

Gender Equality Through Women's Empowerment In Cherengany Sub County, Transzoia County

Josephine, Miriam Wanangwe^{1*}, Dr. Elizabeth Nambuswa Makokha²

1. School of Human Resource Development, Department of Entrepreneurship and Procurement. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, P.O. Box 62000 - 00200, Nairobi Kenya
2. School of Human Resource Development, Department of Entrepreneurship and Procurement. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, P.O. Box 62000 - 00200, Nairobi Kenya

* Email: josephinewanangwe@gmail.com

Abstract

The aim of this study was to analyze gender equality through women's empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County. The problem that prompted this study is the gloomy picture painting women's situation in the study area. The specific objectives were: to assess the impact of education on women's empowerment. The research draws from Marxist Feminist theory, Conflict Feminist theory and Sen's capability approach. The research is conceptualized considering three important dimensions of women's empowerment; economic decision making, household decision making and freedom of mobility. From the literature reviewed, the study was justified on the basis that household power relations aspect of empowerment is not extensively researched. A descriptive survey research design was adopted for the study with a target population of 40, 181 households and a sample size of 381 women selected using simple random sampling technique. A multiple regression model was used to analyze the data with procedures within SPSS. The findings indicate that education has a significant positive effect on women empowerment. The study recommends policies to be formulated aimed at promoting equity in household power relations so as to reduce the probability of women being placed in subordination; consequently it will enhance women's freedom and capabilities to make choices, improve their well-being and that of the entire household and enable them realize their full potential and rights.

Keywords; *Women Empowerment, Gender Equality, Education*

1.0 Introduction

The concept of Empowerment has been defined in various contexts. In psychological context it has been defined as a sense of personal control and freedom in that individuals' are given access to and control over resources to enable them gain agency and mastery over issues of concern to them (Zimmerman, 1990, 1995). Huis et al. (2017) defines empowerment in the same context as a change of state from being unpowered to being empowered, within a specific domain (Adjei, 2015). It is an increase in personal and social power (Grabe, 2012). Koggel (2013) asserts empowerment is the ability to challenge or use political, social, or economic power to shape individual lives in ways that change their lives and/or those in one's community for the better.

In social and political contexts empowerment has been linked to well-being (Zimmerman 1995; Sen, 1999). Kagotho & Vaughn (2016) define empowerment in this context as the ability of women to exercise control over their social, economic, and political environment. They illustrate that resources such as credit facilities, cash grants, or income-generating opportunities are forms of empowerment aimed at expanding women's ability to exercise control over their lives.

In development context empowerment has been described as expansion of freedom of choice and action to shape one's life (Musonera & Heshmati, 2017). Mahmud et al. (2012) summarizes that empowerment is "having increased life options and choices, gaining greater control over one's life, and generally attaining the capability to live the life one wishes to live". This research adopts the most suitable definition of empowerment in development literature as "a process of change during which those who have been denied the ability to make strategic life choices acquire such an ability" (Kabeer, 1999, p. 437). For Kabeer, resources, agency, and achievements are interrelated components critical to understanding the concept and process of empowerment. In all these definitions it is evident that empowerment aims at women gaining power to make choices. This paper deals with household power relations aspect of empowerment.

Empowerment has been studied both in the context of its determinant factors (Njega & Kiura, 2015; Moindi, 2012) and as an intermediary factor (Akram & Kiyani, 2015; Orso & Fabrizi, 2016; Pambè et al., 2014; Musonera & Heshmati, 2016; Kagotho & Vaughn, 2016; Mahmud and Tasmeen, 2014; Mahmud et al., 2012 and Sado et al., 2014). Studies analyzing determinant factors of empowerment view it as an outcome of interest while those that study it as an intermediary factor examine the effects of empowering women on other developmental outcomes of interest. This study focuses on empowerment as an intermediary factor.

Different models have been used to study women empowerment including logit/probit models (Kamal and Zunaid 2006; Gupta and Yesudian, 2006; Allendorf 2007). These studies have tended to focus on a binary dependent variable as a proxy of women empowerment. The variable is constructed from variables reflecting power over domestic decision-making in terms of finances, resource allocation, spending, and expenditures, social and domestic matters such as child-related issues, schooling, health, employment and fertility. Variables used to assess access to/or control over resources include cash, household income, assets, unearned income, household budget and participation in paid employment. Attitudinal variables such as self-esteem have also been used to assess power relations in households. Other studies have used ordinary least square (OLS) model (Assaad & Ramadan, 2014) and multinomial logistic regression model (Musonera & Heshmati, 2017) to analyze empowerment.

Some studies have used secondary data to analyze women empowerment (Assaad & Ramadan, 2014; Pambè et al., 2014; Musonera & Heshmati, 2016; Kagotho & Vaughn, 2016) while others have used primary data (Njega & Kiura, 2015; Moindi, 2012). This study collected empirical evidence using primary data which offers the advantage of substantiated evidence.

Whereas women empowerment is to ascertaining power in the context of development, gender equality is a condition where “rights, responsibilities and opportunities of individuals will not depend on whether they are born male or female” (Warth and Koparanova, 2012). Hence the purpose of attaining gender equality is to eliminate all forms of discrimination on the basis of gender (Alvarez and Lopez, 2013). Gender equality has been associated with sustainable development, justice and enhancing women's roles in sustaining their families and communities (UN Women, 2014). Both gender equality and women empowerment are key concepts advocated globally as strategies to curb the marginalization of women. The two concepts are related in the sense that empowerment of women remains a key strategy to achieving gender equality (Wekwete, 2013). It indeed strengthens the rights of women, providing them with capabilities to exercise control over their lives.

International bodies such as the World Bank, non-governmental organizations, United Nations (UN), all advocate for women's human rights and non-discrimination (Adjei, 2015). The global pressure to achieving rights, empower and attain gender equality for women is exerted using several International agreements. These include: The 1945 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), International Covenant on Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil Political Rights which form the key components of the international bill of rights that promote and safeguard all persons and ensure that every person regardless of race, sex, creed or color is treated equally. The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) also places emphasis on women's rights and empowerment. The main focus is on access to social, economic and political opportunities in society. The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) also advocates for gender equality and women empowerment in 12 critical areas of development: poverty, education, health, violence, armed conflict, economic disparity, power sharing, institutions, human rights, mass media, environment and the girl child. The Cairo Program of Action has also shown importance of achieving women empowerment in all Nations. The Millennium Declaration of 2000 also promotes gender equality in economic, social and political life as a strategy to achieving sustainable human development. Empowerment is also enlisted as a UN sustainable Development Goal 5 of achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls.

Despite the mentioned international pressure, hitherto women in patriarchal societies are marginalized in various aspects of life including having less or no influence on decision-making within their household, their community and in national and international-level politics, poorer access to health care, education, secure jobs and economic resources (Albrektsen, 2013; UNDP, 2015; UN women, 2014). For instance the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2014) report reveals that in 2011 only 20% of the low-income nations had achieved gender parity in primary education and 66% of the world's 774 million illiterate adults were women. The lack of access and control over resources creates social inequalities because it puts a group of people in subordination while others in dominant positions (Grabe, 2012). Disempowerment is hence associated to inequity (Huis et al., 2017) and at household level, it has been documented that men on average have greater access to power (UNDP, 2015). This power held by men is evident in their greater access to resource control, lesser social obligations and cultural ideologies that favor them.

Women encompass almost 50 percent of the world's population (UNPD, 2015) and play important role to the economy of nations (Sharma, 2016). But because of large inequalities between female and male genders, they have remained vulnerability to poverty (UNPD, 2015). Albrektsen (2013) equates marginalization of girls and women to "grave violation of human rights"...and argues it "impairs progress in all other areas of development". UNDP (2013) report reiterates gender-based inequalities retard progress on many development goals.

In the global context women empowerment has extensively been studied in South Asian countries (Jejeebhoy 2000; Khan and Awan 2011; Vanghese 2011; Chaudhary et al., 2012). These studies have tended to focus on direct measurement of empowerment and are hence context specific; findings in these geographical locations cannot be generalized (Kurtis and Adams, 2015) in local settings. Mahmud et al. (2012) reiterates an indicator of empowerment such as freedom of mobility is much more relevant in a patriarchal context, where women are traditionally confined to the home, than in a western context. This suggests the need for analyzing effects of determinant factors of empowerment on a local context.

Women empowerment agenda in Africa emanates from the African Charter on Human and Peoples rights adopted in June 27th 1981 by the OAU. The declaration signed by member states is in line with the international conventions and other global commitments which many African states are signatories. In 2009, the AU developed a gender policy to assist policy making in Africa that is geared towards contextualizing gender issues; providing a clear vision and making commitments to guide the process of gender mainstreaming and women empowerment to influence policies, procedures and practices which will accelerate achievement of gender equality, gender justice, non-discrimination and fundamental human rights in Africa (AU, 2009).

On the other hand gender equality is both a means to attaining development and a pre-condition for the attainment of other development outcomes (AfDB, 2014). The strategies aimed at reducing gender inequalities at regional level according to Wekwete (2013) include: the African Union protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa adopted in 2005 to protect women's economic and social rights, The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) which proposes to reduce gender disparities on the African continent and The 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) held in Cairo which also called for women's empowerment.

Despite all the initiatives, the African content still exhibits gender inequality in distribution of resources, access to opportunities and power imbalances in societies. Gender inequality and discrimination is majorly attributed to cultural and patriarchal tendencies including customary practices relating to land and inheritance, amongst others that have hindered the power of women to exercise choices (Adjei, 2015). In a patrilineal and patriarchal system (describing most societies in SSA) women do not share the same rights to land and or property ownership thus they cannot secure credits using their land as collateral. For instance in Kenya women account for only 5% of registered land holders, while in Ghana the mean value of men's landholdings is three times that of women's holdings (World Bank, 2012a). This lack of economic rights in terms of access to, and ownership of assets often leaves women dependent on their husbands, fathers or brothers throughout their lives consequently curtailing their autonomy in many aspects of their lives. Gender inequality is also evident in discrimination within the labor market (ILO, 2013) where women in SSA are highly represented in vulnerable employment at 85 percent when juxtaposed against men at 69 percent (UNDP, 2012c). They lack adequate social protection and get low incomes (ibid). In terms of education access the gender gap has narrowed but only at primary levels where the gender parity index (GPI) grew from 91 percent in 1999 to 97 percent in 2010 for developing regions (UNDP, 2012c).

Poverty among women is attributed to gender inequalities resulting from unequal power relations between men and women in accessing, owning and controlling resources (United Nations, 2011). As such in Kenya, women empowerment programmes have been instituted to address poverty in line with sustainable development goals and international commitments. In addition to international conventions, The Kenyan government is signatory to the AU solemn Declaration of Gender equality in Africa, 2004 as a commitment to promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment (Njega & Kiura, 2015). Other government strategies put in place are the development and enactment of various legal and policy interventions including enactment of the National Commission on Gender and Development Act in 2003 and subsequent establishment of the National Commission on Gender and Development in November 2003. As a result there was introduction of gender desks in key parastatals and police stations. There was also the introduction of the women's enterprise fund to support women empowerment, the passing of the National Policy on Gender and Development in 2006, free primary education and subsidized secondary education (ibid).

UN Women (2011) also gives much importance to gender equity as a concept that needs to be addressed. As such there have been various empowerment interventions such as health, educational and financial programs geared towards strengthening the position of women across the world and realizing gender equity (UN Women, 2016). Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as Forum for African Women Educationists (FAWE) Kenya and Education for Marginalized Children in Kenya (EMACK) aim to empower girls and women through gender-

responsive education. Micro-finance institutions such as Kenya women finance trust (KWFT) and Faulu Kenya were instituted to empower women economically (Kithuka et al., 2016). Women have also joined self-help groups (SHGS) in their communities so as to support themselves socially and economically.

Recent studies on women empowerment in Kenya (Njega & Kiura, 2015; Moindi, 2012; Kagotho & Vaughn, 2016) have measured empowerment in different ways based on the dimension under study. Some studies have measured empowerment indirectly using observable characteristics such as education levels, employment status, access to credit and income levels (Njega & Kiura, 2015; Moindi, 2012). Other studies have measured women empowerment directly using observable indicators grouped into different dimensions of empowerment such as economic decision-making; child-related decision-making; freedom of movement; power relations with husband; access to resources; self-esteem and, control over resources (Kagotho & Vaughn, 2016).

The plan highlights women hold lower political, social and economic status irrespective of their enormous contribution towards the economic development of the county. They have little access to land ownership, credit facilities, limited participation and representation in decision making forums due to retrogressive cultural practices and values among other forms of inequality. A report revealed by Kenya Demographic Health Survey (KDHS) (2014) indicates 35.2 per cent women have attended secondary education or higher as compared to 38.8 per cent men. The literacy level between women and men is 14.2 and 12.1 per cent respectively. This implies more women cannot read at all as compared to men. Women's reproductive health within the county is poor as indicated by the high fertility rates that result in the reported high Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) at 58/1,000 (higher than the national average of 54/1,000) and maternal mortality rates of 333/100,000. The County Health strategic plan highlights that the family planning uptake in the county is low at 16 percent; the average household size is six compared to the average national household size of 4.4. The level of media exposure among women is still low; 25.8 per cent of the women in Transzoia County are not exposed to any source of media as compared to 6.4 per cent of men (KDHS, 2014). Some scholars have also mentioned in patriarchal societies of Africa, women face social exclusion, marginalization and powerlessness. This is despite the notion that social justice is a key factor to human welfare and women empowerment is a necessary pre-condition to human development (Adjei, 2015). If these inequalities are not addressed by suggesting economic, institutional and, social policies to be implemented, women's socio-economic status will continue to deteriorate and the probability of them falling into poverty will increase. Consequently this will become detrimental to attaining household welfare and sustainable development. Njega & Kiura (2015) assert that entire societies will be destined to perform below their true potentials until women are given the same opportunities as men. Empowering women is therefore a necessary tool for development and to fostering a condition where resources and opportunities will be distributed equally, power in decision making and implementation will be distributed equally and opportunities to engage in productive work will be availed equally. The SPECiFIC ObjEctiVE OF the Study WAS TO To assess the impact of education on women's empowerment in Cherengany sub county, Transzoia County.

2.0 Effect of education on women empowerment

Education expands women's opportunity to access employment (Wekwete, 2013; Pambè et al., 2014) while expanding their level of income. It has been associated with autonomy in decision making (Koome and Ndwiga, 2017; Pambè et al., 2014). Musonera & Heshmati (2016) argue education exposes women to new ideas and alternative gender norms and behaviors enabling them to have a gender-egalitarian view of the world. Kamau et al. (2014) observed formal education positively affected gender relations in households and enabled women to make decisions on utilization of MFI resources. Participation of a woman in professional activities due to her level of education may be considered empowering, however, other factors such as family systems, patriarchal social structures and customs may be considered disempowering if they do not allow her to exercise her choices (Adjei, 2015).

Education also creates opportunities for access to information and services for improving family health because women are more likely to take up family planning decisions and reduce fertility rates by determining number of children they will have and spacing of children (Koome and Ndwiga, 2017). In a survey conducted in Uganda Kisaakye (2013) reported that women of ages 15-49 years with no education had the highest unmet need for limiting births while those with higher education had the lowest unmet need for limiting births.

In their study Assaad & Ramadan (2014) observed a positive significant impact of higher education level on Egyptian women's empowerment. They reported that having secondary education or university and post university degree as compared to being illiterate increased empowerment of Egyptian females' as measured by the decision-making indices but a negative impact on mobility index. These findings are similar to Orso & Fabrizi (2016) who assert less educated women attain lower levels of empowerment. They have fewer skills and reduced access to knowledge, information and new ideas that would help them to actively participate in household decision-making process.

The findings are also backed by Musonera & Heshmati (2016) who observed women with higher education were more empowered as compared to those with primary education. Similarly Kagotho & Vaughn (2016) found women education to be significantly associated with autonomous decision making. Higher education among women was associated with higher rates of autonomy over large household purchases and a spouse's income.

Contrary to major findings Kritz and Makinwa-Adebusoye (1999) in Nigeria observed education had no effect on a wife's decision making among the Ibo and Ijaw, whereas among the Kanuri, both primary and secondary education increased women's decision-making authority. Secondary education had an effect on decision making authority among the Hausa and Yoruba community. Additionally the authors noted that cultural differences related to family and gender roles, and the varying employment opportunities among the groups, accounted for the failure of education to benefit some women and for only secondary education to help others. This implies that the factors affecting women empowerment are context specific and the magnitude of empowerment in one geographical region as a result of empowerment factors is expected to be totally different in varying regions.

3.0 Method

This study used descriptive survey design. The target population consisted of women from the 40,181 households in Cherengany sub-county, Trans-zoia County, Kenya as per the 2009 population census. The 381 participants for the study were sampled using simple random sampling technique. The questionnaire was selected because it is an effective method of collecting data from larger samples and it permitted the reporting of sensitive information without revealing the identity of the participants thereby encouraging more candid and honest responses. A pilot test was aimed at testing the reliability and validity of the data collection instrument before actual data collection. Data was organized in terms of research specific objectives. Questionnaires were edited for completeness and consistency before processing responses. Multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the degree of statistical relationship between variables (Kothari and Garg, 2014), and to test whether the coefficients were statistically significant. For ease of analysis, procedures within Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 2.0 were used then data interpreted and presented in tables.

4.0 Discussion

The study sought to establish the impact of education on women's empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County. The findings are presented in a five point Likerts scale where SA=strongly agree, A=agree, N=neutral, D=disagree, SD=strongly disagree and T=total.

From table 4.1 below, the respondents were asked whether women with secondary and above education are more empowered than the ones with below secondary education. The distribution of findings showed that 27.0 percent of the respondents strongly agreed, 49.4 percent of them agreed, 7.3 percent of the respondents were neutral, 10.9 percent disagreed while 5.4 percent of them strongly disagreed. These findings implied that women with secondary and above education are more empowered than the ones with below secondary education. The findings are consistent with Musonera & Heshmati (2016) who observed that women with higher education were more empowered than those with primary education. Similarly Assaad & Ramadan (2014) reported having secondary education or university and post university degree as compared to being illiterate increased empowerment of Egyptian females' as measured by the decision-making indices but a negative impact on mobility index.

The respondents were also asked whether the educated women have increased chances of accessing employment that increases their income. The distribution of the responses indicated that 20.7 percent strongly agreed to the statement, 32.9 percent of them agreed, 32.7 percent of them were neutral, 2.8 percent of them disagreed while 10.9 percent of them strongly disagreed to the statement. These findings implied that educated women have increased chances of accessing employment that increases their income. Just as Wekwete (2013) asserts that education expands women's opportunity to access employment outside the home while expanding their level of income.

The respondents were also asked whether the educated women can contribute household income and are therefore free to decide on amount spent on children's education and household purchases. The distribution of the responses indicated that 7.3 percent strongly agreed to the statement, 49.3 percent of them agreed, 29.1 percent of them were neutral, 5.5 percent of them disagreed while 8.8 percent of them strongly disagreed to the statement. These findings implied that educated women can contribute household income and are therefore free to decide on amount spent on children's education and household purchases. Koome and Ndwiga (2017) assert with education women become liberal to decide what actions are good for themselves and their families.

The respondents were further asked whether the educated women are more likely to access information and services for improving family health; hence they are more likely to take family planning decision. The distribution of the responses indicated that 17.3 percent strongly agreed to the statement, 23.6 percent of them agreed, 40 percent of them were neutral while 7.3 percent and 11.8 percent of them disagreed strongly and disagreed to the

statement respectively. These findings implied that majority of the respondents agreed to the notion that educated women are more likely to access information and services for improving family health; hence they are more likely to take family planning decision. Consistent to the assertion of Koome and Ndwiga (2017) that education creates opportunities for access to information and services for improving family health hence educated women are more likely to take up family planning decisions and reduce fertility rates by determining number of children they will have and spacing of children. In Uganda Kisaakye (2013) found out that women of ages 15-49 years with no education had the highest unmet need for limiting births while those with higher education had the lowest unmet need for limiting births.

The respondents were further asked whether women can get the same status as men through education. The distribution of the responses indicated that 13.6 percent strongly agreed to the statement, 18.2 percent of them agreed, 40 percent of them were neutral, 22.7 percent of them disagreed while 5.5 percent of them strongly disagreed to the statement. These findings implied that women cannot get the same status as men through education. Indeed Adjei (2015) argues participation of a woman in professional activities due to her level of education may be considered empowering, however, other factors such as family systems, patriarchal social structures and customs may be considered disempowering if they do not allow her to exercise her choices. Cornwall (2016) asserts facilitating women's access to assets or creating enabling institutions, laws and policies is not enough to address the root causes of poverty and the deep structural basis of gender inequality. The author suggests the need to also change normative beliefs and expectations that place women in subordination and dependency, challenge restrictive cultural and social norms and contest the institutions of everyday life that sustain inequity.

The respondents were asked whether the training given to women empowers them both in updating of knowledge and skills to cope with work environments. The distribution of the responses indicated that 20.1 percent strongly agreed to the statement, 45.4 percent of them agreed, 17.3 percent of them were neutral, 17.2 percent of them disagreed while none of them strongly disagreed to the statement. These findings implied that training given to women empowers them both in updating of knowledge and skills to cope with work environments. According to UNECE (2012) training programmes will provide women with access to relevant knowledge and information for their empowerment. Alvarez and Lopez (2013) reiterate the process of empowerment entails improving women status through literacy, education, training and raising awareness.

Table 4.1: Impact of Education on women's empowerment

Statements	SA	A	N	D	SD	T
Women with secondary and above education are more empowered than the ones with below secondary education	% 27.0	49.4	7.3	10.9	5.4	100
Educated women have increased chances of accessing employment that increases their income	% 20.7	32.9	32.7	2.8	10.9	100
Educated women can contribute household income and are therefore free to decide on amount spent on children's education and household purchases	% 7.3	49.3	29.1	5.5	8.8	100
Educated women are more likely to access information and services for improving family health; hence they are more likely to take family planning decision.	% 17.3	23.6	40.0	7.3	11.8	100
Women can get the same status as men through education	% 13.6	18.2	40.0	22.7	5.5	100
Training given to women empowers them both in updating of knowledge and skills to cope with work environments	% 20.1	45.4	17.3	17.2	0	100

4.1 Inferential Statistics

4.1.1 Pearson Correlation

The study sought to establish the strength of the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable of the study. Pearson correlation coefficient was computed at 95 percent confidence interval (error margin of 0.05). Table 4.2 illustrates the findings of the study.

Table 4.2: Correlation Matrix

		Women empowerment
Education	Pearson Correlation	.537**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	280

As shown on Table 4.2 above, the p-value for education was found to be 0.000 which is less than the significant level of 0.05, ($p < 0.05$). The result indicated that Pearson Correlation coefficient (r-value) of 0.537, which represented an average, positive relationship between education and women empowerment. Njega & Kiura (2015) also observed a positive relationship between education and empowerment of women in Nyeri Municipality. Other studies (Assaad & Ramadan, 2014; Musonera & Heshmati, 2017) also observed a positive significant impact of higher education level on women's empowerment.

4.1.2 Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regressions were computed at 95 percent confidence interval (0.05 margin error) to show the multiple linear relationships between the independent and dependent variables of the study.

4.1.3 Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

Table 4.3 shows that the coefficient of correlation (R) is positive 0.629. This means that there is a positive correlation between the socio-economic factors and women empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County. The coefficient of determination (R Square) indicates that 37.9% of women's empowerment in Cherengany sub county, Transzoia County is influenced by the socio-economic determinant factors. The adjusted R^2 however, indicates that 25.2% of women's empowerment in Cherengany sub county, Transzoia County is influenced by socio-economic determinants leaving 74.8% to be influenced by other factors that were not captured in this study. Similarly, Musonera & Heshmati (2017) observed these factors affected household decision-making.

Table 4.3: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.629 ^a	.379	.252	4.15718

. Predictors: (Constant), education,

4.1.4 Analysis of Variance

Table 4.4 shows the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The p-value is 0.000 which is < 0.05 indicates that the model is statistically significant in predicting how determinant socio-economic factors affect women's empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County. The results also indicate that the independent variables are predictors of the dependent variable.

Table 4.4: ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	84.766		81.981	4.196	.000 ^b
Residual	861.234	280	7.879		
Total	657.000	280			

4.1.6 Regression Coefficients

From the Coefficients table (Table 4.5) the regression model can be derived as follows:

$$Y = 32.702 + 0.524X_1$$

The results in table 4.5 indicate that all the independent variables have a significant positive effect on women empowerment. Education was found to be an a factor influencing women empowerment with a coefficient of 0.524 (p-value = 0.000). According to this model when all the independent variables values are zero, women empowerment will have a score of 32.702.

Table 4.5: Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	
(Constant)	2.702	.638		.000
Education	.524	.137	.797	.000

4.1.7 Hypothesis Testing

H₀₁: Education does not have a significant impact on women empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County.

From Table 4.5 above, education ($\beta = 0.524$) was found to be positively related women empowerment. From t-test analysis, the t -value was found to be 3.885 and the p -value 0.000. Statistically, this null hypothesis was rejected because $p < 0.05$. Thus, the study accepted the alternative hypothesis and it concluded that Education does have a significant impact on women empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County. Similarly Kagotho & Vaughn (2016) found women education to be significantly associated with autonomous decision making. Higher education among women was associated with higher rates of autonomy over large household purchases.

5.0 Conclusion And Recommendations

The study sought to establish the impact of education on women's empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County. In conclusion based on the findings, education ($\beta = 0.524$) was found to be positively related to women empowerment. From t-test analysis, the t -value was found to be 3.885 and the ρ -value 0.000. Statistically, this null hypothesis was rejected because $\rho < 0.05$. Thus, the study accepted the alternative hypothesis and it concluded that Education does have a significant impact on women empowerment in Cherengany sub county, TransNzoia County.

The following recommendations are made based on the findings:

There should be efforts to promote more access to gainful employment that will enable women realize their full potential and rights. Additionally, access to gainful employment opportunities is necessary for women to contribute to supporting costs related to their own health and that of the entire household leading to improved wellbeing. There should be efforts geared towards reducing women's time burdens so as to increase their search of information in the media regarding new ideas to access employment, credit facilities and improve health; especially reproductive health. Women should also be facilitated with training facilities to improve their technological capabilities and enhance their labor productivity. This will not only promote economic growth but it is also a means of advancing their human rights. Lastly policies should be formulated that promote equity in household power relations so as to reduce the probability of women being placed in subordination; consequently it will enhance women's freedom and capabilities to make choices, improve their well-being and that of the entire household.

References

- Adjei, S. B. (2015). Assessing women empowerment in Africa: A critical review of the challenges of the gender empowerment measure of the UNDP. *Psychology and Developing Societies*, 27(1), 58-80.
- Akram, S., Shaheen, I., & Kiyani, S. M. (2015). Socio-economic empowerment of women through micro enterprises: a case study of AJK. *European Scientific Journal, ESJ*, 11(22).
- Allendorf, K. (2007). Do women's land rights promote empowerment and child health in Nepal?. *World development*, 35(11), 1975-1988.
- Assaad, R., Nazier H., & Ramadan, R. (2014). Individual and households determinants of women empowerment: application to the case of Egypt. Working Series Paper 867. *The Economic Research Forum (ERF)*.
- Banerjee, A., Duflo, E., Glennerster, R., & Kinnan, C. (2015). The miracle of microfinance? Evidence from a randomized evaluation. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 7(1), 22-53.
- Boateng, G. O., Kuuire, V. Z., Ung, M., Amoyaw, J. A., Armah, F. A., & Luginaah, I. (2014). Women's empowerment in the context of millennium development goal 3: A case study of married women in Ghana. *Social Indicators Research*, 115(1), 137-158.
- Bradshaw, S. (2013). Women's decision-making in rural and urban households in Nicaragua: the influence of income and ideology. *Environment and Urbanization*, 25(1), 81-94.
- Bryman A. (2015). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Chaudhary, A. R., Chani, M. I., & Pervaiz, Z. (2012). An analysis of different approaches to women empowerment: a case study of Pakistan. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 16(7), 971-980.
- Cornwall, A. (2016). Women's Empowerment: What Works?. *Journal of International Development*, 28(3), 342-359.
- Datta, U. (2015). Socio-economic impacts of JEEViKA: a large-scale self-help group project in Bihar, India. *World Development*, 68, 1-18.
- Duvendack, M., Palmer-Jones, R., & Vaessen, J. (2014). Meta-analysis of the impact of microcredit on women's control over household decisions: methodological issues and substantive findings. *Journal of Development Effectiveness*, 6(2), 73-96.
- Garikipati, S., Agier, I., Guérin, I., & Szafarz, A. (2017). The cost of empowerment: multiple sources of women's debt in rural India. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 53(5), 700-722.

- Ghani, M. A. (2014). Exploring domestic violence experiences from the perspective of abused women in Malaysia. A Doctoral Thesis, Loughborough University.
- Goetz, A. M., & Gupta, R. S. (1996). Who takes the credit? Gender, power, and control over loan use in rural credit programs in Bangladesh. *World development*, 24(1), 45-63.
- Goldman, M. J., & Little, J. S. (2015). Innovative grassroots NGOs and the complex processes of women's empowerment: an empirical investigation from northern Tanzania. *World Development*, 66, 762-777.
- Gorard, S. (2015). Rethinking 'quantitative' methods and the development of new researchers. *Review of Education*, 3(1), 72-96.
- Grabe, S. (2012). An empirical examination of women's empowerment and transformative change in the context of international development. *American journal of community psychology*, 49(1-2), 233-245.
- Gupta, K., & Yesudian, P. P. (2006). Evidence of women's empowerment in India: A study of socio-spatial disparities. *GeoJournal*, 65(4), 365-380.
- Harcourt, W. (Ed.). (1994). *Feminist perspectives on sustainable development*. Zed Books.
- Huis, M. A., Hansen, N., Otten, S., & Lensink, R. (2017). A Three-Dimensional Model of Women's Empowerment: Implications in the Field of Microfinance and Future Directions. *Frontiers in psychology*, 8, 1678.
- Israel, G. D. (1992). *Determining sample size* (pp. 1-5). Gainesville: University of Florida Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of Food and Agriculture Sciences, EDIS.
- Jejeebhoy, S. J. (1991). Women's status and fertility: successive cross-sectional evidence from Tamil Nadu, India, 1970-80. *Studies in Family Planning*, 22(4), 217-230.
- Kabeer, N. (1999). Resources, agency, achievements: Reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment. *Development and change*, 30(3), 435-464.
- Kabeer, N. (2001). 'Resource, Agency, Achievement: Reflections on the Measurement of Women's Empowerment' in 'Discussing Women's Empowerment – Theory and Practice' Edited by Anne Sisask, SIDA *Studies No. 3*, Novum Grafiska, AB, Stockholm, pp. 17-57.
- Kabeer, N. (2002). Resources, agency, achievements: reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment. In *Discussing women's empowerment – Theory and practice*, 17–57. Sida Studies No.3, Stockholm: Novum Grafiska AB.
- Kabeer, N. (2005). Gender equality and women's empowerment: A critical analysis of the third millennium development goal 1. *Gender & Development*, 13(1), 13-24.
- Kagotho, N., & Vaughn, M. G. (2016). Women's agency in household economic decision making in Kenya. *International Social Work*, 0020872816663291.
- Kamal, N., & Zunaid, K. M. (2006). *Education and women's empowerment in Bangladesh*. Working Paper 11, Independent University, Bangladesh: Centre for Health, Population and Development (CHPD).
- Kamau, W.P., Kimani, E., & Ngare G.W. (2014). Gender relations in access, control and utilisation of microfinance resources: a case of women in Kiharu constituency, Murang'a county, Kenya. *Merit Research Journal of Art, Social Science and Humanities*.
- Kato, M. P., and Kratzer, J. (2013). Empowering women through microfinance: evidence from Tanzania. *Journal of Entrepreneurship Perspective*. 2, 31–59.
- Kay, T. 2002. Empowering women through self-help micro credit programmes. *Bulletin on Asia-Pacific Perspectives* 2002/3: 69–78.
- Khan, S.U. and Awan, R. 2011. "Contextual Assessment of Women Empowerment and its determinants: Evidence from Pakistan." MPRA No. 30820. Bond University- Australia.
- Koggel, C. M. (2013). A critical analysis of recent work on empowerment: Implications for gender. *Journal of Global Ethics*, 9(3), 263-275.
- Koome, P., & Ndwiga, M. (2017). Women Empowerment And Unmet Need for Family Planning in Kenya. *African Multidisciplinary Journal of Research*, 1(2).

- Kritz, M. M. and Makinwa-Adebusoye, P. K. (1999). "Determinants of Women's Decision- Making Authority in Nigeria" *Sociological Forum* 14, (3):397-421.
- Kurtis, T., & Adams, G. (2015). Decolonizing liberation: Toward a transnational feminist psychology. *Journal of Social and Political Psychology*, 3(1), 388-413.
- Kurtis, T., Adams, G., & Estrada-Villalta, S. (2016). Decolonizing Empowerment: Implications for Sustainable Well-Being. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy*, 16(1), 387-391.
- Luz, L., & Agadjanian, V. (2015). Women's decision-making autonomy and children's schooling in rural Mozambique. *Demographic research*, 32, 775.
- Mahmud, S., & Tasneem, S. (2014). Measuring 'empowerment' using quantitative household survey data. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 45, pp. 90-97). Pergamon.
- Mahmud, S., Shah, N. M., & Becker, S. (2012). Measurement of women's empowerment in rural Bangladesh. *World development*, 40(3), 610-619.
- Mayoux, L. (2001). Tackling the down side: Social capital, women's empowerment and micro-finance in Cameroon. *Development and change*, 32(3), 435-464.
- Moindi, H. N. (2012). Factors affecting the economic empowerment of women Mvita Sub-County, Mombasa County, Kenya. Master's Thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Mosse, J. C. (1993). *Half the world half a chance: An introduction to gender and development*. Oxfam GB.
- Musonera, A., & Heshmati, A. (2017). Measuring Women's empowerment in Rwanda. In *Studies on Economic Development and Growth in Selected African Countries* (pp. 11-39). Springer, Singapore.
- Nabayinda, J. (2014). *Microfinance and women empowerment: to what extent has access to loans led to a change in gender responsibilities at the household level: a case study of women in Ddwaniiro sub county-Rakai district of Uganda* (Master's thesis, Universitet i Agder/University of Agder).
- Njega, M.M., Kimondo, S. M., Kiura, F.K. (2015). Determinants of economic empowerment of women in Nyeri municipality, Nyeri, Kenya. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management United Kingdom*, III.
- Nyauchi, B. & Omedi, G.(2014). Determinants of Unmet Need for Family Planning among Women in Rural Kenya. *African Population Studies* 28(2), 999.
- Orso, C. E., & Fabrizi, E. (2016). The Determinants of Women's Empowerment in Bangladesh: The Role of Partner's Attitudes and Participation in Microcredit Programmes. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 52(6), 895-912.
- Pambè, M.W., Thiombiano, B. G., & Kaboré I. (2014). Relationship between women's socioeconomic status and empowerment in Burkina Faso: A focus on participation in decision-making and experience of domestic violence. *African Population Studies* 28 (2).
- Patrikar, S. R., Basannar, D. R., & Sharma, M. S. (2014). Women empowerment and use of contraception. *Medical journal armed forces India*, 70(3), 253-256.
- Said-Allsopp, M., & Tallontire, A. (2015). Pathways to empowerment?: dynamics of women's participation in Global Value Chains. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 107, 114-121.
- Schuler, S. R., Hashemi, S. M., & Badal, S. H. (1998). Men's violence against women in rural Bangladesh: undermined or exacerbated by microcredit programmes?. *Development in practice*, 8(2), 148-157.
- Sen, A. K. (1999). *Development as Freedom*. New York, NY: Knopf Press.
- Sharma, M. (2016). Women Education: Need for Sustainable Development. *Global Journal of Human-Social Science Research: C Sociology & Culture*. 16 (1), 22-25.
- U.N. Women (2014). World Survey on the Role of Women in Development 2014: Gender Equality and Sustainable Development. *United Nations, New York* .Retrieved from <https://gest.unu.edu/static/files/world-survey-on-the-role-of-women-in-development-2014.pdf> on 22nd August 2017.
- UNDP.(2015). *Human Development Report 2015*. Retrieved from: http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2015_human_development_report.pdf on 22nd June 2017.

- Upadhyay, U. D., & Karasek, D. (2012). Women's empowerment and ideal family size: an examination of DHS empowerment measures in Sub-Saharan Africa. *International perspectives on sexual and reproductive health*, 78-89.
- Upadhyay, U. D., Gipson, J. D., Withers, M., Lewis, S., Ciaraldi, E. J., Fraser, A., ... & Prata, N. (2014). Women's empowerment and fertility: a review of the literature. *Social Science & Medicine*, 115, 111-120.
- Warth, Lisa, Koparanova, Malinka (2012). *Empowering Women for Sustainable Development*. Discussion Paper Series, No. 2012.1. United Nations Economic Commission For Europe, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Wekwete, N. N. (2014). Gender and economic empowerment in Africa: Evidence and policy. *Journal of African Economies*, 23(suppl_1), i87-i127.
- Williams, C. (2011). Research methods. *Journal of Business & Economics Research (JBER)*, 5(3).
- World Bank (2012a) World Development Report, 2012: Gender Equality and Development. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Zimmerman, M. A. (1995). Psychological empowerment: Issues and illustrations. *American journal of community psychology*, 23(5), 581-599.