Pathways to African Feminism and Development

Women's Economic Empowerment

ISSN (online): 2309-3625

Volume 7, NO 1 ~ 2022



Special Issue

Feminist Finance: Connecting Women with Finance through Mobile Banking and Zakat

Lyla Latif, Tutorial Fellow

School of Law, University of Nairobi, Kenya

Abstract

This paper explores the use of the concept of 'zakat' to support the financial improvement of women from low-income households. It assesses the feasibility of remitting zakat over the M-PESA platform. M-PESA is a Kenyan mobile banking app that allows subscribers to send and receive money through their mobile phones without the use of the internet. The theory underpinning the paper's analysis of the use of zakat to support the economic improvement of women is based on tax justice and social extraction theories. Taken together, these theories suggest that redistribution can also be facilitated by non-state actors who apply their own norms in regulating how to spend their collective revenue towards improving the lives of women living in poverty. This paper, therefore, starts by highlighting the need for redistribution using taxes, extends the concept of conventional tax to include zakat and justifies this position by interrogating whether the Kenyan fiscal space and its constitution can recognise zakat as part of the tax system that supports the state to promote social and economic wellbeing. Whether zakat contributes to the social and economic improvement of people is examined by inquiring into a specific case study of Mama Riziki. The paper employs the discursive approach and is based on a mixed methods approach. The findings reveal that zakat based conscious financing can improve livelihoods at household level.

Key words: economic improvement, Kenya, non-state Muslim actors, women, zakat.

1.0 Introduction

Zakat is the Islamic form of tax on wealth that is paid annually by a Muslim at of2.5% that exceed 260,000 the rate on cash savings Shillings (approximately USD2600). There are four other categories on which zakat is also due; gold, land, livestock, and agriculture assessed at different rates. The term zakat signifies two specific categories: Zakat al fitr; which is paid during the month of *Ramadhan* as charity to the poor by each Muslim who fasted, and zakat al maal, the tax on wealth, which is the subject of this Paper. Both categories of zakat are mandatory under the Islamic faith. Zakat al fitr, however, is normally given to the poor as food ration. Zakat al maal usually takes the form of money.

This Paper considers the extent to which zakat supports the financial improvement of women from low-income households. It assesses the feasibility of remitting zakat over the M-PESA mobile based platform. M-PESA is a Kenyan mobile banking app that allows subscribers to send and receive money through their mobile phones without the use of the internet. Mobile banking can help create a potential revenue stream for a crowd sourced pool of social finance to support health care expenditure and other public services. It can help redistribute wealth and income and mitigate socio-economic inequalities. Mobile banking can be used to receive and transfer zakat funds towards those purposes. However, discussions on redistribution have tended to focus more narrowly on the political assessment of the fiscal system that governs how a nation targets social spending to improve lives (Greer and Elliott, 2019; Boix, 2003). Such institutional determination of redistribution has resulted in national economic orders that generate inequalities preventing those at the lowest socio-economic position and women in holding the state, the market, and the financial system accountable (Bowles, 2012; Fraser and Honneth 2003).

The attitudes of these state actors towards redistribution determine their political, legal, and economic approaches to accessing capital and labour, and setting out the structure of property rights that explains what kind of things can be owned and by whom, how they can be acquired, transferred, or forfeited. These attitudes barricade against women's access to finance limiting what they get, when and how. The origin of this problem arises out of the asymmetrical traditional gender-role divisions where patriarchal norms are core to the social power hierarchy. Men dominate women in the decision-making process. Social practices such as marriage that result in gender division of labour, economic

dependency on men and unpaid work, enable men to capture supremacy over women and reduce their mobility and economic opportunities (Lerner 1986).

It is such gender socialisation practices that are constructed at household levels and are resonated across institutions, that have restricted and excluded women from accessing finance. This Paper argues that such challenges can potentially be mitigated if zakat can be transferred using mobile banking to these women to support their access to finance. Does mobile banking, then have the potential to redistribute zakat to mitigate gender inequality by helping women meet their socio-economic needs? This Paper conceptualises redistribution from a private finance perspective. Indeed, questions on redistribution have been and are largely addressed within the public finance literature (Mumford, 2019; Latif, 2016; Boix, 2003; Lambert, 2001; Nee, 1989). A departure from the public finance perspective that results in redistributive choices is necessary if the world is to meet the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UN SDGs) target of "leaving no one behind". Hence, the role of non-state Muslim actors also becomes crucial to address redistribution. In this regard, this Paper uses a Faith Based Organisation's (FBO) approach to providing funds through mobile banking to support women meet their development needs. This offers fresh insights on two important aspects. First, into the role of redistribution through private finance and second, construing as part of private finance, available religious funds to meet development needs. This is where the idea of zakat can be assessed as contributing towards bridging gender inequality and to foster redistribution.

Mobile banking, arguably the next iteration of development models, is focused around creating a societal impact. This can be achieved through a timely matched demand for income and its supply by Muslim *zakat* payers. This can have the potential to revolutionise redistribution as an overlap between public and private finance practices. By focusing on a case study of '*Zakat Kenya*,' a Nairobi based FBO that crowd sources Muslim funds for economic improvement of women, relying partly on mobile banking, this Paper discusses how Zakat Kenya supports feminist inspired redistribution to promote tax justice. Accordingly, the next sections are structured as follows.

The Paper highlights the research questions and theoretical assumptions. The theory underpinning the Paper's analysis on the use of *zakat* to support the economic improvement of women is based on tax justice and social extraction. Taken together, these theories suggest that redistribution can also be facilitated by non-state actors who apply their own norms in regulating how to spend their

collective revenue towards improving the lives of women living in poverty. The Paper starts by highlighting the need for redistribution using taxes, extends the concept of conventional tax to include zakat and justifies this position by interrogating whether the Kenyan fiscal space and its constitution can recognise zakat as part of a tax system that supports the state to promote social and economic wellbeing. The next section discusses the qualitative and empirical based analysis of the role the FBO has played in using mobile banking to redistribute zakat towards women led income generating activities. Whether zakat contributes to the social and economic improvement of people is examined by inquiring into a specific case study of Mama Riziki. The Paper employs the discursive approach. Its empirical evidence is gathered using mixed methods. Thereafter the Paper concludes the discussion commenting on how two independent fiscal regimes can coordinate their norms to achieve redistributive justice. The interviews with Zakat Kenya officers provided sufficient data that forms the basis of this Paper. The permission to carry out interviews in Nairobi was granted by the National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation in Kenya under licence number NACOSTI/P/21/9445.

2.0 Framing the Argument: Tax and Redistribution in Fiscal Systems

Globally, in 89% of households, women provide unpaid care work (Rodriguez, 2021). In Kenya, women account for more than 50% of the working population in informal sectors (World Bank, 2020). These statistics indicate that unpaid care work and working in the informal sector restrict women's access to finance. These financial restrictions are partly because of cultural barriers framing gender roles, and institutions structured towards a service economy that is under the representative of women (Abraham, 2019; Enloe, 2017; Witz, 1992). Further, the market's emphasis on minimum state intervention and freedom of trade and capital has steered redistribution away from addressing gender related socioeconomic inequalities. Redistribution has, instead, been fostered to stimulate the growth of private markets, and to provide to entrepreneurs a path for socioeconomic mobility (Besley and Coate, 1991). It has created gendered wealth and income asymmetries and deepened gender inequalities in accessing finance.

Thus, whether mobile banking can bridge this inequality gap remains to be seen. This Paper attempts to explore how the concept of redistribution can be examined using *zakat*. It explains how Zakat Kenya in Nairobi matches *zakat* to meet development needs of women looking for financial access to improve their

economic well-being. The nexus between *zakat* and redistribution is advanced here by broadening the conventional understanding of tax to drawing in the Islamic funds purposively paid out for socio-economic improvements. The use of the word tax is usually understood by its coercive nature. Tax is an obligation based on the law. In Kenya, it is imposed under various statutes, the main law being the Income Tax Act, (revised edition, 2021). Under Islamic law, the *Quran* imposes the mandatory payment of *zakat* (Quran: Surah al Tawbah, verse 60). The payment of tax is secured by a functioning government operating within a legal system or by way of social extraction. The payment of *zakat* is made by taking God as a witness even in the absence of the revenue collecting authority. So, how does *zakat* relate to redistribution within the Kenyan constitutional legal system that does not recognise religious law as part of the norms establishing its tax system. This argument is established in the next section.

2.1 Societal Responsibility toward Redistribution

Every post-colonial state approaches its fiscal history in the context of the tax rules that were set out by the imperial power (Latif, 2022). This approach has not been challenged only because those tax rules gained international recognition as state practice in generating legal revenue through taxing income and profits. As a result, state formation following decolonisation adopted the imperial tax rules that were not reflective of indigenous practices in mobilising sources of revenues (Latif, 2020). The presence of Muslims in Kenya since the 7th century (Schoff, 1912; Huntingford, 1980) means that their contribution towards household economic improvement through *zakat* should be considered as part of the cognate forms of redistribution and as part of a fiscal system historically present as part of Kenya's indigenous social system. However, such analyses are rare. This is because tax is construed as bureaucratic and as a right of the state preserved under the social contract (Sheild Johannson 2020; Meagher 2018; Roitman 2007).

The social contract, western in its conceptualisation, omits religious funds to form part of the taxing state. Kenya had the opportunity to pick up on the practice of *zakat* as a source of domestic revenue but because of the law and religion divide, this consideration was never explored since independence. *Zakat*, therefore, remains excluded as part of public finance. Such exclusion also stripped its construction as a tax. Instead, analogies to the Christian tithe are made in reference to *zakat*, thereby removing it from forming part of the tax system of a constitutional state such as Kenya.

While the fiscal potential of the state is limited by the private economy's taxable capacity, which in turn determines state policy on redistribution, under

the Islamic fiscal system, redistribution responsibility lies within the social structure. The nexus between redistribution and social structure is the preserve of *zakat*. *Zakat*, in Kenya, is a social fact and as such plays a part in redistribution at household level. Just like the role of tax in development, *zakat* also fosters development (Powell, 2010; Kahf, 1995). While state taxes foster development at the national level, *zakat* fosters such development at individual or household level (Kahf 1995). As such, state taxes and *zakat* do have a potential to promote redistribution.

A *zakat*-based redistribution is the transfer of financial resources from private-to-private use and has the potential to achieve tax justice at the individual level. While at the state level, the government assumes that every citizen will be able to access public goods and services, the philosophy of *zakat* assumes that not every person will be able to access socio-economic goods and must, therefore, be supported individually. Being a tax imposed and governed under Islamic law, its distributive justice is prioritised for poor beneficiaries.

Relatedly, the role that mobile banking can play in redistribution should be examined in the context of *zakat*. Mobile banking, unless it is taxed by the state and the revenue matched to financing specific development goals, does not espouse tax justice. But when mobile banking is used by FBOs to provide access to finance to the unbanked and financially excluded persons from the financial system, its role in supporting redistribution becomes clear. FBOs govern social relations within a community and have the potential to generate revenue to provide development needs. Their role in social extraction and contribution to development, either independently or in coproduction with the state, is increasingly being recognised by scholars (Lust and Rakner, 2018; Beard, 2007; De Weerdt and Dercon, 2006; Besley, 1995; Fafchamps, 199; Udry, 1990; Platteau and Abraham, 1987). In the context of redistribution, faith-based contribution as part of social extraction for community development is critical to local development.

2.2 Social Extraction and Redistribution

Social extraction is influenced by social institutions, which include the rules that govern extraction (Lust and Rakner, 2018). With FBOs some of these rules include the obligation to pay *zakat* and the conditions around its use, which under Islamic law require *zakat* to be paid only to specific beneficiaries (the poor, needy, debtors, etc). Bhattamishra and Barrett (2008) relying on Ostrom (1990) convincingly argue that community (religious) norms, or local social institutions

have the potential to support political institutions to meet development needs. They can do this by determining how communities can support individual economic needs by soliciting community resources and redistributing them towards areas and people who need it the most. This theory of social extraction supporting redistribution has also been confirmed by Lust and Rakner (2018) as part of the development literature that highlights altruism and reciprocity.

Studies on altruism by Lust and Rakner (2018), Beard (2007), De Weerdt and Dercon (2006) and Besley (1995) often assume that only bilateral relations between individuals drive behaviour; for instance, that contributions to the elderly are an exchange only between the individual donor and the elderly recipient. However, if the community has a rule that the better endowed should aid the elderly (particularly when related to them) and punishes those who break that rule, then the threat of third-party punishment rather than altruism may explain the contributions. This Paper does not reject the notion that some individuals may contribute simply because they believe it is the right thing to do (Barkan et al, 1991) or because they feel close to the community (Fong and Luttmer, 2007), but expect that altruistic actions are conditioned on broader social and religious rules.

In FBOs there is a defined sense of community bound by religious norms, in which individuals view obligations and welfare in religious terms—akin to what Coleman (1990) calls a "communitarian ideology"—which facilitates the development and maintenance of social institutions. When this is present, individuals are more likely to view the demands on them as legitimate and to engage in third-party enforcement, hence the nexus between FBOs and redistribution. There is evidence, drawn from literature on both taxation and social extraction, that individuals hold such views. Bodea and LeBas (2016), Fafchamps (2003), Lieberman (2003), and Platteau (2000) note that people are willing to pay taxes that they see as benefiting the group they belong to, even if they themselves do not benefit.

State taxation also focuses on geographically defined communities (at the national, regional, or local level). As such, communities can also organise along the lines of religion to mobilise their available funds for development (Bhattamishra and Barrett 2008). FBOs are religion-focused institutions outside of the state that actors utilize to solicit resources. They are linked to communities, often defined by ethnicity, religion, occupation, or location, that may be overlapping. Relatedly social extraction by Zakat Kenya is linked to a clearly defined community – poor women, usually from low-income households.

The development of the post-colonial state into a modern tax state has suffused tax with development. This nexus has been strengthened through the logic of redistribution. It conceptualises the state as using taxes to intervene into the economic order by ensuring equitable provision and access to public goods and services. Arguably, the logic of redistribution seeks to ensure a justice-based integration of people within the economic, social, political, legal, and administrative structures of the state. Similar are the legal norms on zakat under Islamic law. Islam as a legal system itself lends normative quality to the conceptualisation of zakat as tax. As a fiscal system recognised under Article 2(4) of the Kenyan Constitution the analogy of zakat to taxation confirms the existence of a hybrid fiscal system; one operational at state level, and the other, as a social fact. Article 2 (4) recognise norms constructed outside the Constitution as long as the norms conform to the Constitution. Articles 169 and 170 which established the kadhis courts (Islamic courts), recognise Islamic sources of law. Such fiscal pluralism permits broadening our understanding of redistribution to result out of the two socio-legal systems.

Zakat, therefore, can improve representation and help make Muslim payers more responsive to the needs of their fellow citizens. It can create a potential revenue stream for a crowd-sourced pool of privately sourced finance to meet, for example, health care expenditure and other public services at community level. The use of zakat, when combined with appropriate public spending, can help redistribute wealth and income and mitigate socio-economic inequalities. Having set out these theoretical underpinnings related to tax justice in the context of zakat, the next section examines the role that a FBO has played in using mobile banking to redistribute zakat towards women led income generating activities.

3.0 M-PESA Led Tax Justice: From Financial Patriarchy to Financial Feminism with *Zakat*

The argument of fiscal systems approach to redistribution and conceptualising *zakat* as a tax practice by the Kenyan Muslims provides fresh insights into the idea of tax justice. The idea of tax justice negates gender discrimination. Hence, this section examines whether Zakat Kenya, a Nairobi based FBO, has had any impact in fostering redistribution using mobile banking to provide *zakat* to financially excluded poor women supporting their income generating activities.

This section analyses the empirical evidence gathered from interviews with Zakat Kenya officers and reviewing the official documents shared by them. Structured interview questionnaires were designed to ask the following questions. First, what sources of revenue did the FBO have access to, from whom and if

there were any conditions governing the distribution of the received funds. Second, to what extent did the FBO rely on mobile banking. Third, the role that the FBO played in meeting the development needs of women. Fourth, the methods used to collect and distribute the received funds. Fifth, to what extent does the FBO consider the role it plays in fostering redistribution. The discursive approach was utilised to understand and analyse the answers to these questions.

2.3 Zakat as Part of Tax Justice

Zakat has a socio-legal side to it. So often, locked out state tax measures, it is not present in the literature on fiscal sociology in spite of its important contribution with regards to the rights and obligations of zakat payers to promote social welfare. This is because zakat does not form part of a non-Islamic state's taxation laws. However, the theory of social extraction and its potential towards supporting redistribution, advances the reconstruction of tax justice to also be understood through the lens of Islamic fiscal law. Tax justice, seen as a function of social control, enables readjustment of economic power between social groups and combatting social abuses. Technology has shown its potential to aid in this. These aspects are discussed next in the context of the role of FBO in using mobile banking to promote redistribution towards poor women in Nairobi, thereby strengthening tax justice.

In the traditional Kenyan society where, patriarchal norms are core to the social power hierarchy, men dominate women in the decision-making process. Social practices such as marriage that result in gender division of labour, economic dependency on men and unpaid work enable men to capture supremacy over women and reduce their mobility and economic opportunities. Such gender socialisation practices that are constructed at household levels have restricted and excluded some women from accessing finance. Whether mobile banking provides an opportunity for a paradigm shift in gender relations and contributes to breaking apart the gender barriers to finance is the focus of this Paper.

Patriarchy has been described by Shepherd (2019) as a system of power in which male privilege and superiority over women are manifested, institutionalised, and self-reproducing across a society as a whole. Patriarchy has also been described as a historical creation which places the family as a core unit and basic foundation of social organisation by assembling gender roles for different sexes at households (Lerner, 1986). Financial decision making at household levels is usually guided through the patriarchal gender relations. This leads to economic discrimination and exploitation of women and is a major

impediment to their empowerment. The mobile banking's emancipatory financial approach is resulting in the transformation of the social norm in traditional societies that vests financial decision making as part of the family governance structure from the patriarchal system to a feminist one.

3.1 Mobile Banking and Redistribution

Mobile banking represents the combination of finance and technology. It is the resulting combination between the finance and technology sectors and relates to the whole plethora of technology that is used in finance to facilitate trade, business or interaction and services provided to the consumer. Mobile banking can be seen as an economic industry composed of companies that use technology to make financial systems more efficient (McAuley, 2015). It presents a form of integration of technology into the area of local and transnational financial services.

Kenya's M-PESA platform, developed through a public-private partnership between the Department for International Development (DFID) and Vodafone, and its partner in Kenya, Safaricom, is a bank tech innovation that allows mobile users with a Safaricom sim card to access the platform on their phones to store, send, receive, and borrow money. The development of the mobile phone from simple text messaging to the provision of mobile money accounts has brought in greater access to finance which previously was restricted by the financial industry to the formally banked population with the ability to offer security.

M-PESA, arguably, then provided the first shift against the gendered implications of the financial structure. Women with a mobile phone could access finance directly and secretly. Their husbands or male member of their household being unaware of the received funds would not be able to control it. Studies by Shohel et al (2021) examining the role of microfinance institutions in supporting women led projects revealed that women sometimes have little or no control over their loans, with the husband or male family member making all decisions. M-PESA, thus, provided women with greater control and decision making over their funds.

3.2 Zakat Kenya and Redistribution towards Women Economic Empowerment

Historically, women have faced multiple challenges, among them poverty, unemployment, limited access to land, legal and social discrimination in many forms, sexual abuse, and other forms of violence (Mikell, 1997; Lombard and

McMillan, 2013; Eastin and Dupuy, 2021). All these interlocking problems, alongside patriarchy, have contributed to their financial disempowerment and excluded them from planning and financing their own development projects. The idea behind forming Zakat Kenya in Nairobi was to help empower the poor by channelling funds to support their low-income, to purchase food and medical supplies for poor households and to support payment of their children's school related expenses. Zakat Kenya also specifically supports women and designs small informal projects for them after assessing their skills. In so doing, the FBO seeks to support their basic needs approach by coming up with income-generation strategies and skill development for women drawn upon the use of *zakat*.

Zakat Kenya is a registered FBO under the Kenyan law. Its office is situated on the first floor in Masjid Rahma in the Hurlingham area, in Nairobi County. Its primary objective is to use zakat towards socio-economic improvement. It is run by a group of youth, mainly men who are working professionals but have dedicated time to match the supply of zakat with the demand for funds from poor households. While the FBO accepts zakat in cash, the majority of the zakat payers remit the funds via the M-PESA platform. Zakat Kenya is not limited to only accepting zakat, but also receives sadaqa (financial charity), which is usually donated frequently. In comparison, zakat is paid annually, and is usually substantial in amount. For example, the minimum individual amount paid in sadaqa is Kenya Shillings 20 (USD 0.20 calculated at the rate of 1USD = 100Kshs) and KShs 5000 (USD 50) in zakat. The maximum individual amount paid in sadaqa is Kshs 1000 (USD10) and Kshs 250,000 (USD2500) in zakat. Having perused the accounting books of Zakat Kenya, the total zakat received in 2019 amounted to Kshs 1,908,500 (USD19085) collectively contributed by 280 Muslims.

3.3 Achieving Distributive Justice through Zakat

Zakat is based on the principle of distributive justice. It conceives social interaction as the basis for apportioning resources vertically among its members. Its aim is to distribute wealth across members of society in so far as it increases their welfare. Guided along this thinking, Zakat Kenya provides to poor households by supporting the household head (usually a male) to start a small sized, informal business enterprise. Women from poor, low-income households are also separately supported. Zakat Kenya has helped several women led households start a specific catering business, such as selling 'mahambri na baazi' (type of doughnut with pea beans) for breakfast, 'maharagwe na chapati' (kidney

beans and a type of local tortilla wrap) for lunch, and setting up small roadside kiosks to sell vegetables, milk, oil, and bread. The organisation has helped women secure business leases and pay rent on their behalf in advance for two or three months to support these women to start their businesses. The FBO seeks out *zakat* which is remitted to the organisation via its M-PESA platform and directly sent out to the women whose project is being supported. The example of Mama Riziki is used to explain the process.

3.4 Case Study: Mama Riziki

Mama Riziki is a 36-year-old mother with four (4) children. She lives in Kibera, the largest slum area in Nairobi County. Her husband is a *jiko* maker (charcoal stove) and sets out for work daily looking for customers. He sits by the roadside under a sign advertising his services at the entrance to the Kariokor market in Nairobi. Work is not *guaranteed*. Mama Riziki works as a house maid earning a daily wage of Kshs 200 (USD 2). They both support each other in meeting their household's basic needs. Mama Riziki approached Zakat Kenya for financial help. The organisation instead interviewed Mama Riziki to get an idea on how to help her secure a sustainable stream of income. After the interview, a decision was made to support Mama Riziki start a food business from home and deliver the food to Kirinyaga road near the bus station in Nairobi. The site was seen as an attractive location to target travellers. Mama Riziki would be selling 'maharagwe na chapati' during lunch hours at a cost of Kshs 25 for the chapati and Kshs 60 for the maharagwe.

The costs of procuring an annual licence from the city council to sell food, the purchase of food items, cooking utensils, a gas cooker, a fridge, cutlery, takeaway food containers, 2 large hotpots to carry the food items in, and transport costs from Kibera to Kirinyaga road was initially covered by Zakat Kenya. Mama Riziki was trained on how to plan a budget and manage her accounts. An officer from Zakat Kenya would help her set up the food business and guide her until she was confident to run the business on her own and properly manage the funds. Mama Riziki was supported for two months, and all the income made during the two months was properly apportioned between meeting her daily needs and saving towards her business expenses. Mama Riziki was required to deposit all income received daily, after deducting her basic needs, to her M-PESA account. The total amount required to support Mama Riziki start up her food business was calculated at Kshs 51280 (USD513). The table below summarises these expenses.

Item	Cost in Kenya Shillings
House rent for 2 months	7,000
New gas cooker	8,000
A small fridge	7,000
Cooking utensils	12,000
Takeaway food containers	2,000
Hotpots	3,500
20kg flour	2,400
20kg kidney beans	3,500
10kg oil	2,500
6kg salt	180
Return transport costs for 2 months	3,200
Total	51,280

Mama Riziki's profile was shared by *Zakat* Kenya on its Facebook Page and website and zakat payers were asked to contribute towards her economic improvement. Four *zakat* payers contributed towards the targeted amount. The money was sent through M-PESA. In her first month she earned Kshs 17,925 (USD179) compared to Kshs 6000 (USD60) that she would have earned as a house maid. To continue supporting herself, Mama Riziki needs a monthly income of about Kshs 10,100 (USD 101). Her first earnings from zakat, show her potential to generate her required monthly income.

Saving money on her M-PESA account and transacting over her phone gave Mama Riziki full control over how she wanted to spend her money without seeking approval from her husband or giving him access to her savings. Her *zakat* financed food business resulted in reducing her household poverty, raising her income, enabling her to save funds for future investments and because she contributed significantly to the household expenses, it gave her power to make her own decisions.

Currently, in Kenya, transactions conducted over the mobile banking platform are taxed. For example, making payments using M-PESA attracts transaction fees. Smart phones have supported socio-economic development by permitting women, for example, to receive crowd sourced charity and simultaneously make payments using only their phones towards purchasing flour, rice, eggs, meat, milk, beans and make meals from these items for sale. The regulation of M-PESA and imposing transactions costs for making or sending payments facilitates government to achieve its socio-economic obligations. However, this obligation is not because of government's redistributive effect but that of the private sector, as observed through the case study of Mama Riziki. In

earning her income, Mama Riziki contributes to the development of the Kenyan economy. The transaction costs she pays to transact using her M-PESA account forms part of the pool of sources of revenue available to the government. This in turn empowers her to seek accountability from the state and hold the government responsible for the provision of social services. Mobile banking, being a convenient model for social extraction, connecting wealthy citizens with the poor to help them seek out income streams provides some insight into the nexus between tax and redistribution as understood in the Islamic sense.

3.0 Conclusion

The wealth of an economy and its distributive structures can be influenced by many factors relevant to economic growth. This can include *zakat*. The conservative approach which takes only state law to represent the epitome of tax law perpetuates the legal centralist beliefs about the pre-eminence of state law which fiscal pluralism is supposed to undermine. *Zakat*, governed by Islamic fiscal law is part of a fiscal system recognised under the constitution of Kenya in so far as it conforms to the Constitution.

The Kenyan society is filled up with a multiplicity of normative orders that justify social extraction, which should be explored as part of achieving redistribution. The findings here have revealed that *zakat* based conscious financing can improve livelihoods at a household level. The Paper has shown that *zakat* can achieve redistributive justice through financial inclusion. Zakat Kenya and the M-PESA platform have facilitated the potential for Mama Riziki to earn her living. This is one case showing a positive financial impact. It may not be sufficient to generalise, but it shows the potential of *zakat* to support income growth and access to finance.

References

- Abraham, K. (2019). Persisting Patriarchy. Intersectionalities, Negotiations, Subversions. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ahmad, K and Hassan, A. (2000). Distributive Justice: The Islamic Perspective. *Intellectual Discourse*, 8(2): 159-172.
- Barkan JD, McNulty ML, Ayeni MAO. (1991). 'Hometown' Voluntary Associations, Local Development, and the Emergence of Civil Society in Western Nigeria. *J. Mod. Afr. Stud.* 29(3): 457–80.
- Beard VA. (2007). Household Contributions to Community Development in Indonesia. *World Dev.* 35(4): 607–25.

- Besley T. (1995). Nonmarket Institutions for Credit and Risk Sharing in Low-Income Countries. *J. Econ. Perspect.* 9(3): 115–27.
- Besley, T and Coate, S. (1991). Public Provision of Private Goods and the Redistribution of Income. *The American Economic Review*, 81 (4): 979-984.
- Bhattamishra R, Barrett CB. (2008). Community-Based Risk Management Arrangements: An Overview and Implications for Social Fund Programs. Soc. Prot. Disc. Pap. 0830, World Bank, Washington, DC.
- Bodea C, LeBas A. (2016). The Origins of Voluntary Compliance: Attitudes toward Taxation in Urban Nigeria. Br. J. Political Sci. 46(1): 215–38.
- Boix, C. (2003). Democracy and Redistribution. Cambridge University Press.
- Bowles, S. (2012). *The New Economics of Inequality and Redistribution*. Cambridge University Press.
- Coleman J. (1990). Foundations of Social Theory. Cambridge, UK: Belknap Press.
- De Weerdt J, Dercon S. (2006). Risk-Sharing Networks and Insurance against Illness. *J. Dev. Econ.* 81(2): 337–56.
- Eastin, Joshua and Dupuy, Kendra. (2021). Gender, Climate Change and Livelihoods: Vulnerabilities and Adaptations. CABI.
- Enloe, C. (2017). The Big Push. Exposing and Challenging the Persistence of Patriarchy. University of California Press.
- Fafchamps M. (1992). Economy, Solidarity Networks in Preindustrial Societies: Rational Peasants with a Moral Economy. *Econ. Dev. Cult. Change* 41(1): 147–77.
- Fafchamps M. (2003). *Rural Poverty, Risk and Development*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Financial Stability Board. (2017). "Financial Stability Implications from FinTech: Supervisory and Regulatory Issues that Merit Authorities' Attention."
- Fong CM, Luttmer EFP. (2007). What Determines Giving to Hurricane Katrina Victims? Experimental Evidence on Income, Race, and Fairness. Work. Pap. Ser. No. 13219, 2008: 64–87, Natl. Bur. Econ. Res., Cambridge, MA.
- Fraser, N and Honneth, A. (2003). *Redistribution or Recognition? A Political-Philosophical Exchange*. VERSO.
- Greer, SL and Elliott, H. (2019). Federalism and Social Policy: Patterns of Redistribution in 11 Democracies. University of Michigan Press.

- Goetz A. and SenGupta R. (1996). Who Takes the Credit? Gender, Power, and Control over Loan Use in Loan Programmes in Rural Bangladesh. World Development, *Elsevier*, vol. 24(1), 45-63.
- Huntingford, G. W. B. 1980. The Periplus of the Erythraean Sea (London).
- Kahf, M. (1995). Applied Institutional Models for Zakat Collection and Distribution in Islamic Countries and Communities, in *Institutional Frameworks of Zakah: Dimensions and Implications* (Ahmed Abdel Fattah ek Ashker and Muhammed Sirajul Haq eds).
- Lambert, P. (2001). *The Distribution and Redistribution of Income*. Manchester University Press.
- Latif, L. (2020). The Evolving Thunder: The Challenges around Imposing the Digital Tax in Developing African Countries. *International Journal of Digital Technology and Economy*, vol 4, no. 1. DOI: 10.31785/ijdte.4.1.4.
- Latif, L. A. (2016). Centralised Revenue Redistribution as a Potential Cause of Internal Conflict in Kenya. *Modern Africa: Politics, History and Society*, 4(1): 91-105.
- Latif, L. (2022). Improving Livelihood at Household Level with Zakat Based Conscious Financing, AZKA International Journal of Zakat and Social Finance Vol. 3, No. 1.
- Latif, L. (2022). The Lure of the Welfare State Following Decolonisation in Kenya, in *Imperial Inequalities*, edited by Gurminder Bhambra and Julia McClure, MUP (forthcoming).
- Lee D, Chuen K & Teo, E. (2015). Emergence of FinTech and the LASIC Principles, 3 *J. Fin. Perspectives: FINTECH* 2, 4.
- Lerner G. (1986). *The Creation of Patriarchy*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Leroy, M. (2008). Tax Sociology. Socio-political Issues for a Dialogue with Economists. *Socio-logos*. 3.
- Lieberman E. (2003). *Race and Regionalism in the Politics of Taxation in Brazil and South Africa*. New York: Cambridge Univ. Press.
- Lombard, Nancy and McMillan, Lesley. (2013). Violence Against Women: Current Theory and Practice in Domestic Abuse, Sexual Violence and Exploitation. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Lust, E and Rakner, L. (2018). The Other Side of Taxation: Extraction and Social Institutions in the Developing World. *Annu. Rev. Political Sci.* 21:277-94.
- McAuley, D. (2015). What is FinTech? Wharton FinTech.

- Meagher, Kate. (2018). "Taxing Times: Taxation, Divided Societies and the Informal Economy in Northern Nigeria." *Journal of Development Studies* 54 (1): 1–17.
- Mikell, Gwendolyn. (1997). African Feminism: The Politics of Survival in Sub-Saharan Africa. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Mumford, A. (2019). What is Fiscal Sociology? in: *Fiscal Sociology at the Centenary*. Palgrave Socio-Legal Studies. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Nee, Victor. (1989). A Theory of Market Transition: From Redistribution to Markets in State Socialism *American Sociological Review*, 54(5): 663-681.
- Ostrom E. (1990). Governing the Commons. The Evolution of Institutions for Collective Action. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge Univ. Press.
- Philippon, T. (2016). The FinTech Opportunity 2.
- Platteau J-P. (2000). *Institutions, Social Norms and Economic Development* Amsterdam: Hardwood Academic Publishers, Amsterdam
- Platteau J-P, Abraham A. (1987). An Inquiry into Quasi-Credit Contracts: The Role of Reciprocal Credit and Interlinked Deals in Small-Scale Fishing Communities. *J. Dev. Stud.* 23(4): 461–90
- Powell, R. (2010). Zakat: Drawing Insights for Legal Theory and Economic Policy from Islamic Jurisprudence. 7 *PITT. Tax Rev* 43.
- Rodriguez, Leah (2021). Unpaid Care Work: Everything You Need to Know. *Global Citizen*.
- Roitman, Janet. (2007). The Right to Tax: Economic Citizenship in the Chad Basin. *Citizenship Studies* 11 (2): 187–209.
- Schoff, W. H. (1912). Introduction. The Periplus of the Erythraean Sea. Translated from the Greek and Annotated by Wilfred H. Schoff. New York: Longman
- Shepherd LJ. (2019). *Handbook on Gender and Violence*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Shield Johansson, M. (2020). Taxes for Independence, *Social Analysis* 64(2), 18-37.
- Shohel TA, Niner S., Gunawardena S. (2021). How the Persistence of Patriarchy Undermines the Financial Empowerment of Women Microfinance Borrowers? Evidence from a Southern Sub-District of Bangladesh. *PLoS ONE* 16(4).
- Udry C. (1990). Credit Markets in Northern Nigeria: Credit as Insurance in a Rural Economy. *World Bank Econ. Rev.* 4(3): 251–69.
- Witz, A. (1992). Professions and Patriarchy. Routledge.

World Bank (2020). Kenya Economic Update: Turbulent Times for Growth in Kenya – Policy Options during the Covid19 Pandemic.