Gender-Based Leadership Inequality and Economic Development in Kenya

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Abstract

The need to achieve gender-based leadership and reduce the inequality that has existed before cannot be without women’s empowerment. Having female leadership increases equality, since most African countries are patriarchal societies. This paper utilized a descriptive research design and used both secondary and primary data from two County Governments in Kenya. The paper found that in both political and economic leadership, there is still a disparity between men and women. In terms of ownership of land and employment, economic benefits go to individuals, groups, and regions that had hitherto not gained much from what little growth has taken place. The right to education is guaranteed by the Constitution as a variable to the empowerment of women and girls, but education is still wanting for women. Many girls are still out of school due to, among other factors, customary practices that expose them to early marriages and child pregnancies. The legal frameworks available, including African Call to have 50:50 gender representation, are yet to be realized in Kenya.
# Abbreviations and Acronyms

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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>ANC</td>
<td>African National Congress</td>
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<td>DDI</td>
<td>Development Dimensions International</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<td>UK</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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1. Introduction

Despite evidence that men are typically perceived as more appropriate and effective than women in leadership positions, debates always emerge over the potential existence of a female leadership advantage. In this review, this study analyzed and addressed this debate by quantitatively summarizing gender differences in perceptions of leadership effectiveness across different independent samples from a few studies. Given that men and women have different viewpoints, ideas, and market insights, this gender diverse in workforce enables better problem solving (Badal, 2014). Hypothetically, results show that when all leadership contexts are considered, men and women do not differ in perceived leadership effectiveness. Yet, when other ratings are examined independently, women are rated as significantly more effective than men. In contrast, when self-ratings are examined, men rate themselves as significantly more effective as women rate themselves. Gender equality is to ensure that all people (men and women alike) are treated as equals in dignity and rights.

Gender equality is both a moral and economic imperative. Closing the gender gap must be a central part of any strategy to create more sustainable and inclusive economies and societies. For these purposes, the term gender equality has been used to imply social justice, fairness in the distribution of resources and opportunities among men and women. The success and failure of an organization is also linked with its leadership compositions. Diversity provides organizations with the ability to compete in global markets. The argument for addressing gender inequality, therefore, is that it occurs in all societies (Kebede, 2018).

From a developmental point of view, it would be reasonable that hazard taking changes with the organization of gender in a group. There is some proof on the distinction between a gathering of same-sex and blended sex on investment funds, spending, and obtaining. One examination demonstrates that when men are the lion's share, men rebate the future more, esteem quick rewards more, decline their longing to spare, and increment their readiness to assume obligation (Griskevicius et al., 2012). There is some proof that young from mixed schools are less dangerous than young women from girls’ schools (Booth and Nolen, 2012). The sexual orientation contrasts do not appear to be totally connected to natural and neurological determinants. It seems to be identified with male-controlled social orders. The Khasi clan, a solid matriarchic culture demonstrated the contrary, discovering, along these lines, that women were more serious daring individuals and increasingly focused (Gneezy, Leonard, and List, 2009).

In a research presented to the Commonwealth Secretariat titled “Marking the difference between diversity and inclusivity”, statistics showed that women are
larger in numbers in comparison to men. It then unveiled that the former is barely counting numbers and subsequently the latter is making the numbers count. Lack of resources is always stated as a universal challenge to effective initiative for maximum production. Policy makers, therefore, can tap into women potential to maximize on production by taking advantage of their numbers. According to Silverstein and Sayre (2009), women are a bigger economic opportunity in India and China combined (World's highly populated countries). In 2009, women globally earned US$ 13 trillion, which is twofold the joined GDPs of China and India (US$ 5.6 trillion). This female salary is anticipated to be US$ 18 trillion by 2020 (Data from province 2010). Given these patterns, corporate initiative ought to mirror the decent variety of the client base (George, 2012). Given that Commonwealth women speak to around 30 per cent of the worldwide female populace, the actuited profit means an expected US$ 5 trillion. Numerous foundations would need to perceive that women's developing thriving and impact cannot be disregarded and must be recognized as an enormous market opportunity.

Having women on management boards will give organizations the upper hand to make items and administrations that will better address their clients' issues. In certain nations, women have 70 percent of family unit spending choices, yet have numerous neglected needs from budgetary instruction and guidance to giving support in their lives: brought about by separation, passing of a life partner, marriage, first home buy, birth of a first child, school beginning and first employment, among others (Accenture, 2006).

As per introduction by the Commission for European Union (2012), in the European Union, as of starting 2012, women were permitted to contribute just 13.7 per cent of board seats. Much progressively dissatisfactory, women establish just 3.4 per cent of seats and presidents inside the European Union. Different parts of the world show similar patterns. Despite the fact that the US sees a somewhat better figure (15.7%), Australia and Canada both see female board portrayal of around 10 per cent. India's meeting rooms just establish under 5.0 per cent women (European Commission, 2012). Besides, in 2010, for the Asia-Pacific locale, women involve just 6.5 per cent of the board individuals, while for the Middle East and North Africa, this number is just 3.2 per cent (Corporate Women Directors International, 2010). In Australia, female portrayal inside government was 38.4 per cent in 2012 where women speak just 20 per cent of priests comprehensively (Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2013). Some Commonwealth nations have tended to the political strengthening of women effectively. The best model originates from Rwanda, where women through authoritative portions hold 56 per cent of parliamentary seats. In South Africa, parliament seats deputize of 43.3 per cent women by deliberate shares administered by the decision ideological group,
Introduction

the African National Congress (ANC). Tanzania has been effectively associated with expanding female portrayal a couple of decades ago. For instance, in 2000, Tanzania set a 30 per cent benchmark for women in parliament, and is presently attempting to set the benchmark to half. Tanzania revealed a 36.6 per cent portrayal of women in 2010 (Ministry of Gender, Children, and Social Development, 2013). In Kenya, every one of the 47 counties is required to send one womens' representative, making a female representation inside parliament of 16% (Constitution of Kenya, 2010). Furthermore, Kenya has been taking certifiable activities towards sexual orientation fairness and has accordingly accomplished practically 40 per cent female representation in public authorities by 2012. This was accomplished by presenting sexual orientation as a presentation estimation for every public authority. Besides, Kenya has received governmental policy regarding minorities in society in the enrolment and advancement of women in public administration (United Republic of Tanzania, Ministry of Community Development, Gender, and Children, 2013).

Men and women have different viewpoints, ideas, and market insights, and a gender diverse workforce enables better problem solving. Kebede (2018) argues that women are improving their professional opportunities, yet are still responsible for the majority of the chores and care-giving duties (double burden syndrome). A gender division of labour is evident, as women play a critical role in maintaining good hygiene and sanitation within these communal areas and their workload of caring for infants at working age, especially, can be tiring and difficult. Idealization of the institution of motherhood as all powerful, strong and caring brings with it the implication that mothers alone have full responsibility for child-bearing and all the related household caring and domestic work.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

It is very unfortunate that women are not progressing fast enough to leadership roles and hardly contribute to influential decision-making roles. They are not receiving an equivalent amount of education, and are not absorbed to job opportunities at a faster rate compared to their male counterparts. Gender disparities in access to economic resources, including credit, land and economic power-sharing, directly affect women's potential for achieving the kind of economic autonomy they need to provide a better quality of life for themselves and their dependents (FAO 2001; 2010). In the case of businesswomen, they often face legislative challenges, and always with limited access to capital through laws barring them from equal rights to access collateral. Women may also be charged higher credit expenses because of limited records of advance repayment and security of loans.
1.2 Legal Framework Guiding Leadership Equality

Globally, an overview of women’s status vis-à-vis legal frameworks in different regions identify key discriminatory legal provisions and other factors that hamper gender equality and highlight good practices and actions taken by governments, business and civil society to overcome existing legislative barriers to advance women’s economic empowerment (OECD, 2018). The African call is to have 50:50 gender representation. Policy frameworks have also been developed, and include among others, the African Union Agenda 2063.

In Kenya, the following legal provisions exist, among others:

- The Constitution of Kenya 2010 readily recognizes women by way of creation of special seats for women that resulted in the election of forty-seven (47) women into the National Assembly, nomination of sixteen (16) women by political parties and one woman representing the youth and persons with disabilities into the Senate and County Governments, and appointment of women into other decision-making bodies.

- The National Gender and Development Policy 2011 and the subsequent institutions created aim to coordinate, implement and facilitate gender mainstreaming in national development through advice to the government and stakeholders, participation in policy formulation, advocacy, research, education, and investigation of gender-based violations, establishment of partnership, monitoring and evaluation to achieve gender equity and equality (Government of Kenya, 2011).

- The Kenya Vision 2030 is the government’s blueprint on the development agenda and its Medium-Term Plans (2008-2012; 2013-2017 and 2017-2020). Chapter 2 of this blueprint considers the economic pillar from a gender perspective. An overview of this pillar reveals that the Vision 2030 regards gender inequality as one of the key development challenges facing the country, but the measures aimed at achieving gender equity are mainly concentrated in the social pillar of the Vision. Chapter 3 applies a gender perspective to the social pillar. The discussion probes into how gender differences and disparities contribute to the challenges facing each sub-sector and relates these issues to the proposed strategies and targets provided for each sub-sector.

- Sessional Paper No. 2 of 2014 on the National Social Protection Policy. The Social Protection Policy is based on the following principles: leadership and integrity; good governance; evidence-based programming; gender mainstreaming (in other words, assessing the implications for both males and females of any planned action); equity and social justice; adherence to common standards; public participation; the adequacy, affordability, and sustainability
of benefits; and flexibility and responsiveness to changing circumstances. The Sessional Paper No. 2 on Gender Equality and Development 2006 provides the National Gender and Equality Commission with the mandate to promote gender equality and freedom from discrimination and to hold the government accountable on implementation.
2. Gendered Leadership

Women’s representation in leadership roles in politics and the economy are significant indicators of the gender parity and that no country has gender equality (Representation, 2020). A gender gap emerges in the level of the education input if men are more educated than women (or vice-versa). A gender gap emerges in the returns to the education input if its output elasticity differs between genders, such that, at any education level, the marginal products of education are also different. In the following, by a reduction of the gender gap, we typically have in mind some sort of re-distribution between the genders to a more egalitarian outcome. Of course, if men are more educated than women, another way of reducing the gender gap would be to increase female education, keeping male education constant. Because average education in society goes up, there is an obvious positive level effect on per capita output. But the interesting question is whether keeping average education constant, smaller gender gaps in education are more conducive to growth than bigger gaps; that is, whether there is a distribution effect. In the case where output elasticities are the same for both genders, an economy where men and women contribute equally to aggregate production will maximize real output. Because men and women are imperfect substitutes, gender inequalities in how productive capacities are distributed are inefficient. Simply put, if men contribute more than women, the marginal product to the male input will be lower than the marginal product to the female input. Closing these gender gaps (in education, health, capital access, etc) would boost economic growth. If credit-constrained women face weak property rights and are unable to access certain markets, and have mobility and time constraints, then the marginal return to capital may nevertheless be larger for men (Klasen and Manuel 2018).

Culture dictates that leaders need to be decisive, assertive, and independent, whereas women are assumed to be friendly, caring, and selfless. Gender biases interfere with the development of an appropriate leader identity for women, and cause men to sponsor those that are similar to them, resulting in the sponsoring of other men (Eagly and Carli, 2007). The leadership identity constructed becomes overly masculine, causing women to avoid taking up leadership roles. This report argues that women need an all-women leadership programme.

Sexual orientation contrast in the social hazard area is uncommon to discover men as more noteworthy social daring people (Harris, Jenkins, and Glaser, 2006). Men can be described as more certain than women (Bengtsson, Persson, and Willenhag, 2005), particularly with respect to monetary choices (Barber and Odean, 2001; Correll, 2001). Stylist and Odean (2001) found that men exchanged more noteworthy volumes than do women, and thus make more prominent misfortunes. Womens' lower certainty, particularly with respect to money related
issues, is equally reflected in the way that specialists for the most part report lower dimensions of gainfulness (Robinson and Stubberud, 2011).

Esteve-Volart (2009) asserted that if women are excluded from managerial positions, equilibrium wages and human capital investment for both male and female workers will be reduced, and the average talent of managers will be lower. Lower talent then leads to less innovation and technology adoption. On the other hand, if women are completely excluded from the labour force, they can only engage in home production, which leads to lower aggregate productivity and lower GDP per capita.

People are thought to be similarly capable during childbirth; therefore, if women are not permitted to get to administrative positions (or they are segregated in advanced education) the normal ability of business visionaries is lower (Valentová et al., 2014). This outcome in less advancement and less interest for specialist's abilities, prompting a lower harmony wage, a lower normal training of labourers, and a lower innovation reception rate than in a circumstance without sex separation. Because of this, this kind of separation results in an unambiguously lower rate of monetary development. On the off chance that then again women are not permitted to move towards becoming directors or labourers, they obtain no instruction yet the market balance compensation rate is the equivalent than under no separation, since both the interest and the supply of specialists' abilities is lower. The dimension and development rate of yield per capita, notwithstanding, are obviously decreased, given that innovation development relies upon the normal training dimension of the whole populace (ILO, 2017).

2.1 Effects of Gender Inequality on Development

An extensive body of work documents gender inequality in both opportunities (for example, education, health, and finance) and outcomes (for example, employment and earnings), with a particularly rich literature studying the determinants of gender wage gap (Ata et al., 2020). Women perform most unpaid household services and volunteer work, and they are often neither recognized as workers, nor are they included in employment statistics (FAO, 2010). The consequence of gender inequality on economic growth is such that if women do not achieve their full economic potential, the global economy will suffer. According to McKinsey Global Institute’s report, advancing women’s equality can add US$ 12 trillion to global growth.

Among older women and men, money appears to be masculinized and associated with an illusion of empowerment of women, exacerbating the androcentric sex/gender model. In their discourses, some women express their progress towards
relationships of greater equity. Couples must deal with gender conflicts when negotiating money. Even though women manage the family's money, it is not considered their money; therefore, they do not feel free to use it and must account to the man (Segovia and Siu, 2017).

Employment and earnings decrease the bargaining power of women at home, which leads to lower investments in children’s education and health (Sen, 1990; Klasen and Wink, 2002) and this adds to the gaps in gender. At the same time, gaps related to access to productive inputs constitute a distortion in the allocation of resources, which in turn reduces aggregate current productivity and investment in new technologies. It has been suggested that women are less prone to corruption and nepotism than men, as the World Bank (2001) report explains. According to this view, increasing access of women to the workforce and to decision-making bodies may improve governance in business and government.
3. Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) shows how the variables in this study relate. The impact of gender inequality in work on economic development is as a result of education, which has an effect on gender equality in employment and economic empowerment, which in turn had an impact on economic development. Based on the literature, it can be stated that gender equality in education has a direct and indirect impact on economic development. The growth literature suggests that education has a positive and significant impact on the growth rate of per capita income, since closing this gap in Africa according to McKinsey could add up to 26 per cent annual global GDP in 2025 (McKinsey, 2015). Culture views gender roles the way it is thought and determined by local traditions and norms. This has encouraged gender bias and the patriarchal system; cultural factors is a cause of inequality in gender. Thus, it can be stated that the gender gap is more likely to occur in rural areas. According to OECD (2008), culture stipulates that the care of children and household management is the responsibility of women, so that women are more burdened to find a job close to home and family, causing the 'life work' of women limited by time and mobility.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework

Source: Author's conceptualization
3.1 Theory of Change

This study was guided by the Theory of Change by Kurt Lewin, who stated that before a change can be implemented, it must go through the initial step of unfreezing by creating an awareness of gender equality and how the status quo or current level of acceptability is hindering the organization in some way. Old behaviours, ways of thinking, processes, people and organizational structures must all be carefully examined to show employees how necessary a change is for the organization to create or maintain a competitive advantage in the marketplace. The idea is that the more we know about a change and the more we feel it is necessary and urgent, the more motivated we are to accept the change. Lewin recognized that change is a process where the organization must transition or move into this new state of being. This changing step, also referred to as 'transitioning' or 'moving,' is marked by implementation of the change. This is when the change becomes real. During the changing step, people begin to learn the new behaviours, processes and ways of thinking. The more prepared they are for this step, the easier it is to complete. For this reason, education, communication, support and time are critical for change. Lewin found the refreezing step to be especially important to ensure that people do not revert to their old ways of thinking or doing prior to the implementation of the change. Efforts must be made to guarantee the change is not lost; rather, it needs to be cemented into the organization’s culture and maintained as the acceptable way of thinking or doing. Positive rewards and acknowledgment of individualized efforts are often used to reinforce the new state because it is believed that positively reinforced behaviour will likely be repeated (Wojciechowski et al., 2016).

*Education has one of the factors contributing to gender inequality and economic outcome*

In terms of education, in some western countries over 50 per cent of graduates are women. For instance, in the UK and Saudi Arabia, more than 54 per cent of the postgraduates were female (Office for National Statistics, UK). However, this is not the case for countries such as India, Pakistan and South Africa. In their studies, Booz and Co (2012) have shown that it is significantly effective to invest in women leadership. This is because it reciprocates positive records in a country’s GDP and the welfare of next generations. They calculated the possible increase on GDP through the entrance of new female participants to the economy. For India, South Africa, and the United Kingdom, these increases would be 29, 12 and 7 per cent. Additionally, women reinvest much of their earnings on their children’s education and health compared to men; on the contrary, men spend greater amounts on entertainment (Goldman Sachs, 2009). Thus, helping women earn their own income has a direct effect on the next generations and offers resilience.
According to the UNDP (2015) report, Africa has one of the fastest rates of improvement in human development over the past two decades (Figure 2), but also has the lowest average levels of human development compared to other regions in the world. The report states that women were under-represented in education. They were also under-represented in politics and leadership positions while this differs strongly from country to country.

**Figure 2: Years of schooling by gender in Africa**

Lagerlof (2003) argues that gender equality on female education has a positive impact on economic growth because of its effects on fertility and on the human capital of children. The World Bank (2001) reported that the costs of gender disparities had been high; they not only reduce the well-being of women, but also reduce that of men and children and hinder economic development. The report indicated that gender discrimination in the labour market and access to resources leads to inefficiencies in the allocation of inputs and output losses. This assessment, also shared by Blackden et al. (2006), asserted that gender inequality affects economic growth because it has a negative impact on asset accumulation and factor productivity. The most affected is gender inequality in education, which reduces the average amount of human capital in a society, and harms economic performance because of the exclusion of highly qualified girls and the artificial restriction of the pool of talent from which to draw for education. This could lead to a situation where the marginal return to educating girls is higher than that of boys, indicating an inefficient allocation of schooling (Cuberes and Teignier, 2014).
Fifth, there is accumulating micro evidence on how reducing particular gender gaps at the level of households, farms, or firms can improve economic performance in particular contexts, with robust results in some areas, and less clear evidence in others (Stephan, 2018). The schooling enrolment representation in Africa is shown in Figure 3.

**Figure 3: Schooling representation in Africa**

![Schooling representation in Africa](image)

*Source: World Economic Forum (2017)*

Difference in training levels is a significant factor that separates developed from developing countries. Although other factors are certainly in play, such as geography and available resources, having better-trained workers creates spillovers throughout the economy and positive externalities. Figure 4 indicates the in terms of university enrolment, women still lag behind. A report by INSEAD contends that the advancement of a leader is identified with the character of a leader. Taking up the leaders’ job is a procedure of personality, where an individual harmonizes this character through input and encounters (Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb, 2011). In addition, the leader’s character relies upon the feeling of direction, bringing about a pioneer being progressively successful when seeking after objectives in accordance with their qualities and when they are centred around the collective good (Quinn, 2004).
Numerous reports indicate that progress for women is simply the capacity to advance and be confident about execution and desire. McKinsey (2019) noted that representation of women in senior leadership has increased, although women continue to be under-represented at every level. Impetus demonstrates that of the considerable number of techniques women can use to progress, generally being emphatic in making their accomplishments obvious helped women to get further, expanded their profession fulfilment, and expanded their pay development. Instances of making accomplishments obvious are: Ensuring that the supervisor knows about one's accomplishments; Looking for credit for the work done; Asking for additional criticism on execution, and requesting an advancement (Catalyst, 2011).

Women were under-represented in all levels of education from elementary/primary to university as indicated in Figure 5. Many girls, according to the parents, were still out of school due to customary practices that expose them to early marriages and child pregnancies. This, according Shaikh (2016), reduces women's economic opportunities and leaves them more likely to end up in weak or precarious employment. This is compounded by social norms that assigned most domestic and household work to women and girls. Women spend twice as much time as men in domestic labour.
Deborah Tannen suggests getting your work seen by either informing your supervisor concerning your work, or by conveying reports, or by being the individual introducing the outcomes (Tannen, 1998). An examination by DDI among more than 12,000 pioneers from more than 70 nations, including eight (8) Commonwealth nations, endeavoured to demonstrate what the prescribed procedures were for women in initiative. Their suggestions for what women can do spin around making their goals for advancement known, and to make openings as opposed to sit tight for them (Development Dimensions International - DDI, 2009). Earth shattering examination has been directed by Harvard’s Amy Cuddy on the impact of stance on sentiments of intensity and hazard taking. She has discovered that as meager as two one-minute postures has unbelievable impacts both physiologically and mentally (Carney, Cuddy, and Yap, 2010). Power postures incorporate occupying more room, and keeping appendages open.

While most women see themselves as similarly proficient as their associates, most of men view themselves as more skilled than their collaborators (Eagly, 2003). In a domain where the practices expected are as yet male-commanded, female-explicit correspondence can be deciphered contrarily. Ely, Ibarra and Kolb (2011), in their contention, said that there are insufficient great female good examples who are required as a display of fruitful and powerful female initiative. Women will in general use correspondence and conduct procedures that have worked for them previously, though men will mimic techniques utilized by their seniors. Subsequently job displaying isn’t natural in women. Moreover, women will try more modest behaviours to avoid disapproval, whereas men signal their conformity to company’s norms, even though feeling unnatural.

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3.2 Economic Growth

Gender inequalities constitute barriers to women entering or participating fully in markets, economic growth and private sector development (World bank 2019). An economy that curbs women’s access to education, market employment, or certain occupations draws talent from a smaller pool than an economy without such restrictions (Klasen and Manuel, 2018). Occupational choice models with heterogeneous talent show that exogenous barriers to women’s participation in the labour market and entrepreneurial occupations reduce aggregate productivity and per capita output (EsteveVolart, 2004; Cuberes and Teignier, 2016; 2018). If women have lower education, their marginal return to education would be higher than men’s.

The study found that majority of employed and salaried persons were men. Some women who earned salary had earned a maximum of Ksh 10,000. In countries such as Pakistan and India in 2010, female participation rate was below 30 per cent (22% and 29%, respectively). For Nigeria, about half of the women (48%) are employed, for South Africa about 44 per cent, and in the UK 56 per cent of women are employed (World Bank, 2013). Reducing the wage gap or the social and institutional gap does not help the economy escaping this regime. Women are not in the labour force, and therefore the wage gap is meaningless.

The study found that majority of women preferred working in their counties. These findings agree with (Ely, Ibarra and Kolb, 2011) who asserted that women...
are more likely to have non-linear career paths, taking more time to spend with the family or avoiding jobs with out-of-town travel responsibilities for the same reasons. The successful career paths are easier for men to undertake, such as expatriate assignments. One research conducted amongst US graduates found that more than a third of women willingly stopped working to spend more time with their family (Hewlett, Luce and Schiller, 2005). As women climb the ladder, the responsibilities will become more demanding and they may be faced with lesser flexibility geographically.

During the interview with the key informants, majority of the leaders were male. The Governor, Senators, Members of Parliament were mainly male in the two counties. Women were few, with positions of women representatives and members of county assembly. Even in terms of land ownership, African women lag behind, as shown in Figure 6 which indicates that less than 5 per cent of land ownership is by women. Unfortunately, women experience a strong gender bias when being evaluated for promotions on both their level of performance and their potential impact. McKinsey (2007) argues that the needs for senior management are intolerant to the career paths and needs of women. These findings were in agreement with research done within professional groups, which showed that women have to significantly work harder to be perceived as equally competent as men (Lyness and Heilman, 2006). Moreover, unfortunate assumptions are sometimes made about women’s ambitions and abilities. Research by Development Dimensions International (DDI, 2009) shows that women do not excel sufficiently in their careers due to assumptions on women’s ambitions, such as women having less ambition and a lesser company commitment due to family responsibility. Yet, women and men hardly differ in their ambitions. Catalyst (2004) shows that there is hardly a difference between senior men and women when aspiring for the highest roles in the company.
This inequality, if reduced, could lead to an increase in GDP by 2025 as indicated in Figure 7 (ILO, 2017). The Africa continent could be leading in her GDP by 2025.
Figure 7: GDP by 2025

Source: International Labour Organisation (2017)

The study done in two counties of North Rift Kenya found that majority of males owned land with title deeds at 66 per cent and inherited land 70 per cent more than women counterparts. Majority of male respondents were employed while women reported higher in business (as shown in Figure 8). According to Barclays Bank (2013) research, women are creating their own wealth through earnings, savings and income by setting up their own businesses. Studies suggest an increase in women’s self-dependence due to self-employment where women are setting up both lifestyle and fast-growth companies. Women are able to contribute positively to corporate performance. The return on corporate equity increased by 53 per cent, the profit margin by 42 per cent, and finally, the overall return on invested capital increased by 66 per cent. This commendable impact was realized by a minimum of three women on the board. McKinsey (2019) reaffirms this relationship and projects that companies with the highest gender diversity workforce, in comparison to the industry average, experience a much higher return on equity (12%), a stronger stock price growth (72%) and a higher operating result (50%). Including one woman on the board decreases the chances of spending company overdraft by 20 per cent (Wilson and Atlantar, 2009). Companies with more women on their boards see better corporate governance and ethical behaviour (Franke, 1997).
Figure 8: Land ownership in Kenya

Source: Author's conceptualization
4. Legal Framework

The findings from the available legal framework instil a lot of hope to Kenyan citizens. The Constitution of Kenya 2010 recognizes dignity, economic, social and cultural rights including the right to education, housing and right to health including reproductive health care. The principle of equality and non-discrimination is established as a core value of leadership. Chapter Four of the Constitution is the Bill of Rights, where every person is equal before the law and has the rights to equal protection and benefit of the law. Women and men have the right to equal treatment, including the right to equal opportunities in political, economic, cultural and social spheres. Both direct and indirect discrimination is forbidden. The State is expected to take legislative and other measures, including affirmative action programmes and policies designed to redress any disadvantage suffered by individuals or groups because of past discrimination. Other measures from the Constitution are to implement the principle that not more than two thirds of members of elective bodies shall be of the same gender. The Constitution provides additional gains for women that include: equality in leadership with 33 per cent as the critical mass preferred for women leadership; equality in marriage, employment, access to education, all discriminatory customary practices are prohibited; matrimonial property is protected; women rights to inheritance and to own land is guaranteed; equal parental responsibility and requirement for both public and private entities to comply with the inclusion principles and gender, among others.

According to the 2013 general elections, women participation remained very low. There were 19 women candidates for senatorial and gubernatorial positions (out of 237 candidates). As a result, no women were elected as senator or governor. Out of the 290 elected National Assembly members, only 16 women were elected, and only 5 were nominated out of the 12 positions and 47 County women representatives, bringing the total to 68 women out of the 349 seats (19.48%). This fell short of 49 of the 117 required for full compliance with the two thirds gender rule. In the Senate, there are 18 women filling the 18 reserved seats under the Constitution (26.8%), which is 6.4 per cent short of the constitutional requirement out of the total 67 seats.

The Kenya Vision 2030 assumes that the economic pillar is gender neutral, despite the differential impact of economic policies on men and women. Gender dimensions arise as a result of the different roles played by men and women in the society, and because gender disparities exist in terms of access, ownership and control of productive resources, and differences in capabilities. The Vision proposes areas of inequalities in the social, economic and political areas to have specific strategies and targets to articulate, including gender mainstreaming.
and gender-responsive budgeting. For the business process outsourcing sector, enhancing women’s skills levels through training increases their access to finance to ensure that they are able to take advantage of the opportunities that arise.

Sessional Paper No. 2 of 2014 on the National Social Protection Policy, under gender mainstreaming, recognizes that men and women, and boys and girls, are affected differently by the same risks and face different types of risks. Efforts are made through this sessional paper to assess the implications for both males and females of any planned social protection activity at every level.

The Constitution of Kenya exempts from its non-discrimination provisions with respect to the application of their customary law. This exemption has a profound effect on the lives of many women in Kenya. To most of them, customary law is the only law they have recourse. Kenya has over 40 indigenous ethnic groups, with variations of customary laws among the groups, the clan and family levels. In general, customary law systems are based on patriarchal traditions in which the principal decision-making power is allocated to men, and men inherit and control land and property.
5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

Women’s empowerment is a global concern, as no single country has achieved gender equality today. Female leadership increases equality (i.e., greater influence and pay for women), and that having men and women work in the same positions may lessen inequality over time. Reducing inequality is essential, but it is a political action and an economic one. The government enhances the process of equality and inclusion through the constitution and other Acts of Parliament. The disparity of men and women is still wide in terms of ownership of land and employment. The economic benefits go to individuals, groups and regions that had hitherto not gained much from what little growth has taken place. The right to education is guaranteed by the Constitution as a variable to empowerment of women and girls, but education is still wanting for women. Many girls are still out of school due to, among other factors, customary practices that expose them to early marriages and child pregnancies. The African Call is to have 50:50 gender representation, which is yet to be realized in Kenya.

5.2 Recommendations

Governments can strengthen the policy framework for supporting gender equality by making changes in education, employment and social policies. Such moves help change corporate practices in their own contexts and widen the female and male talent pool to make gender parity a reality. The government should therefore aim to reduce gender inequality by full implementation of the two-thirds gender policy, and every woman be included in decision-making and managerial positions to improve their employment terms, increasing their access to and control of productive assets (land and capital), and extension services and increase their participation in leadership. This would greatly benefit women whose major challenge is poor economic status, lack of formal finance and awareness of the rights of women.

Legal and institutional frameworks can pose major challenges to economic empowerment when discriminatory provisions are embedded into legal frameworks and policies, or when egalitarian provisions are inadequately implemented.

Although the Kenyan government has created policies that offer equal opportunities to all, it has not paid much attention to the way policy is converted into action. Educational institutions should put strategies and policy goals to ensure that women are benefiting from reforms. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs)
and educational institutions can do more to tackle gender-based violence, ensure safe learning spaces and educate communities about dangerous cultural practices that promote sexism and marginalization of girls and women.

Patriarchal settings and cultures can represent extraordinary challenges for women leaders. Embracing these requires an increased need for developing and adapting emotional and cultural intelligence levels and skills. At the societal level, the diffusion of particular contraceptive methods may be influenced by cultural and religious norms. To meet targets on female representation and leadership, senior and corporate level decision-makers should embrace career flexibility, become transparent about gender, increase awareness about boardroom dynamics, and create programmes for networking, mentoring and sponsoring. Women’s affairs policy makers should link the channels of accountability to performance, and consider quotas and targets that aid in flexible working legislation, oblige companies to publish gender Key Performance Indicators, and assist in setting up networks that will make role models more visible and set up leadership programmes.

5.3 Contribution of the Study

This study contributes to the Kenyan Vision 2030’s social pillar that identifies gender concerns. It has also borrowed from the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that address nine (9) issues pertaining to gender equality that would see women occupy 50 per cent of elected offices at state, regional and local bodies, and 50 per cent of managerial positions in government and private sector because women in leadership have been proven to increase performance of organizations. This study contributes on food security (under the "Big Four" Kenyan agenda), given that majority of people in rural areas are in agriculture and women do small-scale agriculture where productivity and incomes are low.

This study contributes to the African Union Agenda 2063 by advocating for women disparity to see fully empowered women with equal access and opportunity in all spheres of life. This means that the African woman would have equal economic rights, including the rights to own and inherit property, sign a contract, register and manage a business. Over 90 per cent of rural women would have access to productive assets, including land, credit, inputs and financial services. This will ensure the African agenda attains full gender parity.
Gender-based leadership inequality and economic development in Kenya

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