	0.4	1	5.8	0.3	84.8	7.6	0.2
Baringo	0.4	0.4	4.1	0.3	81.4	13.3	0.1
Laikipia	0.4	2.3	21.2	0.3	58	17.7	0.1
Nakuru	0.6	5.4	30	0.4	39.7	23.9	0.1
Narok	0.4	1	8.2	0.5	71.8	17.7	0.4
Kajiado	1.2	12.7	47.2	0.7	29	9.1	0.2
Kericho	0.5	1.4	9.5	0.3	79.1	8.9	0.1
Bomet	0.3	0.8	5.9	0.2	88.5	4.1	0.2
Kakamega	0.4	2.4	7.4	0.3	81	8.2	0.3
Vihiga	0.3	2.4	7.1	0.3	83.9	5.9	0.1
Bungoma	0.3	2.6	7.2	0.4	78.3	11	0.2
Busia	0.4	1.5	6	0.4	73.6	18	0.2
Siaya	0.2	2	6	0.3	72.5	18.8	0.2
Kisumu	0.8	7.8	18.7	0.6	49.7	22.2	0.2
Homabay	0.3	1.4	6.2	0.4	74.4	17	0.3
Migori	0.5	1.3	6.8	0.5	71.4	19.2	0.3
Kisii	0.6	2.2	13.5	0.5	78	5.1	0.2
Nyamira	0.8	1.9	8.7	0.3	84.7	3.5	0.1
Nairobi City	2.2	26.5	67.2	0.6	0.7	2.7	0

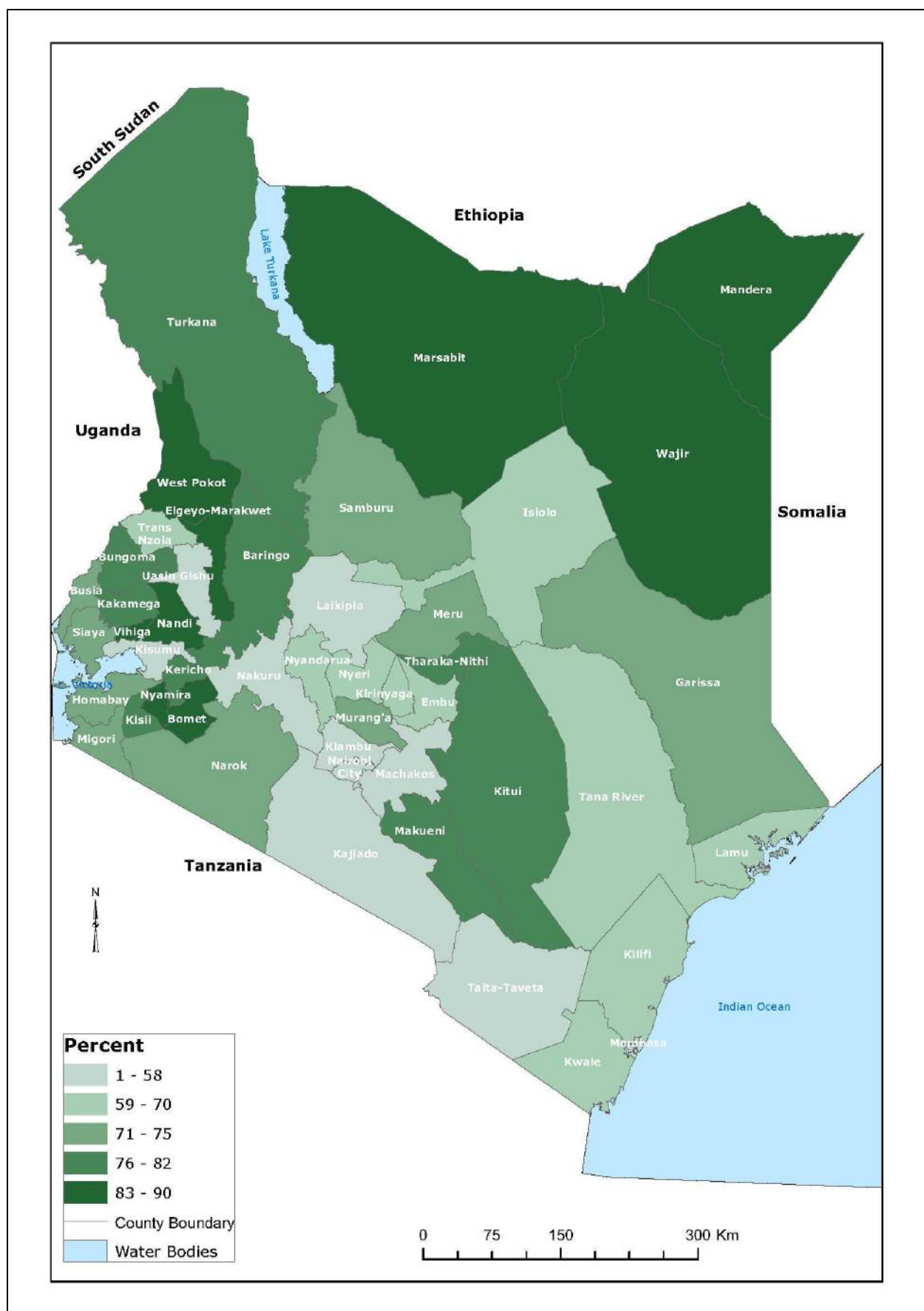


Figure 6.3 Percentage distribution of households by firewood as the main type of cooking fuel by County

6.8 Main Source of Drinking Water

In Kenya, simulation models suggest that reducing the distance to a source of water by 2 kilometres would increase overall school enrolment and attainment twice as much for girls as for boys (World Bank, 2012). In Sub-Saharan Africa, only 54 per cent of households are within 15 minutes from a source of drinking water, and girls under 15 years are more likely than boys of the same age to be in charge of water collection (UNFPA, 2014).

According to 2014 KDHS, nearly 4 in 10 households have the source of their drinking water on their premises, but nearly 3 in 10 households (28 per cent) spend 30 minutes or longer to obtain their drinking water. In rural areas, 4 in 10 households spend 30 minutes or more to obtain their drinking water, compared to only 1 in 10 urban households. Households need to allocate a minimum amount of time to personal activities such as cooking, sleeping and fetching water, only after these tasks are taken care of, can time be devoted to other activities (World Bank, 2012). Women bear the burden of domestic and care work, which makes it hard for them to participate in other productive economic activities (World Bank, 2012).

Table 6.5 shows the percentage distribution of households by the main source of drinking water and area of residence. Nationally, the predominant source of drinking water is from the stream/river (16.8 per cent) followed by piped water into yard/plot (14.1 per cent). Similarly, in rural areas, stream/river has the highest proportion (25.8 per cent) as the main source of drinking water, whereas in urban areas, piped water into the yard/plot is main source of drinking water (23.9 per cent). Women and girls in rural areas are likely to spend more time collecting drinking water compared to those living in urban areas. Such behaviour reduces amount of time rural women and girls dedicate to economically productive work.

6.5: Percentage Distribution of Households by Main source of Drinking water and Area of Residence

Number of Households	Total 12,040,701	Rural 7,376,595	Urban 4,664,106
Pond	1.6	2.4	0.2
Dam	2.5	3.7	0.5
Lake	0.8	1.2	0.3
Stream/River	16.8	25.8	2.6
Protected Spring	7.1	10.5	1.8
Unprotected Spring	2.4	3.7	0.3
Protected Well	7.0	9.0	4.0
Unprotected Well	2.6	4.0	0.5
Borehole/Tube well	9.9	11.8	6.8
Piped into dwelling	10.1	5.1	18.1
Piped to yard/plot	14.1	7.8	23.9
Bottled water	2.8	0.3	6.7
Rain/Harvested water	3.9	5.0	2.0
Water Vendor	8.5	3.3	16.7
Public tap/Standpipe	9.9	6.4	15.6

6.9 Conclusions

The living arrangements and nature of housing conditions are useful physical indicators of the social and economic well-being of the population. This aspect is well captured in the SDG indicator 1.4 which states that: *“By 2030 ensure that all men and women, particularly the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership, and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology, and financial services including microfinance.”*

Nationally, the proportion of elderly women (15.7%) living alone is slightly higher than that of elderly men (12.3%). The phenomenon is higher in Homabay, Migori, Siaya, Kisumu, Busia and Kisii counties. These counties not only exhibit large differences in male-female survival but also high youth out-migration rates. Older persons living alone are more vulnerable in terms of their general well-being.

Out of about 2.7 million older persons (age 60 and over), about 11 per cent lived with minors only. A phenomenon that may be a proxy for the prevalence of ‘skip generation’ living arrangements. More female elderly persons (14 %) are likely to live with minors compared to male elderly (6.8%).

Out of 2.4 million households who are poor, the proportion of households headed by single mothers with children is higher at 13.1 per cent compared to those households headed by single fathers with children at 1.9 per cent. Single female-headed households with children are more likely to be poor than single male-headed households.

Energy and water are very important to the well-being of household members. About 55 per cent of households use firewood for cooking and slightly over 8 in every 10 households in rural areas rely on firewood as the main source of fuel for cooking. Reliance on firewood as a source of cooking fuel exposes more women and girls to the dangers of unclean energy. Further, women and girls who are more likely to be persons in the household to gather firewood for use spend more time in this activity thereby limiting their participation in other market activities. This applies to the use of water from sources that are far from their residences.

6.10 Recommendations

1. Promote policies that reduce gender inequalities through addressing diverse living arrangements targeting vulnerable households specifically paying attention to elderly persons living alone, and female-headed households.
2. More effort to be put in place to address poverty issues specifically increasing the earning power of adults of families that are economically deprived.
3. Enhance investment in household infrastructures such as electrification and clean energy use by the government, in order to free time taken by the women to fetch sources of energy and also to reduce their exposure to upper respiratory diseases, especially in rural areas.
4. Investing in clean sources of drinking water closer to households to reduce time taken to fetch drinking water specifically by women and girls. This would free their time in order to engage in other economically productive activities, especially in rural areas.
5. Advocate for shared responsibilities by men and women, girls and boys on domestic and care work to reduce the burden shouldered by women and girls.

Chapter 7: Education And Training

7.1 Introduction

Education and training are key component in human development and transformation of the society. They remain fundamental human rights as enshrined in the UN Declaration on the Children Rights (1959), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966 (Articles 13 and 14), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1979 (Article 10), the Convention on Rights of the Child, 1989 (Articles 28 and 29), and the Kenya Constitution, 2010 (Article 43:1).

The Government of Kenya (GoK) has signed up several commitments to the development of education and training and provision of inclusive, equitable, quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all by 2030. Kenya's Basic Education Act, 2013 supports and promotes free and compulsory basic education covering pre-primary to secondary education. The Act provides for the principles of inclusion, equitable and equal access to quality and relevant education and learning devoid of any forms of discrimination.

The government of Kenya through, the Ministry of Education (MoE) has put in place a universal transition policy - from primary to secondary - to directly expand educational opportunities to cover at least 12 years of education. Social Pillar of Kenya's *Vision 2030* has prioritized sufficient teacher supply, availability of technical, vocational education and training (TVET), construction of schools, expanding education opportunities in Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASAL's) as key factors towards attaining high levels of education and training in Kenya.

There is a strong link between education and gender equality. Increase in women's education is associated with women empowerment including changes in women's roles and positions in the society. Educational and schooling decisions are the basis upon which women negotiate family and work roles (Bianchi and Spain, 1986).

Analysis of the 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC) education data, focused on gender disparities in school attendance, proxy measures to school enrolment, educational attainment mainly derived from the highest level or grade completed, and the training one had acquired and qualified for.

7.2 Gender Dimensions in Education and Training

Education and training assist in the delivery of social expectations such as improved health and survival rates of infants and children, reduced fertility rates and increased use of modern contraceptives, and also serves as a powerful tool in supporting democracy, building correct civic attitudes and reducing conflict. It is therefore easy to infer that education is the defining factor for which societies would succeed and be well poised for the future.

According to UNFPA guide on the Gender Analysis of Census Data, 2014, analysis of Educational indicators is key in understanding gender issues and gender gaps in access to education and educational attainment. Further, patterns on educational status among household members may point to the differential well being of women and men, boys and girls living in the same setup.

7.3 Derived Measurement from the Data

The census questionnaire collected data on school attendance status which has been used as proxy measurement for school enrolment while Gross Attendance and Net Attendance Rates have been used as proxy measurement to the Gross Enrolment Rate, Net Enrollment Rates and adjusted Net Enrolments. The highest level completed has been used to measure the school attainment. Preprimary education has been considered for age 4-5 which are basically preprimary 1 and 2 under the current Competency Based Curriculum (CBC).

7.4 Education and Training Gender Dimension Analysis

7.4.1 Gender Dimension on School Attendance

Figure 7.1 shows the disparity in school attendance by population age 3 years and above attending school by single years of age. There is near gender parity between males and females of the population attending school from age 3 to 11. The gap widens from age 12 to 14 in favour of girls' population, suggesting a higher dropout of boys compared to girls as they progress to next grades of secondary education. The gender gap widens further between ages 18 to 27 in favour of boys. The widening gender gap could be attributed to transition failure of more females to tertiary education or dropping out of school due to socio-economic factors.

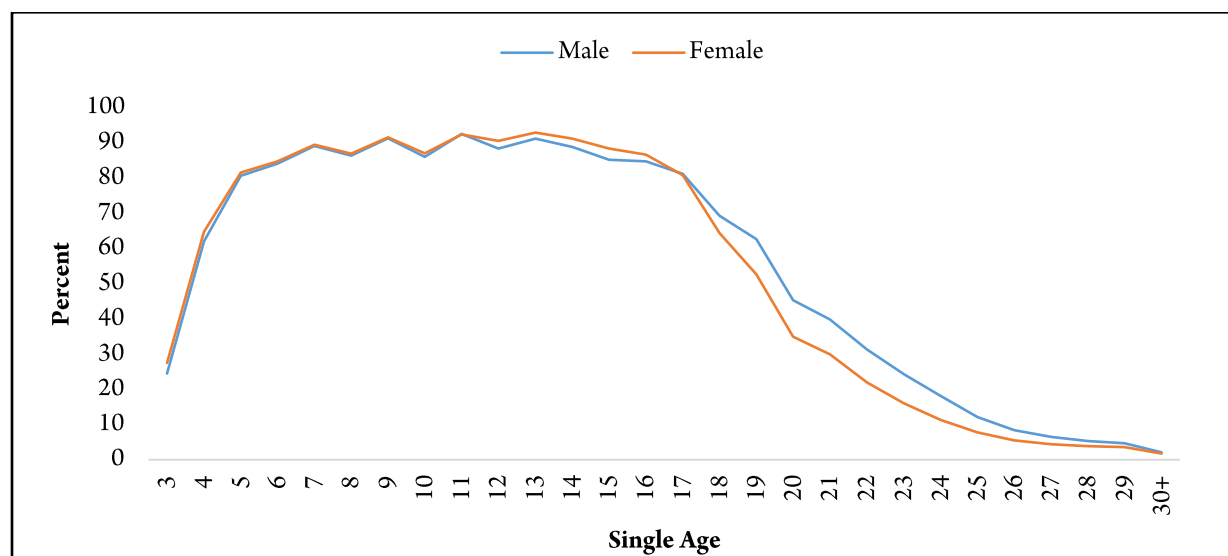


Figure 7.1: Proportion of Population Attending School by Single Years of Age and Sex

Disparity in the population who never attended school by single years of age and sex is presented in Figure 7.2a. Nationally, more females than males had never attended school with a differential of 1.25. Among the ages 4 to 10, more boys than girls had never attended school with the Gender Parity Index (GPI) oscillating in the range of 0.91 and 0.96. This shows that in early years of learning, boys are more likely to delay in joining the education system or take a longer time to join school. Also, they may be engaged in other activities that disregard learning. At age 11, the GPI of 1.06 shows that more girls than boys had never attended school. From age 12 to 19, the GPI fluctuates between 0.71 and 0.99, further, indicating that more boys than girls had never attended school or any learning institution. Boys are therefore more likely to be engaged in other activities other than schooling. The

GPI beyond 1.00 for age 20 and above shows that more females than males had never attended school or learning institutions.

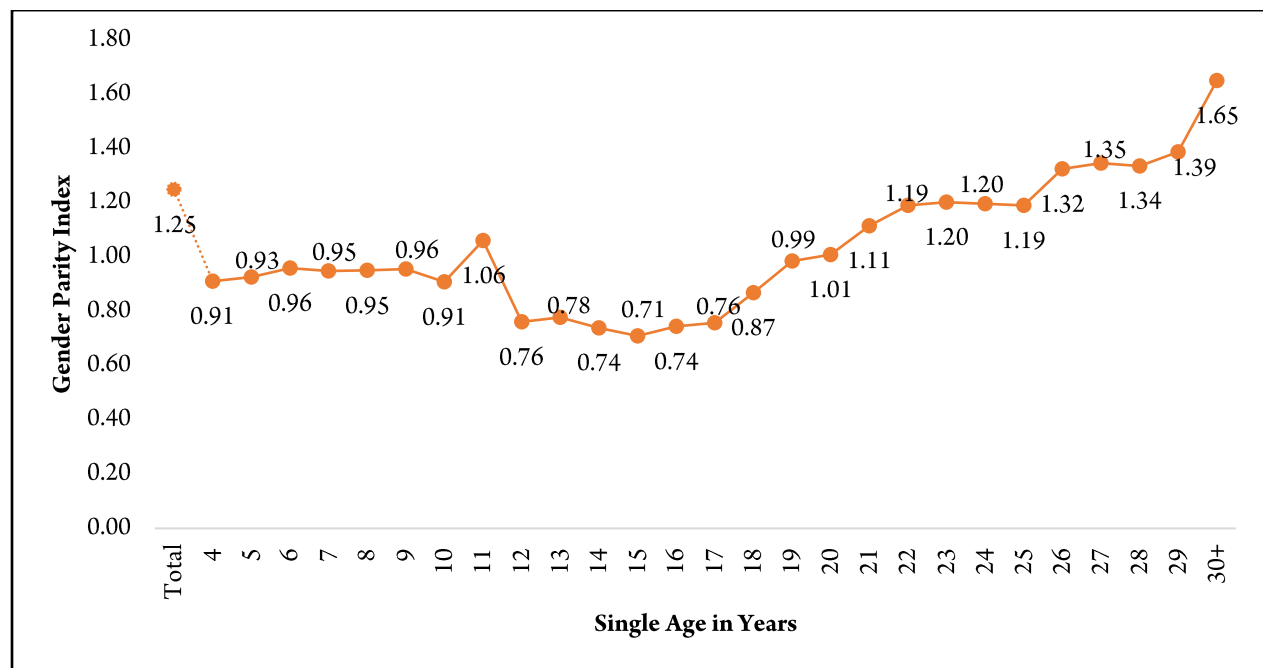


Figure 7.2a: Gender Parity for the Population Who Have Never Attended School by age in single years

Figure 7.2b shows the gender parity for the population age 25 years and above who have never attended school by county. The GPI indicates that there is a disparity in the population 25 years and above who had never attended school across the counties. Two counties namely, Garissa and Wajir had a GPI of less than one implying that in those counties more males than females of age 25 years and above had never attended school. The gender gap is somehow narrow. Counties with a GPI greater than 1.00 indicate that a higher proportion of females compared to males have never attended school.

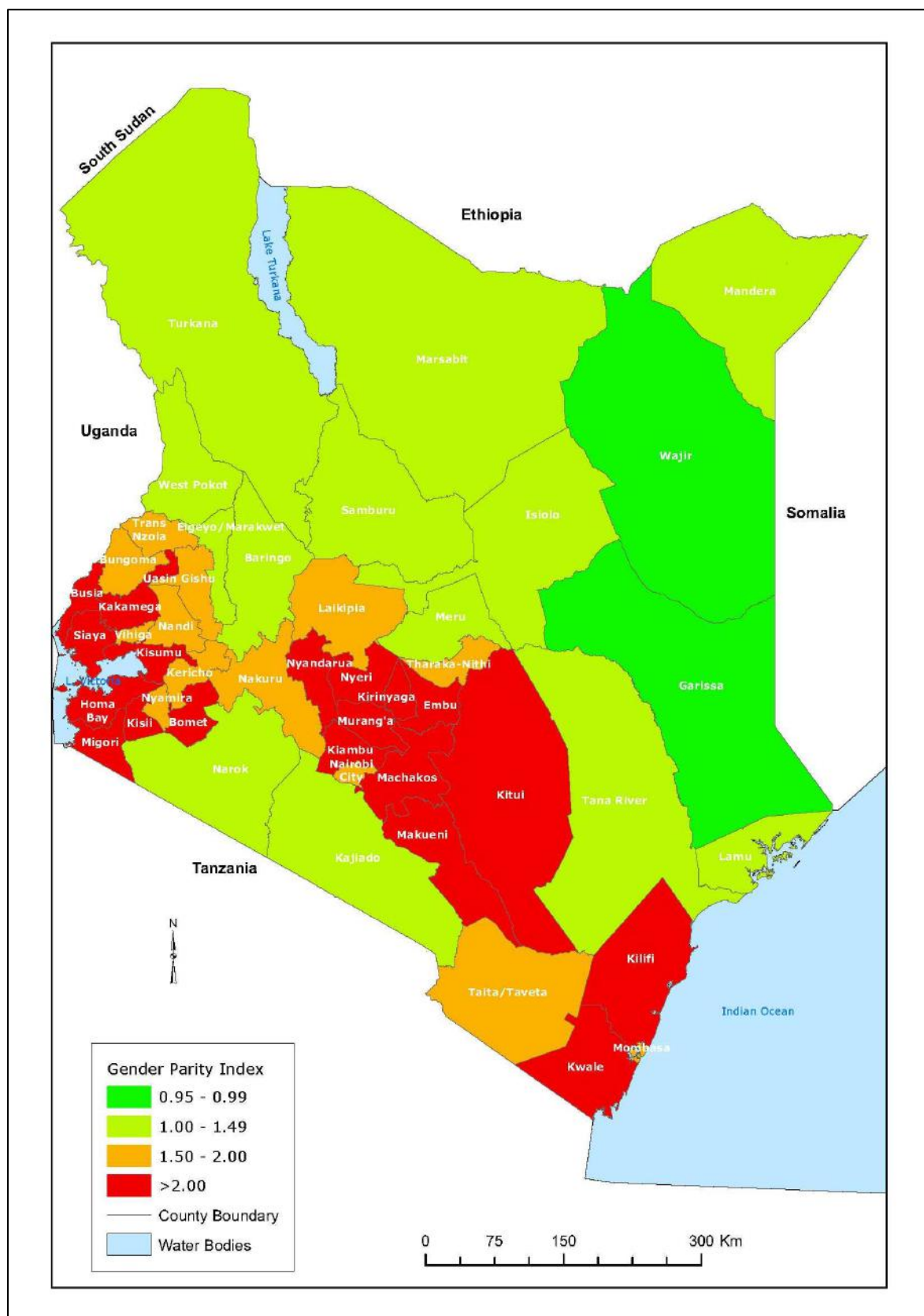


Figure 7.2b: Gender Parity for the Population Age 25 and Above Who Have Never Attended School by County

Figure 7.3 shows gender disparity by the percentage distribution of the population that had dropped out of school before completion in 2019, by single years of age and sex. Disparity in dropout rate between boys and girls is evident from age 12 to 15 in favour of the boys for the official years of schooling in upper primary and lower secondary education. The gap is wider at ages 16 and 17 for official age at upper secondary education with more girls dropping out of school than boys. This suggests high retention within the primary school-going age cohort and low retention at secondary education attributable mainly to socioeconomic factors affecting girl child more than the boy child. Moreover, 7.8 per cent of the children age 5-14 and 15.1 per cent of the children age 15-17 were either working or seeking for work with more boys than girls being affected as indicated in Table 8.1.

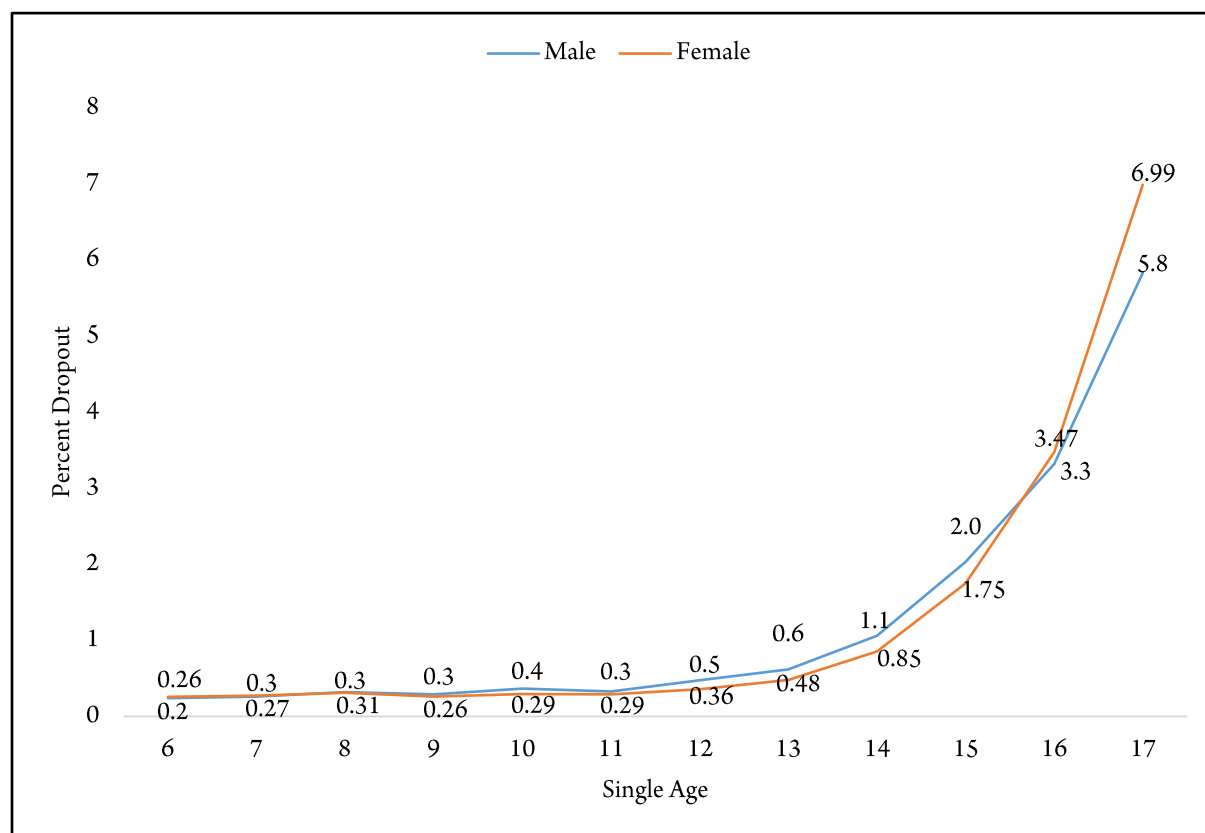


Figure 7.3: School Drop Out Rate by Single Years of Age and Sex

Furthermore, some of the children who drop out of school may have been due to early marriages and early childbearing. The proportion of girls age 12-14 who were married was 4.0 per cent compared to that of boys at 3.9 per cent (See Chapter 5). As the children reach secondary school-going age, in the age cohort 15-19, the proportion of girls in early marriages was 10.8 per cent compared to that of boys at 4.2 per cent as shown in Figure 7.3. This shows a high GPI of 2.57 to the disadvantage of girls. In terms of childbearing, the average number of children ever born per 1000 females age 12-14 is 4.2 while those age 15-19 is 125.9 per 1000. This partly confirms dropouts between age 12-19.

7.4.2 Gender Parity Analysis in School Enrolment

The 2019 KPHC collected data on current school attendance status of all individuals age 3 and above. The Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) education system recognizes that all learners in pre-primary are of age 4-5 save for the over-age learners who may have been attending pre-primary school

at the time of census. The data on enrolment discussed in this monograph are based on the school attendance status and was applied on a denominator ‘all respondents’.

Figure 7.4 provides information on gender parity in school enrolment at different levels of education. There was near parity at pre-primary school enrolment with slightly more boys than girls enrolled. Education at this level is almost universal. In the primary level of education, there was a gender parity suggesting that the population that enrolled was about one to one. The gender parity observed at this level of education may have been as a result of various advocacy programmes towards the improvement of girl child education and efforts by the government to eliminate cultural practices that impede girls from attending school. This is coupled with the implementation of Government policies that ensure that all children are enrolled for basic education and attending school.

At secondary and middle-level education enrolment, the GPI was 1.02 and 1.09, respectively. The GPI shows that there were more girls than boys enrolled in secondary education and middle-level colleges. This could partly be attributed to the affirmative action on girl child education and training in middle-level education. A wide gender gap exists in university and Vocational Training enrolment at 0.76 and 0.60, respectively. At these two levels of education, fewer females than males are enrolled. Transition to university favours males than females and training in TVET courses also attracts more males than females.

During the Global Leaders Meeting on Gender Equality and Women Empowerment on 27th September, 2015 at the United Nations Headquarters, New York, Kenya committed to equal access to quality education for boys and girls, and to strengthen programmes aimed at encouraging and mentoring youth especially women, to pursue careers in Sciences, Technology, ICT, Engineering and Mathematics (UNESCO, 2015). This has not been fully met as there exist disparities in tertiary enrolment.

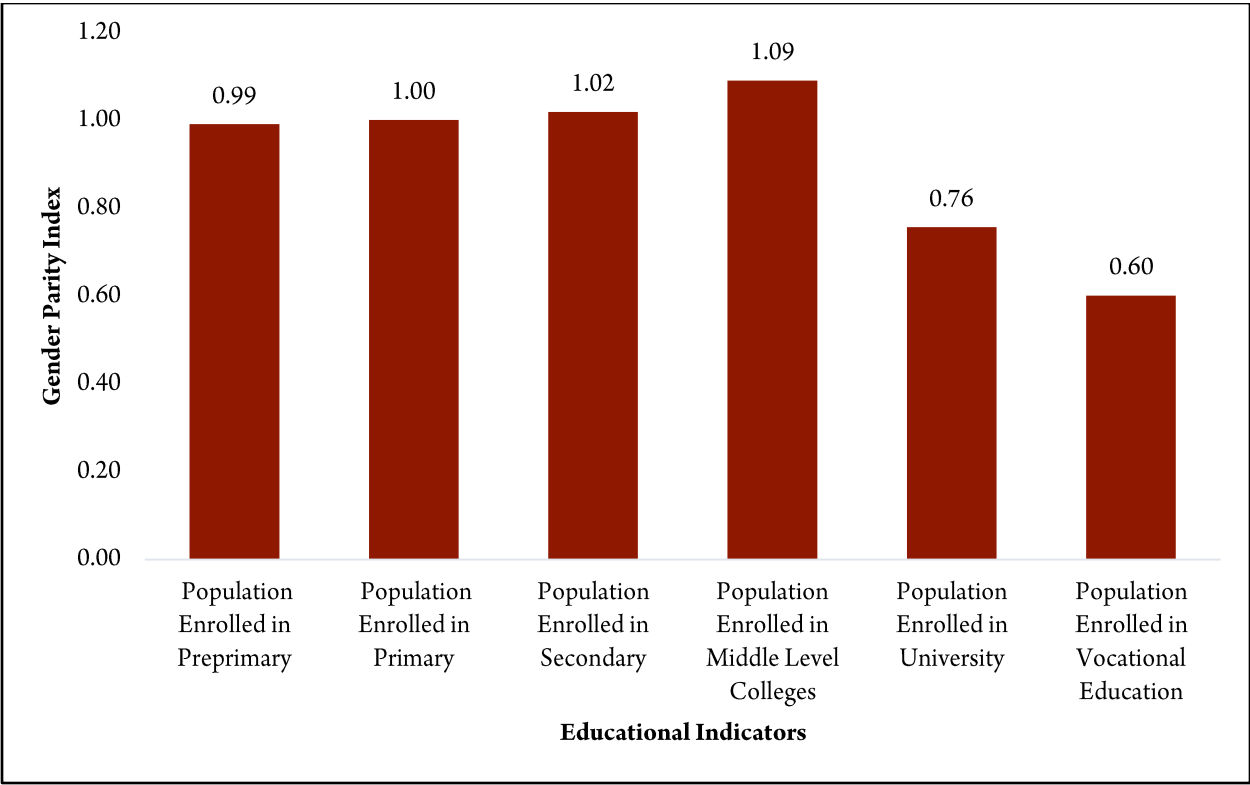


Figure 7.4: Gender Parity in School Enrolment at Different Levels of Education

Figure 7.5 presents gender parity for the out-of-school population aged 4-5, 6-13 and 14-17 by different school levels. At the official age of schooling, the gender parity index shows that more boys than girls were out of school across all three levels. The parity index in pre-primary was 0.94, primary 0.92 and secondary 0.83, indicating wide disparity between boys and girls, to the disadvantage of the boys, for secondary school-going age who are out of school.

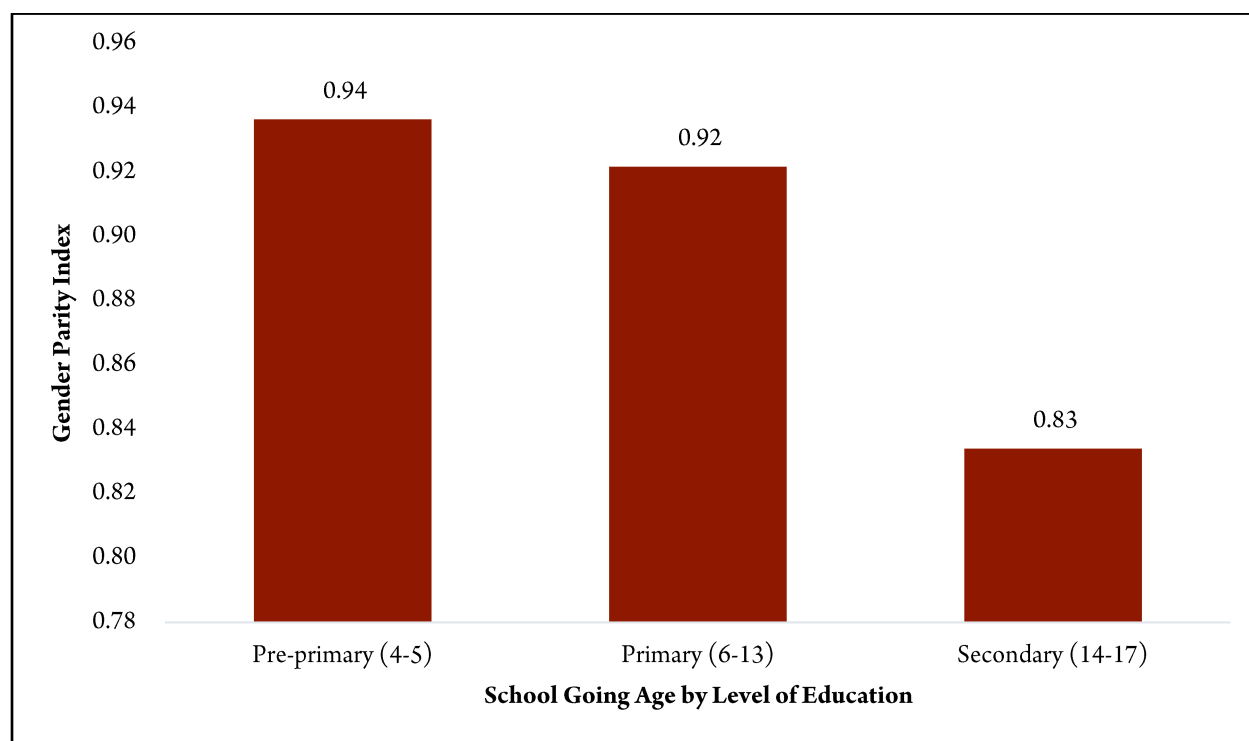


Figure 7.5: Gender Parity in Out-of-School Children by School going Age Groups

7.4.3 Gender Dimension in School Participation at Different Levels

This section discusses disparities from the various access rates which are measures of the general level of participation in a given level of education. Analysis of the gender dimension focusing on the GER and NER at different educational levels indicates that at preprimary school, there was no gender parity for both GER and NER. The GPI for GER at preprimary was 0.98 and NER was 1.02. This suggests that enrolment of boys at that level is characterized by both under and over-age learners compared to the girls. The GPI for the NER indicates that girls who were enrolled in preprimary were mainly of official school-going age of that level compared to the boys.

CBC requires that learners in preprimary level are of age 4-5 but the results show that boys are more likely to be over-age or under-age. Similar trend is exhibited for the two access rates for enrolment at primary school level and the adjusted NER as shown in Figure 7.6. However, there is near parity in delay in the completion of primary education at 0.99 while more boys than girls have a higher rate of scholastic retardation at a GPI of 0.85. More girls than boys progressed from primary to secondary education level at a GPI of 1.03.

Access rates in secondary education level displayed a different picture of GPI, at more than 1, for both GER and NER. The GPI for GER and NER was 1.03 and 1.20, respectively. This shows that there were more under or over-age girls enrolled at secondary level of education. The GPI of 1.00 indicates a delay in student completion at secondary school level for both boys and girls. At tertiary level of education, there is wide gender disparity with a GPI of 0.87 in favour of the males. This shows that the transition of male students to tertiary education is higher in spite of the affirmative action for more female students to join tertiary level of education. Furthermore, at this level, there is the possibility of dropouts or inability to join due to socio-economic factors.

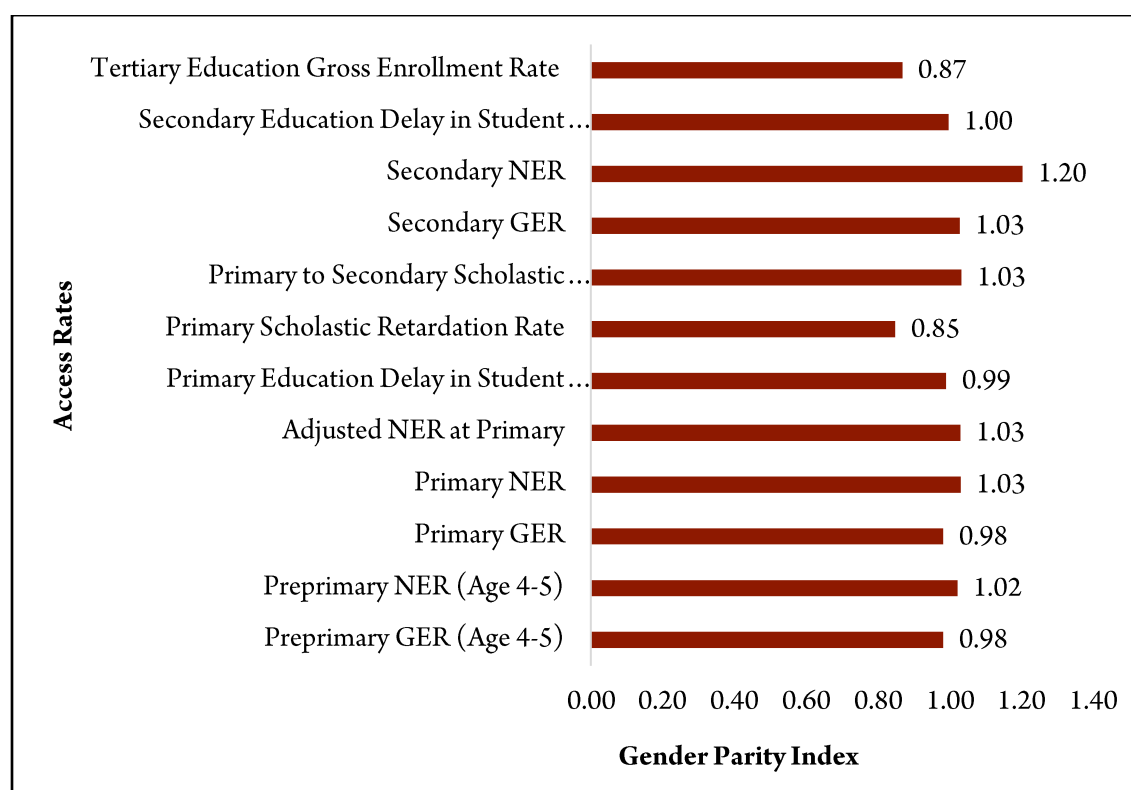


Figure 7.6: Gender Disparity in Access Rates at Different Levels of Education

7.4.4 Gender Parity in Educational Attainment at different Grades and School Levels

Educational attainment refers to the highest level of education that an individual has completed and is distinct from the level of schooling that an individual is attending. The highest level of education completed is either indicated by the highest educational qualification (vocational or academic) achieved, or by the number of years of education or schooling completed. During the 2019 KPHC, education attainment was determined for various educational levels recognized in the country's education system through computations of the highest level of education completed.

Figure 7.7 presents gender parity in school attainment at different grades and levels of education. There is near parity at a GPI of 0.99 in the educational attainment in pre-primary education. More boys than girls had attained lower primary grade 1-4 at a GPI of 0.97. On the contrary, more girls than boys had attained upper primary grade 5-8 at a GPI of 1.08. The low proportion of education attainment for boys in upper primary grade 5-8 and high proportion in lower primary grade 1-4 may

suggest that more boys left school before transition to upper primary. More girls than boys had attained complete primary with a GPI of 1.04. The school attainment at secondary level shows that more girls than boys had attained secondary Form 1-2 with a GPI of 1.17. Conversely, more boys than girls had attained upper secondary Form 3-4 with a GPI of 0.89. Overall, the GPI of the population with secondary education attainment was 0.96 in favour of the boys. More females than males had attained middle-level education while more males than females had attained university education. The GPI of 0.71 for attainment of university education shows a wide disparity in favour of males. Fewer females than males have completed vocation education.

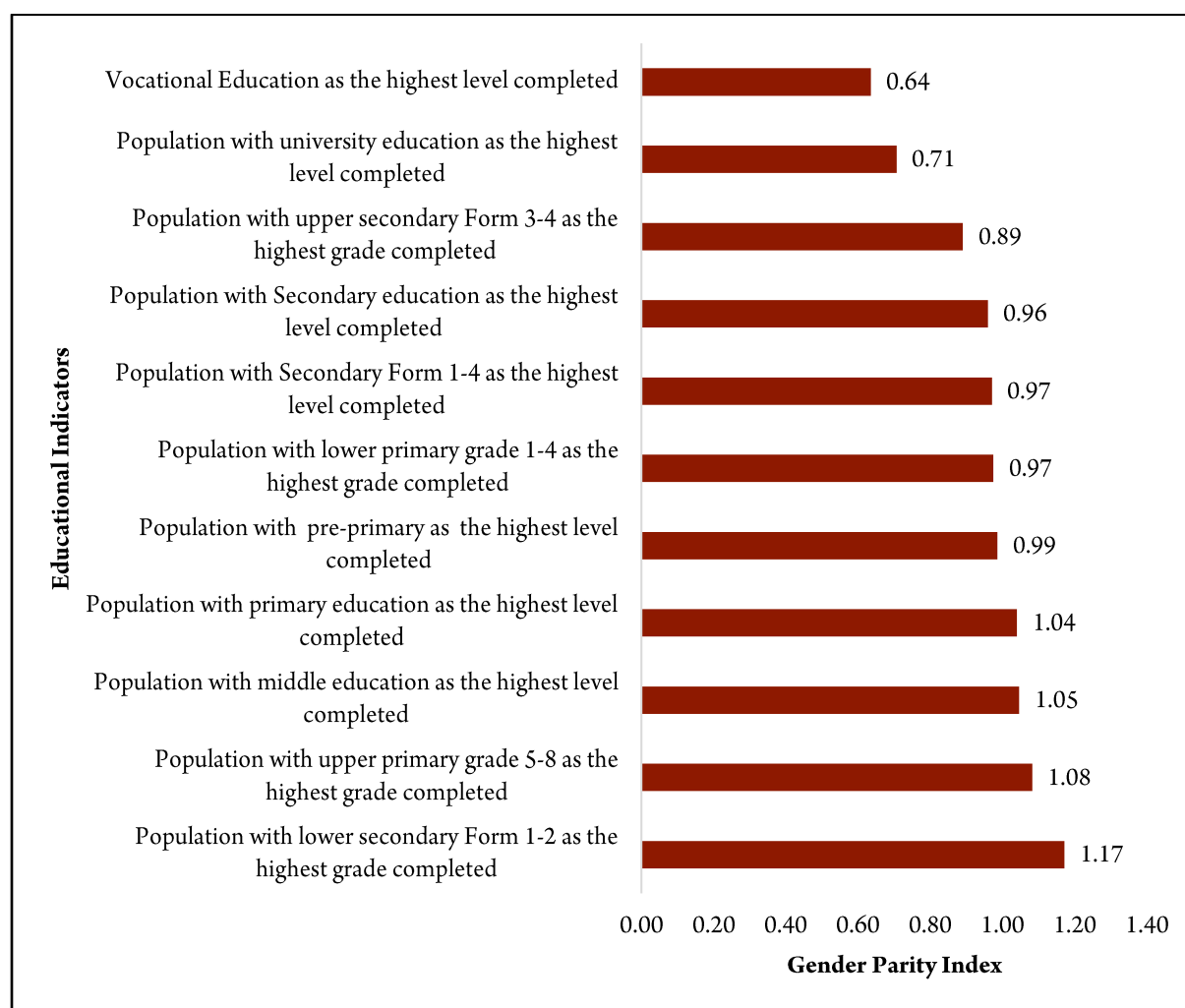


Figure 7.7: Gender Parity in School Attainment at Different Grades and Levels of Education

The gender parity in educational attainment for population age 25 years and above by levels is as shown in Figure 7.8. More women compared to men had no education attainment with a gender parity of 1.18. The GPI indicates that larger proportion of women compared to men had attained pre-primary, primary and adult literacy level of education. There is a wide gender gap in favour of men in the attainment of secondary, university, and vocational training. There is near parity in the attainment of middle-level college. More men than women had attained Madrasa/Duksis informal education system.

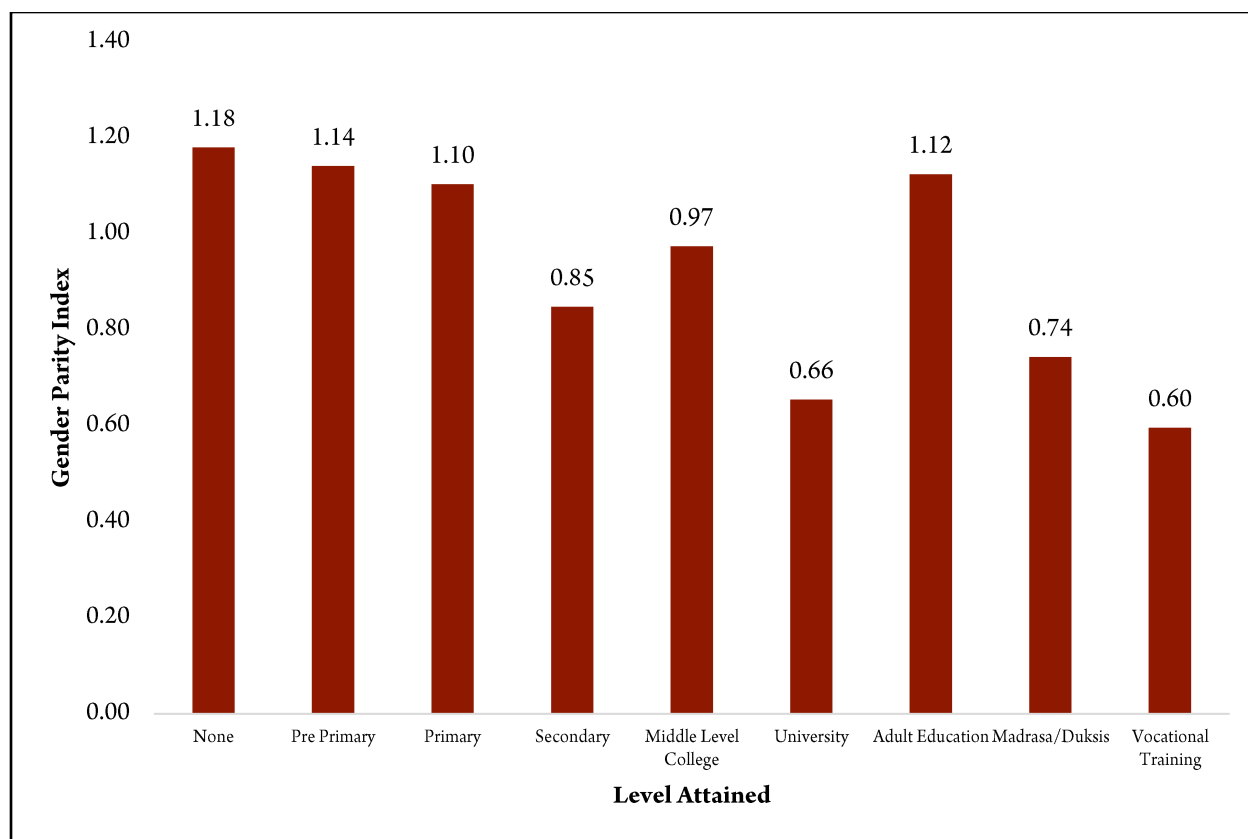


Figure 7.8: Gender Parity in School Attainment for Population Age 25 Years and Above by Levels of Education

7.4.5 Gender Parity in Training acquired by Area of Specialization

The 2019 KPHC for the first time in the history of census undertaking in Kenya sought to establish the distribution of population who have ever acquired any training and qualified for various specialities. The specialities were grouped into the main area of training as shown in Figure 7.9 and Appendix 7.3.

Nationally, more males than females have acquired training and qualified with a GPI of 0.80 as shown in Figure 7.9. Across all the specialities, the gender gap exists and is wider mainly in science-based trainings. Training areas with huge gender gaps in favour of females are, Social work (2.45), Health and Human medicine covering clinical medicine, nursing etc (1.49), Education (1.37) and Business (1.05) among others. Gender parity was observed in only one area of training namely Arts performing and visual Arts. Trainings with marginal number of females who have acquired and qualified for includes Military Science (0.17), Engineering (0.14), Mathematics (0.46), Philosophy (0.38), Space Sciences (0.49) and Science (0.86) among others.

The results suggest that even though the Government identified some of the policy concerns in education to include closing the gender gap and eliminating of gender biases in the education sector and reducing disparities and inequalities in provision of education (Onsomu, Obiero, & Nzomo, 2005). It is clear that courses in post-secondary education were not gender-responsive. Gender equality may only have been addressed on admissions where affirmative actions and positive discrimination for girls are applied. This could partly explain the reason fewer women than men have acquired and qualified for trainings in STEM courses.

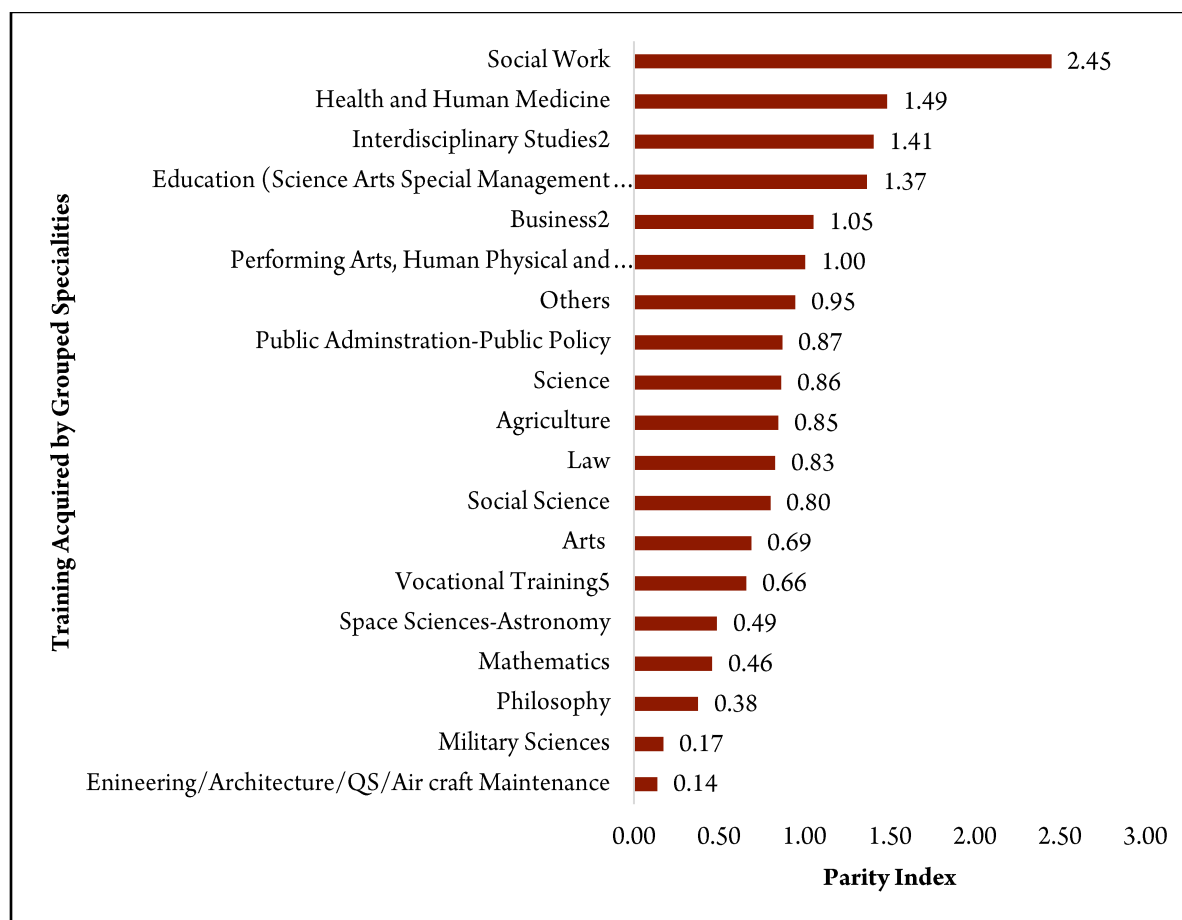


Figure 7.9: Gender Disparity in Training Acquired and Qualified by Grouped Specialties

7.5 Conclusion and Recommendations

7.5.1 Conclusion

1. In school attendance status, there was a wide disparity in favour of boys between ages 18 and 27 implying a higher proportion of girls than boys exited the school system between age 18 and 27.
2. Overall, more female than males had never attended school in ages between 11 and 20 years and above. On the contrary, more boys than girls had never attended school between age 4 and 10 and, 12 to 19. The results suggest that there is either a delay of boys joining the education system or they are engaged in other non-school related activities.
3. Analysis of differentials by counties for the population age 25 and above indicates that more females than males had never attended school except for Garissa and Wajir counties.
4. Analysis of school dropout shows that the gender gap widens from age 12 to 15 in favour of girls and from age 16 to 17 in favour of boys. This indicates that there is a high retention of girls within the primary and lower secondary school-going age cohort and a low retention at upper secondary education findings that could be attributable to socioeconomic factors hindering girls more than boys from pursuing upper secondary education.
5. Gender analysis on enrollment shows that there were more girls than boys enrolled in secondary and middle-level colleges while more boys were enrolled in university and Vocational Training.

There is need to investigate factors derailing girls from joining university education. Also it is more likely that TVET courses are tailored to attract more males than females.

6. An examination of the official age for both primary and secondary education who are out of school shows that there is a wide gender disparity in favour of boys for both primary and secondary education. More boys than girls are out of school
7. Analysis of access rates revealed that there was a huge disparity in favour of females for secondary NER. However, there is near parity in delay in the completion of primary education at 0.99 while more boys than girls have a higher rate of scholastic retardation at a GPI of 0.85. The tertiary education NER shows that fewer females of official tertiary age are enrolled in tertiary education with a GPI of 0.87.
8. More females than males had attained middle-level education while more males than females had attained university education. In the contrary, there are more girls than boys that had attained complete primary level of education and secondary Form 1-2.
9. For the population age 25 years and above, more women compared to men had no education attainment with a gender parity of 1.18. A larger proportion of women compared to men had attained preprimary, primary and adult literacy level of education and there was a huge gender gap in favour of men in the attainment of secondary, university, and vocational training;
10. There was a huge disparity in favour of females for the population that had trained in Social work (2.45), Health and Human medicine (1.49), and Education (1.37). In contrast, wide disparity in favour of men was observed in trainings acquired in the field of Military Science (0.17), Engineering (0.14), Mathematics (0.46), Philosophy (0.38), Space Sciences (0.49) and Science (0.86). Affirmative action did not address the engendering of the courses.

7.5.2 Recommendations

1. Continue to integrate gender equality and social inclusion in all curricula at all levels of learning
2. Continue to adopt and strengthen measures to increase access to and retention of girls and boys in basic education with specific focus on boys because data shows that more boys than girls have never attended school between ages 4 to 10 and more boys than girls are out of school. The programs should be county-specific.
3. There is need to motivate girls to pursue science-related subjects and courses. Government should continue to employ affirmative action at admission and placement to ensure more girls pursue STEM courses.
4. The actors in the education sector should device a boy targeting school enrollment and retention program to ensure all boys eligible to be in primary and secondary schools are in school at any given time.
5. To address literacy of females age 25 years and above, there is a need to advocate for the participation of female adults in adult literacy classes. The program may seek to understand and appreciate competing gender roles that deter women from taking adult literacy classes. Adult education must be offered without compromising the key roles assigned to women.

Chapter 8: Labour Force Participation

8.1 Introduction

The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC) collected information on participation in economic activities for all persons aged 5 years and above. Specifically, this included information on activity status, main employer, status in employment, hours of work, industry/economic activity and occupation in the main job. Individuals who worked in the reference period or held a job were required to state whether their current occupation was related to their field of training. This information provides a background to explore gender dimensions in the participation of men and women in the labour market.

Gender gaps in the world of work have been found to exist across the globe. The types of work done by women and the conditions under which they work differ from those of men. Also, there is a lack of equal access to resources and opportunities for development. The differences in work and income among men and women are largely contributed by the fact that men and women tend to concentrate on different occupations. Women are often employed in informal economic activities. On average, women across the world earn less than men and spend a lot of time out of the workforce due to family responsibilities.

There exists a number of international and national laws, treaties and commitments that aim to ensure that both men and women actively participate in the labour market. The Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979, which protects women's access to work is one of such international treaties, which has been ratified by the majority of countries including Kenya. In addition, in the Beijing Platform, countries under the United Nations have committed to ensuring full economic independence of women explicitly through employment and access to productive resources and opportunities. Further, the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) mandate to promote gender equality in the world of work is enshrined in its Constitution and reflected in relevant international labour standards. This mandate is reinforced by related resolutions adopted by its highest decision-making body, the International Labour Conference. It is also set in the context of an array of international instruments advancing equality between women and men. Goal 8 of the SDGs seeks to promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.

Over the years, the Government of Kenya has initiated various laws and policies aimed at ensuring all persons especially women actively participate in the labour market. The 2019 Census data on labour force participation provides evidence on differentials in labour force participation among women and men in Kenya.

This chapter presents a review of gender dimensions in participation in the labour market, focusing on participation rates, unemployment, time-related labour underutilization and working children. Details on employment by sector, industry and occupation will be presented in the detailed analytical report on the labour force.

8.2 Participation in the Labour Market

The distribution of population age 5 years and above by activity status, sex and age group is presented in Table 8.1. Among the working youthful population of age 15-24 years, 52.1 per cent are women

and 47.9 per cent are men. A similar trend is observed among the working youth population of age 15-34 years, where 51.4 per cent are women and 48.6 per cent are men. Women of age 15-64 who indicated that they were seeking work or no work was available are 43.1 per cent among all persons who were seeking work. The data indicates that in 2019, out of the total number of persons outside the labour force of age cohort 15-64 years, the majority are women at 55.5 per cent. Out of the total number of persons outside the labour force of age cohorts 15-24 years and 18-34 years, 50.7 per cent and 53.7 per cent, respectively are women.

Nationally, labour force participation rates⁴ of women is lower than that of men by 4.9 percentage points at 71.1 per cent. The participation rate of youthful women of age 15-34 years is at 60.8 per cent compared to that of youthful men of the same age cohort, which is 64.0 per cent. However, among the youth population of age cohort 15-24 years, the labour force participation rate of women is not significantly different from that of men. Analysis shows that the level of participation of women in the labour market is still low compared to that of men. In addition, women outside the labour force are more than men. This implies that women in Kenya do not actively participate in the labour market and therefore, this may result in income inequality among men and women in the country.

⁴ This is computed for the working age (15-64) See highlight in Table 8.1

Table 8.1: Distribution of Population Age 5 Years and above by Activity Status, Sex and Age Group

Age Group	Population			Working			Seeking Work/No Work Available			Outside the Labour Force			% of Employed and Unemployed to Population		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Kenya⁵	41,230,306	20,314,377	20,914,684	19,530,794	9,694,550	9,835,645	2,713,274	1,542,933	1,170,199	18,986,238	9,076,894	9,908,840	54.0	55.3	52.6
5-14	12,503,855	6,301,708	6,201,820	970,148	515,312	454,796	0	0	0	11,533,707	5,786,396	5,747,024	7.8	8.2	7.3
15-17	3,361,448	1,715,248	1,646,112	370,003	202,787	167,204	137,304	80,227	57,071	2,854,141	1,432,234	1,421,837	15.1	16.5	13.6
18-24	6,288,668	3,033,138	3,255,284	2,839,523	1,334,602	1,504,800	760,529	398,900	361,583	2,688,616	1,299,636	1,388,901	57.2	57.2	57.3
25-34	7,332,211	3,472,389	3,859,543	5,494,650	2,689,990	2,804,474	989,938	554,583	435,300	847,623	227,816	619,769	88.4	93.4	83.9
35-64	9,884,393	4,972,051	4,912,078	8,338,097	4,261,100	4,076,790	825,503	509,223	316,245	720,793	201,728	519,043	92.7	95.9	89.4
65+	1,859,731	819,843	1,039,847	1,518,373	690,759	827,581	0	0	0	341,358	129,084	212,266	81.6	84.3	79.6
15-24	9,650,116	4,748,386	4,901,396	3,209,526	1,537,389	1,672,004	897,833	479,127	418,654	5,542,757	2,731,870	2,810,738	42.6	42.5	42.7
15-34	16,982,327	8,220,775	8,760,939	8,704,176	4,227,379	4,476,478	1,887,771	1,033,710	853,954	6,390,380	2,959,686	3,430,507	62.4	64.0	60.8
15-64	26,866,720	13,192,826	13,673,017	17,042,273	8,488,479	8,553,268	2,713,274	1,542,933	1,170,199	7,111,173	3,161,414	3,949,550	73.5	76.0	71.1

⁵ Includes the intersex

8.3 Participation in the Labour Market of the Elderly Population

An elderly person in this report is defined as a person of age 60 years or above. The results show that the elderly population continued to participate actively in the labour market. For instance, 82.6 per cent of persons age 60 years and above were reported to be working during the reference period. About 84.8 per cent of males and 80.8 per cent of females reported that they did some work in the reference period as shown in Figure 8.1.

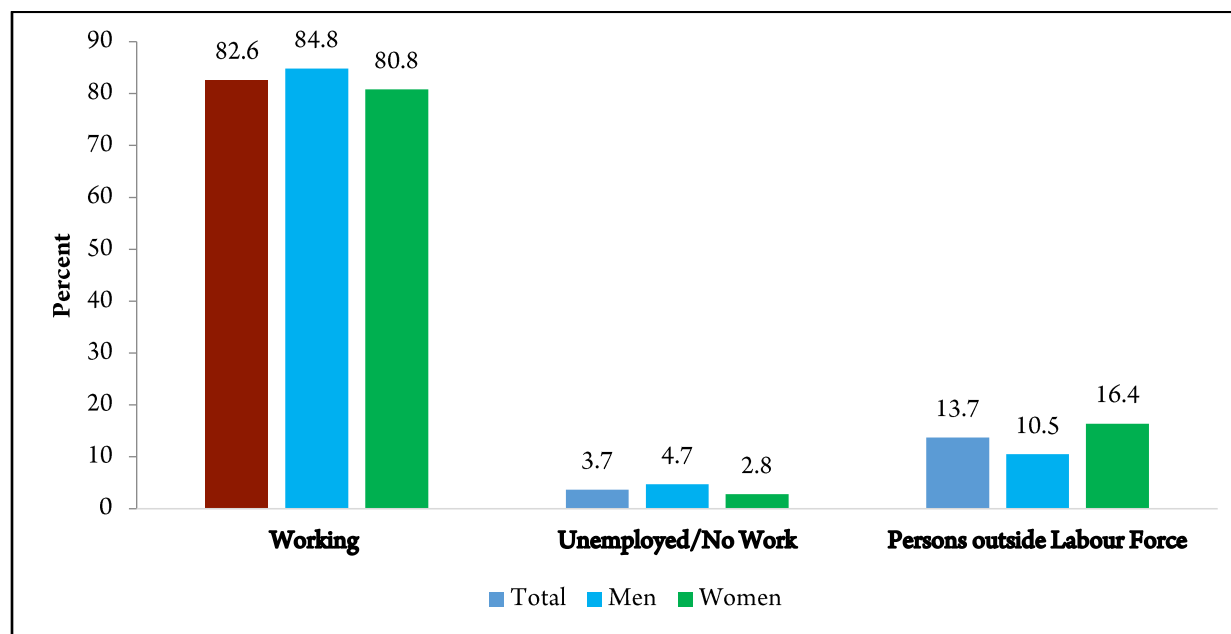


Figure 8.1: Percentage distribution of the Elderly population by Work status and Sex

Participation of elderly women in the labour market is consistently lower than that of elderly men across all ages as illustrated in Figure 8.2. The elderly population reported to be mainly working in the agriculture sector was 88.0 per cent as shown in Table 8.2. Out of the total elderly population working in the agriculture sector, 56.7 per cent are women, which is 13.4 percentage points higher than that of men. The proportion of elderly women working in the agriculture sector is 93.4 per cent while that of men is 81.8 per cent.

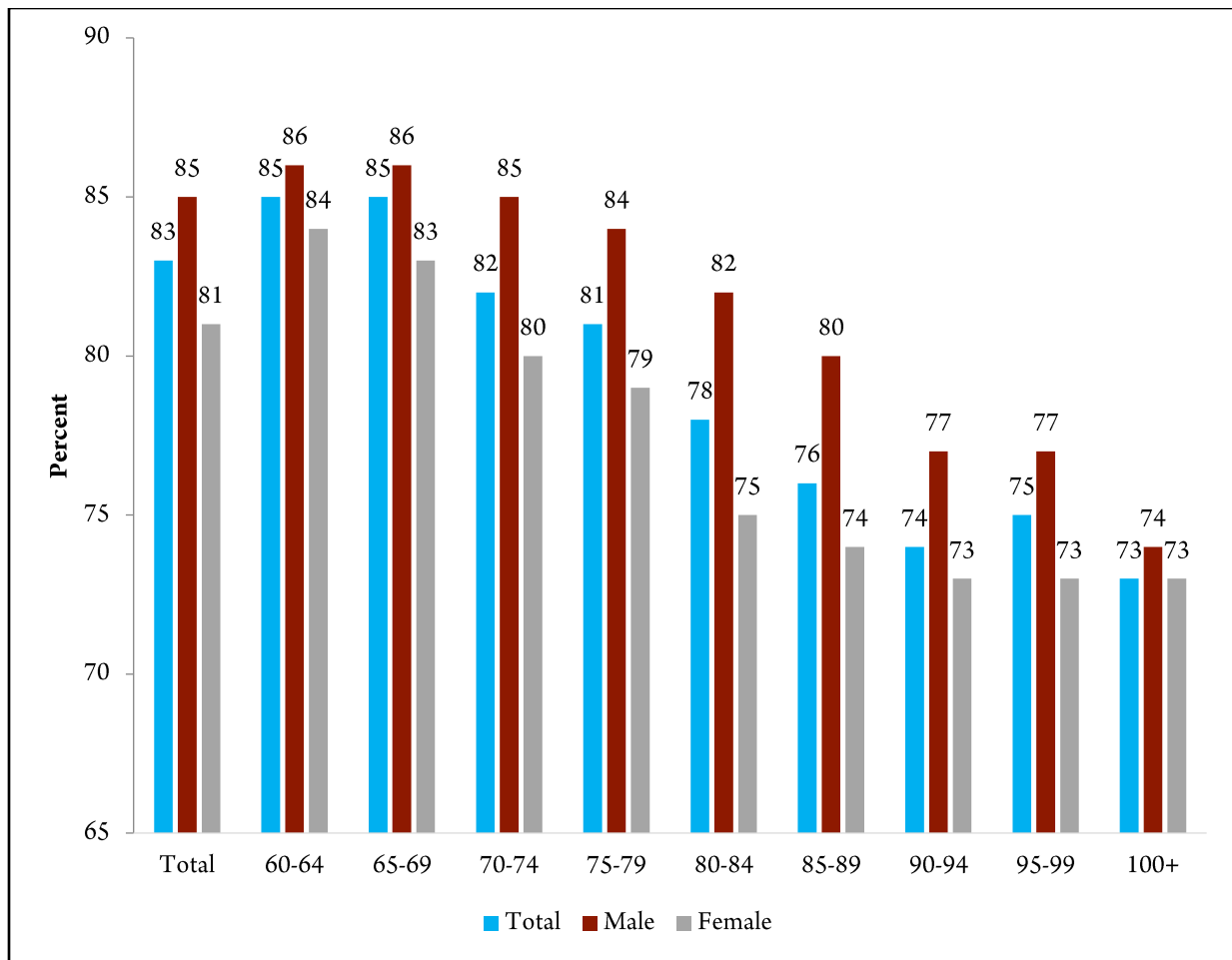


Figure 8.2: Percentage distribution of Elderly population in Employment by Age and Sex

Table 8.2: Distribution of Economically Active Elderly Population by Industry and Sex

Industry	Total	Male	Female	Percentage Out of the Total		
				Total	Male	Female
Total	2,250,332	1,047,723	1,202,609			
Agriculture	1,979,947	856,877	1,123,070	88	81.8	93.4
Mining and Quarrying	4,666	3,814	852	0.2	0.4	0.1
Manufacturing	8,222	6,597	1,625	0.4	0.6	0.1
Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply	2,030	1,904	126	0.1	0.2	0
Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities	1,744	1,451	293	0.1	0.1	0
Construction	18,995	18,497	498	0.8	1.8	0
Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles and Motorcycles	28,536	15,709	12,827	1.3	1.5	1.1
Transport and Storage	12,707	12,189	518	0.6	1.2	0
Accommodation and Food Service Activities	10,582	5,385	5,197	0.5	0.5	0.4
Information and Communication	1,241	891	350	0.1	0.1	0
Financial and Insurance Activities	3,226	2,234	992	0.1	0.2	0.1
Real Estate Activities	3,172	2,446	726	0.1	0.2	0.1
Professional, Scientific and Technical Activities	5,186	4,082	1,104	0.2	0.4	0.1
Administrative and Support Service Activities	7,840	6,364	1,476	0.3	0.6	0.1
Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security	4,651	4,343	308	0.2	0.4	0
Education	8,624	5,908	2,716	0.4	0.6	0.2
Human Health and Social Work Activities	5,586	3,214	2,372	0.2	0.3	0.2
Arts, Entertainment and Recreation	2,510	1,814	696	0.1	0.2	0.1
Other Service Activities	131,927	87,947	43,980	5.9	8.4	3.7
Activities of Households as Employers; Undifferentiated Goods-and Services-Producing Activities of Households for Own Use	7,197	4,708	2,489	0.3	0.4	0.2
Activities of Extraterritorial Organizations and Bodies	1,743	1,349	394	0.1	0.1	0

Agriculture in Kenya is mainly labour-intensive and therefore, the elderly population working in the sector have to do manual jobs, which has a higher possibility of negatively affecting their health and well-being. Since the majority of elderly women work in the agriculture sector, it implies their health and well-being is likely to be negatively affected. Earnings in the agriculture sector are usually very low and therefore, the majority of elderly women working in the sector get low incomes thus, affecting their overall well-being. Furthermore, the majority of elderly women may be working because they were not in formal pensionable employment before they attained the age of 60 and therefore, are not receiving any retirement benefits.

8.4 Working Children

According to UNICEF, 2019 working children refers to children who are subjected to work that exceeds a minimum number of hours, depending on the age of a child and the type of work. Proportion of working children age 5-17 years by age group and sex is presented in Figure 8.3. Among all working children across the age group 5-17, the proportion of working boys is higher than that of girls by 1.1 percentage points. This implies that the majority of boys are likely to be out of school because of work.

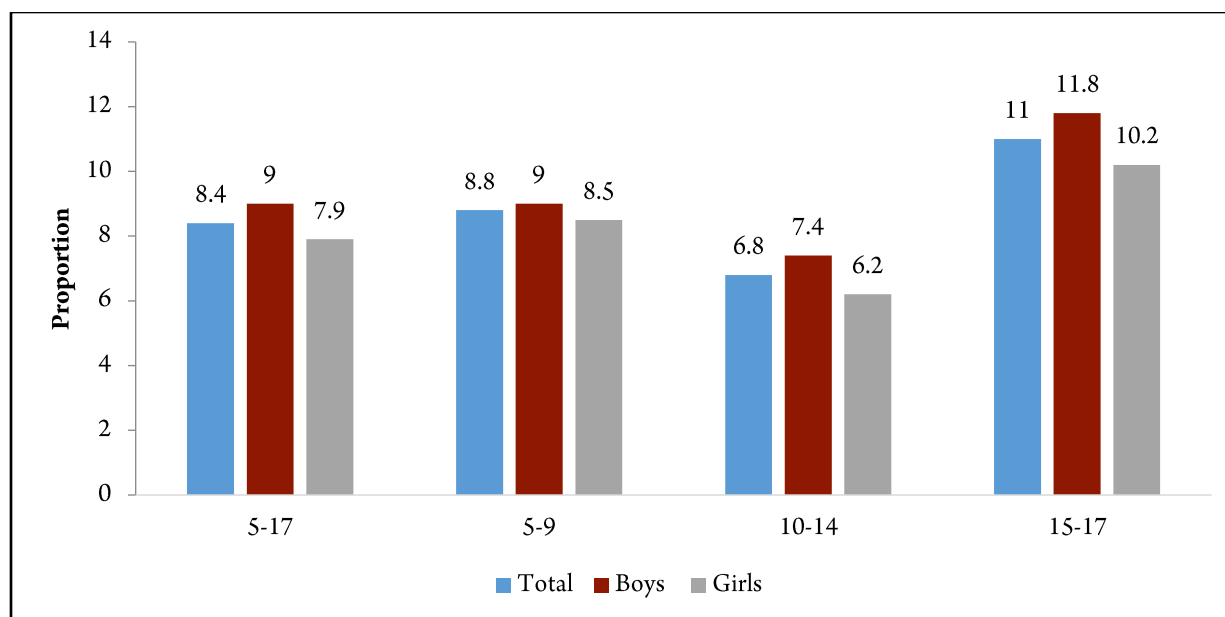


Figure 8.3: Proportion of working children age 5-17 years by age group and sex

Majority of working children are concentrated in rural areas at 95.7 per cent. The proportion of working boys is high in rural areas whereas that of working girls is high in urban areas. Working children are mainly working on own/family agricultural holding followed by those who are working for pay. In rural areas, working girls who worked on own/family agricultural holding were 1.5 percentage points higher than that of working boys at 96.5 per cent as shown in Table 8.3. In urban areas, working girls who worked for pay are 2.6 percentage points higher than that of working boys at 12.5 per cent. Among working children who worked on own/family business, working girls are 1.4 percentage points more than working boys in urban areas. Girls are disadvantaged and are likely to be out of school.

Table 8.3: Percentage distribution of working children age 5-17 by economic activity status and residence

Activity Status	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Worked for pay	2.6	3.1	2.1	1.9	2.6	1.1	11.2	9.9	12.5
Worked on own/family business	4.9	4.5	5.2	2.4	2.3	2.4	32.8	31.7	33.8
Worked on own/family agricultural holding	92.4	92.2	92.6	95.7	95	96.5	55.5	57.6	53.5
Apprentice	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0	0.5	0.7	0.2

Figure 8.4 shows the proportion of children who worked for 0-35 hours per week by sex and residence. Nationally, the proportion of girls working for 0-35 hours per week is higher than that of boys by 6.0 percentage points. The difference between the proportion of girls and boys who worked for 0-35 hours per week is higher in rural areas (7.0%) compared to urban areas (2.0%). Girls work long hours compared to boys and may have little time for studies and other recreational activities.

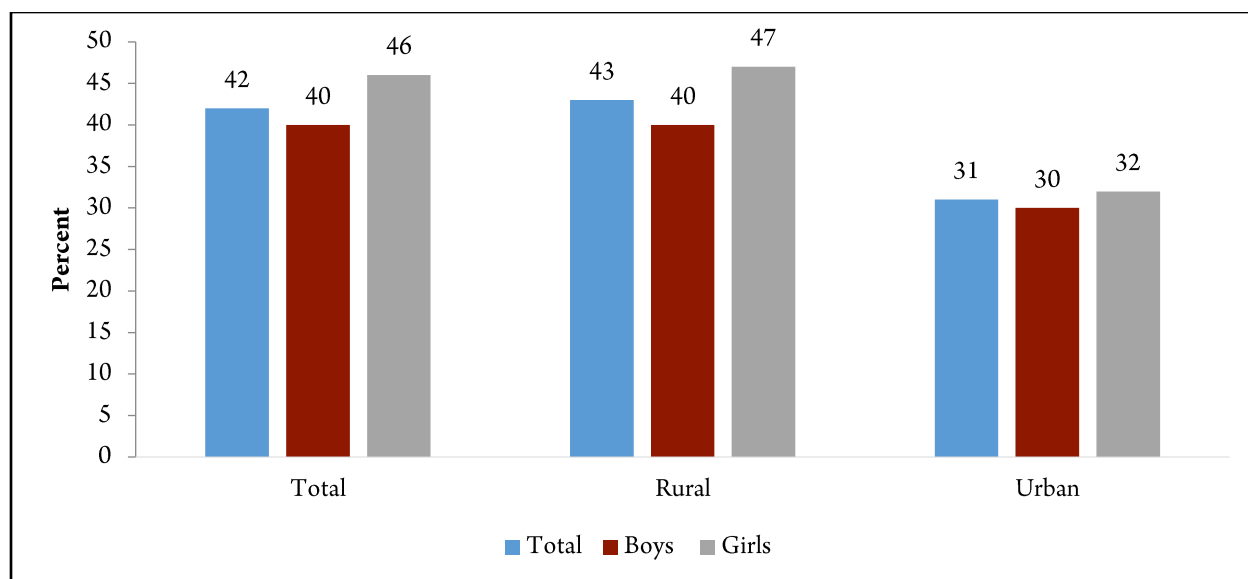


Figure 8.4: Percentage of working children age 5-17 who worked for 0-35 hours per week by sex and residence

Figure 8.5 shows the proportion of children who worked for 36 hours and above per week by sex and residence. Nationally, boys who work for 36 hours and above are more than girls by 6.0 percentage points. The difference between the proportion of girls and boys who worked for 36 hours and above per week is more in rural areas by 7.0 percentage points compared to urban areas at 2.0 percentage points. This implies that the boys are more likely to be out of school because they are engaged in income-generating activities at the expense of attending learning institutions for long hours.

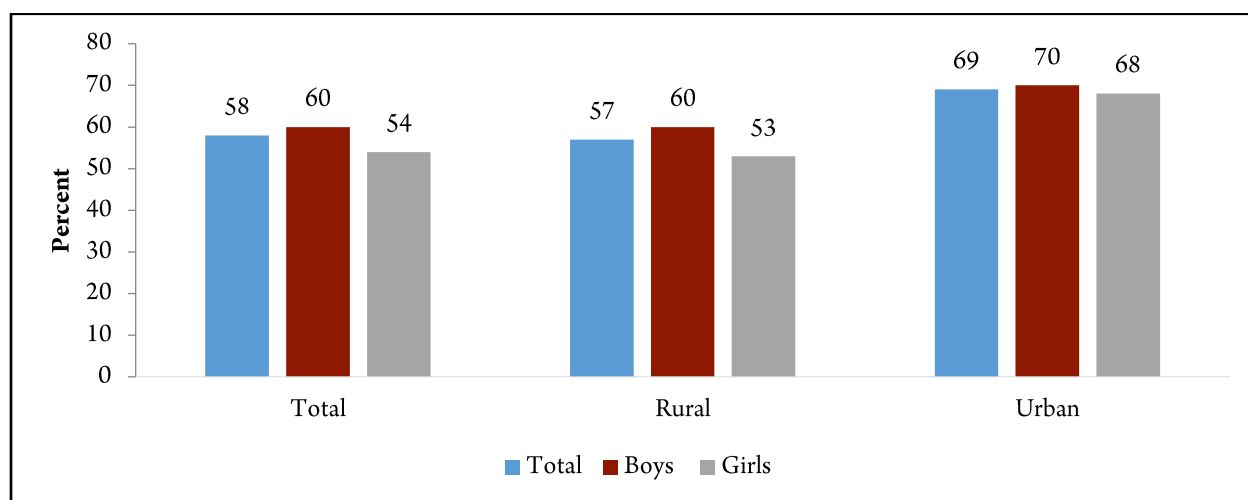


Figure 8.5: Percentage of working children age 5-17 who worked for 36 hours and above per week by sex and residence

The analysis shows that more girls than boys work for 0-35 hours per week compared to boys, especially in rural areas. On the other hand, more boys than girls work for 36 hours and above per week, particularly in rural areas.

Table 8.4 presents the distribution of working children by sex and educational status. Among the working children, the majority have never been to school or learning institution. The proportion of

working boys who have never been to school or learning institution is 74.2 per cent which is 0.5 percentage points higher than that of working girls at 73.7 per cent. The percentage of working girls who left school/Learning Institution before completion is 9.9 per cent which is 0.8 percentage points higher than that of working boys at 9.1 per cent. The analysis shows that both working girls and boys are at risk of missing learning opportunities by either never going to school or learning institution or dropping out of school or learning institution before completion.

Table 8.4: Percentage distribution of working children age 5-17 by sex and educational status

Educational Status	Total	Boys	Girls
At School/Learning Institution	7	7.9	6
Left School/Learning Institution after Completion	7.4	6.7	8.2
Left School/Learning Institution before Completion	9.5	9.1	9.9
Never been to School/Learning Institution	73.9	74.2	73.7
Don't Know	2.2	2.2	2.2

8.5 Youth Not in Employment, Education or Training

The proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in employment, education or training (NEET) is one of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators (indicator 8.6.1 under Goal 8). One of the objectives under Goal 8 is to substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training. The NEET is defined as the proportion of youth age 15-24 years who are not in employment and not in education or training. This indicator provides a measure of youth who are outside the education system, not in training and not in employment, and it, therefore, provides a broad measure of potential youth labour market entrants than youth unemployment. A high NEET rate among young women as compared to young men is often an indication of gender imbalance, with young women engaged in household chores such as cooking, cleaning, washing clothes and taking care of siblings. This section provides information on the youth of age 15-24 years and age 15-34 years who are not in employment, not in education or training during the 2019 Census.

Table 8.5 presents the distribution of youth not in employment, not in education or training by sex, age group, education attainment and disability status. The table presents the data in two age groups; 15-24 years and 15-34 years. The discussion is, therefore, divided into two parts with the first part discussing the youth of age 15-24 years. Nationally, about 692.9 thousand young men and women of age 15-24 years are not in employment, education or training in 2019 of which 55.7 per cent were women. Overall, the rate of NEET for females is 7.9 per cent, which is 1.4 percentage points higher than the rate of NEET for males. This indicates that there are more young women who are outside the education system, not working or being trained for work than young men. Out of the total youth who are not in employment, education or training 1.2 per cent are PWDs. Young men with disabilities who were not in employment, education or training were 0.3 percentage points more than young women with disabilities.

The total population of young women who had completed primary education, 5.8 per cent are not in employment, education or training compared to 3.5 per cent of men. The percentage of women with

secondary education who are not in employment, education or training was 3.5 per cent while that of men is 1.5 per cent. The proportion of men with no education who are not in employment, education or training is 42.0 per cent while that of women is 43.2 per cent. This analysis implies that young women with low levels of educational attainment are more likely to be outside the education system, not working or being trained for work than young men.

The disparities of youth not in employment, education or training among young women and men may also indicate that young women are disadvantaged concerning access to learning/training opportunities and therefore, are not able to get employment. In addition, young women who are outside the education system, not working or not being trained for work could be due to their involvement in unpaid work mainly household chores such as cooking, cleaning, washing clothes and taking care of younger siblings.

Nationally, the 2019 Census data shows that there are 1.4 million young persons of age 15-34 years are not in employment, education or training of which 57.4 per cent are women. The proportion of young women who are not in employment, education or training is 9.2 per cent, which is 1.9 percentage points more than that of young men at 7.3 per cent. The proportion of women with primary education who are not in employment, education or training is 7.2 per cent while that of men is 5.0 per cent. Young women with secondary education and who are not in employment, education or training are 4.7 per cent while young men are 2.3 per cent. The proportion of men with no education who are not in employment, education or training is 40.5 per cent while that of women is 40.1 per cent.

Table 8.5: Distribution of Youth Not in Employment, Education or Training by Sex, Age Group, Education Attainment and Disability Status

Education Level Completed	Total Youth Population			Youth Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET)			Percentage of Youth NEET Out of the Total Youth Population			Percentage of PWDs Out of Youth NEET		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total												
15 - 24	9,649,782	4,748,386	4,901,396	692,885	306,701	386,184	7.2	6.5	7.9	1.2	1.4	1.1
15 - 34	16,981,714	8,220,775	8,760,939	1,404,540	598,440	806,100	8.3	7.3	9.2	1.3	1.4	1.2
Primary Education												
15 - 24	3,399,393	1,737,203	1,662,190	156,742	60,538	96,204	4.6	3.5	5.8	1.2	1.4	1.1
15 - 34	5,937,736	2,851,288	3,086,448	365,000	142,862	222,138	6.1	5	7.2	1.5	1.7	1.4
Secondary Education												
15 - 24	4,236,412	2,021,521	2,214,891	108,896	31,040	77,856	2.6	1.5	3.5	0.7	0.8	0.7
15 - 34	6,336,818	3,084,453	3,252,365	221,936	69,815	152,121	3.5	2.3	4.7	0.9	1	0.8
Tertiary Education												
15 - 24	835,089	378,722	456,367	6,116	2,163	3,953	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7
15 - 34	2,352,229	1,149,356	1,202,873	18,927	7,992	10,935	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.9	1	0.9
Other Education												
15 - 24	124,003	64,960	59,043	13,016	5,491	7,525	10.5	8.5	12.7	1.6	1.9	1.4
15 - 34	247,084	120,348	126,736	31,436	12,971	18,465	12.7	10.8	14.6	1.9	2.1	1.7
None/Never Attended												
15 - 24	954,988	492,302	462,686	406,751	206,891	199,860	42.6	42	43.2	1.3	1.4	1.2
15 - 34	1,898,191	898,012	1,000,179	764,010	363,376	400,634	40.2	40.5	40.1	1.3	1.4	1.3
Not Stated/Don't Know												
15 - 24	99,897	53,678	46,219	1,364	578	786	1.4	1.1	1.7	5.1	7.6	3.3
15 - 34	209,656	117,318	92,338	3,231	1,424	1,807	1.5	1.2	2	4	6	2.5

The percentage of youth not in employment, education or training aged 15-24 by education attainment is illustrated in Figure 8.6. The data indicates that out of the total number of youths age 15-24 years who are not in employment, education or training, 58.7 per cent had no education. Young men with no education out of the total number of males not in employment, education or training was 67.5 per cent, which is 15.7 percentage points higher than that of young women at 51.8 per cent. This indicates that young men with no education are more likely to be outside the education system, not working or being trained for work than young women. Young women with primary and secondary education out of the total number of females not in employment, education or training was 24.9 per cent and 20.2 per cent, respectively and are 5.2 percentage points and 10.0 percentage points, respectively higher than that of young men. This data shows that the higher the level of education completed for young people the lower the rate of NEET.

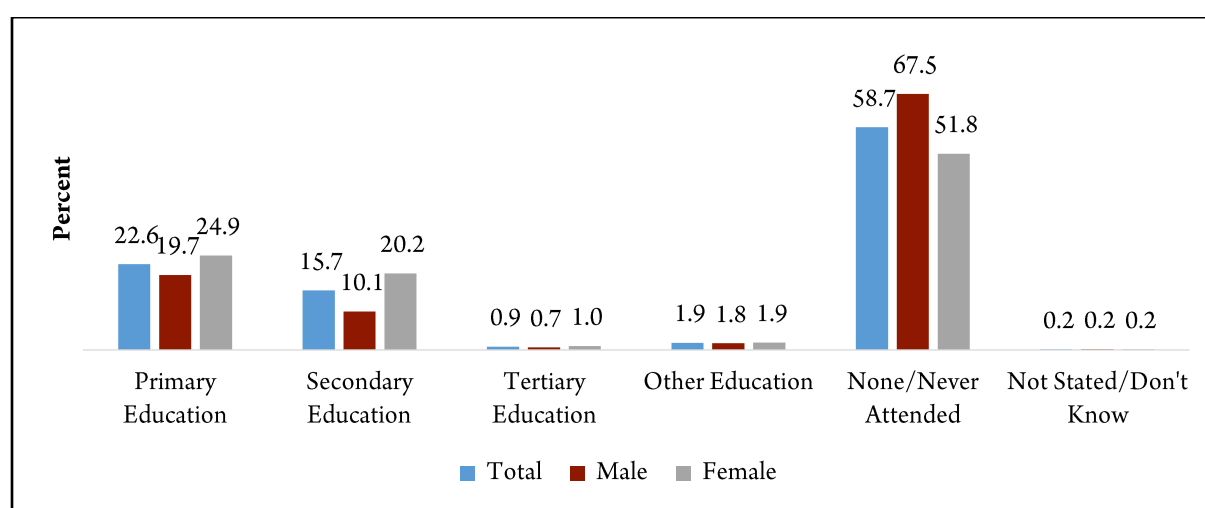


Figure 8.6: Percentage of Youth NEET (Age 15-24) by Education Attainment

The percentage of youth not in employment, education or training age 15-34 years by education attainment is illustrated in Figure 8.7. The data indicates that the proportion of young men with no education out of the total males not in employment, education or training was 60.7 per cent, which is 11.0 percentage points higher than that of young women at 49.7 per cent. Young women with primary education and secondary education out of the total number of females not in employment, education or training are 27.6 per cent and 18.9 per cent, respectively and are 3.7 percentage points and 7.2 percentage points, respectively higher than that of young men. This data indicates that young people who have completed a higher level of education are likely to be in an educational institution pursuing a higher level of education, working or being trained for work, compared to those who have completed lower levels of education.

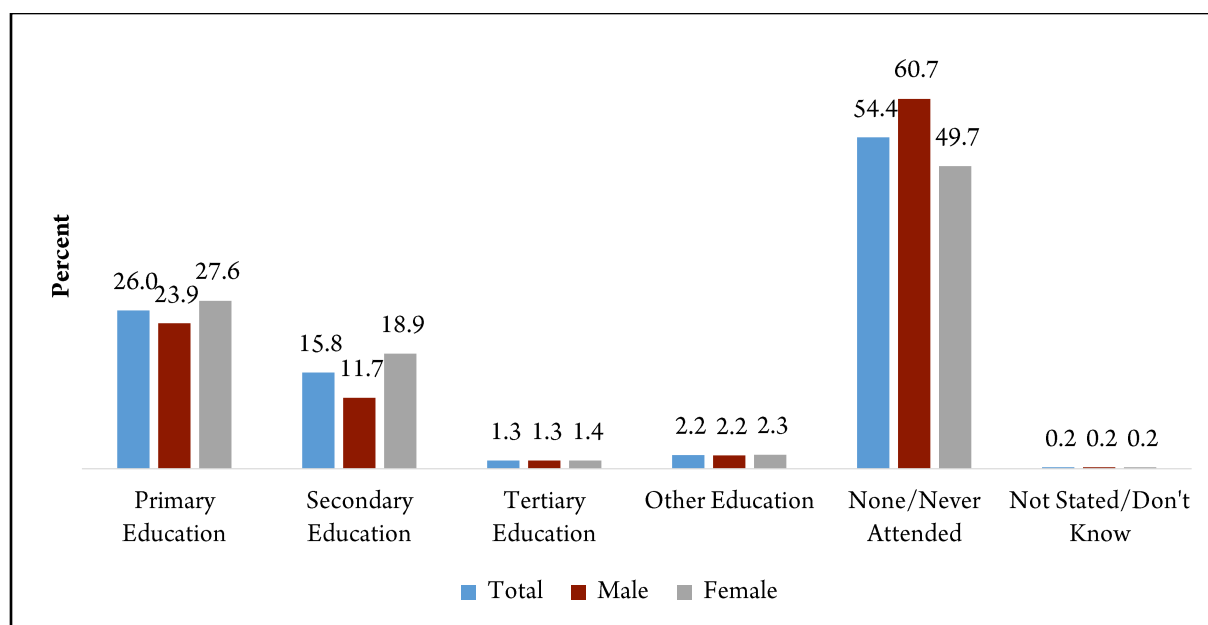


Figure 8.7: Percentage of Youth NEET (Age 15-34) by Education Attainment

8.6 Conclusions

The analysis has shown that the labour force participation rate for women in Kenya is low at 52.7 per cent compared to that of men at 55.5 per cent. This may imply that women in Kenya do not actively participate in the labour market and therefore, this may result to income inequality among men and women in the country.

Majority of elderly women are outside the labour force at 16.4 per cent compared to elderly men at 10.5 per cent. The elderly population reported to be mainly working in the agriculture sector with elderly women having the highest proportion working in the sector. The elderly population working in the sector have to do manual jobs, which has a higher possibility of negatively affecting their health and well-being. In addition, earnings in the agriculture sector are usually very low. In order to improve the standard of living of the elderly population, there is a need to improve and expand the social protection programmes to cater for all persons of age 60 years and above.

The analysis showed that the proportion of working boys is higher than that of girls. Among the working children, majority have never been to school or learning institution. The analysis shows that both working girls and boys are at risk of missing learning opportunities by either never going to school or learning institution or dropping out of school or learning institution before completion.

On youth not in employment, education or training, the data shows that young men with no education are more likely to be outside the education system, not working or being trained for work than young women.

8.7 Recommendations

There is a need to come up with policies to ensure women actively participate in the labour market through engagement in productive employment.

There is a need to come with modalities of ensuring workers outside formal employment make savings for retirement. In addition, there is a need to improve earnings in agriculture to enhance the earnings of the elderly in the agriculture sector. Higher earnings in agriculture will enable the elderly population to hire workers to work in their agricultural establishments, thus, reducing their active engagement in manual jobs.

There is a need to develop modalities to identify boys and girls that have never attended school or who have dropped out of school or learning and facilitate them to join school or learning institution.

There is a need to develop policies to reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, not in education or training with emphasis on young men with no education.

Chapter 9: Disability

9.1 Introduction

Census data aids in monitoring the equalization of opportunities, measuring the social and living conditions of Persons with Disabilities (PWDs) in terms of school attendance, educational attainment, employment, marital status and living arrangements, among others (UNFPA, 2014). While women are assigned specific gender roles in society such as taking care of children and fetching food among others, disability condition may be a strong barrier towards women ability to perform these roles. PWDs who in our societies include women and men enjoy fundamental rights and they ought to be treated with dignity, respect, and be addressed or referred to in a manner that is not demeaning. The PWDs who are more vulnerable include those living in low-income areas, those in the lowest quintile of income, older persons, and women.

Persons with disabilities are defined to include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others (United Nations, 2006). Disability is defined as an impairment that substantially affects a person's daily activities or limits a person's ability to perform one or more basic life activities (referred to as Activities of Daily Life - ADL) such as caring for oneself, performing manual tasks, walking, seeing, hearing, speaking, earning a living, or working and interacting with other persons (Republic of Kenya, 2004).

9.2 Relevance of Disability in Gender Analysis

PWDs always experience discrimination with respect to many social-economic and health aspects of life. Women with disabilities are likely to be less educated, poorer, more likely to be isolated, unemployed, abused, leading to lower health outcomes and lower social status (Stubbs, 2009). According to UNFPA (2014), access to paid work for PWDs is crucial to achieving self-reliance and ensuring their well-being. This is possible if they are able to access appropriate education and skills training. While women, in general, face discrimination related to work opportunities and income gaps, women with disabilities may face a double disadvantaged position in the labour market. Men with disabilities also tend to be economically disadvantaged, compared to their able-bodied peers.

The incidence of impairment and disability increases with age (UNFPA, 2014). According to the Beijing Platform for Action (1995), older women are particularly vulnerable to disability in old age due to gender differences in life expectancy and gender inequalities over the life course. Such populations with disabilities require access to adequate social assistance, which must be age, gender and disability sensitive. In order to identify the gender-related challenges faced by PWDs (UNFPA, 2014), it is important to get the interaction between disability and other demographic or social variables.

9.3 Data Issues

The 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census used the Washington Group on Disability Statistics short set of questions recommended for use in national censuses. This includes six questions

administered to persons age five years and above with four response categories for each question as indicated in the annex. The questionnaire also asked whether an individual is an albino. One limitation with this set of questions is that they were not administered to children with disability who are under five years old.

The other major limitations of census data include: non-response due to the complexity and sensitivity of questions related to disability status; non-reporting by relatives of PWDs because of shame or stigma; non-inclusion of women and men with disabilities residing in institutions (United Nations , 2001); and men and women not reporting disabilities in the same way or to the same extent as cited in (Merrill, Seeman, Kasl, & Berkman, 1997); (Ladwig, Marten-Mittag, Formanek, & Dammann, 2000).

9.4 Findings

9.4.1 Distribution of Persons with Disability by Age and Type of Disability

Table 9.1 shows the percentage distribution of persons with disabilities age 5 years and above by type of disability and age. A total of 916, 692 PWDs age 5 years and above were enumerated in the 2019 Census out of whom 43 per cent are male and 57 per cent are female. Persons age 35 years and above are more likely to have a form of disability compared to those below 35 years. This is attributable to the fact that disability increases with age. Among PWDs of age 60 and above, 45.4 per cent of females had at least a form of disability compared to 33.4 per cent of males. Across all the domains, women of age 60 and above had a higher prevalence of disability than men and the reverse is true for those age less than 60 years.

Table 9.1 Distribution of Persons with Disability by Age, Sex and Type of Disability

Age	PWDs (Number)			Visual (Percentage)			Hearing (Percentage)			Mobility (Percentage)		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Total (Number)	916,692	393,451	523,184	333,520	135,965	197,542	153,361	67,626	85,728	385,416	146,965	238,432
5-14	12.7	16.4	9.9	10.2	13.6	7.9	17.7	21.1	15.0	7.5	10.9	5.4
15-24	11.2	13.4	9.5	10.9	12.1	10.1	13.4	15.9	11.4	6.1	8.6	4.6
25-34	9.5	10.7	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.4	9.4	10.5	8.6	6.1	7.7	5.1
35-59	26.3	26.1	26.5	26.7	24.9	28.0	18.1	19.3	17.2	24.9	26.2	24.0
60+	40.2	33.4	45.4	43.7	40.8	45.6	41.4	33.2	47.8	55.4	46.5	60.9

Age	Cognition (Percentage)			Self Care (Percentage)			Communication (Percentage)		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Total (Number)	212,797	89,813	122,959	139,928	65,949	73,966	111,355	60,700	50,641
5-14	13.1	17.6	9.9	20.0	24.4	16.2	30.6	33.0	27.7
15-24	12.9	16.8	10.0	12.7	15.4	10.3	21.5	22.5	20.3
25-34	11.4	14.2	9.4	9.4	11.4	7.7	13.9	14.7	13.0
35-59	24.2	24.6	23.9	17.1	20.0	14.5	17.1	18.1	15.9
60+	38.4	26.8	46.8	40.7	28.8	51.3	16.9	11.8	23.1

9.4.2 Access to Basic Education by Persons with Disabilities

Disability can be one of the most marginalizing factors in a child's life. Over 80 per cent of these children live in the developing world (WHO,2011). These children often face conditions of extreme poverty, exclusion, and discrimination and are denied the basic services offered to their peers without disabilities.

About 90 per cent of children with disabilities in low-income countries have never received any form of education (UNICEF, 2011a). Also, once enrolled, students with disabilities are more likely to drop out of school than students without disabilities. Finding ways to meet the learning needs of students with disabilities can be challenging, especially in schools with severely limited resources. Inclusive education, which fully engages all students including students with disabilities or other learning challenges, can be particularly effective in helping all students learn.

Table 9.2 shows the distribution of PWDs age 5-17 years attending school by sex. At both preprimary and primary levels of education, the proportion of male PWDs attending school were higher at 53.9 per cent than that of females at 46.1 per cent. However, at the secondary level, more female PWDs at 56.1 per cent were attending school compared to 43.9 per cent of male PWDs.

Table 9.2: Distribution of PWDs Age 5 to 17 Attending School by Sex

Level	Number			Per cent		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Pre-Primary	17,575	10,078	7,497	100.0	57.3	42.7
Primary	76,322	42,018	34,299	100.0	55.1	44.9
Secondary	14,852	6,519	8,332	100.0	43.9	56.1
Total	108,749	58,615	50,128	100.0	53.9	46.1

*Includes intersex

9.4.3 Children with Disabilities who are Out of School

Figure.9.1 shows the proportion of children with disabilities age 5-17 who are out of school by sex. Overall, an almost equal proportion of male (25.1 per cent) and female (24.1 per cent) PWDs age 5 to 17 years were out of school. A high proportion of PWDs age 5 years were out of school with more boys at 40.7 per cent than girls 39.0 per cent. There is a higher differential by sex among children with disabilities who are out of school within the secondary school-going age (14 -17 years). About 26.0 per cent of males compared with 21.6 per cent of females who are supposed to be in secondary school were out of school. This is a lost opportunity for both males and female children in the school-going age.

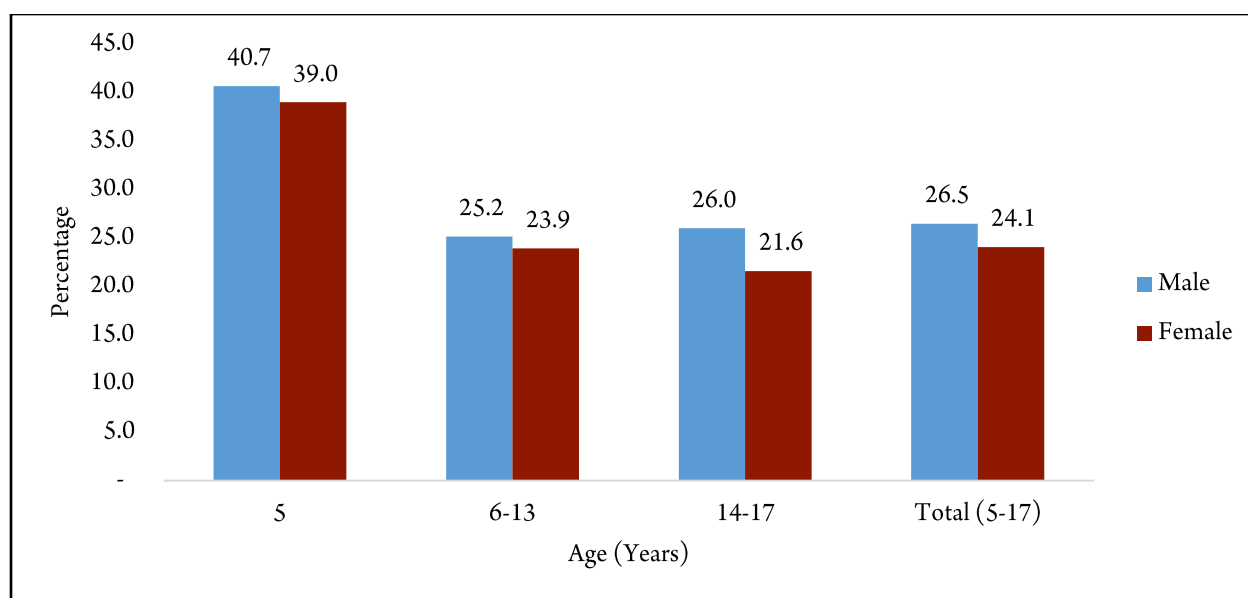


Figure 9.1: Percentage Distribution of PWDs who are out of school by age and sex

9.4.4 PWDs who Have Never Attended School

Education is a fundamental human right (Mugambi, 2017) as well as an instrument for economic growth and human development. Education is valued because it contributes to the provision of human resource that helps to stimulate productivity and eliminate poverty, disease and ignorance. This implies that those who never attended school miss life-promoting opportunities.

Figure 9.2 shows the proportion of PWDs who have never attended school by age and sex. The PWDs age 5 -24 and 25+ years who never went to school were 31.1 and 36.5 per cent, respectively. About 33 per cent of males age 5 – 24 who have disabilities have never attended school compared to 29.3 per cent females with disabilities. However, from age 25 and above, the proportion of female PWDs (43.9 per cent) is higher than that of male PWDs (25.3 per cent). This shows that young men and boys age 5 to 24 years who have disabilities run a greater risk of being excluded from formal education than their female counterparts.

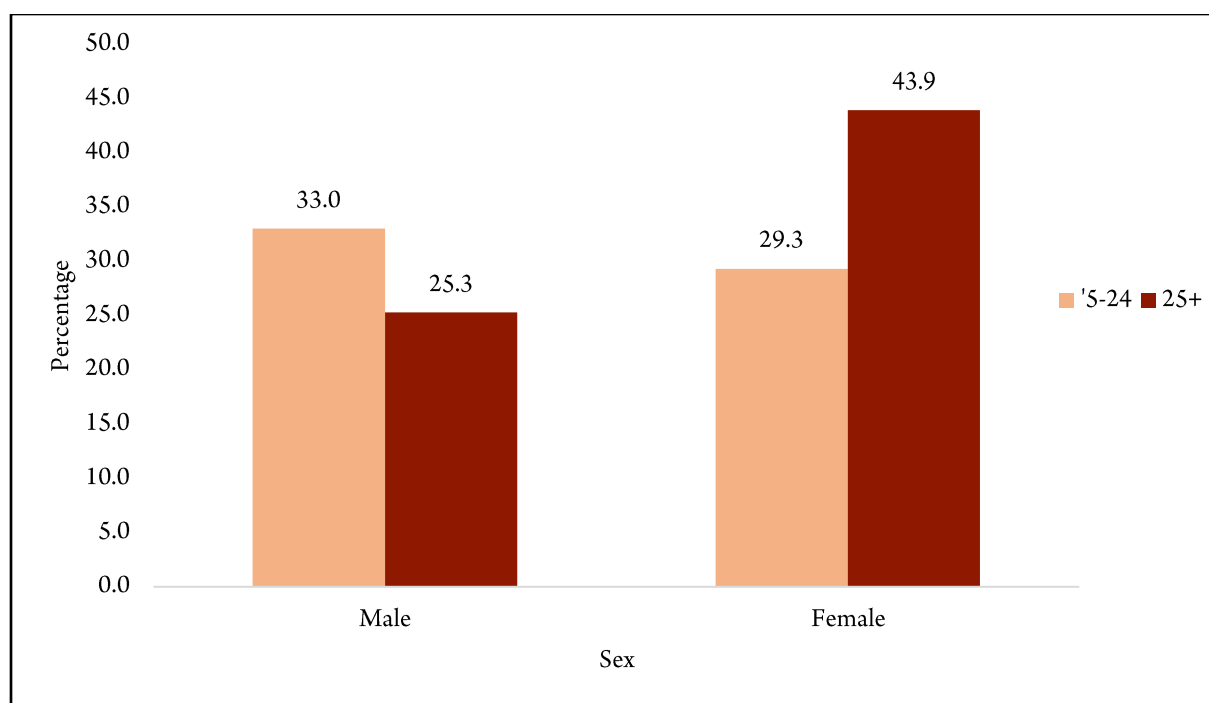


Figure 9.2 Percentage Distribution of PWDs who have Never Attended School by Age and Sex

9.4.5 Access to Basic Education by Persons with Disabilities

Access to Basic Education in this report has been analyzed using the Net Enrolment Rates (NER). Children with disabilities tend to start school later than those without disabilities (UNFPA, 2014). The NER for male PWDs is slightly lower than that of female PWDs in pre-primary, primary and secondary levels of education. It is also noted that NER is highest in primary schools and lowest in pre-primary schools. In pre-primary school, NER for boys is 53.2 per cent compared to 54.6 per cent for girls. Similarly, in primary school, NER is 71.5 per cent for boys compared to 73.0 per cent for girls and in secondary education, it is 68.1 per cent for boys and 73.0 per cent for girls.

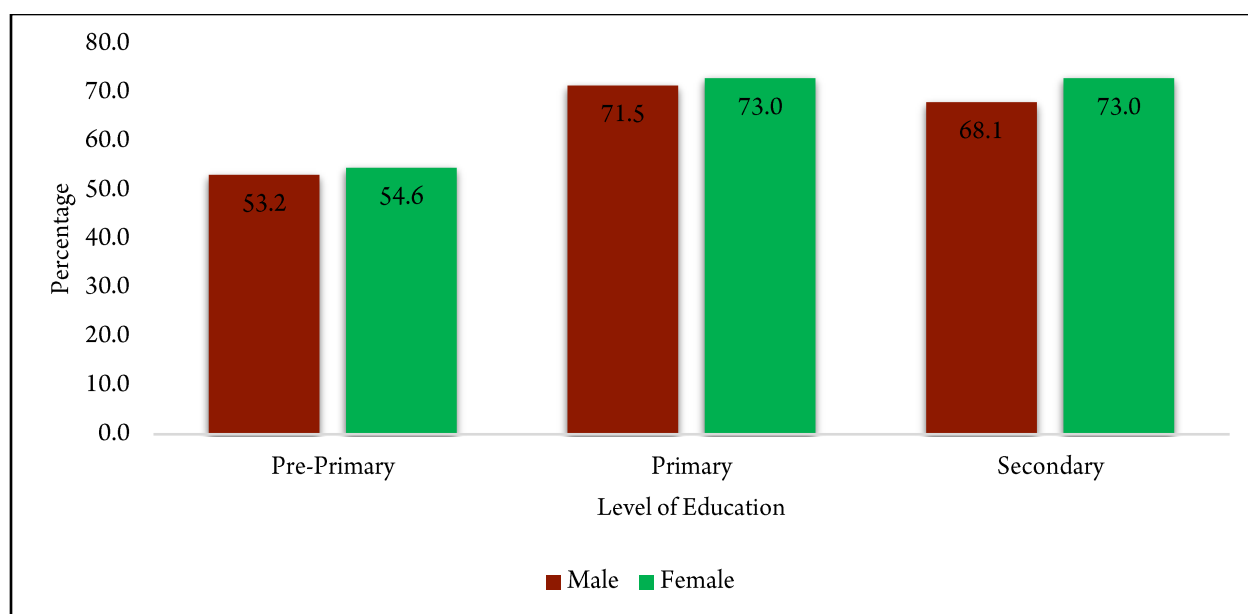


Figure. 9.3: Net Enrolment Rate for PWDs Attending Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Schools by Sex

9.4.6 Orphans with Disability who are Out of School

According to UNFPA (2014), orphans usually face challenges like hunger, poverty, discrimination, that may bar them from accessing basic education as children whose parents are still alive. Moreover, orphans with disabilities are at risk of dropping out of school completely because they lack parental care and guidance. The most affected may be orphans who have lost both parents or a mother. Generally, women take care of children with disabilities most of the time. Further, boys may have the advantage over girls in obtaining assistive devices and other rehabilitation services needed to get to and participate at school (Rousso, 2003).

Table 9.3 shows the number and proportion of single and double orphans who are out of school by age and sex. Male orphans with disabilities who have lost either one or both parents account for 54.3 per cent of all orphans. The data shows that a quarter of orphans are out of the school of whom 26.2 per cent are males and 24.5 per cent are females. Of those out of school 41.6 per cent are 5 years old with an equal distribution of males at 41.3 per cent and females at 41.9 per cent. The data further shows that of those out of school, 33.4 per cent males and females 28.6 per cent have lost both parents.

Table 9.3: Proportion of Orphans with Disabilities who are out of school by Sex and Age

Orphanhood Status/Age	Number of PWDs who are Orphans			Number Out of School			Proportion out of School		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Lost Father Only									
5	644	345	299	245	128	117	38.0	37.1	39.1
6-13	9,127	5,019	4,108	2,084	1,163	921	22.8	23.2	22.4
14-17	7,102	3,718	3,383	1,699	927	772	23.9	24.9	22.8
Sub Total	16,873	9,082	7,790	4,028	2,218	1,810	23.9	24.4	23.2
Lost Mother Only									
5	163	91	72	72	39	33	44.2	42.9	45.8
6-13	2,206	1,205	1,001	594	321	273	26.9	26.6	27.3
14-17	1,782	979	803	464	271	193	26.0	27.7	24.0
Sub Total	4,151	2,275	1,876	1,130	631	499	27.2	27.7	26.6
Lost Both Parents									
5	107	63	44	63	39	24	58.9	61.9	54.5
6-13	1,555	887	668	490	300	190	31.5	33.8	28.4
14-17	1,529	847	681	446	262	184	29.2	30.9	27.0
Sub Total	3,191	1,797	1,393	999	601	398	31.3	33.4	28.6
All Orphans									
5	914	499	415	380	206	174	41.6	41.3	41.9
6-13	12,888	7,111	5,777	3,168	1,784	1,384	24.6	25.1	24.0
14-17	10,413	5,544	4,867	2,609	1,460	1,149	25.1	26.3	23.6
Sub Total	24,215	13,154	11,059	6,157	3,450	2,707	25.4	26.2	24.5

9.4.7 Distribution of PWDs age 15 Years and Above by Main Training

People with disabilities need skills training to engage in livelihood activities which is the key to their success (UNFPA, 2014). In order to acquire skills like the rest of the population, they require extra assistive devices and services like wheelchairs, hearing aids, braille, sign language. However, most PWDs cannot afford the services and devices needed, limiting them to the acquisition of skills including those offered at technical and middle-level training institutions, as well as from universities

Table 9.4 shows the distribution of PWDs age 15 years and above who have trained in various skills by sex. More than half (54 %) of PWDs have specialized in vocation training skills with more males at 56.4 per cent than females at 51.0 per cent. More females (11.8 per cent) than males at 8.7 per cent are likely to have specialized in courses related to education. Generally, fewer females have acquired and qualified in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) courses.

Table 9.4. Distribution of PWDs age 15 years and above who are trained in various skills by sex

Main training acquired and qualified for	Number of Trained PWDs			Percentage of PWDs		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Social Science	1,061	607	453	0.9	0.9	0.9
Arts	2,190	1,379	811	1.86	2.05	1.62
Performing Arts and Philosophy	595	323	272	0.51	0.48	0.54
Interdisciplinary Studies ¹	1,155	514	641	0.98	0.76	1.28
Science	774	405	369	0.66	0.6	0.74
Space Sciences-Astronomy	8	5	3	0.01	0.01	0.01
Mathematics	1,218	828	390	1.04	1.23	0.78
Business ²	6,725	3,603	3,122	5.73	5.35	6.24
Agriculture	1,568	962	606	1.33	1.43	1.21
Engineering/Architecture/QS/Air Craft Maintenance ³	3,156	2,864	292	2.69	4.25	0.58
Health and Human Medicine	2,922	1,146	1,776	2.49	1.7	3.55
Education (Science, Arts, Special Management,Economics etc)	11,766	5,834	5,930	10.02	8.66	11.84
Law	335	221	114	0.29	0.33	0.23
Military Sciences	82	69	13	0.07	0.1	0.03
Public Adminstration-Public Policy	469	273	196	0.4	0.41	0.39
Social Work	498	181	317	0.42	0.27	0.63
Vocational Training ⁴	63,543	38,015	25,524	54.1	56.42	50.97
Transportation-Logistics Management	111	81	30	0.09	0.12	0.06
Others	19,280	10,066	9,213	16.41	14.94	18.4
Total	117,456	67,376	50,072	100	100	100

¹ Interdisciplinary Studies(Cultural Studies Gender Studies Organizational Studies-Project management planning human resource mgt Development Studies) Demography Urban Planning etc.

² Business(Commerce Accounting Finance Marketing Administration Management Insurance Hotel Management Tourism etc.)

³Engineering and Technology (Civil Electrical and Electronics Mechanical Chemical Aeronautical Biosystems etc)

⁴ Vocational Training (Plant Motor Vehicle Plumbing Wiring Masonary Carpentry and Joinary Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Hair dressing and related Tailoring Commercial Vehicle Drivers etc.)

9.4.8 Disability and Employment

Employment for persons with disabilities provides opportunities for self-sufficiency, self-wellbeing and improvement in their living conditions (UNFPA, 2014). Different forms of disability may limit PWDs from fully participating in the labour market. Table 9.5 shows that 76.9 per cent of the PWDs age 15-64 are in the labour force. The data further shows that overall, there is equality between male PWDs and female PWDs in terms of labour force participation rate at about 76.9 per cent. However, there are more male PWDs than female PWDs across all age cohorts in terms of labour force participation rates.

Table 9.5: Labour Force Participation Rate of PWDs by Sex and Age

Age	Number of PWDs			Labour Force Participation Rate		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
15 - 24	102,820	52,885	49,935	44.71	46.19	43.14
25 - 34	87,304	42,098	45,206	81.69	83.78	79.73
35 - 59	241,452	102,577	138,875	86.65	87.64	85.92
60-64	58,958	21,849	37,109	85.7	87.12	84.86
Total	490,534	219,409	271,125	76.86	76.86	76.87

9.4.9 PWDs Not Engaged in any Economic Activity due to Disability

Figure 9.4 shows the number of PWDs who were not engaged in any economic activity in the last 7 days before the census because of their disability status, by sex and domain. There was gender parity in the domain of PWDs with self-care difficulties who were not engaged in any economic activity. PWDs with difficulties in vision, mobility and cognition had a higher proportion of males (61.5%, 79.6% and 75.7% respectively) than female (60.6%, 77.5% and 68.8% respectively) not engaged in any economic activity. In the domains of hearing and communication difficulties, the proportion of females (62.8% and 76.2%) was higher than that of males (60.7% and 75.8%).

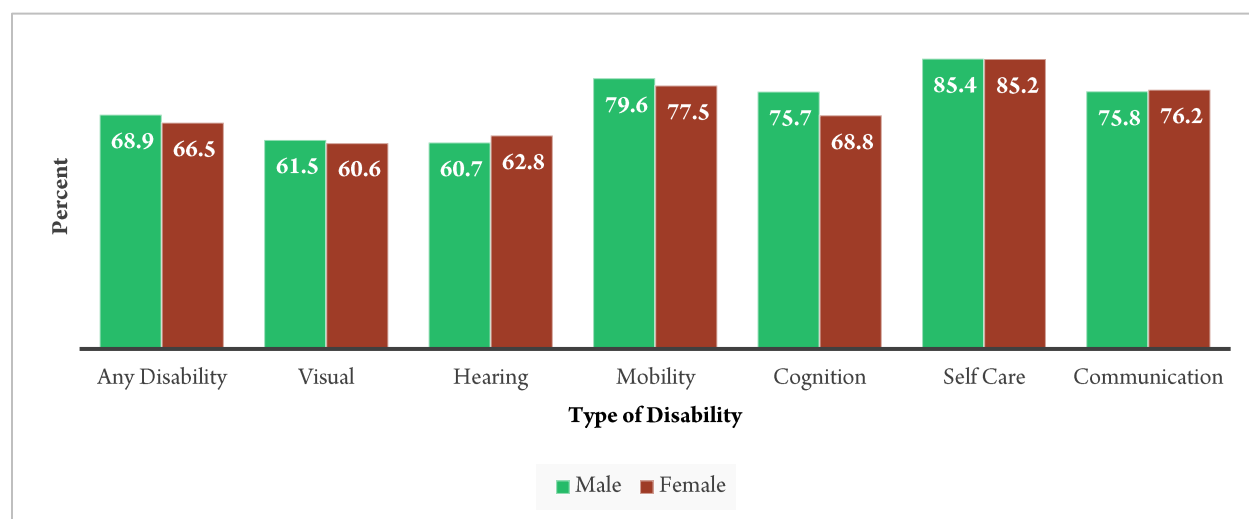


Figure 9.4: Percentage Distribution of PWDs Not Engaged in Economic Activity due to Disability by Type of Disability and Sex

9.4.10 PWDs Not Engaged in any Economic Activity due to Disability by Sex and Educational Attainment

Table 9.6 shows the distribution of PWDs age 15 years and older, who were not in labour force because of their disability condition by age, sex and education attainment. More female (55.4 per cent) with disability who are age 15 years and above were not engaged in any economic activities in the last 7 days due to their disabilities. Similarly, more females than males with disability who were not engaged in any economic activity because of their condition had attained at least a secondary level

of education. On the contrary, more males had attained university at 55.9 per cent compared to their female counterparts.

Overall, most of PWDs who have never attended school and were not engaged in any economic activity due to their disability were female (54.0 per cent). This was more pronounced among women who were age 60 years and above.

Table 9.6: Distribution of PWDs age 15 years and older, who are not engaged in any economic activity due to disability by Age, Sex and Education Attainment

Level Attained	Number														
	Total			15 - 24			25 - 34			35 - 59			60-64		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Total	113,815	50,492	63,008	56,851	28,458	28,393	15,989	6,827	9,162	32,227	12,679	19,548	8,433	2,815	5,618
Pre Primary	2,510	1,325	1,178	907	517	390	372	157	215	988	377	611	236	88	148
Primary	46,475	22,904	23,446	24,888	13,362	11,526	5,744	2,315	3,429	13,190	5,037	8,153	2,528	944	1,584
Secondary	32,411	14,784	17,547	21,643	9,807	11,836	3,344	1,468	1,876	6,046	2,551	3,495	1,298	577	721
Middle															
Level/Technical and Vocational Training(TVET)	5,416	2,299	3,099	1,976	821	1,155	1,357	526	831	1,659	662	997	406	185	221
Vocational Training	44	25	19	22	13	9	10	4	6	8	4	4	4	1	3
University	2,075	1,160	908	803	391	412	578	284	294	538	297	241	149	87	62
Adult Education	507	235	270	269	147	122	104	53	51	113	47	66	19	5	14
Madrassa/Duksis	14	7	7	8	6	2	2	1	1	3	1	2	1	-	1
None/Never Attended	20,255	7,216	12,975	4,144	2,212	1,932	3,745	1,643	2,102	8,770	3,276	5,494	3,532	833	2,699
Not Stated/DK	4,108	1,877	2,219	2,191	1,182	1,009	733	376	357	912	427	485	260	95	165
Level Attained	Percentage														
	Total			15 - 24			25 - 34			35 - 59			60-64		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Total	100.0	44.4	55.4	100.0	50.1	49.9	100.0	42.7	57.3	100.0	39.3	60.7	100.0	33.4	66.6
Pre Primary	100.0	52.8	46.9	100.0	57.0	43.0	100.0	42.2	57.8	100.0	38.2	61.8	100.0	37.3	62.7
Primary	100.0	49.3	50.4	100.0	53.7	46.3	100.0	40.3	59.7	100.0	38.2	61.8	100.0	37.3	62.7
Secondary	100.0	45.6	54.1	100.0	45.3	54.7	100.0	43.9	56.1	100.0	42.2	57.8	100.0	44.5	55.5
Middle															
Level/Technical and Vocational Training(TVET)	100.0	42.5	57.2	100.0	41.5	58.5	100.0	38.8	61.2	100.0	39.9	60.1	100.0	45.6	54.4
Vocational Training	100.0	57.7	42.0	100.0	59.1	40.9	100.0	40.0	60.0	100.0	50.0	50.0	100.0	25.0	75.0
University	100.0	55.9	43.8	100.0	48.7	51.3	100.0	49.1	50.9	100.0	55.2	44.8	100.0	58.4	41.6
Adult Education	100.0	46.4	53.3	100.0	54.6	45.4	100.0	51.0	49.0	100.0	41.6	58.4	100.0	26.3	73.7
Madrassa/Duksis	100.0	51.7	48.0	100.0	75.0	25.0	100.0	50.0	50.0	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	-	100.0
None/Never Attended	100.0	35.6	64.1	100.0	53.4	46.6	100.0	43.9	56.1	100.0	37.4	62.6	100.0	23.6	76.4
Not Stated/DK	100.0	45.7	54.0	100.0	53.9	46.1	100.0	51.3	48.7	100.0	46.8	53.2	100.0	36.5	63.5

*Total includes Intersex

9.4.11 Disability and Ageing

Figure 9.5 shows the prevalence of disability by sex and age. Disability for both male and female increases with age from 35 years. However, from age 50 years, differentials in disability among female and males tend to widen in favour of females up to the older ages. This is attributed to the fact that women live longer than men.

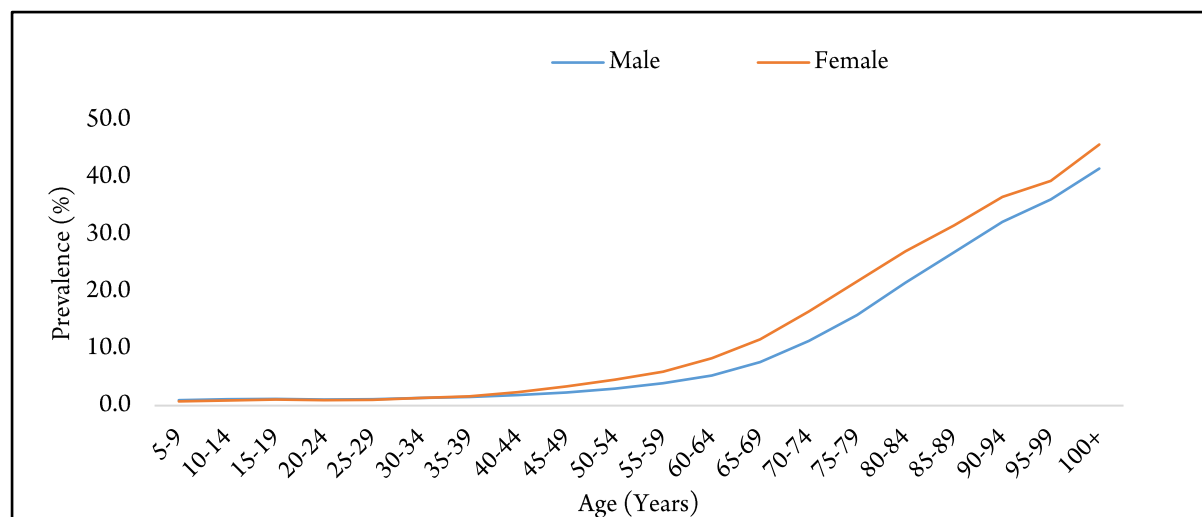


Figure 9.5: Disability prevalence by age group and sex

9.4.12 Proportion of PWDs Living Alone by Age

Table 9.7 shows the proportion of PWDs living alone. Generally, in the ages 15-59, male PWDs tend to live alone compared with females in the same cohort. This may imply PWDs in this age cohort are still active, they could be working in a set-up that promotes individualism and therefore living alone. However, from age 60 and above, more females (50.4%) than males (39.9%) are living alone. This differential is probably because, at age 60 and above, the majority of the PWDs may not be economically active, in some instances women are widowed, thus having no one to live with in the same household.

Table 9.7: Percentage Distribution of Persons with Disability Living Alone by Age and Sex

Age	Number			Percent		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Total (15+ Years)	800,553	328,907	471,597	100.0	41.1	58.9
15 - 17	37,671	19,788	17,881	100.0	52.5	47.5
18 - 34	152,478	75,195	77,260	100.0	49.3	50.7
35 - 59	241,467	102,577	138,875	100.0	42.5	57.5
60 - 64	58,959	21,849	37,109	100.0	37.1	62.9
65 - 69	63,519	23,474	40,043	100.0	37.0	63.0
70+	246,459	86,024	160,429	100.0	34.9	65.1

9.4.13 Persons with Albinism

Around the world, women and girls with albinism are particularly vulnerable to multi-dimensional forms of discrimination. They are isolated by stigma, myth and cultural prejudice. In some places, they are physically assaulted and killed. More specifically, women with albinism are often targets of sexual violence. The common myths associated with albinism include “sexual intercourse with a woman or a girl with albinism can cure HIV/AIDS.” (OHCHR, 2013).

Figure 9.6 shows the distribution of the population with albinism by age and sex. A total of 9,730 persons with albinism (PWA) were enumerated in the 2019 census out of whom 45.9 per cent are male and 54.1 per cent are female. Across the age groups, the proportion of the population with albinism was significantly higher from ages 0-24 for males and in favour of females for age 25 and above.

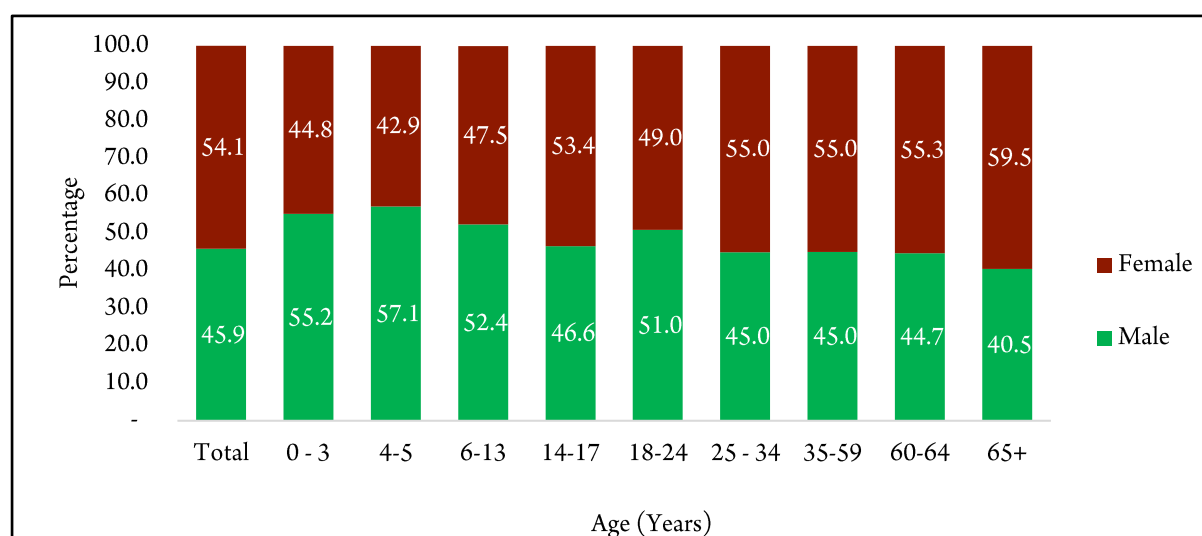


Figure 9.6: Distribution of Population with Albinism by Age Group and Sex, 2019

9.4.14 Persons with Albinism by Employment Status

Women with albinism are often faced with poverty due to barriers in education and community integration leading to a lack of employment opportunities. Table 9.9 provides information on persons with albinism (PWA) by employment status, sex and age. A total of 5,715 PWA who had other disabilities reported working out of whom 54.5 per cent were females and 45.5 were males. Most PWA who were working were in age 35 and above. Gender differentials exist across all the age groups with higher proportions of females in age groups 25-34 and age 60 and above. The highest proportion of PWAs who were not employed were those in the age cohort of 35 - 59 years and comprised 43.0 per cent males and 45.8 per cent females.

Table 9.9: Percentage Distribution of Persons with Albinism by Employment Status, Sex and Age

Age	Total			Working			Unemployed/No work available			Inactive		
	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female	Total*	Male	Female
Total	9,486	4,330	5,156	5,715	2,606	3,109	280	149	131	3,491	1,575	1,916
<15	15.5	17.6	13.7	2.9	3.4	2.4	-	-	-	37.3	42.7	32.8
15 - 24	15.0	16.1	14.0	6.8	8.0	5.8	21.4	22.8	19.8	27.9	28.9	27.0
25 - 34	11.4	11.3	11.6	14.0	13.9	14.1	20.7	18.8	22.9	6.5	6.2	6.8
35 - 59	29.5	29.1	29.9	40.5	40.7	40.2	44.3	43.0	45.8	10.4	8.6	12.0
60+	28.6	25.9	30.9	35.9	34.0	37.5	13.6	15.4	11.5	17.9	13.6	21.5

9.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

9.5.1 Conclusions

- a) Generally, disability is more prominent among females (57%) than males (43%). This is more pronounced among PWDs age 60 years and above with 45.4 per cent of the female PWDs and 33.3 per cent of the male PWDs. Similarly, out of 9,730 persons with albinism (PWAs) who were enumerated, 54.1 per cent are female.
- b) About the same proportion of male (25.1 per cent) and female (24.1 per cent) PWDs age 5 to 17 years are out of school. However, net enrolment rates for boys with disability in pre-primary, primary and secondary levels of education, at 53.2, 71.5 and 68.1 per cent respectively, are slightly lower than that of girls with disability, at 54.6, 73.0 and 73.0 per cent.
- c) More boys (33.0%) age 5 -24 with disability have never attended school compared to their female counterparts (29.3%). This shows that young men and boys age 5 to 24 years who have disability run a greater risk of being excluded from formal education than their female counterparts.
- d) A quarter of orphans with disabilities, with 26.2 per cent of males and 24.5 per cent of females, are out of school.
- e) More than half (54 %) of PWDs have specialized in vocation training skills with more males at 56.4 per cent than females at 51.0 per cent. More females (11.8 per cent) than males at 8.7 per cent are likely to have specialized in courses related to education and fewer females have acquired and qualified in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) courses.
- f) More women and girls with disabilities of the working-age are out of labour force, (61.1 %) compared with their male counterparts (38.9 %).
- g) There is no wide gender disparity among males and females with albinism in terms of age and employment.

9.5.2 Recommendations

- a) There is a need to enforce education-related policies and legislative frameworks directed at children ages 5 – 17 years, and youth with disabilities of ages 18 –24 years; to ensure that they attend school at all levels of education.
- b) There is a need to develop policies that encourage female PWDs to specialize in technical vocational skills
- c) There is a need for the Government to support funding a comprehensive national disability survey that will address some of the data gaps and measurement issues noted and documented during the 2019 Census.

Chapter 10: Gender and ICT

Table 10.0: Summary of Key Individual-level ICT indicators by Sex and Area of Residence

Indicator	National			Rural			Urban		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Proportion of population age 3 years & above Owning a Mobile phone	47.3	47.6	47	40.5	40.7	40.3	62.6	63.2	62
Proportion of population age 3 years & using a Mobile phone	55.2	55.1	55.2	48.1	47.9	48.2	71.1	71.4	70.7
Proportion of population age 3 years & above using a Mobile phone use without owning it	14.9	14.3	15.4	12.7	12.1	13.2	22.6	22.3	22.8
Proportion of population age 3 years and above Using Internet	22.7	25.2	20.2	13.8	16.2	11.4	42.6	45.4	39.9
Proportion of population age 3 years and above Using Computer	10.7	12	9.4	5.6	6.5	4.7	22.1	24.4	19.9
Proportion of population age 15 years and above that searched and bought online (E-commerce Users)	4.3	5	3.7	1.7	2.1	1.3	9.6	10.6	8.6
Proportion of population age 15 years and above that searched and bought elsewhere (Potential E-commerce Users)	1.1	1.2	1	0.9	1	0.8	1.5	1.6	1.4
Proportion of population age 15 years and above that searched only (Potential E-commerce Users)	4.4	4.9	3.9	2.7	3.2	2.2	7.6	8.1	7.2

10.1 Introduction

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has become a potent force in transforming global social, economic, and political life. More than ever, ICTs are now directly linked to social and economic development. As ICTs become increasingly vital to innumerable aspects of everyday life, attention is being directed to digital divides, among which the gender digital divide is a major concern. Since the year 2000, the digital transformation has provided new avenues for the economic empowerment of women and can contribute to greater gender equality. The internet, digital platforms, mobile phones, and digital financial services offer “leapfrog” opportunities for all and can help bridge the digital divide by giving women the possibility to earn additional income, increase their employment opportunities, and access knowledge and general information.

The government of Kenya takes the achievement of an industrialized information society and knowledge economy as its main priorities in the attainment of vision 2030. Various supported government initiatives such as the laying of the Fiber optic cables, roll out of 4G networks and broadband networks in each county, transformation of television from offering analogue to digital services, among others has lifted the country to an ICT hub (Vision 2030, n.d.).

Furthermore, mobile money revolution in the country has played a great role in financial inclusivity, financial freedoms, and fiscal individual empowerment. Mpesa, a money transfer platform, for example, has since its establishment in 2007 contributed to widening economic spaces, inspired formulation of other in-country e-finance solutions such as Equitel, Airtel money applications, as well as enhanced e-commerce into the inter-country and regional development. Such innovations and use of ICTs have gradually increased through the years but the keynote is that a large share of the targeted population is yet to use the basic ICTs.

Whereas efforts to ensure use of ICTs are available to all, the differences between use by males and females is glaring. The introduction of gender in ICT involves a unique set of challenges considering that girls and boys, and women and men do not necessarily engage in the same activities, or necessarily behave in the same way and therefore this difference may be replicated when using the ICTs. For instance, boys may prefer to play video games in their digital gadgets, while girls may prefer to chat, post pictures on social media and so on. Notably, ICTs if used prudently, can leverage women to financial security, better access to education and jobs, financial inclusion or to access basic healthcare information and other beneficial activities. However, such benefits are acquired depending on women's meaningful access to ICTs which can be facilitated by its affordability, availability, relevant content, and skills (ICC, 2017).

Nonetheless, ICT policies address the impact of those left on the other side of the digital divide, i.e. the division between the information "haves" and "have nots". Majority of developing countries have most women in the deepest part of the divide compared to men who share similar socioeconomic characteristics and if left unattended, they may become marginalised (OECD, 2018). The digital divide which brings in inequalities affects the ability of women to benefit equally from the opportunities offered by ICT and contribute fully to shaping the development of the global knowledge economy and society. Undoubtedly, the full participation of both men and women in access to and use of ICTs increases the positive impact of these technologies.

Contextually, it is, therefore, important for gender policies and programmes to include access to and use of ICTs from the beginning and not as a corrective measure afterwards. For instance, the future holds ICTs as an important tool in meeting women's basic needs and can provide access to resources to lead women out of poverty. To foster this, gender policies and programmes must close the digital divide between men and women. Still, for all these to be successful, the knowledge of any existing gender inequities should be documented. Failure to this, most ICT-gender related issues may be unexploited in the ICT and Gender stand-alone policies. Based on this, this chapter is dedicated to bringing out ICT-gender related issues based on the ICT indicators collected during the 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (2019 KPHC). The next section digs deep into the relevance of this chapter.

10.2 Gender Dimensions in ICT

The main reason and need for ICT-gender-related statistics is to identify and document variations between men and women in access to and use of ICT to inform national policy and set

international policy goals as a prerequisite for the achievement of a globally equitable information society. The importance of this undertaking has been affirmed in several forums, including the World Summit on the Information Society (WSIS). The WSIS-03 Geneva resolved to empower the poor particularly those living in remote, rural and marginalized urban areas, to access information and to use ICTs as a tool to support their efforts out of poverty (WSIS-03, 2003).

In Kenya, most women tend to earn less, hold fewer positions of power and make fewer decisions in the family, business, and in political and public life. These inequalities affect the ability of women to benefit equally from the opportunities offered by ICT and contribute fully to shaping the development of the global knowledge economy and society. In both their social role as family caretakers and their production roles, women can benefit from ICTs, as these can often obviate the need for their mobility, help overcome barriers to access to information and increase their economic opportunities, thus contributing to poverty alleviation. Furthermore, the full participation of both men and women in access to and use of ICTs will lead to many accruing the benefits that come with ICTs (Moussa & Seraphim, 2017).

Based on this, the chapter examines information on ICT indicators collected in the 2019 KPHC to identify and document gender inequalities. The ICT indicators captured followed the guidelines in the ITU Manual for Measuring ICT Access and Use by Households and Individuals (ITU, 2020). The indicators have been disaggregated by sex to define and collect gender statistics on ICT to identify and document variations in access to and use of ICT to inform national and international policy goals. The collection and analysis of ICT gender statistics is a prerequisite for the achievement of both local and global equitable information society.

The policy actions laid by the 2019 National Policy on Gender and Development has a dedicated policy action and thematic area on ICT. The data provided in this chapter will therefore contribute to the desired action namely “harness ICT as a tool for broader strategies and programmes to create opportunities for empowerment of women and men” (GOK, 2019).

- a. Provide estimation on ICT access and use by gender and other demographic variables
- b. Identify, promote, and document good practices and lessons learned to bridge the gender divide in the use of ICT.
- c. Promote the roll out of operational digital villages/ICT hubs and ‘*biashara centers*’ across the 47 counties to ensure access to ICT services by all.

Further, the chapter discusses the following gender dimensions (a) Access to information (b) Financial inclusivity (c) Access to education materials through online platforms (d) Access to digital economy. In addition to other indicators, this chapter will generate estimations pertaining to SDG 5 (target 5.b.1); SDG 8.10.2 (as a proxy); SDG 17 (target 17.8.1); and the Beijing platform for action F3.

10.3 Overview on the Use and Ownership of Key ICT indicators

10.3.1 Mobile Phone Ownership

Access to information: Mobile phone is the most accessible ICT device in the World. The proportion of mobile phone ownership by sex, is one of the SDG indicators (5.b.1) which target to promote the empowerment of women through use of ICTs such as a mobile phone. The analysis of this indicator in a gender perspective follows to facilitate comparability across SDG

member states over time and for informing relevant policies such as child online protection among others.

Owning a mobile phone allows privacy, convenience, autonomy, and security. Other benefits of ownership include acquisition of a unique address through an active phone number, increase economic and professional opportunities, including entrepreneurship. Mobile phone ownership gives one access to several key services such as m-health (Mobile-health), access to government services and financial services (such as Mobile money platforms, access to loans and investment platforms etc). Women and men who do not own a mobile phone face limitations in enjoying such services.

The 2019 KPHC results revealed that among the population of age 3 years and above who owned a mobile phone, 47.6 per cent were males while 47.0 per cent were females as shown in Figure 10.1⁶. This shows that gender parity (0.987) is achieved in mobile ownership since parity is considered to be achieved if it's between 0.97 and 1.03.

Some of the reasons behind that has enabled parity in mobile ownership is the ability of women being able to own a mobile phone due to its low initial capital costs, ability to use it regardless of literacy levels, and other benefits it offers (GSMA, 2015). Ownership of mobile phones leads to the uptake of other services such as the internet, mobile money among others, meaning in the long run, gender gaps in the use of the internet, for example, could also be closed.

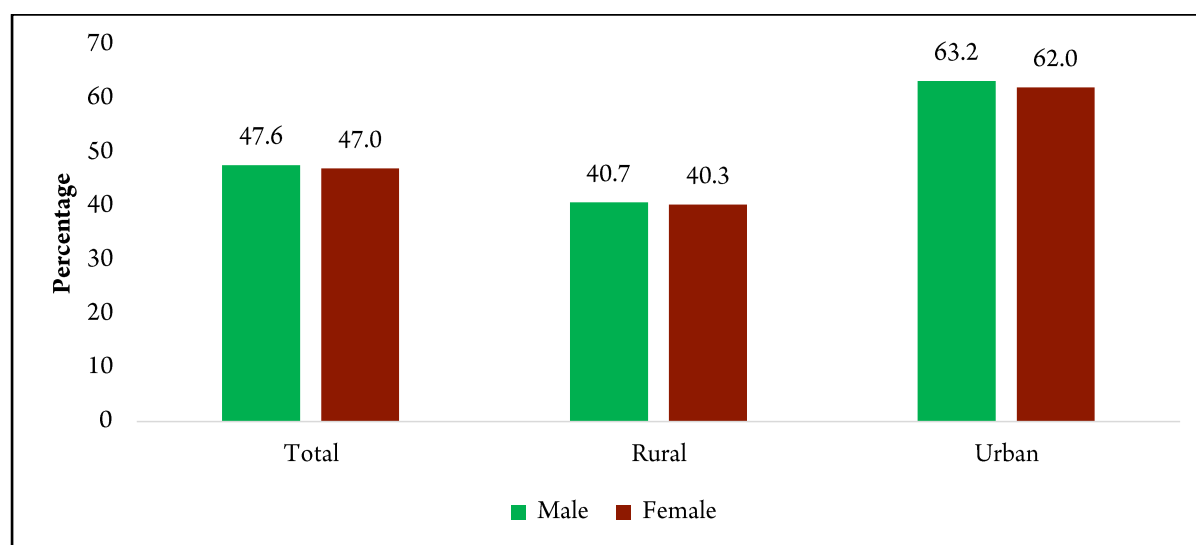


Figure 10.1: Percentage Distribution of Population age 3 years and above owning a Mobile phone by place of residence and Sex

10.3.2 Mobile phone ownership by level of education attained

The level of education an individual has reflects their capability of using ICTs. Figure 10.2 shows that for those who had attained a higher level of education such as university, middle level/TVET and vocational training, the majority of them owned a mobile phone. In addition, slightly more women in the university and middle/TVET levels owned a mobile phone compared to the men.

⁶ Derived as female (or male) who own a mobile phone divided by the entire population age 3 years and above female (or male)

A higher proportion of females (23.9 %) than males (18.8 %) who never attended school and owned a mobile phone.

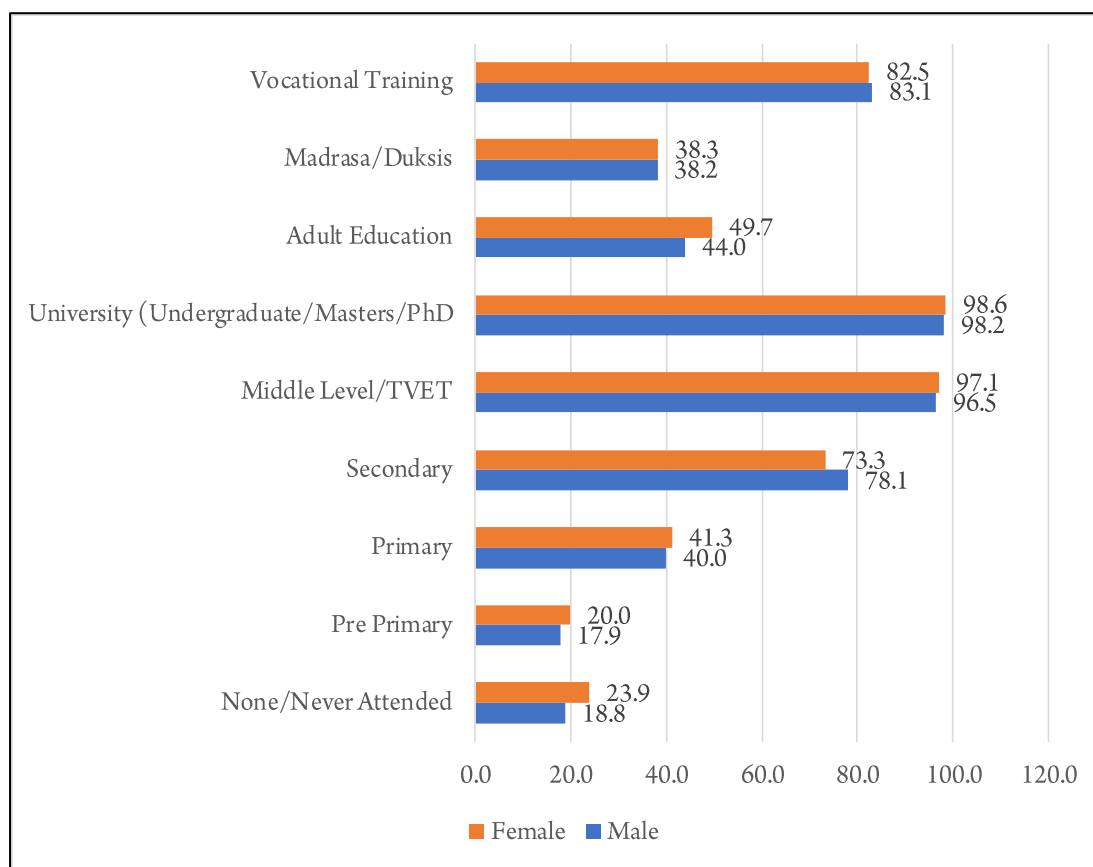


Figure 10.2: Percentage distribution of population age 3 years and above owning a mobile phone by attained education level

10.3.4 Mobile Ownership by Main Job Status

The ownership of a mobile phone by females who are outside the labour force (such as the elderly, full-time students etc) or those not working, is higher (21.8 per cent) as compared to males (17.1 per cent) as shown in Figure 10.3. Women who are not employed are likely to share a mobile phone with those they are close to, a matter worth investigating through more research. Among populations who are in paid employment, self-employed or apprentice, the difference in ownership of mobile phone between females and males is minimal.

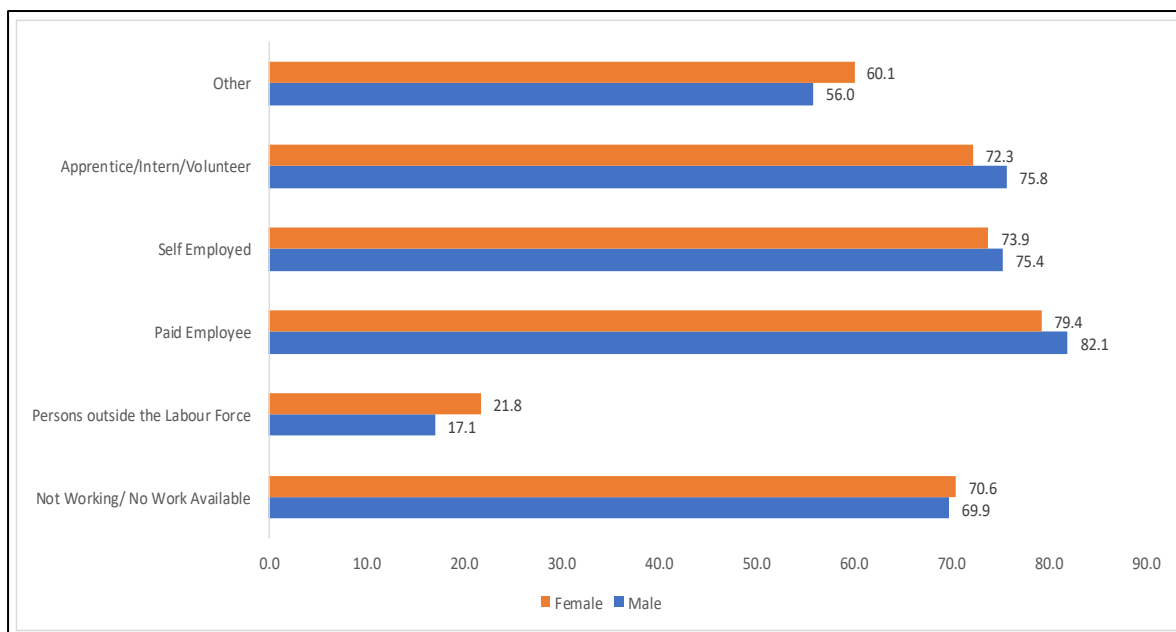


Figure 10.3: Percentage distribution of population age 3 years and above owning a mobile phone by main job status and sex

10.3.5 Mobile Phone Ownership as a Proxy for Mobile Money

Financial Inclusivity: This indicator acts as a proxy for the SDG indicator 8.10.2 on the proportions of adults with a mobile money platform. The indicator measure elements of financial inclusivity. Although the 2019 Census did not capture the use of mobile money or banking platform nor does it necessarily mean that anyone owning a mobile phone must have subscribed to such platforms, this indicator is used as a proxy measurement. For one to use e-financial platforms one must at least, own a mobile phone. It is therefore important that caution is taken when referencing data produced in this section.

The results show that across all age ranges from 15 years and above there are slightly more males than females owning a mobile as shown in Figure 10.4. Notably, mobile phone ownership tends to decline from the age of 55 years. This implies that both male and female, while getting to the elderly group, majority and especially women, start to miss out on the benefits one accrues from owning a mobile phone. Such a trend has implications on the ability of older persons to receive social protection services includes cash transfers through their own mobile phone. Often, they may be forced to use mobile phones of their caregivers or children.

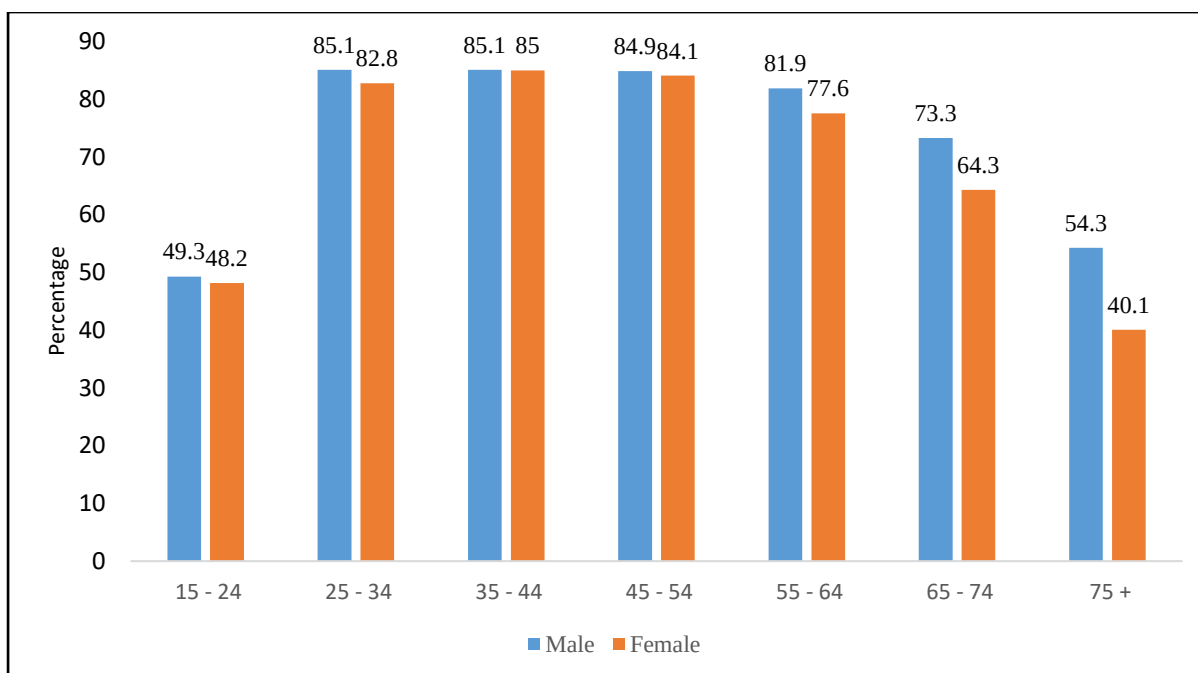
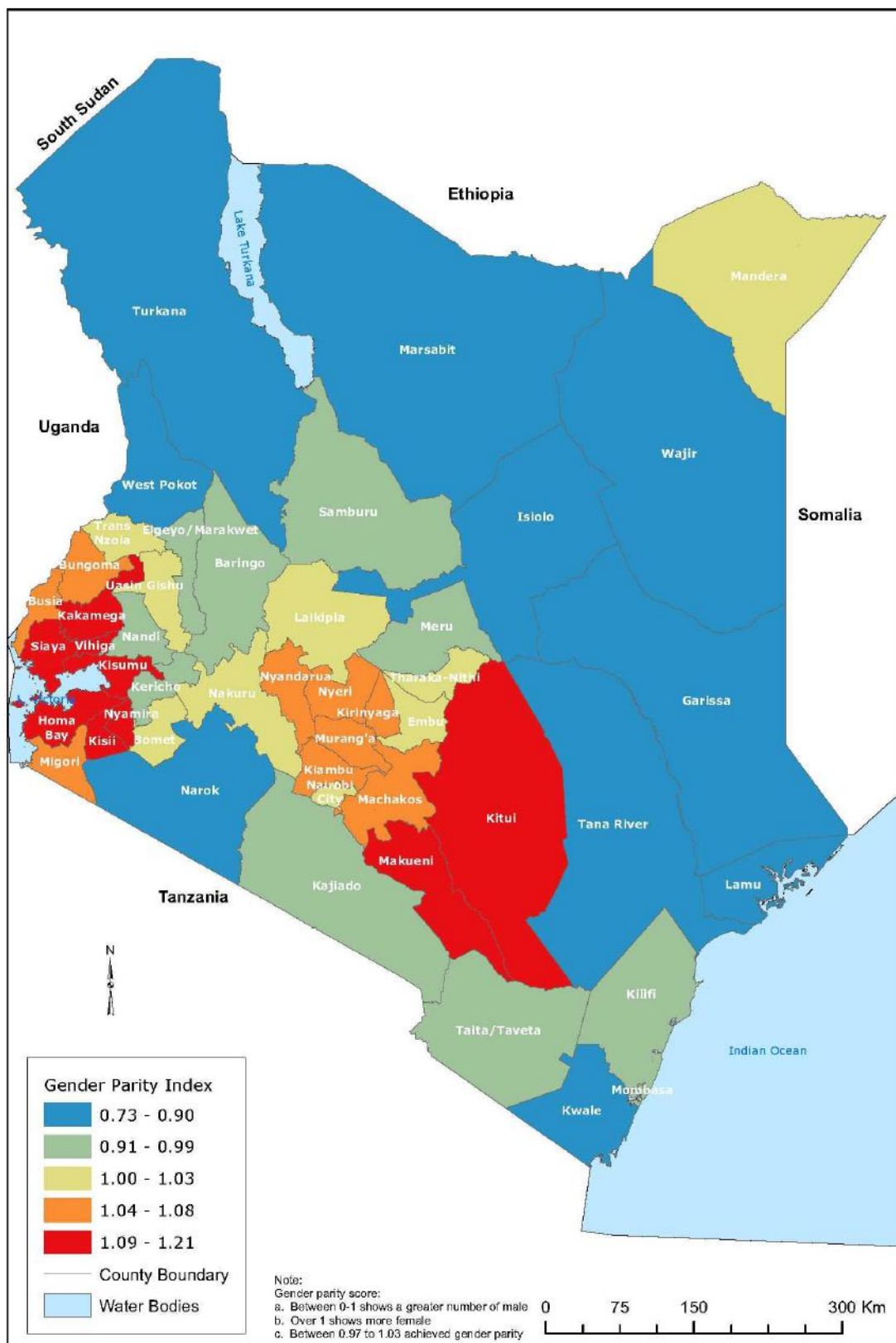


Figure 10.4: Percentage Distribution of population age 15 years and above owning a mobile phone Nationally by Age and Sex

10.3.6 Gender Parity in mobile phone ownership by Counties

Map 10.1 shows the gender parity in mobile phone ownership by County. Vihiga, Siaya, Kitui, Nyamira and Makueni counties are among the top 5 counties where more women than men own a mobile phone with an index lying between 1.09-1.21. The top 5 counties with large gender gaps in mobile phone ownership include Tana River, Lamu, Turkana, West Pokot and Kwale.



Map 10.1: Gender Parity in Mobile phone Ownership by County

10.4 Use of Mobile Phone without owning it (Mobile sharers)

10.4.1 Uptake of Mobile Sharers

Access of Information: Using but not owning a mobile phone implies sharing the phone with another individual, or a phone that is available for use by the public. This estimation measures elements on access to information. Sharing a mobile phone, which is highly regarded as a private device, denies not only one privacy and freedom, but also access to personalised services⁷. It also increases a relationship of dependency and obligations that may be uncomfortable for women which would lead to oppressing women empowerment initiatives. The 2019 Census results show that 14.9 per cent of the population 3 years and above share a mobile phone where 15.4 per cent were females, while 14.3 per cent males as shown in Figure 10.5. Notably, a higher proportion of mobile sharers are in urban areas (22.6 %) compared to rural areas (12.7 %). Among urban populations, women were slightly more likely to share a mobile phone (22.8%) compared to males (22.3%), among rural populations, women were slightly more likely to share a mobile phone (13.2%) compared to male (12.1%)

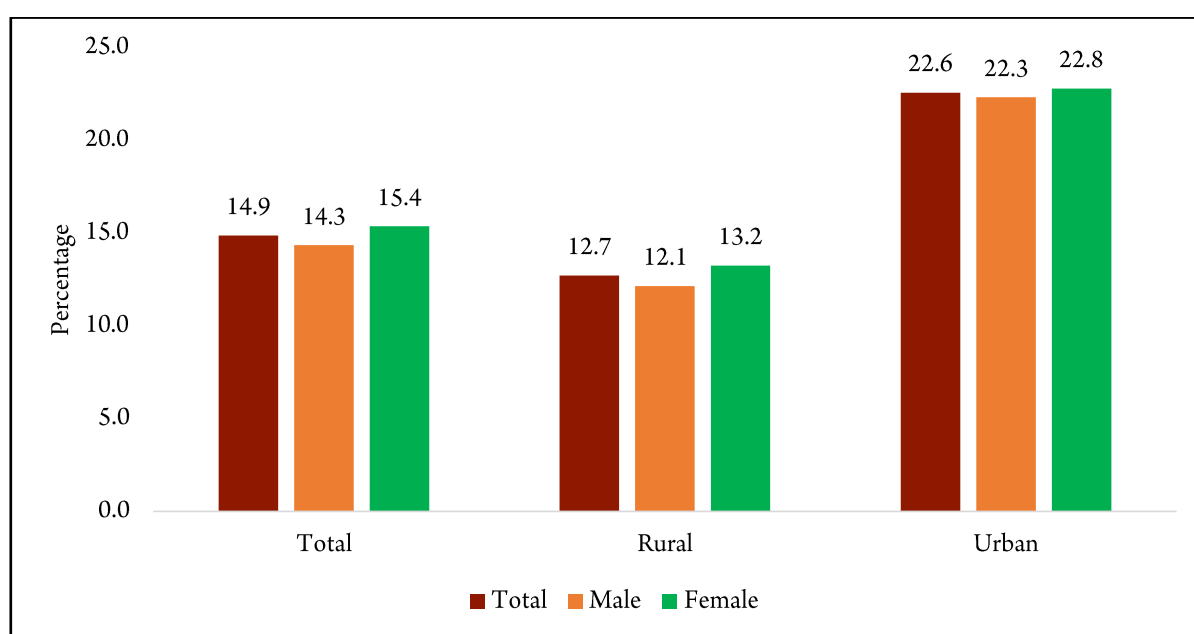


Figure 10.5: Percentage Distribution of Population age 3 years and above Using a Mobile without owning it/ Mobile sharing by Residence and Sex.

10.4.2 Mobile Sharers by Age

Financial Inclusivity: Figure 10.6 shows population distribution of mobile phone sharers of those who are 15 years and above. This indicator expounds on men and women who use a mobile phone without owning it and the possibility of accessing mobile-enabled services. It also gives a nuance of where the financial inclusivity gaps are since this measure captures those who have full control on mobile money/ banking platforms. The results show that a high proportion of those age 15-24 years (11% for females and 9.5% for males) share a phone with another person. To have a mobile money platform, an individual may need an identification document which is given to those 18 years and above, however, young adults can still register using someone's

⁷ Personalised services may include but not limited to, government services that may tie one's identification number with one phone number. For example, is accessing NTSA services, Medical services among others.

(Guardian/parent/relative) identification. Figure 10.7 shows that majority of women compared to men, who share a mobile phone, reside in rural areas regardless of age range.

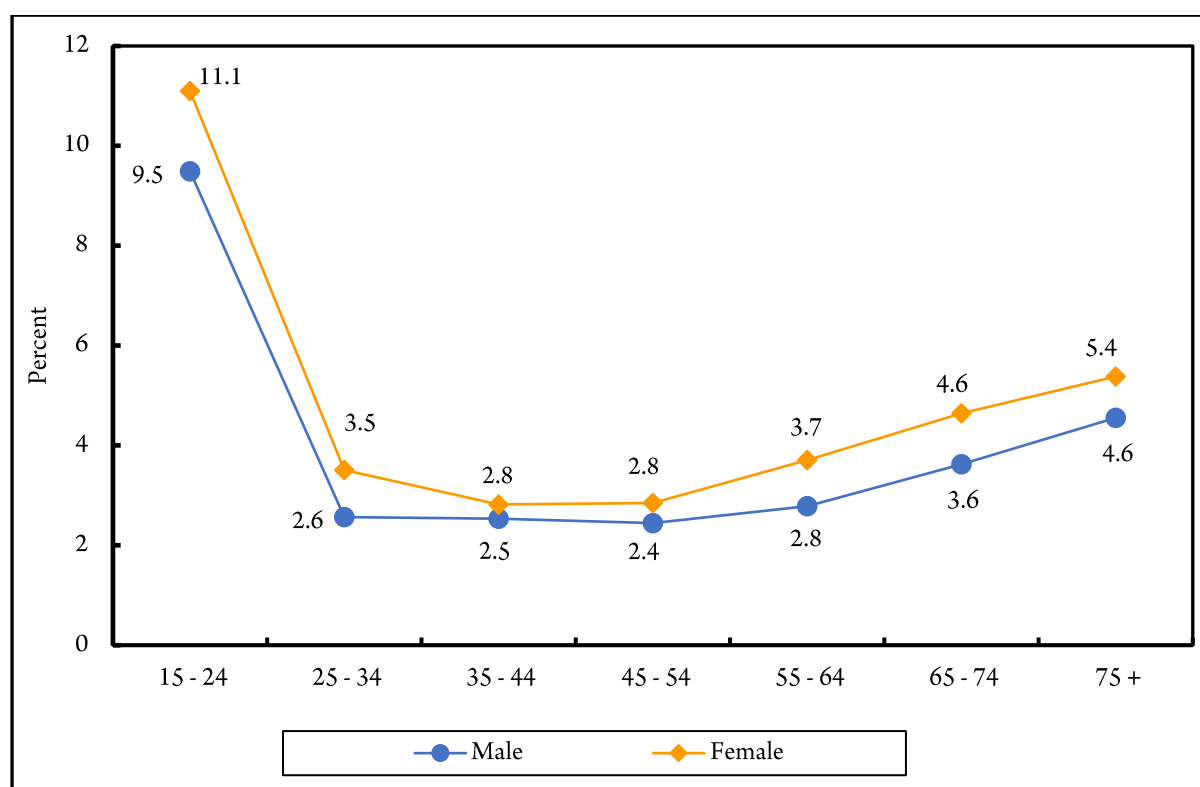


Figure 10.6: Percentage Distribution of Population age 15 years and above Using a Mobile without owning it by age cohorts and Sex.

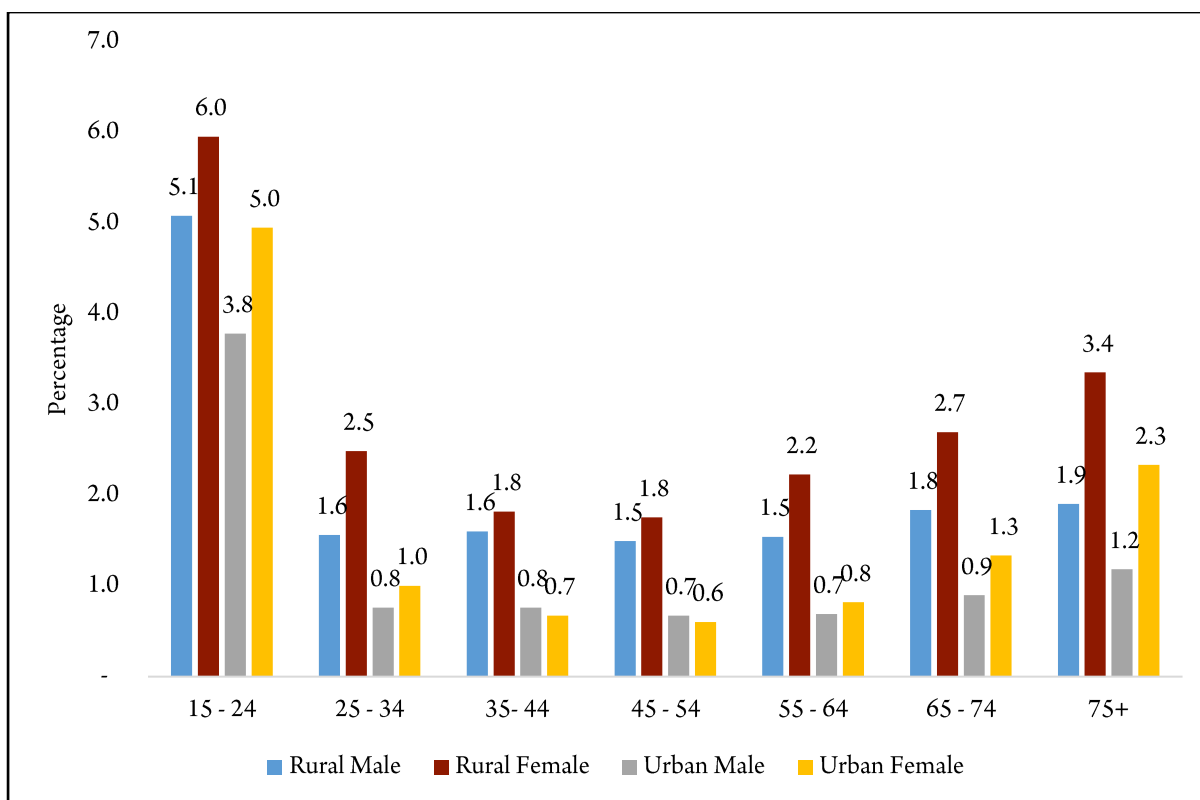
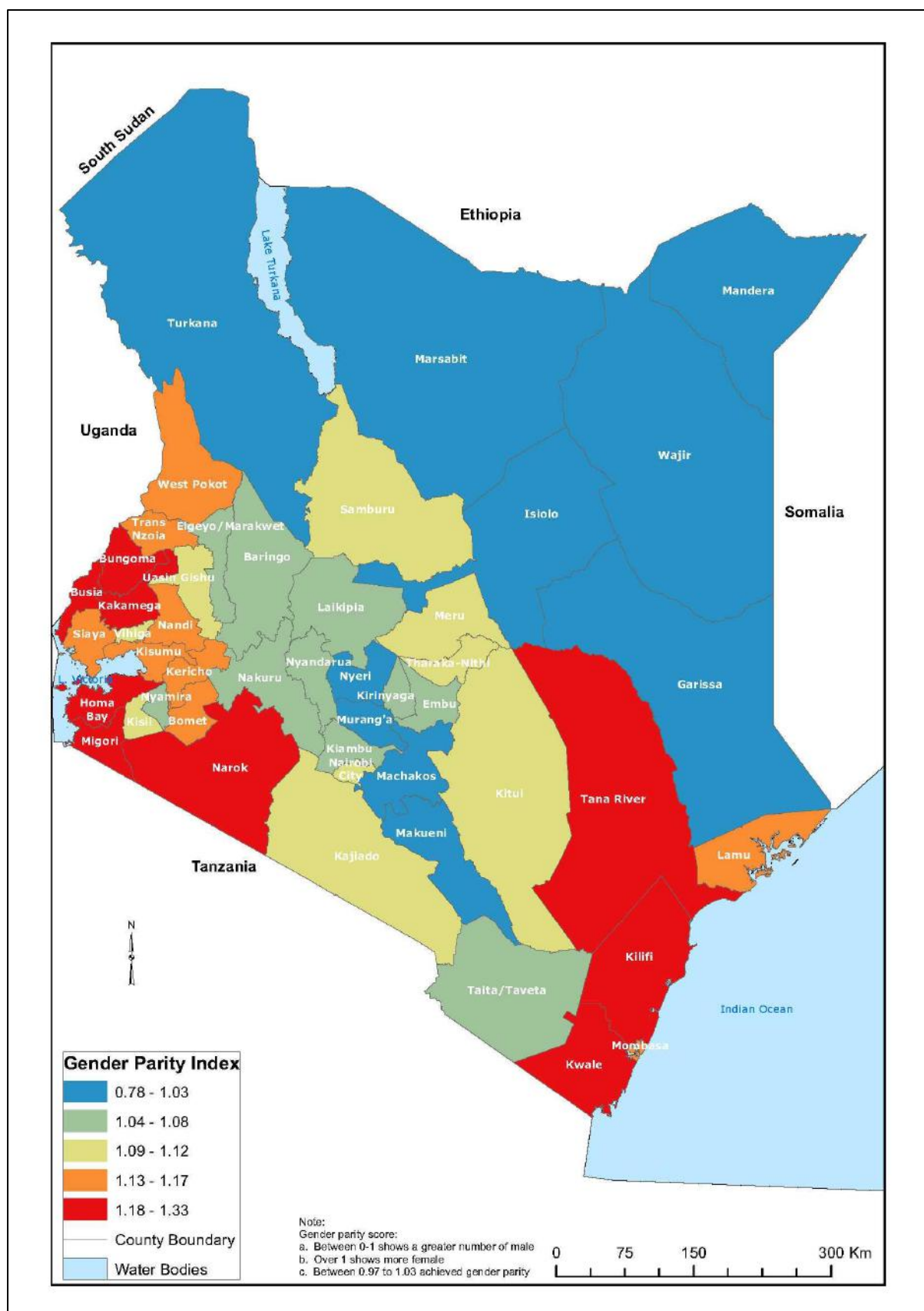


Figure 10.7: Percentage Distribution of Population age 15 years and above Using a Mobile without owning it by age cohorts and Area of Residence and Sex

10.4.3 Gender Parity distribution in Counties for mobile phone users without owning it (Mobile phone sharers)

Map 10.2 shows those who use a mobile without owning it by county. Tana River, Kilifi, Narok, Lamu and Bungoma, were the top 5 counties that had the highest number of women sharing a mobile phone. This shows some of the counties that require attention in promotion of mobile phone ownership.



Map 10.2: Gender Parity distribution by Mobile phone Use without owning it by County.

10.5 Overall Mobile Phone Usage

Digital divide and financial inclusivity: Total mobile use means the use of mobile phone regardless of whether one owns it or not. In other words, it refers to overall mobile usage which includes

those who own it and those who share. Overall, mobile usage in the country for the population 3 years and above stand at 55.2 per cent with, 55.1 per cent are males while 55.2 per cent are females⁸ as shown in Figure 10.8. Analysis by area of residence shows that there were slightly more males in the urban (71.4 %) compared to females (70.7%) while in the rural, females were slightly more (48.2%) than males (47.9%).

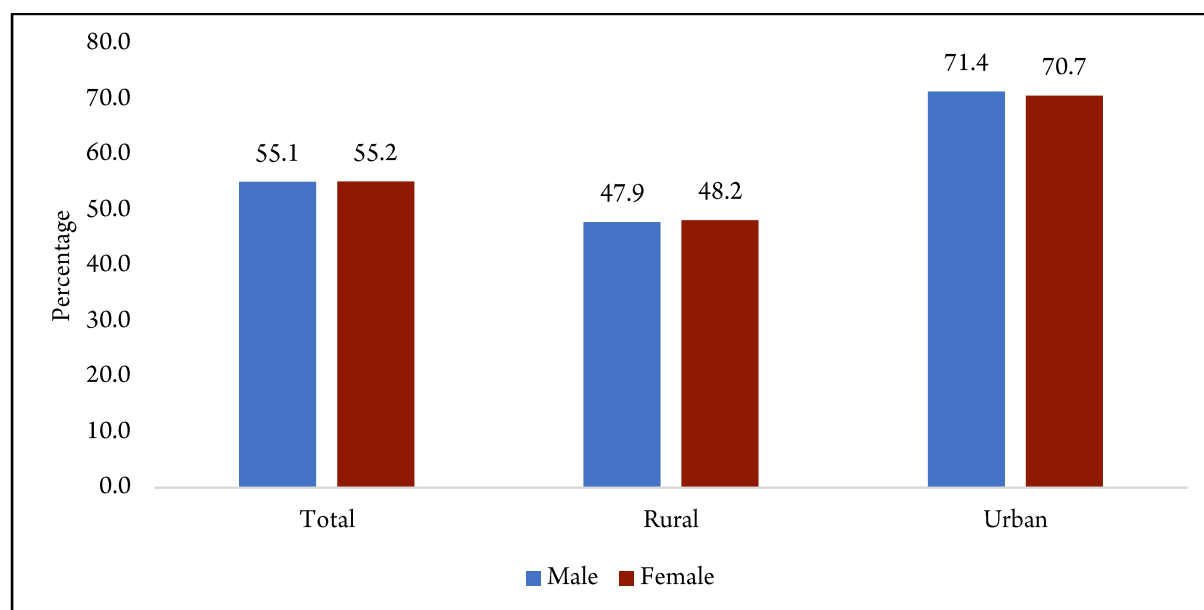


Figure 10.8: Percentage Distribution of Population age 3 years and above Total Mobile Users by Sex, and Area of Residence.

10.6 Use of Internet and Computer

Access to digital economy and educational materials: Data on the use of the internet from the ITU 2019 report shows that the proportion of women using the internet globally amounts to 48 per cent, compared to 55 per cent of men. This means that the global internet use gender gap stands at 12.5 per cent (ITU, Bridging the gender divide, 2019). Kenya mimics these results as there are more men than females who use the internet. The use of internet by women gives them access to a wide range of information that women can use in taking care of her family. This may include access to health, updates of what is happening around her and connecting with friends and family through social media platforms. The use of internet may also build her skills by accessing education materials and selling her products online. Therefore, women, given the skills and access to internet-enabled devices, can use internet to empower themselves and their families.

This section provides the analysis on indicator SDG 17 (target 17.8.1); on proportion of individuals using the internet by sex and measures elements of access to digital economy and educational materials.

Moreover, the use of a computer⁹ measures the digital divide in digital literacy as one requires some skills in operating a computer. Even though one can access digital information from a more complex internet-enabled mobile phone (excluding basic phone), a computer is needed to do more than reading such as writing, coding, designing, computing and other computer-related

⁸ Derived as female (or male) who use a mobile phone (regardless of whether one owns it or not) divided by the total population age 3 years and above to get the proportions

⁹ Computer refers to a desktop computer, Laptop, and tablet.

activities. Kenya is striving to bridge the digital divide through initiatives such as using computers in all schools for pedagogical purposes, the establishment of ICT hubs and innovations centres, the establishment of job-search engines and spaces in counties etc. In addition, the use of computer has been expanded through online learning program most of which were introduced during Covid-19 pandemic since schools were closed, and tutorials were offered online driving the demand of computers for students.

Ideally, as mentioned in the previous section, more women own and use a mobile phone as compared to men. However, men take the lead in the use of computer and the internet. This is evident in the 2019 Census analysis as shown in Figure 10.9 where out of the population age 3 years and above, 25.2 per cent of males used the internet compared to 20.3 per cent of females. Further, 12.0 per cent of males used a computer as compared to 9.4 per cent females¹⁰. Analysis by area of residence show that majority of both males and females who used internet and computer were from urban areas than the rural areas. This inhibits the success of the Gender policy action on promotion on the roll-out of operational digital villages/ICT hubs and ‘biashara centres’ across the 47 counties (GOK, 2019) and more effort and resources may be required to reach the optimal results. The lack of using the internet and computer may be due to the lack of technical know-how which may need the Government to spend more on training to achieve this policy. Empowerment also plays a key role in the uptake of the internet and computer. There is need of more research to explore the barriers to internet and computer use in the country.

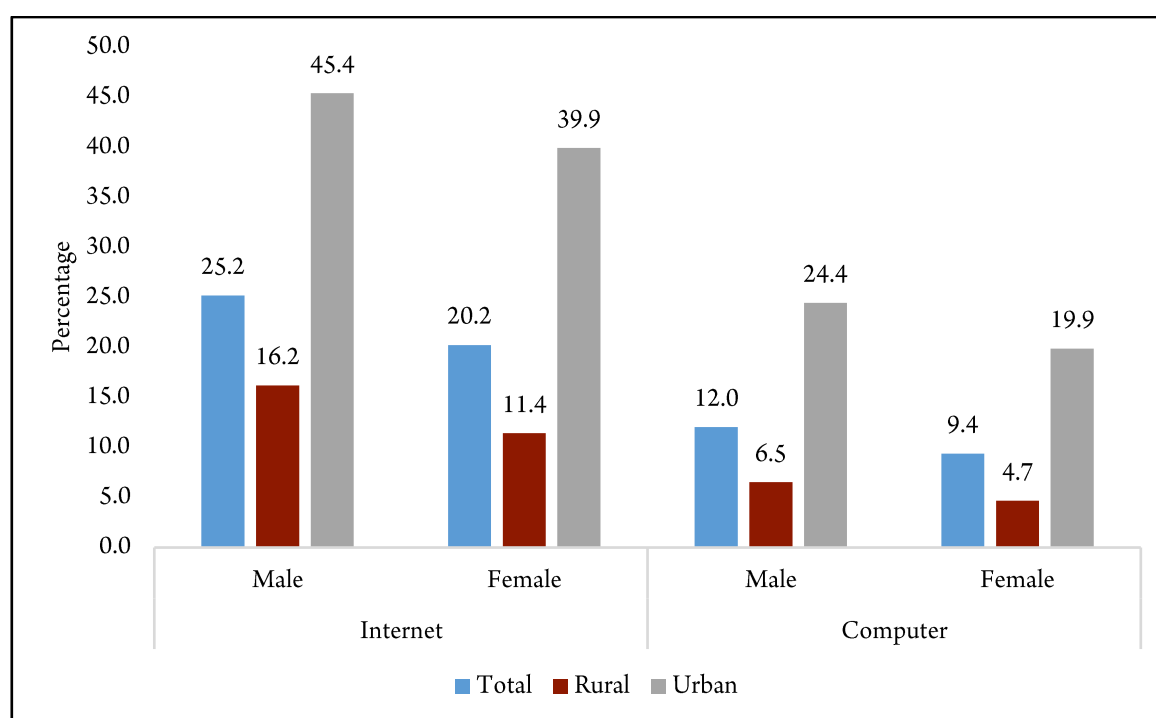
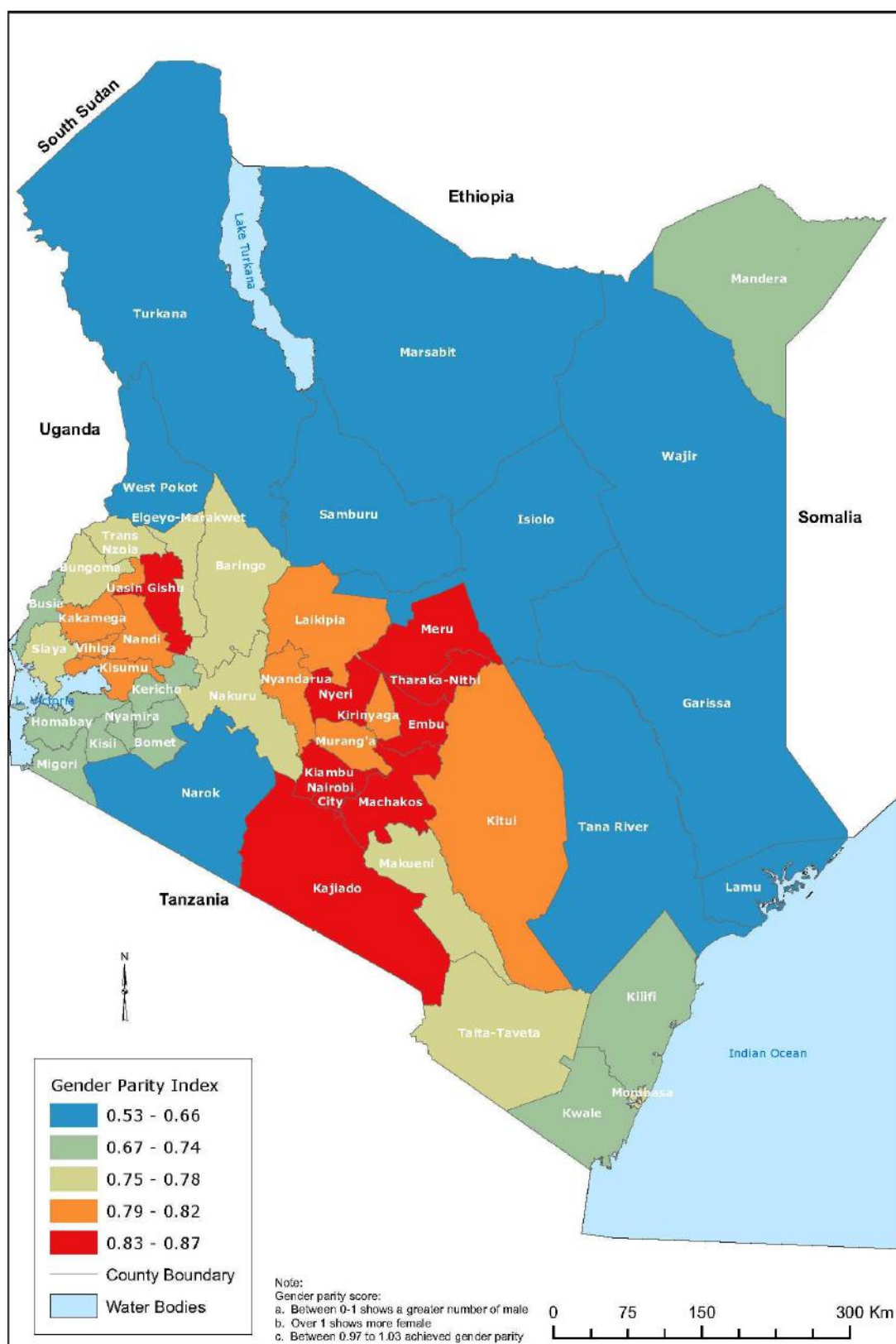


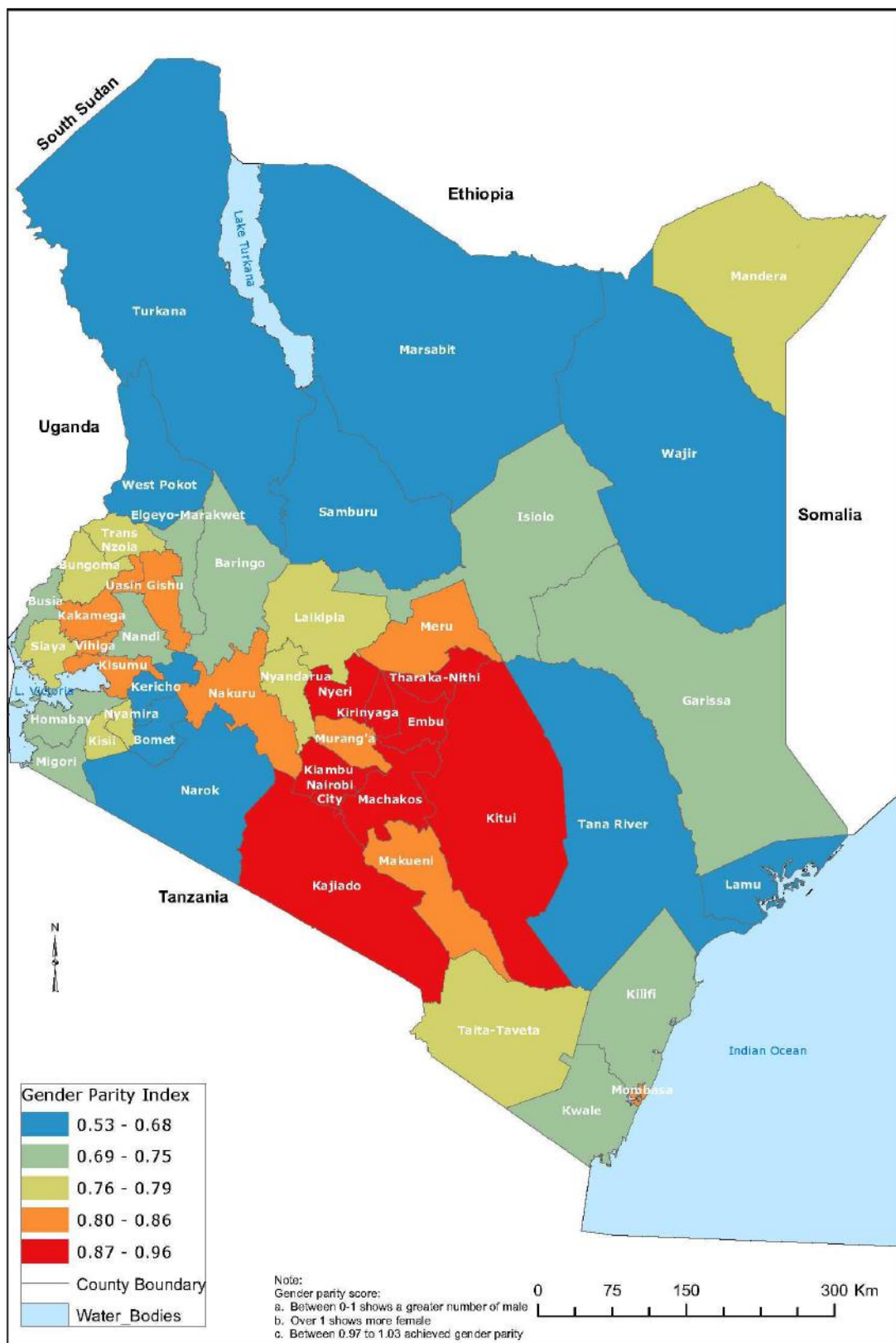
Figure 10.9: Percentage Distribution of Population age 3 years and above Using Internet and Computer by Sex and Residence

Map 10.3 and 10.4 shows the gender parity distribution on the use of the Internet and Computer by Counties. Map 10.3 shows that gender parity in the use of computer is far from being reached in the Northern part of the country with Counties such as Marsabit, Isiolo, Samburu etc. A similar trend is seen in Map 10.4 where counties in the Northern region such as Marsabit, Samburu, Turkana have the lowest gender parity in the use of the internet.

¹⁰ Derived as female (or male) who use internet/ computer divided by the entire population age 3 years and above female (or male)



Map 10.3: Gender Parity distribution of Computer use in Counties.



Map 10.4 Gender Parity distribution on Internet use in Counties.

10.7 Gender Parity on Ownership of Mobile Phone and Use of Internet and Computer by Age Cohorts

Access to information: Figure 10.10, shows gender parity for the ownership of the mobile phone, mobile phone sharers, use of computer and internet.

Mobile phone sharers (mobile phone use without owning it), have high gender parity in that more women are sharing a mobile phone with the highest being those in the 25-34 and 55+ years age cohorts. Sharing of mobile phone deters one from the full benefits of owning a mobile phone and also limits access to key government services among others.

Mobile ownership, on the other hand, tends to have reached parity for all the age cohorts.

The use of the internet and computer shows a high gender disparity especially age 15 years and above given that, at this age, individuals can build their skills and sell their products online, among others. Of which, to understand the reasons behind this, an in-depth research is needed to capture the barriers hindering the use of internet and computer in the country.

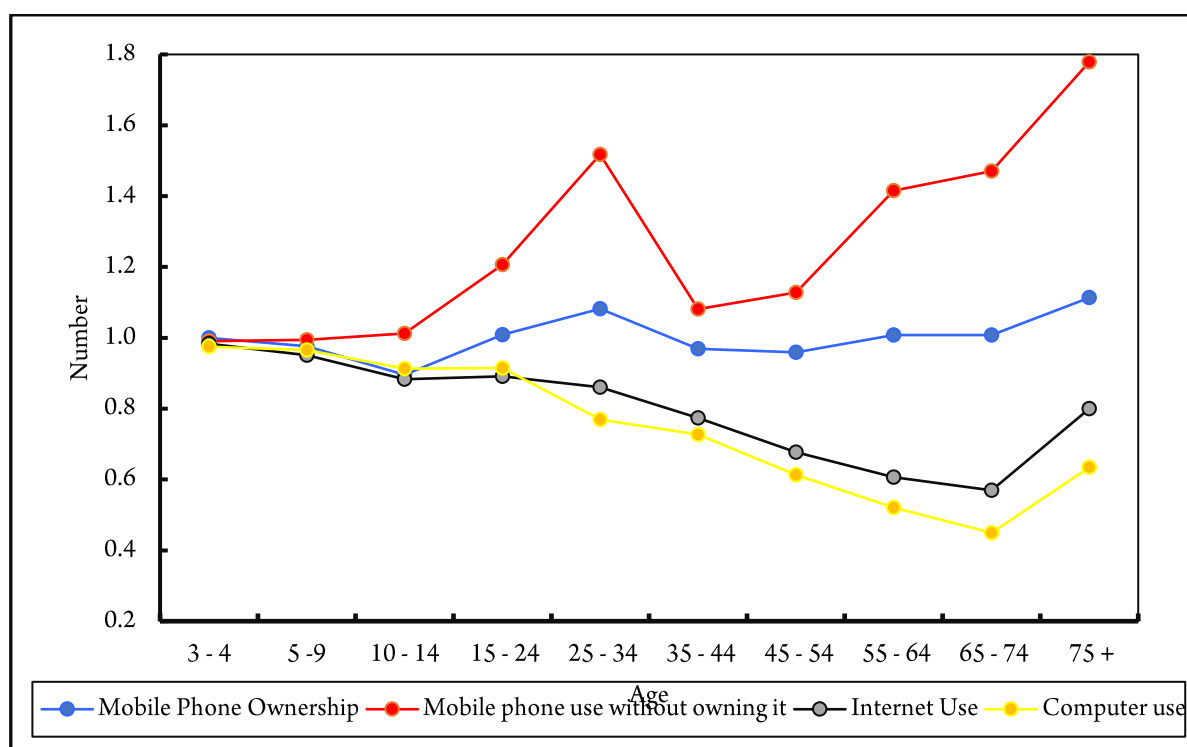


Figure: 10.10: Gender Parity distribution on Mobile phone Ownership, Use of Internet and Used of internet by age cohorts

10.8 Ownership of Mobile phone and Use of Internet and Computer by Population currently in school.

Access to education materials online, digital divide: Measuring those who are using ICTs while currently in school informs not only the level of use of ICTs but also exposure. ICTs are known to benefit those who are in school more by having access to a wide range of information as compared to those who do not.

The results shows that gender parity was reached for mobile phone ownership for those in primary, secondary, university, adult education, madrasa/duksis, and vocational trainings as shown in Figure 10.11. Similarly, gender parity was reached for computer and internet users for those in pre-primary, middle level/TVET, university and madrasa/duksis. Notably, the results show digital divide and limits access to educational materials online. However, this should be noted that the data is pre- Covid 19 pandemic and hence may be different from the post-Covid-19 pandemic.

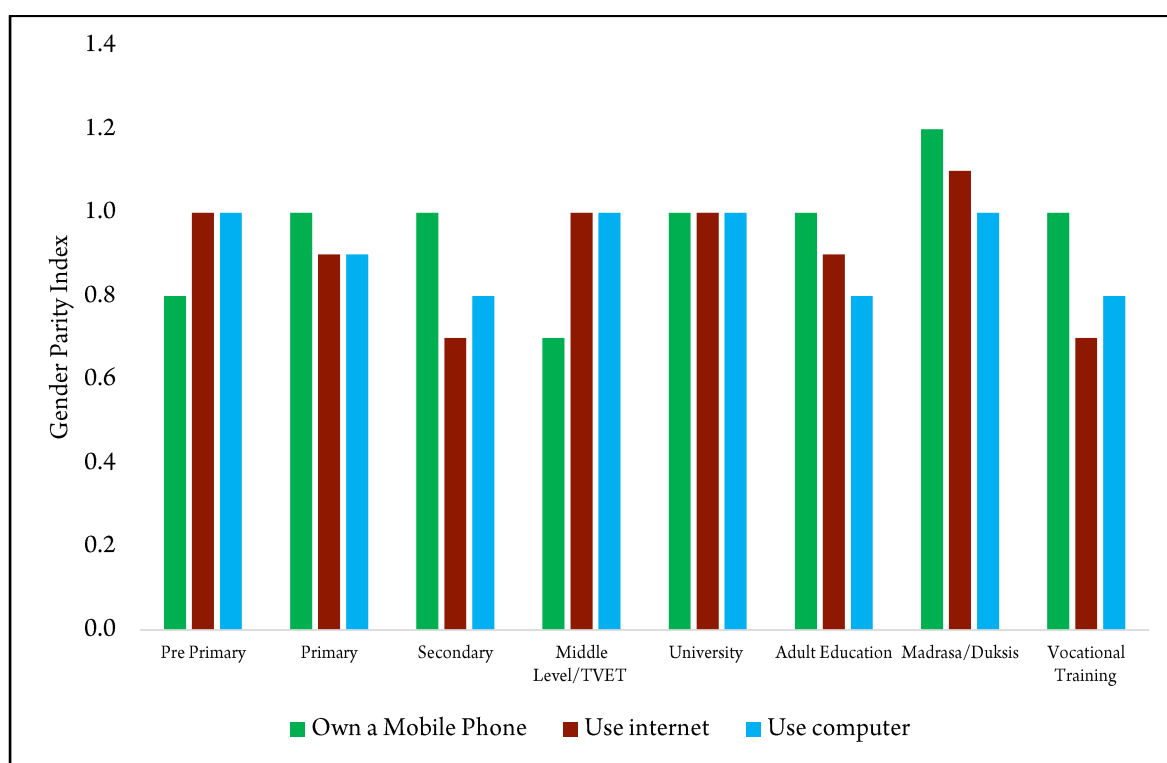


Figure 10.11: Gender Parity by Mobile Ownership and Use of Computer and Internet for Population 3 years and above currently in school.

10.9 Ownership of Mobile phone and Use of Internet and Computer by Education level completed

Attainment of skills as an enabler for using ICTs: The use of ICTs especially the complex ICTs, need one to have attained high level of education. For example, the use of computer for the first time, in most cases, need one to have garnered some form of basic computer skills. However, other ICTs such as a mobile phone need little or no education to use its basic functions such as calling, using mobile money platform, and texting. However, some level of education is needed when using other functions especially on a smartphone such as sending an email, using a mobile phone as an Internet of things, among others.

Figure 10.12 shows that gender parity in mobile phone ownership has been met regardless of the education level. It is notable that more women never attended school, reached pre-primary, primary and adult education levels own a mobile phone compared to their male counterparts. This may imply that women who may have none, or little formal education are more likely to own a mobile phone. The 2019 Census did not collect information on activities carried out on a mobile phone and therefore more research is needed to find out the activity's women engage in when using a mobile phone.

The 2019 Census results show that gender parity on internet use is yet to be attained. Notably, gender parity in the use of internet is reached for those who have attained tertiary, university and madrassa/duksis. Finally, gender parity in the use of computer is met by those who have attained university followed by those in Madrassa/Duksis. Overall, the use of the internet and computer is highly dependent on the education level attained and the higher the education level attained; the closer gender parity is met.

There is need also to find out whether women are carrying out internet related activities on mobile phones. This will help two-fold: (1) bring out the hindrances why women not using the internet on their phones (2) Elevate the use of the internet in general if they use it through mobile phones once the needed skills are identified.

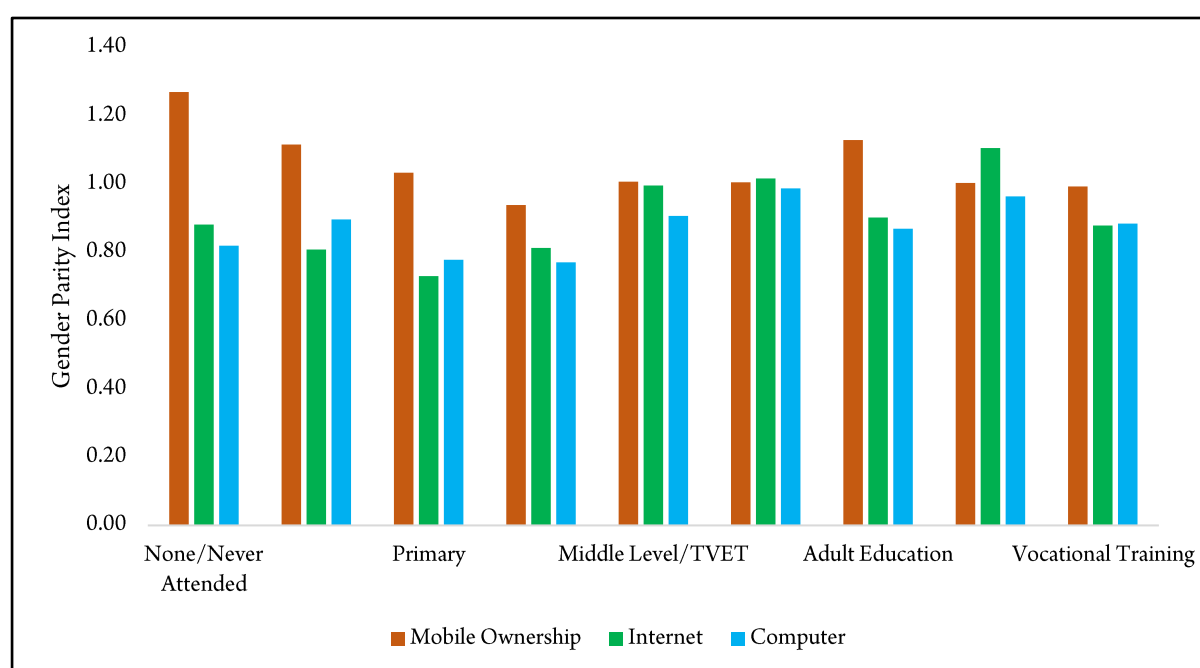


Figure 10.12: Gender Parity by Mobile Ownership and Use of Computer and Internet for Population 3 years and above by attained education level

10.10 Use of E-commerce Services

Women empowerment, Access to the digital economy, use of digital villages: E-commerce entails buying and selling of goods online regardless of the mode of payment and delivery. E-commerce acts as a platform that can boost businesses by selling products online, hence accessing a wider market. On the other hand, women and men especially the young populations who use e-commerce whether buying or selling indicate mastery of some digital skills. The 2019 census only measured the online buying component of e-commerce.

The results show that, overall, 5.0 per cent of males compared to 3.7 per cent of females used e-commerce services as seen in Figure 10.13¹¹. Potential e-commerce users which entail those who searched online and bought elsewhere and those who searched only depict that a higher proportion of males (1.2% and 4.9%, respectively) compared to their female (1.0% and 3.9%, respectively) counterparts utilised these services.

The results show that majority of women, who in many cases buy foods, groceries etc are yet to utilise e-commerce platform and enjoy its benefits. Some of the benefits include saving time to go the market and concentrate on other things; finding cheaper prices offered on various sites; be informed of discounts through the platforms which one may miss from physical shops etc. It is expected that when women are exposed to e-commerce platforms, they may also be interested in selling their products online. It is worth noting that the Covid-19 pandemic has accelerated the uptake of e-commerce and therefore there is a need for further investigation and research in this area.

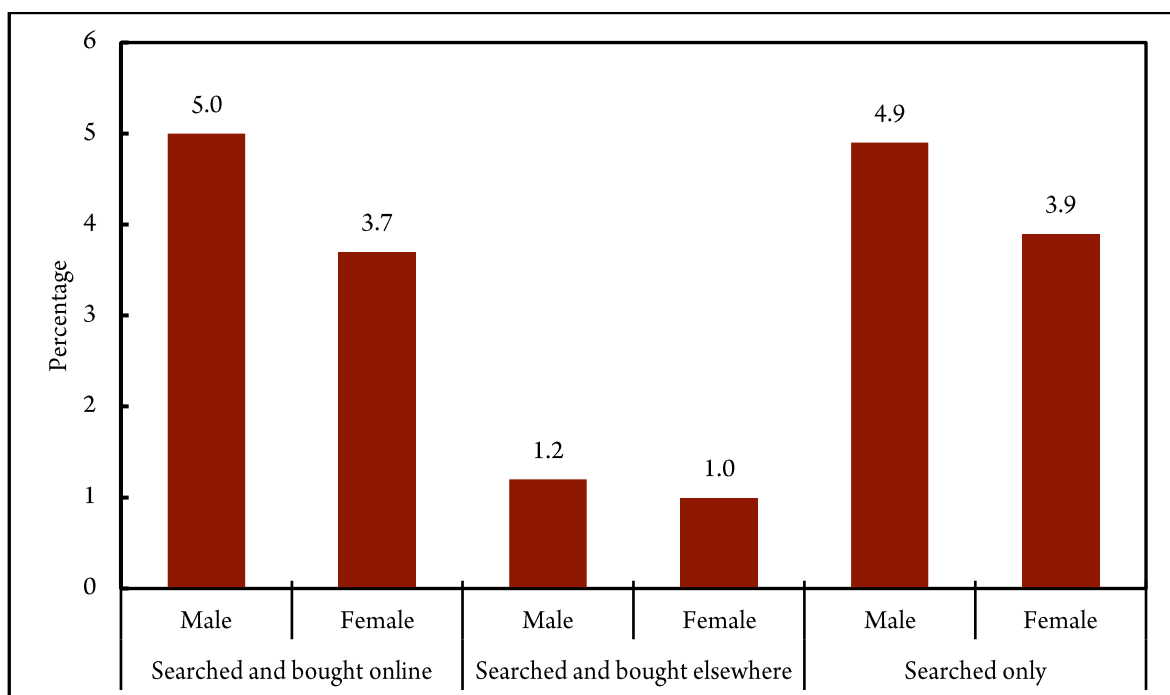


Figure 10.13: Percentage distribution of population age 15 years and above using ecommerce by type of category, Sex and Area of residence.

10.11 Mobile Phone Ownership, Use of Internet, and Computer by Marital Status

Social practices that may hinder access to information thus increasing the digital divide: Marital status act as a key element in adulthood, culture and is sometimes regarded as an achievement in life. However, marital status may hinder use of ICTs together with other factors such as educational attainment, economic empowerment, among others.

Figure 10.14 depicts Gender parity in the use of ICTs and marital status. The data shows a wide gap between women and men in a polygamous union in the use of ICTs. Those that were divorced had parity in the use of computer and internet whereas, among those that were separated, more

¹¹ Derived as female or male who use e-commerce (Includes the options: searched and bought online; searched and bought elsewhere, searched only) divided by the population age 15 years and above of females or males.

women than men were using ICTs. A more detailed analysis while factoring in the levels of education, age and wealth quantiles may be needed to understand these trends.

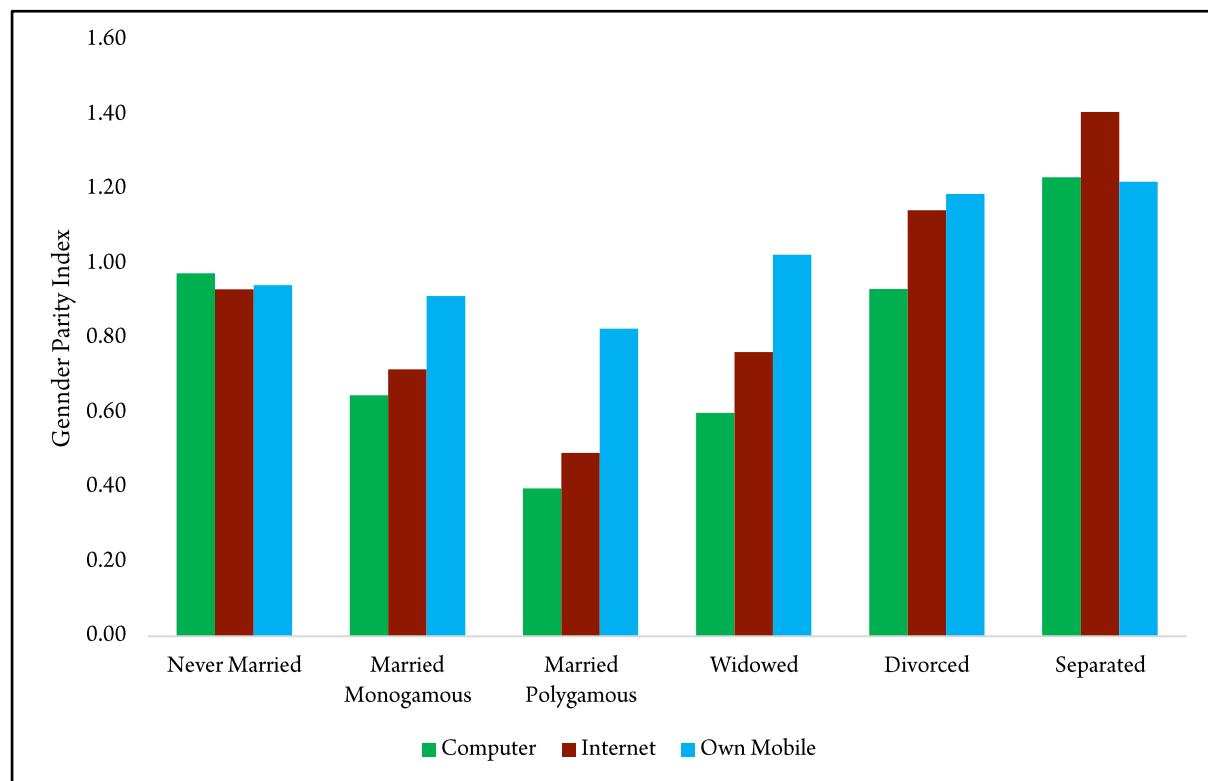


Figure 10.14: Gender Parity on Ownership of Mobile Phone and Use of Internet and Computer by Marital status

10.12 Mobile Phone Ownership, Use of Internet, and Computer by Religion

Religious practices that may hinder access to information thus increasing digital divide: Although ICT has a global significance, cultural variables such as religion need to be considered. In general, the implementation of ICT rides on internet access. There are many negative views about the content on the internet, such as political beliefs and extremism, strange religions, pornography, and different cultures. Such things may make the adoption of internet to be deterred as in the case of Saudi Arabia where Islam is the main religion (SS & V, 2016). Figure 10.15 shows gender parity on ICTs by religion. The 2019 Census results show that across all religions, more women were sharing a mobile phone, with atheists being the majority. The atheists group also had the least women (huge disparity) owning a mobile phone. Women in the traditionist religion were the least in using computer and internet.

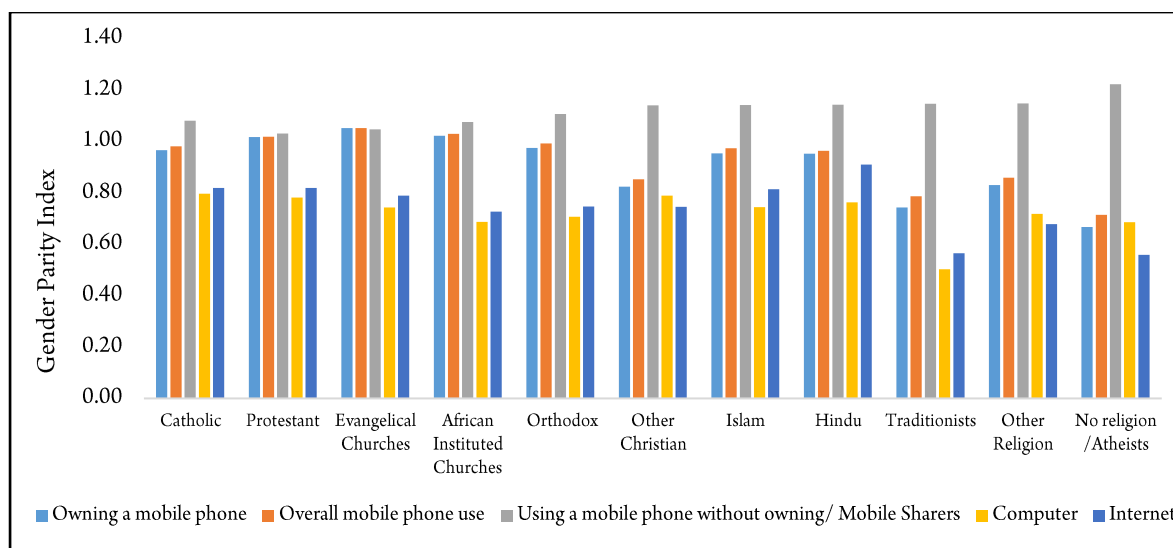
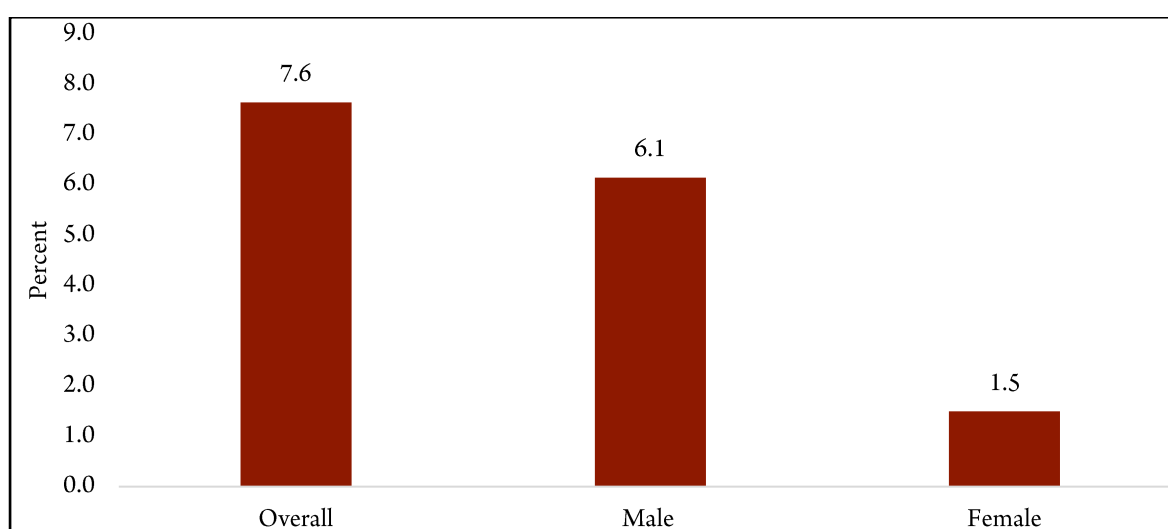


Figure 10.15: Gender Parity on Ownership of Mobile Phone and Use of Internet and Computer by Religion

10.13 Uptake of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM)

Uptake of STEM: In most countries, girls tend to outperform boys in reading and writing skills but are under-represented in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) (ITU, Connected Girls, Creating Brighter Futures, 2021). Some of the factors perpetuating gender STEM gaps include (1) gender stereotypes where STEM field is viewed as masculine and hence girls abilities are underestimated as early as preschool; (2) male-dominated cultures where since fewer women study and work in STEM, these fields tend to perpetuate inflexible, exclusionary, male-dominated cultures that are not supportive of or attractive to women and minorities; (3) Fewer role models to inspire girls interests and seeing limited examples of female scientists and engineering (Corbett & Hill, 2015).

The 2019 Census show that out of all the courses trained and acquired by individuals 15 years and above, 7.6 per cent are STEM courses of which 6.1 per cent are male while 1.5 per cent are female as shown in Figure 10.16¹².



¹² Derived as female (or male) undertaking STEM divided by the total students taking ALL courses to give the proportions of male or female

Figure 10.16: STEM acquired distribution out of the total courses for population 15 years and above by Sex

Analysis by those who undertook STEM courses show that 19.5 per cent were females while 80.5 per cent were males as shown in Figure 10.17¹³. The results show that all STEM courses have a disparity of 0.29 hence, favouring men. This calls for policies geared towards increasing the interest of female students in STEM-related courses. One of the recommendations according to (Corbett & Hill, 2015) is to take young female students to STEM-related conferences that have women speakers or presenters, to give them a source of identity with people in these field and be motivated so that they can change their mind set about taking STEM courses. This is easily accessible since most conferences, during the pandemic were held online and some were free and accessible to the public. Konza Technopolis for example, has been holding several conferences and meetings online which are open to the public, on topics such as “International girls in ICT day” to explore ways to mentor young girls to increase their presence in the sector (Konza, 2021).

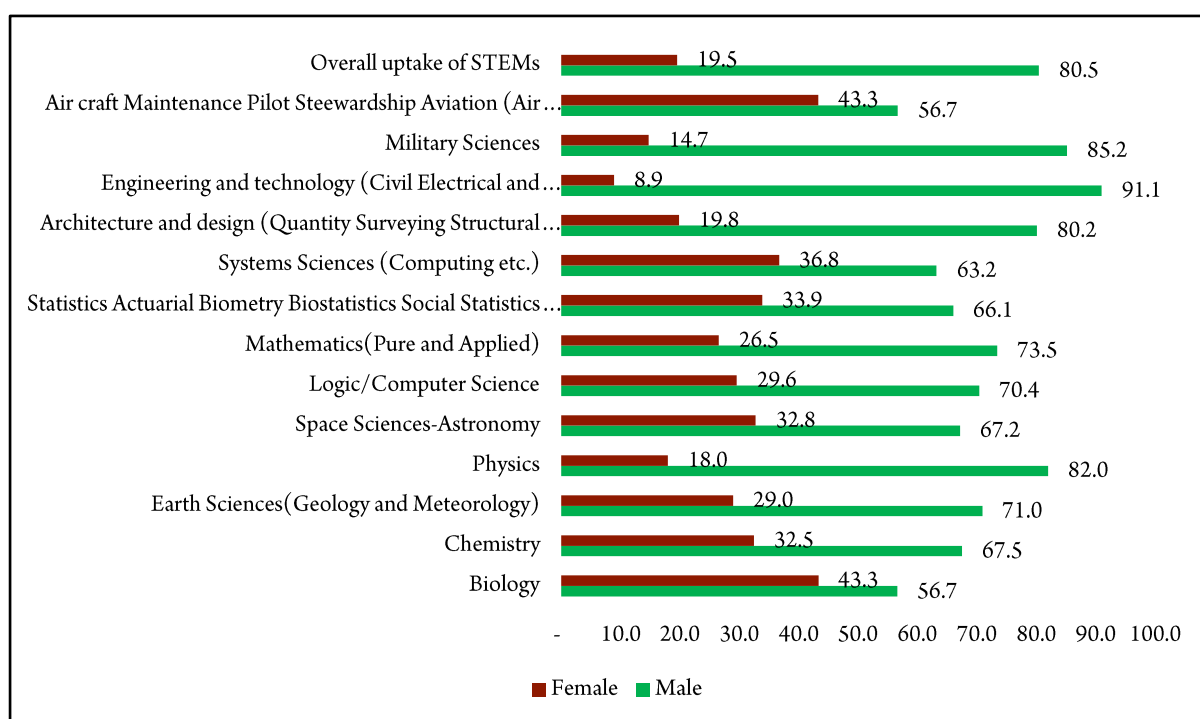


Figure 10.17: Percentage distribution of population Age 15 years and above who have acquired STEM courses by Sex

10.14 Persons with Disability and ICTs

Information and Communication Technologies have the potential of making significant improvements in the lives of persons with disabilities, allowing them to enhance their social, cultural, political, and economic integration in communities by enlarging the scope of activities available to them (UNESCO, n.d.). When accessible and available, ICTs can serve as critical enablers that allow persons with disabilities (PWDs) to realise full and effective opportunities to participate in all aspects of society and development (Pratt, 2019). However, in as much as ICTs

¹³ Derived as female (or male) undertaking STEM divided by the total students taking stem courses to give Female or Male proportions

have the power to connect people, when PWDs lack access to ICTs, they will be left behind. With the diverseness of ICTs, where possible, ICTs ought to be designed as an all-round people inclusive, as opposed to further development of certain technologies that would only be used specifically by PWDs (UNDESA, Toolkit on Disability for Africa: ICT and disability). Moreover, while ICTs can raise insurmountable barriers if not designed in an accessible way, new ICT solutions can also bring unprecedented supportive solutions for persons with disabilities such as text-to-speech which helps millions access the digital version of otherwise inaccessible print documents; GPS technology; image recognition; near field communications and internet connectivity are new generation technologies supporting multiple innovations for independent living. It is thus important, not only for PWDs to be able to access the devices but also, the ICT applications be of assistance to them in their daily lives. According to Kamga (2019), male PWDs may still enjoy some relative freedom despite being disabled. Therefore, it is important to disaggregate the data by gender for those using the ICTs.

The 2019 Census data show that more female PWDs own and use a mobile compared to their male counterparts at 51.6 per cent and 46.4 per cent, respectively. However, the fact that more female PWDs use mobile phone without owning it (mobile phone sharers) at 13.0 per cent while males at 11.8 per cent, policies and efforts should be channelled to ensure both females and males PWDs own their own mobile phones to enjoy the full benefits and privacy it comes with. Likewise with other ICTs (i.e. use of computer, internet, and e-commerce) discussed previously, women in general lag behind in using such services. Females PWDs are no different as they also lag compared to their male counterparts in using the internet (males 13.5%, females 9.8%), computer (males 5.9%, females 3.8 %) and e-commerce (males 1.8%, females 1.2%) as shown in Figure 10.18. To elevate both women and men PWDs, ICTs must be developed and deployed in a manner that is accessible to accommodate all types of impairment.

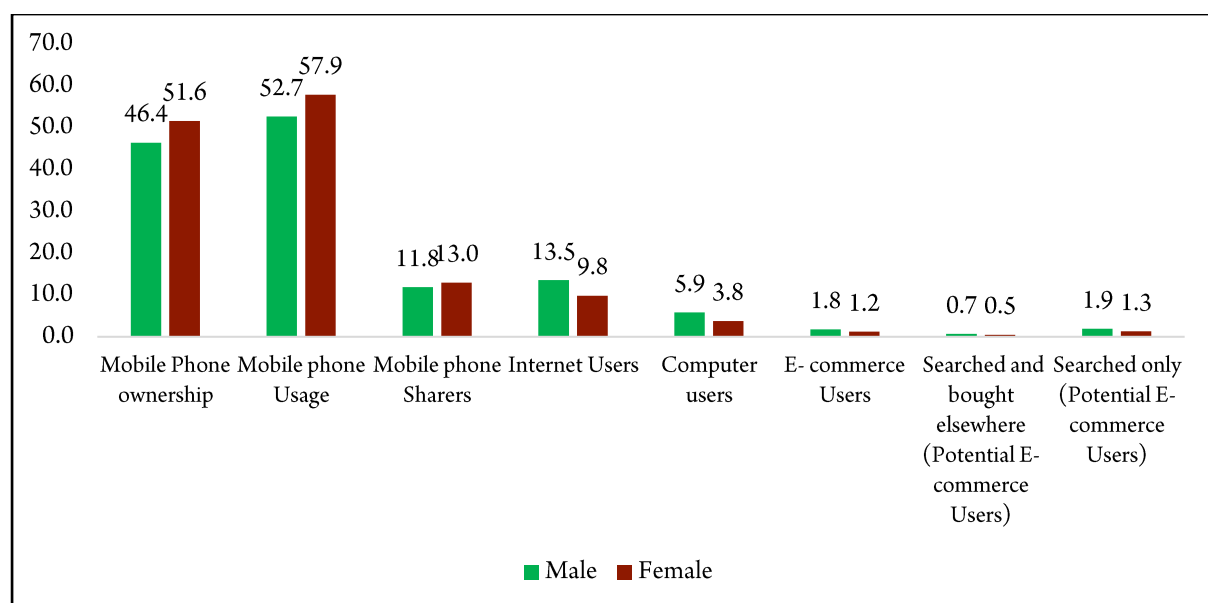


Figure 10.18: Percentage Distribution of Population age 3 years and above of persons living with disability and ICTs by Sex

10.15 Vulnerable groups, type of headship and ownership of ICTs

ICTs act as the main path to access information on empowerment, government information, politics and social news, educative information etc. Figure 10.19 shows that all households across board have a radio with majority being households with more than one older person living

together at 68.4 per cent. Households with older persons living alone had the least of the ICT assets across the board.

Figure 10.20 shows ownership of ICT assets by type of headships. Notably, male headed households headed males took the lead in owning ICT assets as compared to the female-headed households. About 61.3 per cent of male-headed households owned a radio compared to female-headed households at 49.9 per cent.

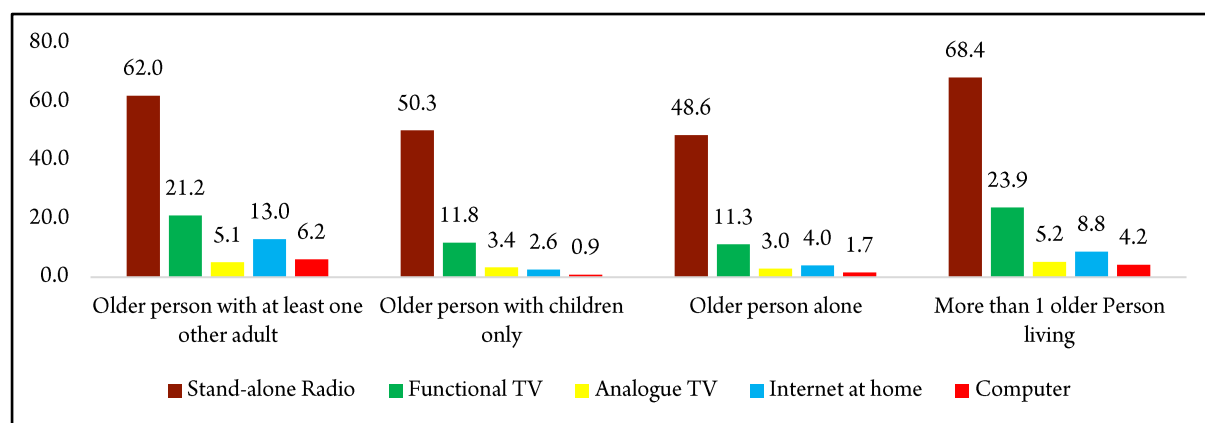


Figure 10.19: Ownership of ICT assets by Households with older persons (percent)

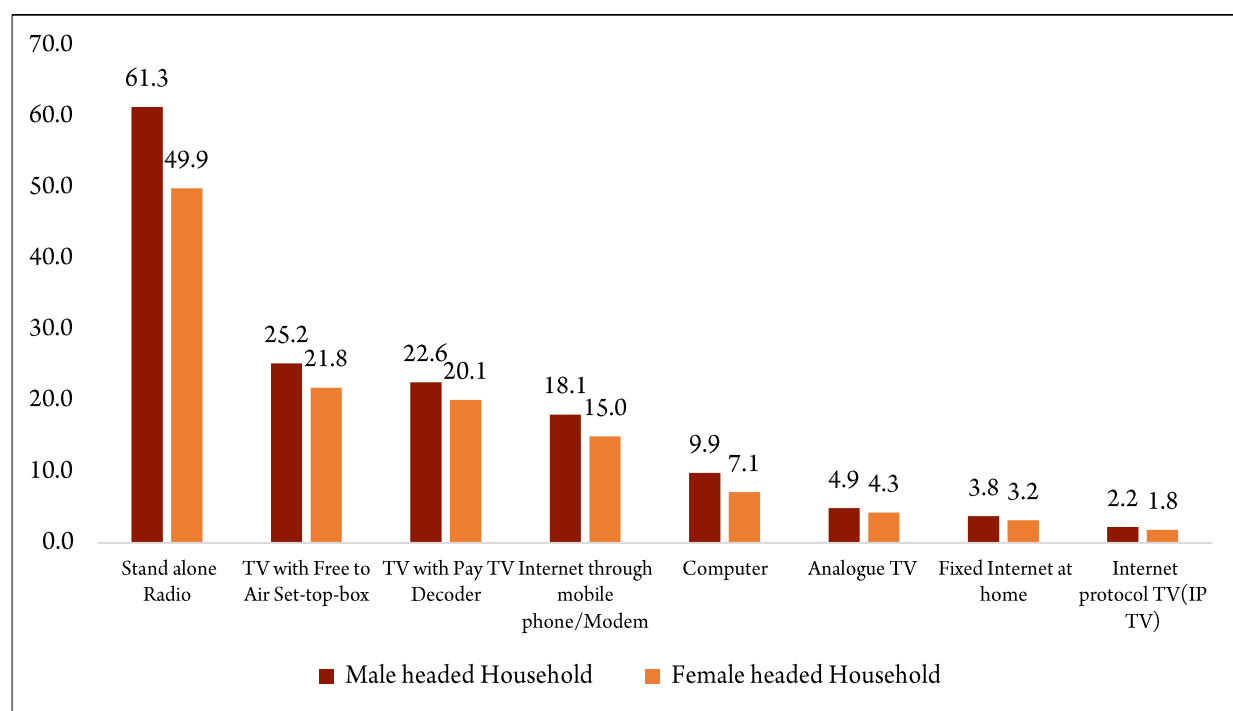


Figure 10.20: Ownership of ICT assets by type of household headship (per cent)

10.16 Summary of Key Findings

A. Mobile phone ownership, mobile sharers, and mobile users

- i. The use of mobile phone and mobile phone ownership in the country show that parity is reached as the results show little difference between men and women. Mobile phone is also the most used device by women compared to other ICTs discussed in this chapter.

- ii. Even though more women own a mobile phone than in the past, a significant number of women share a mobile phone compared to men. Most of these women are in Tana-river, Kilifi, Narok, Lamu and Bungoma counties.
- iii. There were more females than males owning and using a mobile phone with no education background or never attended school.
- iv. The results show that more women PWDs own and use a mobile phone compared to men PWDs. However, more women PWDs share a mobile phone than male PWDs.
- v. Women with traditionists, other Christians¹⁴, and atheists' religious affiliations are the least in owning and using a mobile phone but majority in sharing a mobile phone.
- vi. A proportion of women who are divorced, separated, and widowed tend to own a mobile phone compared to those that are married or never married.
- vii. A higher proportion of women who are enrolled in Madrassa/Duksi own a mobile phone compared to men and women in other education levels.

Use of Internet and Computer

- i. There remains a huge disparity in the use of internet and computer in favour of men.
- ii. Both men and women who were enrolled in the university were at the same level in the use of computer and internet.
- iii. A higher proportion of women who were enrolled in the Madrassa/Duksi used the internet compared to women with other education levels.
- iv. A higher proportion of women with Madrassa/Duksi as the highest level of education used internet compared to other education levels.
- v. There were more males than females who used e-commerce (searched and bought online).
- vi. A higher proportion of females than males who were separated from their spouses, used internet and computer compared to other marital categories.
- vii. A lower proportion of women than men practising traditionist as their religion affiliations are using a computer and internet compared to those with other religious affiliations.
- viii. More male PWDs use internet, computer and e-commerce services compared to women PWDs.

B. Uptake of STEM, Use of ICTs by vulnerable groups and Type of headship

- i. Out of the total population 15 years and above in college only, 7.6 per cent have taken up STEM courses with 6.1 per cent being male and 1.5 per cent being female.
- ii. Older persons living alone were the least in owning any type of ICT assets exposing them more to lack of access to information that they need. This makes the group more vulnerable compared to those who live with someone else.
- iii. Male headed households dominated in owning ICT assets compared to the females' headed households.

¹⁴ A category on its own. Refer to Figure 10.15.

10.17 Conclusions

The 2019 Census data analysis shows the uptake of ICTs in the country. Indicators such as mobile phone ownership show that more women have embraced this technology compared to the past. Majority of women especially in the rural areas don't own a mobile phone hence rely on their relatives and family. This deters them from accruing the full mobile phone benefits that come with personal ownership.

Even though the uptake of mobile ownership by women is at the same level as that of men, the use of internet and computer is very low. The Covid 19 pandemic brought in new demand on use of internet and computer where majority of households especially in urban areas turned to e-commerce, education was delivered through online platforms as schools were closed, working from home was incorporated by most employers among others. However, the 2019 census was pre-covid and hence the new internet and computer entrants were not captured. Moreover, the 2019 census show that women lag behind in the use of internet showing a clear digital divide that needs to be mitigated. The use of computer shares similar sentiments with those of internet.

10.18 Recommendations

The recommendations below offer proposals to relevant stakeholders in the mission to bridge the digital divide gaps. These are:

- a. Introduce the use of internet and computer for pedagogical purposes in schools. This will increase the uptake of internet and computer use in the country
- b. Promote the use of internet through internet-enabled devices
- c. Provision of affordable mobile phone devices and internet tariffs;
- d. Offer internet skills to women on how they can buy and sell online; how to carry out other internet activities to trigger interest, among others.
- e. Conduct research on the use of ICTs pre and post-Covid 19 pandemic. This will give updated data on the uptake of ICTs
- f. Conduct in-depth research to capture and fill in the gap established in this chapter such as the mobile activities carried out by both male and female, ICTs use hindrances related to area of residence, marital and religion among others in both males and females.
- g. Policies should focus on Tana River, Lamu, Turkana, West Pokot and Kwale counties where mobile phone ownership is lowest
- h. Policies to also focus on the northern region which is behind in the uptake of ICTs

Chapter 11: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

11.1 Summary of Key Findings and Conclusions

The findings presented in this report are expected to sensitize stakeholders on the need and importance of sex-disaggregated data for policy formulation, decision making and budgeting.

In terms of family formation, at the national level, for every 1000 women under age 15, four (4) have had a child. The phenomenon is higher among girls from rural (5 per 1000) than urban areas (3 per 1000). In the one year preceding the 2019 census, 2 out of 1000 girls between age 12 and 14 had a birth while 46 out of 1000 girls age 15-19 gave birth.

At the sub-national level, the counties with the highest early childbearing include; Mandera, Samburu, Migori, Narok, West Pokot, Tana River, Wajir, Turkana and Homa bay. Therefore, early childbearing is still prevalent among adolescent girls in Kenya. Early childbearing may partly be due to the prevalence of child or early marriage as highlighted in the chapter on marriage. There are more girls (10.8%) age 15 – 19 compared to boys (4.2%) of the same age, who are married.

As regards mortality, at the national level, in rural and urban areas, the gender gap in life expectancy at birth is approximately six years; meaning women live longer than men by about six years. By extension, this may infer that there are more women at older ages than men, especially after age 60. Therefore, men at older ages may not benefit much from social security protection support as it starts at age 70 years, as they are likely to die earlier than women;

In respect to migration, the 2019 Census data on internal migration shows that slightly over one-half of the internal migrants were females (54.0%). Just above two thirds (68.3%) of the populations migrated to urban areas. The proportion of females migrating in both rural and urban areas is higher compared to males. Among the reasons for current migration, males migrated mainly for economic reasons (56.9%) compared to about a third (29.9%) of females who moved for the same reason. Females mainly moved for marriage and family-related issues (36.5%). Despite the increase in propensity for females to migrate, women mainly moved for marriage and family-related issues while men migrated mainly for economic reasons.

Concerning household, families, living conditions and poverty, nationally, there are nearly twice as many households with elderly women (61% age 60 and over) living alone than males (39%). The phenomenon is more common in Homabay, Migori, Siaya, Kisumu, Busia and Kisii counties. These counties not only exhibit large differences in male-female survival but also high youth out-migration rates. Therefore, older persons living alone are more vulnerable in terms of their general wellbeing.

In addition to the foregoing, energy and water are very important to the well-being of household members. About 55 per cent of households use firewood for cooking and slightly over 8 in every 10 households in rural areas rely on firewood as the main source of fuel for cooking. Reliance on firewood as a source of cooking fuel exposes more women and girls to the dangers of unclean energy. Further, women and girls who are more likely to be persons in the household to gather firewood for use spend

more time in this activity thereby limiting their participation in other market activities. This applies to the use of water from sources that are far from their residences.

In terms of education and training, nationally, for the population age 25 years and above, more women compared to men had no education attainment (gender parity of 1.18). The analysis of access rates revealed that there was a huge disparity in favour of females for secondary net enrolment rates while at the tertiary level, the net enrollment rate favours males.

On the contrary, there is near parity in delay in the completion of primary education at 0.99 while more boys than girls have a higher rate of scholastic retardation at a GPI of 0.85. The tertiary education NER shows that fewer females of official tertiary age are enrolled in tertiary education with a GPI of 0.87. Thus the major differences between males and females in access to education lies at the tertiary level.

Under the labour force participation, at the national level, labour force participation rate for women is lower at 71.1 per cent compared to that of men at 76.0 per cent. More elderly women (age 60 and over) are outside the labour force at 16 per cent compared to that of elderly men at 11 per cent. The elderly population mainly work in the agriculture sector with a higher proportion of these workers being elderly women. This, therefore, may imply that women in Kenya do not actively participate in the labour market and therefore, this may result in income inequality among men and women in the country. There is a need to come up with policies to ensure women actively participate in the labour market through engagement in productive employment.

In terms of disability, more boys (33.0%) age 5 -24 with disability have never attended school compared to their female counterparts (29.3%). This shows that young men and boys age 5 to 24 years who have a disability run a greater risk of being excluded from formal education than their female counterparts.

Regarding ICT, the use of mobile phone and mobile phone ownership in the country shows that parity is reached has been reached between men and women. Mobile phone is also the most used device by women compared to other ICTs. The 2019 National Policy on Gender and Development has a dedicated policy action and thematic area on ICT. Therefore, this chapter contributes to the understanding of how to harness ICT as a tool for broader strategies to create opportunities for the empowerment of women and men.

Finally, the most prominent observations from the census data are two interrelated factors, namely the incidence of births among younger adolescents and the high proportion especially among women age 15-24 not in education, employment or training (NEET). These two factors greatly contribute to barriers in the achievement of women empowerment and improved wellbeing. To harness future opportunities such as the demographic dividend, the country must deliver crucial enablers to improve the wellbeing of women. This can only be achieved if the greatest impediment is addressed – the continued and unchanged early childbearing among females under age 18 and its associated factors. Secondly, efforts are needed to address factors that act as barriers to a sizable proportion of young women and men age 15-34 entry into labour force.

Even though achievements have been made in reducing the gender gaps in access to basic education, there remains a high disparity between men and women in access to tertiary and higher education. This prevents women entry into other productive and high earning work opportunities leading to disparities in earnings and wellbeing.

11.2 Recommendations

The following section provides recommendations based on the integration of key findings of respective chapters and therefore not based on chapter-by-chapter observations. Detailed chapter recommendations are provided at end of each chapter. These integrated recommendations require a multi-sectoral approach to implement.

Recommendation 1

The SDG Goal 5 and target 1.4 cannot be realized unless the following targets are addressed:

- Target 3.1: By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births;
- Target 3.7: By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes;
- Target 5.2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation; and
- Target 5.3: Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.

To achieve the above targets there is a need for multi-sectoral collaboration to end the following by 2030:

- 1) Child and/or early marriage among girls;
- 2) The incidence of pregnancy among young women especially those under 15 years of age;
- 3) Significantly reduce the proportion of girls and boys not in education, employment or training;
- 4) Significantly reduce the proportion of working children.

Recommendation 2

One of the key aspects of key gender issues that is hidden and rarely addressed is the sex differences in the risk of preventable mortality defined as causes of death that can be mainly avoided through effective public health and primary prevention interventions (i.e. before the onset of diseases/injuries, to reduce incidence). Chapter 3 has highlighted the sex differences in the incidence of external causes of death that are preventable.

- 1) There is a need to institute programs to reduce preventable premature adult mortality especially among males;

- 2) A better gender analysis of sex-disaggregated mortality indicators would be computed if the information on causes of death were known. There is a need for the concerned departments to enhance collection and analysis of such data especially at sub-national levels;

Recommendation 3

The census data has highlighted the growing and prominence of women in the migration process. The initial analyses of migration assumed that most migrants were young males and that women would only move to reunite with their family members (associational migration), however, the 2019 census data shows that female migration is becoming more evident. The gender-sensitive migration studies are less prominent and further insights are needed to assess how gender relations are socially constituted, including gender as a social dimension that interacts with migration processes. Further, it is important to explore how migrant femininities and masculinities are transformed by post-migration processes. Therefore, there is a need for migration surveys to explore further how gender systems and migration processes interact.

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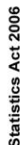
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Appendix 1a: Questionnaires

[illegible]

INTELLIGENCE		C. Information Regarding Person with Intelligence Being Utilized in Body 1.1a										D. Information Regarding Relative Domestic										E. Information Regarding Person with Intelligence Being Utilized in Body 1.1b										F. Information Regarding Person with Intelligence Being Utilized in Body 1.1c									
1. Name of Person		2. Date of Birth		3. Place of Birth		4. Current Residence		5. Former Residence		6. Education		7. Employment		8. Military Service		9. Other Information		10. Other Information		11. Other Information		12. Other Information		13. Other Information		14. Other Information		15. Other Information		16. Other Information		17. Other Information		18. Other Information		19. Other Information		20. Other Information			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24																		



POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 24TH/25TH AUGUST 2019



STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

HOTEL/LODGE RESIDENTS, HOSPITAL IN-PATIENTS, PRISON/POLICE CELLS AND SCHOOLS/CHILDREN HOMES

Sub-County=			Division=		Location=		Sub-Location=		E.A. Number	
E.A. Type=			Constituency=		Ward=		Males =		Females =	
E.A. Status=									Other =	
Total Population =										
Type of Institution: Hotel/Lodge Residents Hospital In-patients Prison/Police Cells Schools/learning institution										
Name of Institution:										

Line Number (SQ01)	Name (SQ02)	Sex (SQ03)	Age (SQ04)	County/ Country of Birth (SQ05)	Nationality/ Ethnicity (SQ07)
Illustration	What are the names of all persons who spent the night of 24th/25th August, 2019 in this institution? (<i>Record two names for each person.</i>) <i>An illustration of how to write the names is shown below.</i>	What is <NAME>'s sex? 1=Male 2=Female 3=Other	How old is <NAME>? <i>(Record age in completed years using two digits. If under 1 year, record "00". If 95 years and above, code "95".)</i>	What is <NAME>'s country/ county of birth?	What is <NAME>'s Nationality/Ethnicity?
	0 1	JOHN MOGAKA			
	0 1				
	0 2				
	0 3				
	0 4				
	0 5				
	0 6				
	0 7				
	0 8				
0 9					
1 0					



REPUBLIC OF KENYA



CONFIDENTIAL

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 24th /25th AUGUST 2019 SHORT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EMIGRANTS

E-01: Serial No.	E-01(a): Line No. of Respondent	E-02: Name of Emigrant Please give me the name(s) of the emigrant(s) ?	E-03: Sex What is <NAME>'s Sex? Male=1 Female=2	E-04: Age How old was <NAME> at the time of his/her departure ?	E-05: Level of Education What was the highest level of education that <NAME> had completed at the time of his/her departure?	E-06: Professional training What professional training had <NAME> acquired before departure from Kenya? (Applicable to persons age 15 years & above)	E-07: Country of first Destination What was <NAME>'s country of first destination during his/her departure?	E-08: Year of Departure When did <NAME> depart from Kenya?	E-09: Main reason for Departure What was the main reason for <NAME> departing from Kenya?	E-10: Country of current residence What is the current country of residence of <NAME>?	E-10a: Select the Name of the Emigrant if currently in Kenya.	E-11: Remittances Did <NAME> remit money to any member of this household while outside Kenya in the last 12 months? Yes= 1 No= 2 DK= 9	E-12: Utilization of funds How was the money utilized? (Allow for maximum of 3 responses)
1													
2													
3													
4													
5													
6													
7													
8													



Republic of Kenya

POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 24TH/25TH AUGUST 2019

Republic of Kenya

TRAVELLERS AND PERSONS ON TRANSIT

Total Population =											
Name of Place/Street/Station/Airport of Enumeration:											
County	Sub-county	Division	Location	Sub-Location	E.A. Number						
E.A. Type	E.A. Status	Constituency	Ward	Males =	Females =	Others =					

[illegible]



REPUBLIC OF KENYA



POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 24th/25th AUGUST 2019

CONFIDENTIAL

SHORT QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STREET PERSONS/OUTDOOR SLEEPERS/VAGRANTS

County Sub-county Division

Location Sub-Location EA Number

Constituency Ward

Name of the street.....Code.....

Line /NO	Name (List at least two names)	SEX 1. Male 2. Female 3. Other 4. Not Stated	AGE in Completed years	COUNTY/ COUNTRY OF BIRTH	ETHNICITY/ NATIONALITY What is <NAME>'s Nationality/Ethnicity?
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					

TOTAL: MALES _____ FEMALES _____ OTHER _____ UNSPECIFIED SEX _____ TOTAL _____

Appendix 1: Migrant Population by Place of Residence and Age

Age	National total	RURAL								
		Total	Economic Reasons	Marriage and Family Related Issues	Marriage and Family Related Issues	Education	Settlement	Forced Displacement	Other	Don't Know
Total	8,388,543	2,660,969	606,491	692,106	326,347	91,670	575,225	108,128	120,795	140,207
15 - 19	745,684	280,094	18,980	15,115	97,313	39,437	49,167	17,151	31,900	11,031
20 - 24	1,382,111	362,368	88,741	86,964	54,067	30,029	37,367	13,049	25,928	26,223
25 - 29	1,466,959	349,113	109,837	106,532	32,902	9,233	37,184	10,703	15,649	27,073
30 - 34	1,306,056	340,452	102,638	109,045	29,081	4,206	48,697	11,726	12,164	22,895
35 - 39	929,237	256,364	76,148	74,061	21,936	2,412	47,743	10,001	8,114	15,949
40 - 44	734,188	231,841	63,656	68,075	19,067	1,806	52,157	8,920	6,493	11,667
45 - 49	554,407	198,506	50,017	56,478	16,693	1,379	52,588	7,973	4,962	8,416
50 - 54	390,652	153,737	33,528	43,503	13,205	994	46,372	6,475	3,606	6,054
55 - 59	307,849	141,749	24,837	41,082	12,696	792	49,235	5,535	3,016	4,556
60 - 64	204,749	108,731	14,829	31,402	9,591	537	42,561	4,414	2,532	2,865
65 +	366,651	238,014	23,280	59,849	19,796	845	112,154	12,181	6,431	3,478

Age	National total	URBAN								
		Total	Economic Reasons	Marriage and Family Related Issues	Marriage and Family Related Issues	Education	Settlement	Forced Displacement	Other	Don't Know
Total	8,388,543	5,727,574	2,957,617	424,813	590,684	721,170	551,836	85,590	311,430	84,434
15 - 19	745,684	465,590	55,187	10,650	149,850	110,035	54,314	9,639	66,891	9,024
20 - 24	1,382,111	1,019,743	412,674	82,405	121,646	227,160	75,859	11,313	70,650	18,036
25 - 29	1,466,959	1,117,846	618,320	96,314	89,899	152,279	82,004	12,540	49,450	17,040
30 - 34	1,306,056	965,604	582,150	77,706	71,438	90,185	80,684	12,652	37,171	13,618
35 - 39	929,237	672,873	415,605	48,653	47,570	51,989	65,964	9,823	24,287	8,982
40 - 44	734,188	502,347	313,483	35,279	34,642	33,338	54,034	7,917	17,162	6,492
45 - 49	554,407	355,901	221,283	24,563	24,173	21,381	42,420	6,322	11,696	4,063
50 - 54	390,652	236,915	142,771	16,684	16,537	13,601	31,470	4,629	8,356	2,867
55 - 59	307,849	166,100	95,854	12,519	12,300	9,653	23,660	3,484	6,841	1,789
60 - 64	204,749	96,018	49,943	8,025	8,011	5,634	15,386	2,360	5,655	1,004
65 +	366,651	128,637	50,347	12,015	14,618	5,915	26,041	4,911	13,271	1,519

Appendix 2: Gender Parity Index for Population that had Never Attended School by Age Group

County	Total	4 - 10	11	11 - 13	14 - 17	18 - 24	25 - 29	25+	30+
Total	1.25	0.93	1.06	0.84	0.74	1.06	1.30	1.60	1.65
Rural	1.24	0.93	1.05	0.82	0.71	1.01	1.26	1.60	1.66
Urban	1.31	0.96	1.11	0.94	0.92	1.32	1.49	1.57	1.59
Mombasa	1.68	0.91	1.09	1.06	1.39	1.75	2.04	1.93	1.92
Kwale	1.65	0.91	1.10	0.99	0.95	1.64	2.45	2.10	2.06
Kilifi	2.27	0.90	0.91	0.93	0.95	1.66	2.90	3.01	3.02
Tana River	1.22	0.98	0.95	0.93	0.93	1.46	1.70	1.43	1.38
Lamu	1.26	0.87	0.88	0.74	0.75	1.15	1.49	1.46	1.45
Taita-Taveta	1.68	0.89	0.94	0.71	0.75	1.04	1.23	1.99	2.06
Garissa	0.87	0.89	0.98	0.74	0.64	0.87	1.08	0.98	0.95
Wajir	0.92	0.96	1.07	0.82	0.72	1.02	1.22	0.95	0.87
Mandera	1.04	1.10	1.24	0.93	0.84	1.15	1.30	1.05	0.98
Marsabit	0.93	0.91	1.05	0.76	0.65	0.93	1.10	1.05	1.04
Isiolo	0.95	0.91	0.99	0.73	0.60	0.98	1.15	1.08	1.06
Meru	1.29	0.84	0.70	0.67	0.61	0.84	0.90	1.45	1.51
Tharaka-Nithi	1.56	0.89	1.33	1.10	0.70	0.96	1.08	1.78	1.83
Embu	1.83	0.87	0.90	0.81	0.59	0.68	0.68	2.23	2.32
Kitui	1.82	0.85	1.07	0.92	0.75	0.90	1.15	2.27	2.33
Machakos	1.75	0.85	0.88	0.94	0.71	0.74	0.79	2.20	2.30
Makueni	1.95	0.83	1.00	0.93	0.67	0.65	0.74	2.55	2.66
Nyandarua	2.04	0.85	0.76	0.66	0.56	0.61	0.79	2.61	2.73
Nyeri	2.33	0.86	0.70	0.71	0.60	0.69	0.90	2.86	2.96
Kirinyaga	2.45	0.94	0.68	0.86	0.73	0.68	0.73	2.92	3.04
Murang'a	2.16	0.87	0.87	0.81	0.56	0.68	0.71	2.78	2.88
Kiambu	1.89	0.87	1.08	0.94	0.88	1.00	0.97	2.48	2.64
Turkana	0.99	0.94	1.06	0.84	0.71	0.87	1.09	1.19	1.22
West Pokot	1.18	0.97	1.07	0.90	0.78	1.36	1.46	1.37	1.36
Samburu	1.11	0.99	1.18	0.86	0.71	1.18	1.41	1.33	1.32
Trans Nzoia	1.31	0.80	0.97	0.79	0.71	0.84	1.10	1.74	1.82
Uasin Gishu	1.36	0.85	0.93	0.93	0.77	0.82	0.99	1.62	1.68
Elgeyo-Marakwet	1.26	0.88	0.89	0.84	0.63	0.95	1.08	1.41	1.44
Nandi	1.33	0.82	0.50	0.66	0.68	0.86	0.98	1.59	1.64
Baringo	1.10	0.91	1.15	0.85	0.73	1.00	1.28	1.41	1.44
Laikipia	1.34	0.95	1.07	0.88	0.72	1.43	1.59	1.61	1.61
Nakuru	1.51	0.86	0.93	0.75	0.67	0.93	1.07	1.90	1.98
Narok	1.24	0.94	1.02	0.85	0.70	1.37	1.63	1.43	1.39
Kajiado	1.26	0.96	1.03	0.87	0.76	1.37	1.54	1.40	1.37
Kericho	1.49	0.81	1.06	0.95	0.74	0.94	1.14	1.84	1.89
Bomet	1.62	0.76	0.88	0.80	0.71	1.04	1.16	2.07	2.14
Kakamega	1.56	0.81	0.98	0.89	0.81	0.93	1.26	2.04	2.10
Vihiga	1.52	0.80	0.66	0.66	0.68	0.77	1.06	1.93	1.98
Bungoma	1.37	0.83	0.90	0.88	0.74	1.00	1.17	1.91	2.01
Busia	1.84	0.87	0.99	0.88	0.80	1.05	1.50	2.53	2.64
Siaya	2.24	0.83	0.95	0.79	0.86	0.95	1.13	3.09	3.26
Kisumu	1.91	0.84	1.16	0.91	0.73	1.09	1.31	2.45	2.57
Homabay	2.02	0.86	0.91	0.84	0.91	1.27	1.44	2.69	2.82
Migori	1.65	0.89	1.00	0.88	0.87	1.34	1.46	2.18	2.28
Kisii	1.88	0.86	1.09	0.88	0.94	1.22	1.52	2.29	2.35
Nyamira	1.66	0.86	0.99	0.98	0.87	1.12	1.41	1.92	1.96
Nairobi City	1.44	0.91	1.18	1.23	1.46	1.67	1.55	1.64	1.66

Appendix 3: Gender Parity Index in Distribution of Population of Over-Age Children by Grade and Sex

Grade	Population Enrolled in School			Over-Age Children Enrolled			Over-Age Percentage			GPI
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Total	13,535,196	6,856,464	6,678,732	5,921,172	3,284,198	2,636,974	43.7	47.9	39.5	0.82
Standard/Grade 1	1,287,698	665,187	622,511	464,558	263,718	200,840	36.1	39.6	32.3	0.81
Standard/Grade 2	1,243,564	636,105	607,459	516,865	291,272	225,593	41.6	45.8	37.1	0.81
Standard/Grade 3	1,232,043	632,218	599,825	543,578	308,761	234,817	44.1	48.8	39.1	0.8
Standard/Grade 4	1,266,104	650,294	615,810	584,081	331,270	252,811	46.1	50.9	41.1	0.81
Standard/Grade 5	1,265,771	642,565	623,206	608,183	341,374	266,809	48	53.1	42.8	0.81
Standard/Grade 6	1,268,493	634,834	633,659	626,020	342,799	283,221	49.4	54	44.7	0.83
Standard/Grade 7	1,262,606	626,833	635,773	659,046	356,724	302,322	52.2	56.9	47.6	0.84
Standard/Grade 8	1,238,022	621,547	616,475	708,280	382,594	325,686	57.2	61.6	52.8	0.86
Form 1/Grade 9	925,212	457,042	468,170	439,587	238,005	201,582	47.5	52.1	43.1	0.83
Form 2//Grade 10	854,797	424,239	430,558	416,135	228,893	187,242	48.7	54	43.5	0.81
Form 3/Grade 11	743,982	373,950	370,032	354,839	198,788	156,051	47.7	53.2	42.2	0.79
Form 4/Grade 12	946,904	491,650	455,254	590,302	331,220	259,082	62.3	67.4	56.9	0.84

Appendix 4: Gender Parity for Population Age 15 years and above by Field of Training Acquired and Sex

Main training acquired and qualified for	Total	Male	Female	Gender Parity
Environmental Studies Marine Ecology and Forestry	18,810	10,984	7,826	0.71
Economics	41,540	26,764	14,776	0.55
Psychology	17,484	6,125	11,359	1.85
Political Science	7,904	5,153	2,751	0.53
Sociology	13,425	5,926	7,499	1.27
Anthropology	3,902	2,256	1,646	0.73
Social Science	103,065	57,208	45,857	1
History	10,891	6,726	4,165	0.62
Geography	3,844	2,507	1,337	0.53
Languages and Linguistics	12,560	5,921	6,639	1.12
Journalism Media Studies and Communication ⁴	83,748	40,715	43,033	1.06
Divinity and Pastoral Related(Theological Studies)	53,706	40,137	13,569	0.34
Religion	6,788	4,430	2,358	0.53
Transportation-Logistics Management	11,922	8,146	3,776	0.46
Arts	183,459	108,582	74,877	1
Philosophy	3,420	2,485	935	0.38
Arts(Performing and Visual Arts)-Literature Performing arts Visual arts etc.	38,662	19,335	19,327	1
Human Physical Performance and recreation (Sports Science Sports Economics etc.)	7,071	3,479	3,592	1.03
Performing Arts, Human Physical and Recreation/Sports	45,733	22,814	22,919	1
Interdisciplinary Studies ²	113,085	46,989	66,096	1.41
Biology	17,625	9,985	7,640	0.77
Chemistry	14,368	9,703	4,665	0.48
Earth Sciences(Geology and Meteorology)	4,922	3,495	1,427	0.41
Physics	2,657	2,180	477	0.22
Library Information Science and Museum Studies	46,863	21,020	25,843	1.23
Science	86,435	46,383	40,052	1
Space Sciences-Astronomy	531	357	174	0.49
Logic/Computer Science	79,285	55,854	23,431	0.42
Mathematics(Pure and Applied)	13,755	10,105	3,650	0.36
Statistics Actuarial Biometry Biostatistics Social Statistics Financial Statistics etc.)	30,172	19,943	10,229	0.51
Systems Sciences (Computing etc.)	27,678	17,505	10,173	0.58
Mathematics	150,890	103,407	47,483	0
Agriculture(Horticulture Agribusiness Agric Economics Crop Sciences etc.)	62,191	41,548	20,643	0.5
Family and Consumer Sciences-Home Economics Applied Human Nutrition Dietetrics etc.	50,247	14,454	35,793	2.48
Animal Health and Veterinary Sciences	25,652	18,724	6,928	0.37
Agriculture	138,090	74,726	63,364	1
Architecture and design (Quantity Surveying Structural Engineering etc.)	47,961	38,442	9,519	0.25
Engineering and technology ³	262,116	238,699	23,417	0.1
Air craft Maintenance Pilot Steewardship Aviation (Air Traffic Controllers)	14,150	8,020	6,130	0.76
Enineering/Architecture/QS/Air craft Maintenance	324,227	285,161	39,066	0
Business ²	744,244	362,422	381,822	1.05
Education (Science Arts Special Management Economics etc)	743,893	314,239	429,654	1.37
Law	32,106	17,564	14,542	0.83
Health and Human Medicine (Doctors)	16,354	10,199	6,155	0.6
Health and Human Medicine (Laboratory Technologist Radiologists Anaesthetists etc)	36,361	18,594	17,767	0.96
Health and Human Medicine (Clinical Officers Nurses Physiotherapist etc)	167,090	57,043	110,047	1.93
Health and Human Medicine (Dentists and Pharmacist)	28,115	13,888	14,227	1.02
Health and Human Medicine	247,920	99,724	148,196	1
Military Sciences	7,320	6,241	1,079	0.17
Public Adminstration-Public Policy	29,905	15,984	13,921	0.87
Social Work	41,317	11,974	29,343	2.45
Vocational Training ⁵	2,777,272	1,674,176	1,103,096	0.66
Others	1,071,808	550,356	521,452	0.95
Total	6,844,720	3,800,792	3,043,928	1

¹Interdisciplinary Studies(Cultural Studies Gender Studies Organizational Studies-Project management planning human resource mgt Development Studies) Demography Urban Planning etc.

²Business(Commerce Accounting Finance Marketing Administration Management Insurance Hotel Management Tourism etc.)

³Engineering and technology (Civil Electrical and Electronics Mechanical Chemical Aeronautical Biosystems etc)

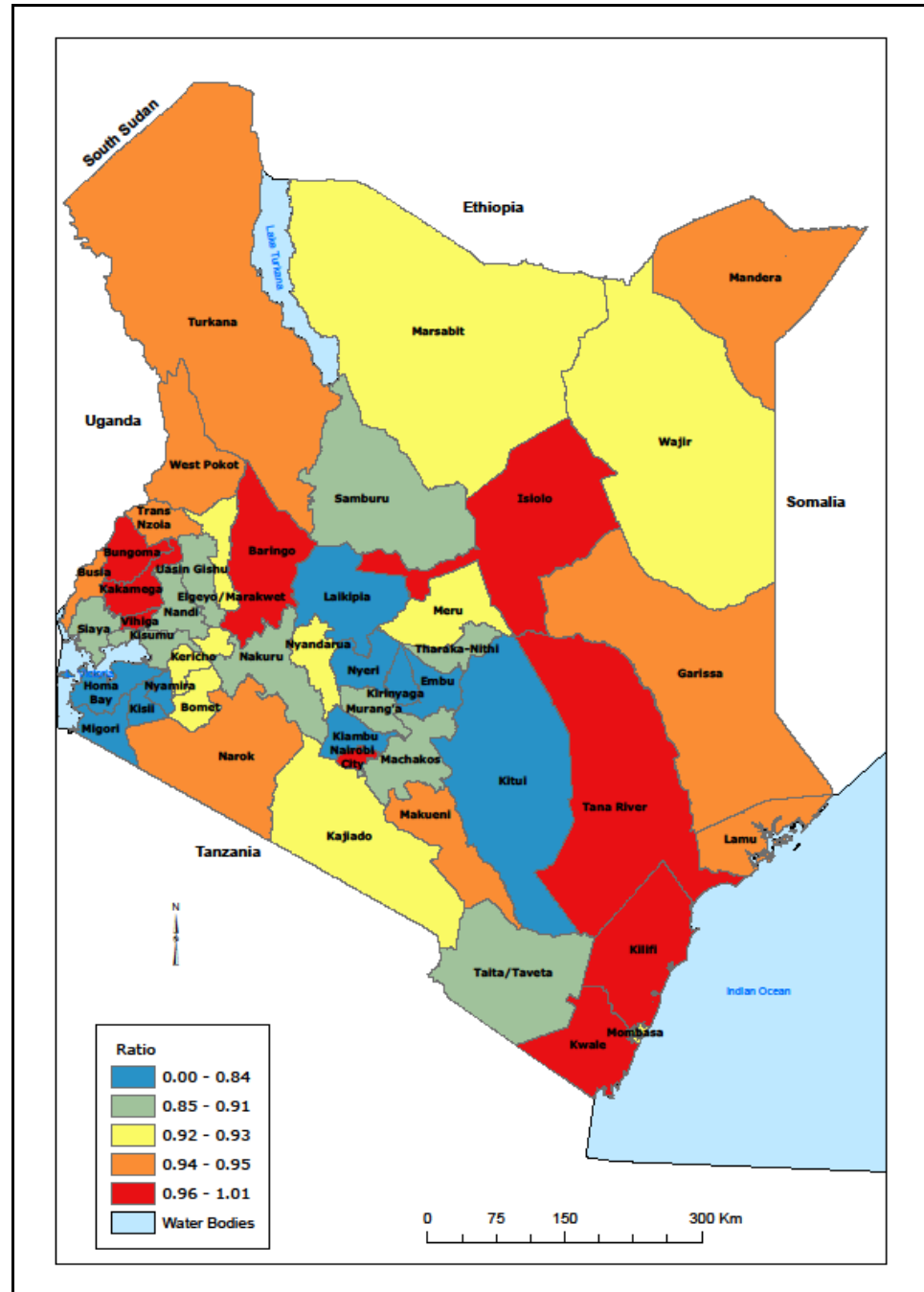
⁴Journalism Media Studies and Communication(Public Relations Mass Communication Speech and Rhetoric etc.)

⁵Vocational Training (Plant Motor Vehicle Plumbing Wiring Masonary Carpentry and Joinary Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Hair dressing and related Tailoring Commercial Vehicle Drivers etc.)

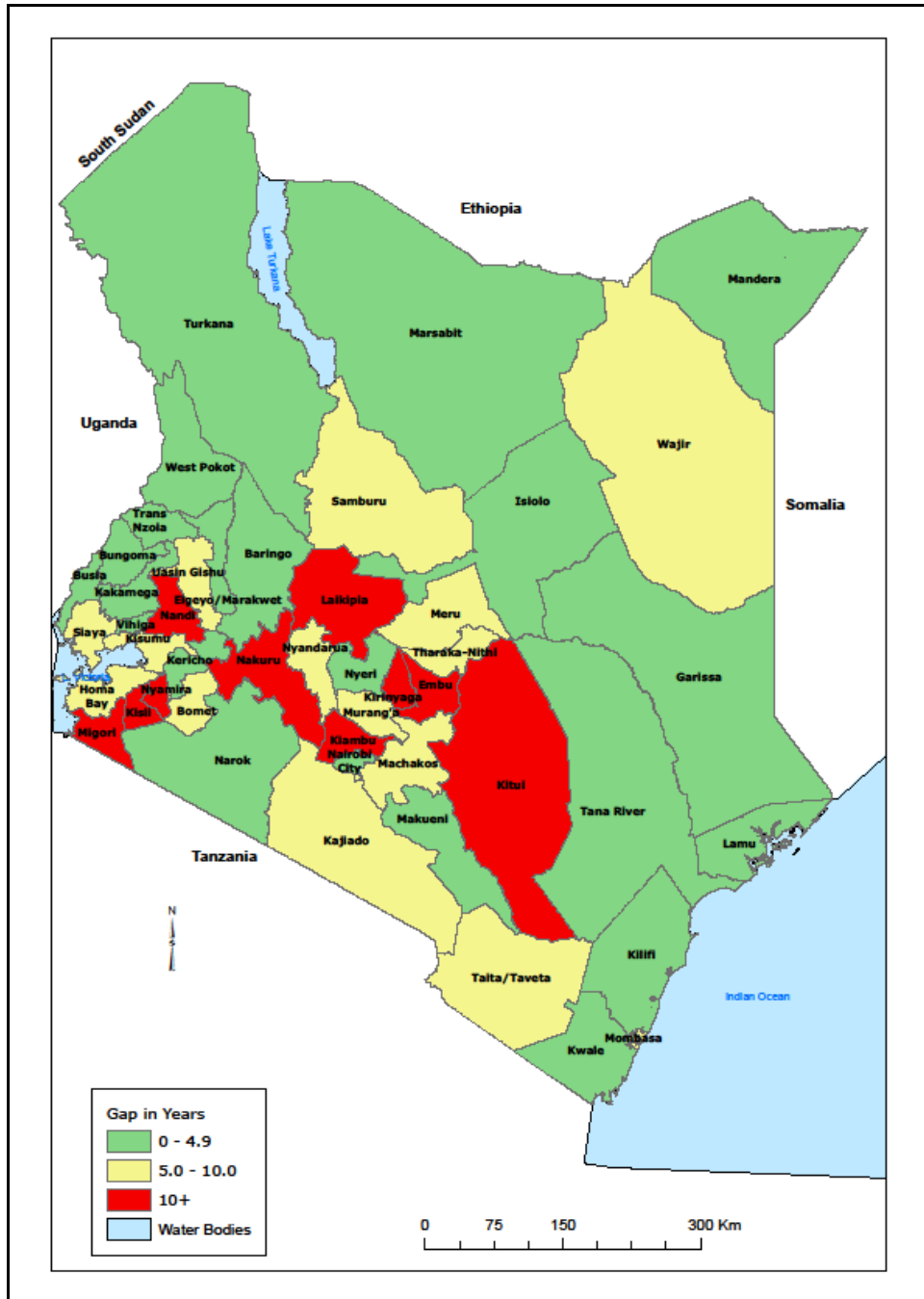
Appendix 5: Life Expectancy at Age 80 (in Years) by Sex and County, 2019

COUNTY/RURAL/URBAN	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Age 80 (Male)- (Years)	LIFE EXPECTANCY at Age 80 (Female)- (Years)	Female-Male Gap
Kenya	5.5	6.1	0.6
Rural	5.4	6.3	0.9
Urban	5.6	6.4	0.8
Mombasa	5.9	6.5	0.6
Kwale	5.3	6.1	0.8
Kilifi	5.3	6	0.7
Tana River	5.2	6	0.8
Lamu	5.9	6.3	0.4
Taita Taveta	5.6	6.2	0.6
Garissa	5.2	6.1	0.9
Wajir	5.2	6.2	1.0
Mandera	5.2	6.1	0.9
Marsabit	5.5	5.7	0.2
Isiolo	5.6	5.7	0.1
Meru	5.7	6.2	0.5
Tharaka-Nithi	5.7	6.3	0.6
Embu	5.5	6.4	0.9
Kitui	5.4	6.2	0.8
Machakos	5.3	6.3	1.0
Makueni	5.3	6.2	0.9
Nyandarua	5.3	6.2	1.0
Nyeri			0.0
Kirinyaga	5.5	6.5	1.0
Murang'a	5.3	6.3	1.1
Kiambu	5.5	6.6	1.1
Turkana	5.4	5.7	0.3
West Pokot	5.2	6.1	0.9
Samburu	5.5	6.1	0.6
Trans Nzoia	5.8	6.2	0.4
Uasin Gishu	5.7	6.5	0.8
Elgeyo Marakwet	5.3	6.2	0.9
Nandi	5.5	6.4	0.9
Baringo	5.9	6.2	0.3
Laikipia	5.5	6.4	0.9
Nakuru	5.5	6.3	0.8
Narok	5.3	6.2	0.9
Kajiado	5.3	6.3	1.0
Kericho	5.3	6.2	0.9
Bomet	5.3	6.3	1.0
Kakamega	5.8	6.1	0.3
Vihiga	5.6	5.9	0.3
Bungoma	5.9	6.2	0.3
Busia	5.7	6.1	0.4
Siaya	5.4	5.8	0.4
Kisumu	5.4	5.9	0.5
Homa Bay	5.3	5.8	0.5
Migori	5.4	5.9	0.5
Kisii	5.4	6.0	0.6
Nyamira	5.4	6.0	0.6
Nairobi	5.7	6.0	0.30

Appendix 6: Life Expectancy at Birth: Male-Female Ratio



Appendix 7: Life Expectancy at Birth: Male-Female Gap



Appendix 8: Maternal Mortality Ratio, 2019

COUNTY/RURAL/URBAN	MMR
	(per 100,000 live births)
Kenya	355
Rural	374
Urban	317
Mombasa	190
Kwale	464
Kilifi	532
Tana River	586
Lamu	306
Taita Taveta	257
Garissa	641
Wajir	403
Mandera	385
Marsabit	321
Isiolo	451
Meru	291
Tharaka-Nithi	332
Embu	244
Kitui	253
Machakos	398
Makueni	479
Nyandarua	466
Nyeri	67
Kirinyaga	248
Murang'a	469
Kiambu	171
Turkana	381
West Pokot	473
Samburu	275
Trans Nzoia	287
Uasin Gishu	204
Elgeyo Marakwet	435
Nandi	264
Baringo	274
Laikipia	182
Nakuru	261
Narok	522
Kajiado	495
Kericho	543
Bomet	554
Kakamega	279
Vihiga	393
Bungoma	238
Busia	273
Siaya	424
Kisumu	343
Homa Bay	516
Migori	412
Kisii	325
Nyamira	349
Nairobi	326

Appendix 9: Washington Group on Disability Short Set of Questions and Responses

- a) Do you have difficulty seeing, even if wearing glasses?
- b) Do you have difficulty hearing, even if using a hearing aid?
- c) Do you have difficulty walking or climbing steps?
- d) Do you have difficulty remembering or concentrating?
- e) Do you have difficulty (with self-care such as) washing all over or dressing?
- f) Using your usual (customary) language, do you have difficulty communicating, (for example under-standing or being understood by others)?

Response Categories:

- 1. No Difficulty,
- 2. Some Difficulty,
- 3. A lot of Difficulty, and
- 4. Cannot Do at All.

Appendix 10: Glossary

Analogue TV	These are TVs that after digital migration, have not been connected or enabled for viewing digital programs. The TV is not connected to either a set top box or a decoder.
Computer use	Refers to individuals who used a desktop computer, a laptop computer or a tablet or similar handheld computer in the last three months. It does not include equipment with some embedded computing abilities, such as smart TV sets, and devices with telephony as a main function, such as mobile or smartphones.”
Fixed Internet at home e.g Fiber to the home/building, Satellite dish, LAN, Wifi	Refers to fixed connection in the house including Fibre to the Home (FttH), cable modem, Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN), Digital Subscriber Line (DSL), WIMAX, fixed CDMA and satellite which passes through the radio waves and Very Small Aperture Terminal (VSAT) dish antenna with a transceiver normally located at the subscriber’s premises etc.
Functional Television	A television (TV) is a device capable of receiving broadcast television signals, using popular access means such as over-the-air, cable and satellite. A television set is typically a stand-alone device.
Internet Protocol TV (IPTV)	This is a type of TV that receives the multimedia services over an IP based network managed to support the required level of high quality.
Internet through mobile phone/Modem	Refers to internet connection through a portable modem, mobile phone, USB wireless modem, tablet, etc.
Internet Use	Refers to individuals who used internet from any locations and any device in the last three months.

Mobile Phone Ownership	An individual owns a mobile cellular telephone if he/she has a mobile cellular phone device with at least one active SIM card for personal use. It includes mobile cellular phones supplied by employers that can be used for personal reasons (to make personal calls, access the Internet, etc.) and those who have a mobile phone for personal use that is not registered under his/her name. It excludes individuals who have only active SIM card(s) and not a mobile phone device. Reference period observed is the last three months.
Mobile phone Use	These are individuals who used a mobile telephone in the last three months regardless of whether they own it or not.
Mobile phone use without owning/ Mobile Sharers	These are individuals who used a mobile phone in the last three months, but they do not own one but rather borrow a handset and use. This category includes those also who own sim card but borrow a handset to use the mobile services.
Searched and bought elsewhere (Potential E-commerce Users)	Refers to an individual who searched for goods and services online but did not purchase or order the product or service through the internet but in physical stores. They are referred to as potential e-commerce users as there is more likelihood of these individuals to purchase online in future.
Searched and bought online (E-commerce Users)	Refers to individuals who successfully bought goods and services online in the last three months
Searched only (Potential E-commerce users)	These are individuals who searched for products or services but never ordered or purchased them. These includes individuals who ordered for the goods or services and cancelled it at some point. They are referred to as potential e-commerce users as there is more likelihood of these individuals to purchase online in future.
Stand-alone radio	Defined as a device capable of receiving broadcast radio signals, using common frequencies, such as FM, AM, LW and SW. Excludes radio integrated with other devices such as TV, Phone, laptop, car etc.
TV booster/ Free to air set top box/ Built in Digital TV	This is a device that allows a digital signal to be received, decoded and displayed on a television to enable the channels to be displayed on the analogue TV set.

TV with Pay TV Decoder May be similar to set top box though it offers a number of channels that one has to pay a monthly fee to be able to view the programs.

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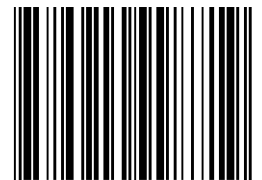


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