

THE EFFECT OF TABLE BANKING ON WOMEN DEVELOPMENT IN KITALE TOWN TRANS NZOIA COUNTY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to find out the effect of table banking on women development: a case of Joyful Women organization in Trans Nzoia county Kenya. It was premised on the following objectives: To determine the influence of access to credit on women development in joyful women organisation Trans Nzoia County. The justification of this study was begged on the premise that there are limited studies locally to add to scientifically find out the influence of table banking on women's development. The study was delimited to the effect of table banking on women development in Trans Nzoia County. It was limited to those who either work or are active members in joyful women micro-finance institution. Literature was reviewed basing on the study objectives. The research was based on Longwe's theoretical framework of Women's Equality and Empowerment. This study adopted descriptive research design, using a case study. The population of this study was be made up of women active members of Joyful Women Organization in Trans Nzoia County. A sample size for the study was three hundred and seventy respondents. Data collection methods outlines methods used to collect primary and secondary data. Quantitative and qualitative approaches were applied to process and analyze data collected from the field. To analyze quantitative data, the data was first screened and arranged in a systematic manner by the help of SPSS programme version 22.0 The study found out that members had access to credit from joyful organization and the credit was of better interest rates compared to bank loans. It was also found out that the repayment period was flexible to members. On training, the study found out that there were some form of training though not mandatory to all members and not done regularly. On resource mobilization, it was found out that many loans were invested in business and general household expenses. Finally, it was found out that interest chargeable on loans was cheaper compared to bank loans though the rate of loan defaulters was high. It was concluded that there was a significant relationship between table banking and women development. It was recommended that women should be encouraged to save and access credit from the organization, they should be regularly trained before accessing any loan to enable them make informed choices, they should invest the loans in productive activities as opposed to general expenses and finally, the members should take advantage of the flexible chargeable interest and avoid defaulting which may lead to losing security over the loans.

Key words: access to credit, women development

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is considered as one of the most important factors contributing to the economic development of the society. Entrepreneurs have been considered instrumental in initiating and sustaining socio-economic development. There are evidences to believe that countries which have proportionately higher percentage of entrepreneurs in their population have developed much faster as compared to countries, which have lesser percentage of them in the society. Micro financing can be viewed as a way in which gender inequalities are addressed. MFIs have thus been able to create a financial system where no person is excluded and women's inclusion is increased (Wish, 2006). In many developing countries, it is through managing business enterprises of their own and entrepreneurship - in the informal and unregulated sector as well as in the formal sector - that women have access to an income. Trade policy and private business sector development play an important role both for women's entrepreneurship and for women's opportunities for income-earning through paid employment. In its policy framework, the Swedish government has clearly laid down an action plan to strengthen women's entrepreneurship and improve business development and financial service systems to enable them meet their needs. In addition, the policy strengthens women's opportunities and capacity to organize them-selves, form associations and act collectively for common interests in the labor market, including in the informal sector. The ability of women to support themselves, regardless of marital status, and their economic participation and empowerment are fundamental in strengthening their rights and enabling them to have control over their lives and exert influence in society, Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Sweden (2010). Recently, the World Economic Forum ran a study on 58 countries to assess the size of the gender gap.

The Forum's analysis concluded that no country has managed to close the gender gap with the exception of the Nordic nations. For example, Sweden scored high in its efforts to advance women's participation in all aspects of societal structure, while the United States ranked 17th, Mexico 52nd, Jordan 55th, and Egypt 58th. These findings suggest that the world has a long way to go to bring women to the forefront of economic, social, and political participation, (Hausmann et.al 2011).

Studies in India also indicate the need for women economic empowerment .As a developing country, India like Kenya is still in the struggle to economically empower its women. The total number of women in India is a whopping figure of 526 million but unfortunately a very small percentage of the woman population belonging to the elite, educated and upper - middle class especially in the cities, has been exposed to issues on Women's roles, career options and jobs. Less than 7% of the enterprises have been set - up by women but probably what is noteworthy is that women have plunged into the field of entrepreneurship and have been found effective in emerging social-economical roles (Rao et. al, 2011). According to UNPD (2015) women encompass almost 50 percent of the world's population although there are still large inequalities between men and women which make women more vulnerable to poverty. In Kenya, just as in many other developing countries, these inequalities takes the form of that women traditionally don't have access to education, employment and owning land (USAID, 2015). These inequalities do not only make women more vulnerable to poverty, but they also prohibit women from participating in economic, social and political life (UNDP, 2014).

Based on this realization, women empowerment has in recent years been marked as a major contributing factor for the development of developing countries. To promote gender equality and

empower women was for example one the Millennium Development Goals and new updated goals are likely to be adopted in the new Sustainable Development Goals which are adopted by the UN (UNSDSN, 2013). The encouragement of women to participate in all sectors of economic activity is believed to not only improve the quality of life for the women themselves but to also be essential for building strong economies, establishing more stable and just societies and to improve the quality of life for men, families and communities (UN Women, 2011). As a consequence the empowerment of women is not only welfare improving for the woman and her family but also for the whole society. If these positive aspects of empowerment are correct it's obvious that development and women empowerment are intertwined with each other, implying that empowerment is not only an important question for the women themselves but also for the economic and political development of the world.

As the focus on women empowerment has increased, so has the recognition of that access to financial services is an essential part of women empowerment. For example, according to the Global Findex database in 2014, approximately 39 percent of men reported to having a bank account in Sub-Saharan Africa compared to only 30 percent of women, hence implying that basic financial services are more restricted for women (World Bank, 2014). The recognition of those financial services is an integral part of women empowerment has most notably resulted in the development of microfinance, which is a loan service that has grown steadily and which primarily targets poor women. However, traditional banks or other financial institutes have not been willing to provide basic financial services such as a saving or transaction accounts to the poor due to high transaction costs and too low margins (Todaro and Smith, 2011).

Microcredit and microfinance are relatively new terms in the field of development, first coming to prominence in the 1970s, according to Robinson (2001) and Otero (1999). Prior to then, from the 1950s through to the 1970s, the provision of financial services by donors or governments was mainly in the form of subsidized rural credit programmes. These often resulted in high loan defaults, high lose and an inability to reach poor rural households (Robinson, 2001). Most of the world's poor are women (Murgon & Lumwamu, 2014). African women constitute the majority of the continents' population they however lag behind compared to men in many aspects. According to 2009 Kenyan population and housing census, women constitute 50.3 percent of Kenyans majority, majority of them have no access to mainstream banking by either choice or fate due to deep routed socio-economic and cultural factors that for a long time have worked to the women's disadvantage (Kimta, 2015).

It was also at this time that the term "microcredit" came to prominence in development (MIX3, 2005). The difference between microcredit and the subsidized rural credit programmes of the 1950s and 1960s was that microcredit insisted on repayment, on charging interest rates that covered the cost of credit delivery and by focusing on clients who were dependent on the informal sector for credit (ibid.).

There has been widespread consensus that the origin of the micro-credit movement is attributed to the work of Muhammad Yunus' Grameen Bank which was founded more than twenty years ago in Bangladesh (Meade 2001). It is however pointed out that today, micro-credit and micro enterprise programmes can be found throughout South and Southeast Asia, many parts of Africa, Latin

America, the United States of America and Western Europe (Meade 2001). Access to credit enables the MSE's owner to cover some or all of the cost of capital equipment, expansion, or renovation of buildings. It helps existing or would-be entrepreneurs acquire the means for establishing or expanding a business (e.g. building premises and working capital) (ILO 2007). The Monterrey Consensus, adopted in 2002, noted the key role of micro finance and microcredit for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises in strengthening the social and economic impact of the financial sector. The development of microfinance as a strategy to eradicate poverty was a central theme of the International Year of Microcredit in 2005 (Karl an 2008). This study seeks to investigate microfinance factors affecting MSE's performance. Research in these areas finance, performance and entrepreneurship are important because entrepreneurship itself is indispensable to economic development (Naude, 2010).

Most of the world's poor are women (Murgon & Lumwamu, 2014). African women constitute the majority of the continents' population they however lag behind compared to men in many aspects. According to 2009 Kenyan population and housing census, women constitute 50.3 percent of Kenyans majority, majority of them have no access to mainstream banking by either choice or fate due to deep routed socio-economic and cultural factors thatfor a long time have worked to the women's disadvantage (Kimta, 2015). Based on the access to finance composite index developed by Honohan (2007), South of Saharan Africa has the lowest proportion, on the average, just about a fifth of the population have access to finance. It is then apparent that, one of the recent UN report argues that the overarching goal of financial inclusion requires the availability of a range of financial institutions offering a range of products and services at reasonable costs supported by legal and regulatory infrastructure (World Bank, 2007). In most scenarios, the poor are not seen to be 'bankable' by the formal financial sector and are uninsurable to the wide variety of risks they face (Morduch 1999; Dercon 2002).

In developing countries there are a big number of individuals who are financially under served. However, micro finance programmes and institutions have been recognized globally as a prospective component of strategies of development organizations, governments, and societies to promote enterprises in developing countries (Hulme, 2005). In Africa, during the past two decades micro finance schemes emerged as an alternative to ensuring access to financial services for small borrowers. Due to the limited success achieved by top-down policies and programmes as well as the no sustainability of previous government-backed credit programmes specially designed for the poor, many countries in Africa have followed the micro finance pathway (Aryeetey 2008). Barnes et al (2004) notes that Small enterprises and most of the poor population in sub-Saharan Africa have very limited access to deposit and credit facilities and other financial services provided by formal financial institutions. For example, in Ghana and Tanzania, only about 5-6 percent of the population has access to the banking sector. This lack of access to financial services from the formal financial system is quite striking, when one considers that in many African countries the poor represent the largest share of the population and that the informal sector is an important part of the economy.

The Women Enterprise Fund (WEF) was established through the Women Enterprise fund regulations under section 25 and 32 of the government financial management Act, 2004 Legal notice No.147 of August 2007. It was set up to specifically provide alternative financial services to women

who are excluded from the formal and informal financial sectors. It is meant to provide accessible and affordable credit to support women start or expand business for wealth and employment creation (GOK, 2009) as cited in (Oduk, 2010). WEF was established as a Semi-Autonomous Government Agency in the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development to champion Poverty Reduction, Gender Equality and Women Empowerment (1st & 3rd MDGs respectively) through enterprise development. The Fund is a flagship project in the Vision 2030 development road map for Kenya. Women aged 18 years and above are the primary targets of this fund. The fund is disbursed through loans from micro financial intermediaries and Constituency Women Enterprise Scheme that is managed by the Divisional Women Enterprise Committees (DWECs). (GOK, 2006) The loans are disbursed at two levels namely; individual women and women groups. For the Individual women the loans are disbursed through micro Finance Institutions which lend up to Ksh. 500,000 at a subsidized interest rate of 8% and for amounts above that the loan is forwarded to WEFAB. The Women group loan is processed through CWES which provides loans up to a maximum of Ksh. 50,000 per group at 0% interest rate with an administrative fee of 5% of the loan amount (GOK 2006 guidelines).

The rationale behind the setting up of the fund included empowering women to enable them engage more on their own family and countries' development, distribute wealth across social groups allowing women to borrow money to engage in business and other activities at a reasonable rates as well as enhancing access of resources to women in rural areas and finally, depoliticizing women's access to government financial support at the constituency level (GOK, 2006) Support services are also offered to the fund beneficiaries including capacity building of women, facilitation of local and international marketing of goods and services produced by women entrepreneurs, infrastructural development beneficial to women entrepreneurs, e.g. establishment of markets and development of linkages between women owned enterprises and big companies.

One of the greatest challenges to Kenya's development has been the increasing levels of poverty among the citizenry both in the urban and in the rural communities. This led to inequality in entitlement to political, civil, human rights as well as large disparities in incomes and access to education, health, land, clean water, housing and sanitation. Women more than men bore the brunt of these inequalities as they lack access to control of resources and means of production. To a large extent therefore women tend to suffer more from the adverse effect of poverty than the men (Muthuuri 2011). Despite efforts to increase women participation in development not much progress has been made. A survey conducted by the National Gender Commission on Gender issues in Kenya (2006) and a world Bank report on the Kenya Country Gender Assessment (2003) provide detail of poor progress on gender parity. In the face of these inequalities the government has continued to initiate various intervention strategies and programmes towards promotion of economic growth with the aim of reducing poverty and raising the living standards of life of Kenyans. Through these initiatives financial resources are increasingly being set aside through devolved funds. (Muthuuri, 2011).

As an industry, micro finance is a relatively new phenomenon in Kenya, with a few agencies starting about 20 or so years ago but the sector gaining the status of an industry only in the last 10 years. Kenya Rural Enterprise Programme (K-REP) can be considered the pioneer of NGO micro-finance in Kenya. The Kenya Rural Enterprise Programme (K-Rep) was established in 1984 by World

Education, Inc., a United States based private voluntary organization, with funding from the United States Agency for International Development. It is now one of the most innovative and successful microfinance schemes in Africa. K-Rep provides financial services to the poor who are typically excluded from the formal financial sector, thereby generating income and employment opportunities for low-income people (Dondo at el 2000). The experimental and financing activities of K-REP have had far-reaching consequences, influencing the outreach modalities and outreach by other microfinance programmes in Kenya. With generous support from USAID, K-REP was designed as an intermediary NGO in 1984 to provide credit and technical assistance to other NGOs in Kenya. Due to the pioneering and supportive roles of K-REP as well as donors much appreciating NGOs imitating the Grameen Bank approach, Kenya witnessed the emergence of quite some NGO-micro-finance agencies in the 1990s, using adapted versions of the Grameen Bank group-lending model. In this connection, one might say that Kenya evolved as the Bangladesh of Africa (K-REP 2001).

Kenya's microfinance industry has come a long way since the 1980s, and particularly since the landmark Microfinance Intermediaries Act of 2006. The country now has five deposit-taking microfinance intermediaries (MFIs) operating under a regulatory framework assessed by the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) as the best in Africa. Overall, the EIU rates Kenya as having the second best business environment for MFIs in all of Africa and one of the top ten in the world, (EIU2010). The formal sector employment was particularly hit by the decline in economic performance in last decade. While the formal sector wage employment grew by 2.1% in 1998, this rate declined to 0.6% in 1999, to 0.4% in 2000, and recorded a negative growth rate of -1.1% in 2001 (Republic of Kenya 2002). As the formal sector has declined, the informal sector has become increasingly important in the Kenyan economy as a source of employment and income. The share of employment between the formal and the informal sectors has changed drastically since then, with the latter overtaking the former in employment absorption. During the last decade, the growth rate in the informal sector's employment has remained above that of the formal sector. This has seen the sector's share in total employment rise from 16% in 1980, to 63.6% in 1997 and to 70% in 2000, (GOK 2002).

According to the Economic Survey by the Government of Kenya (2003), employment within the MSE sector increased from 4.2 million in 2000 to 5.1 million in 2002; with the informal sector accounting for 70.4 per cent of total employment opportunities. In 2001, the informal sector accounted for 72.8 per cent of total employment opportunities. This percentage rose to 74.3 per cent in 2002 and 76.5 per cent in 2004 (GOK Economic Survey, 2005). They have been in existence since the mid-1980s. They usually have 25 to 50 members who are low-income individuals seeking to improve their lives through self-employment activities. These members run the bank, elect their own officers, establish their own by-laws, distribute loans to individuals and collect payments and services (Grameen Bank, 2000a). The loans are backed by moral collateral; the promise that the group stands behind each loan (Global Development Research Centre, 2005).

Poverty reduction has been a major concern for successive governments in Kenya over the years because it is believed to be the universally accepted way of achieving economic growth in the country. It has been observed that in developed and middle level economies, microfinance has been applied as a poverty eradication strategy. It has been used to provide low-income people with small

grants, micro-credits and other microfinance services as an impetus to exploit their productivity and develop their business to help them improve their livelihoods (UNDP 2005). Microfinance has had strong links with women in development for some time. This means that for a long time, microfinance was used as an intervention strategy to address the marginalized situation of women with the hope that when the women accessed credit facilities, they would achieve socio-economic development and thereby contribute to the development of their communities. Despite this approach in fighting poverty through women economic empowerment, the rapid expansion of financial services in Kenya may not be translating into poverty reduction, a new survey by the Financial Sector Deepening Trust Kenya (2015) says. The donor-funded group that seeks to give low-income earners more access to financial products says there is little evidence correlating financial inclusion and a decline in poverty. "A more fundamental issue is the degree to which advances in headline financial inclusion is translating into meaningful change in the lives of poor people. Evidence here is ambiguous," says the group in its study that covers 10 years. This argument is supported by some research argue that micro-finance programmes divert the attention of women from other more effective strategies for empowerment (Ebdon, 1995), and the attention and the resources of donors from alternative, and possibly more effective means of alleviating poverty (Rogaly, 1996). They opine that in some cases women's increased autonomy has been temporary. It only benefits women who are already better off. But in most cases the poorest women are least able to benefit because of their low initial resources base, lack of skill and market contact. This is the motivation of doing this study given that in Trans Nzoia County, for a period of about two years, the researcher has observed groups of women who meet weekly or monthly to borrow money from village based banks-table banks. However, much as microfinance services have existed in Town for a period of time, there is lack of information on the good practices in the area and the exact magnitude of impact of the services on the women development. The fact that poverty still exists amidst the attempts of provision of microfinance creates room for exploring how far microfinance has benefited the women in Kitale Town. The researcher therefore was curious and motivated to find out the influence of table banking institutions on development of women: a case of Joyful Women organization in Trans Nzoia County. The specific objective of the study was to determine the influence of access to credit on women development in joyful women organisation Trans Nzoia County

ACCESS TO CREDIT AND WOMEN DEVELOPMENT

The concept of credit for women emerged from the insistence by women-oriented studies that there is discrimination against women when it comes to accessing micro finance (Manohar, 2007). Various evidence from literature support the fact that women entrepreneurs' lack of business capital and inability to access credit for business are occasioned by factors such as poverty, unemployment, low household and business income, lack of asset collateral and societal discriminations mostly in the developing countries (Peter,2001). In Kenya among the factors that affect entrepreneurship development in the country is inaccessibility to credit (Hellen, 2002). Women entrepreneurs lack adequate physical capital such as credit and savings for business which force them into quest for financial assistance (Kuzilwa, 2005). Macharia and Wanjiru (1998), in a study of NGOs and Women

small scale entrepreneurs in the garment manufacturing sector in Nyeri and Nairobi found that factors that inhibit credit to women include: lack of start-up capital; lack of awareness of existing credit schemes; high interest rates; lengthy and vigorous procedures for loan applications; and lack of collateral security for finance. Sessional paper No. 2 of 2005 also cites lack of access to credit as a major constraint inhibiting growth of SME sector and more so for women entrepreneurs. It further groups problems limiting SME acquisition of financial services as: lack of tangible security coupled with an inappropriate legal and regulatory framework that does not recognize innovative ways for lending to SMEs and the limited access to formal finance due to poor and insufficient capacity to deliver financial services to SMEs. Evidences from literature show that adequate credit aids entrepreneurship performance (Peter, 2001 Kuzilwa, 2005; Cater and Shaw, 2006). The results of such credit assistance to entrepreneurs especially women is often seen in improved income, output, employment and welfare of entrepreneurs (Kuzilwa, 2005) . Credit has been found to have positive impact on business performance in Kenya (TanzaniaKuzilwa, 2005, Uganda Samiha, 2007). The importance of credit access especially to women in Kenya has led to the establishment of Women Enterprise Fund to address the credit gap and support business development for women (KIPRA, 2010).

Detailed studies from Latin America, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa have indicated that rural women are more likely to be credit constrained than men of the same socio-economic status. It is strongly believed that with more access to micro finance their economic status will be better (Fltschner, 2009). Micro financing can be viewed as a way in which gender inequalities are addressed. MFIs have thus been able to create a financial system where no person is excluded and women's inclusion is increased (Wish, 2006). Generally women have been excluded due to a number of reasons such as; lack of property rights, productive and reproductive demands on women, restrictions due to household and child care responsibilities and lack of mobility (Oikocredit, 2009) as cited in (Lagat, 2012). Close to 50% of women in Kenya currently have access to credit which is mostly from informal savings and MFIs. This number is still too low which means that there is a reason for this trend.

A financial Access survey and (CBK 2009) revealed that only 17.8% women had access to formal finance in 2009, compared to 27.9% men. This was an increase from 23.8% male and 14.3% females having access to formal finance in 2006. In contrast, a higher promotion of women 33.4% than men 19.5% access informal finance. Although access to financial sector has been improving and has had tremendous benefits to the savers and investors, less than half households in developing countries have access to financial services as compared to 70% in developed countries (UN; 2009). Although micro financing women across the world has been considered successful, there is evidence that commercialization of MFIs has led to declining access to women. This conclusion was arrived at after a study was conducted in Asia, the Middle East, Latin America and Africa (Frank, 2008).

It is assumed that microcredit is what the poor want and need and that microcredit schemes directly help the poorest, especially women, within developing countries. It cannot be denied that there is an acute need among the poor for credit, both for consumption and production, which often forms the deciding line between survival and succumbing to poverty and access to microcredit has had a positive economic impact, but for those closer to the poverty line and not the poorest of the poor (Joy Deshmukh-Ranadive, 2005). Microcredit schemes targeting poorest women have become a major

plank of donor poverty alleviation strategy. But as much as donors like to see an immediate impact on empowerment and poverty, they are at the same time concerned about cost-efficiency and financial sustainability in reaching the poorest. Moreover, MFIs that provide individual loans increasingly focus on wealthier clients, a phenomenon that is often referred to as “mission drift” (Kulkarni, 2015).

To summarize, the link between the provision of microcredit and empowerment of women is weak. Credit interventions that are meant to augment incomes and lead to a ‘virtuous spiral’ of development do little to reduce poverty and alter gendered division of labour within household. The ‘extensive involvement of women in microcredit programs and remarkably high rate of credit repayment by women became a living testimony of the positive correlation between microcredit and empowerment.’ However, ‘numerical visibility of women in microcredit programs is a highly misleading indicator of qualitative dimension of empowerment’ (Fernando, 2006:25&27). It actually strengthens and reproduces exploitative patriarchal cultural norms and expectations. Unable to bring about a change in existing social structures characterized by inequality raises questions about the empowering potential of MC interventions.

Osman, 2000, in his article remarked that micro-finance schemes alone cannot alleviate poverty. The battle for total eradication of poverty requires combining micro-finance schemes with parallel, complementary programmes addressing the social and cultural dimensions of want, privation, impoverishment and dispossession. Kapoor, 2001, in her study tried to discuss, analyze and answer the challenging questions as to why despite all the efforts and progress made, still there continues to be so much of gender discrimination and what strategies, actions and measures to be undertaken to achieve the expected goal of empowerment. She opined that women’s empowerment is much more likely to be achieved if women have total control over their own organizations, which they can sustain both financially and managerially without direct dependence on others.

Pattanaik, 2003, in her study reveals that SHGs are continuously striving for a better future for tribal women as participants, decision-makers and beneficiaries in the domestic, economic, social and cultural spheres of life. But due to certain constraints like gender inequality, exploitation, women torture for which various Self Help Groups is not organized properly and effectively. Malhotra, 2004, in her book has examined how women entrepreneurs affect the global economy, why women start business, how women’s business associations promote entrepreneurs, and to what extent women contribute to international trade. It explores potential of micro-finance programmes for empowering and employing women and also discusses the opportunities and challenges of using micro-finance to tackle the feminisation of poverty. According to her, the microfinance programmes are aimed to increase women’s income levels and control over income leading to greater levels of economic independence. They enable women’s access to networks and markets, access to information and possibilities for development of other social and political role.

Sinha (2005) in his study has observed that microfinance is making a significant contribution to both the savings and borrowing of the poor in the country. According to him the main use of micro-credit is for direct investment. Some studies reveal that micro-finance programmes have had positive as well as negative impacts on women.

METHOD

This study adopted a descriptive research design with a target population of women active members of Joyful Women Organization in Trans Nzoia County. The organization was clustered into 25 wards in the county with each ward managed by a ward financial manager. According to the ward financial managers, there were a total of 1000 active women members in the organization. Hence, this made the total population for the study and a sample size of 370 respondents. The instrument for collecting data was questionnaire. The pilot was done to determine the validity and reliability of the tools to be used in data collection process. Prior to the commencement of data collection, the researcher obtained all the necessary documents, including an introduction letter from the University and a permit from the National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). To analyze quantitative data, the data was first screened and arranged in a systematic manner. Qualitative data analysis was used to summarize Information gathered from interviews and secondary data into relevant themes according to the research questions. Multiple regression analysis was applied to test the effect of one variable to the other.

DISCUSSION

The findings were represented on a five scale likert scale of SA=strongly agree, A=agree, N=neutral, D=disagree, SD=strongly disagree and T=total; recorded as in table 4.1

Table 4.1 Access to credit on women development

Statements		SA	A	N	D	SD	T
Ever taken credit from the table bank	%	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Duration given for loan repayment	%	4	30.9	28.7	22.7	13.7	100
Flexibility of terms for loan application	%	11.3	47.4	20.0	9.5	11.8	100
Ability to repay the loan on schedule	%	27.3	16.3	10.0	33.6	12.8	100

From table 4.1, the respondents were asked whether they had ever taken credit from the table bank. The distribution of findings showed that 100% of the respondents strongly agreed, that they had taken credit from the bank. Implied that the women were not just members but, active members who taken credit. The respondents were also asked whether the period they were offered credit against was sufficient to repay the credit. They indicated that 4% strongly agreed to the statement, 30.9% of them agreed, and 28.7% of them were neutral, 22.7% of them disagreed while 13.7% of them strongly disagreed to the statement. These findings implied that the women were given sufficient period for loan repayment. The respondents were also asked whether the loan requirement were

flexible compared to the main stream banks. Indicated that 11.3% strongly agreed to the statement, 47.4 percent of them agreed, 20.0% of them were neutral, 9.5% of them disagreed while 11.8% of them strongly disagreed to the statement. These findings implied that the terms for loans were favourable to members. The respondents were further asked whether they were able to pay back the loan on time. They indicated that 27.3% strongly agreed to the statement, 16.3% of them agreed, 10% of them were neutral while 33.6% and 12.8% of them disagreed strongly and disagreed to the statement respectively. These findings implied that majority of the members had difficulty in repaying back the loan within the prescribed period. The respondents were asked whether members ease to access to credit contributes to women development.

INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Pearson Correlation

The study sought to establish the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables 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 2.2 Correlation Matrix

		Women development
	Pearson Correlation	.665**
Access to credit	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	250

As shown on Table 4.2 above, the p-value for access to credit 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 0.665, which represented an average, positive relationship between access to credit on women development: a case of Joyful Women organization in Trans Nzoia county Kenya.

Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

Table 4.3 shows that the coefficient of correlation (R) is positive 0.528. This means that there is a positive correlation between table banking and women development. The coefficient of determination (R Square) indicates that 26.9% of women development at Joyful table banking is influenced by factors. The adjusted R^2 from only those variables whose addition in the model which were significant however, indicated that 24.2% of women development were influenced by factors leaving 75.8% to be influenced by other factors that were not captured in this study.

Table 4.3 Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.528 ^a	.269	.242	4.10619

a. Predictors: (Constant), access to credit,

a. Analysis of Variance

Table 4.3 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 women develop at Joyful women table banking. The results also indicate that the independent variables are predictors of the dependent variable.

Table 4.4 Test of ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	786.720	4	171.691	58.650	.000 ^b
Residual	2993.440	245	19.869		
Total	3780.160	250			

Regression Coefficients

From the table 4.4 of the Coefficients table, the regression model can be derived as follows:

$$Y = 43.518 + 0.622X_1$$

The results in table 4.5 indicate that all the independent variables have a significant positive effect on women development at Joyful Women organization in Trans Nzoia County. Access to credit was found to be with a coefficient of 0.378 (p-value = 0.023). According to this model when all the independent variables values are zero, women development will have a score of 43.518.

Table 4.5 Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	43.518	2.638		14.276	.000
Access to credit	.378	.171	.350	3.308	.024

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between access to credit and women development at joyful women organization.

From Table 4.7 above, access to credit ($\beta = 0.378$) was found to be positively related women development. From t-test analysis, the t -value was found to be 3.308 and the ρ -value 0.024. Statistically, this null hypothesis was rejected because $\rho < 0.05$. Thus, the study accepted the alternative hypothesis and it concluded that access to credit influences women development at Joyful Women organization.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the objective the findings showed all the respondents had taken credit from the organization. The respondents were also asked whether the period they were offered credit against was sufficient to repay the credit. Majority of the respondents agreed that the time for repayment was sufficient. These findings implied that the women were given sufficient period for loan repayment. It also showed that majority strongly agreed and agreed that the loans were flexible compared to bank loans. These findings implied that the terms for loans were favorable to members. On whether they were able to pay back the loan on time, majority were negative. These findings implied that majority of the members had difficulty in repaying back the loan within the proscribed period. On whether members ease to access to credit contributed to women development, the findings implied that the accessibility to credit has contributed to development of women. This could be the case despite the fact that a large portion uses the money to offload their daily expenses.

From hypothesis one, it was hypothesized that there was no significant relationship between access to credit and women development at joyful women organization. However from the β value from the 4.7 ($\beta = 0.378$) it showed a positive relationship on women development. The t-test analysis, the t-value was found to be 3.308 and the ρ -value 0.024. Statistically, this null hypothesis was rejected because $\rho < 0.05$. Thus, the study accepted the alternative hypothesis and it concluded that access to credit influences women development at Joyful Women organization.

Based on the findings, the researcher recommended the following:

That women should not only save with the table bank only to draw dividends at the end of a certain period but also, access credit since accessibility to credit had a significant positive effect on women development.

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