

**INFLUENCE OF LABOUR CONDITIONS ON PERSONAL INCOME
GROWTH FOR WOMEN WORKING IN HORTICULTURAL FARMS :A
CASE OF TIMAU DIVISION, MERU COUNTY.**

BY

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**A RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE
DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN PROJECT PLANNING AND
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DECLARATION

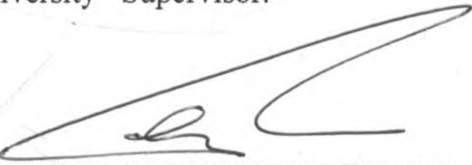
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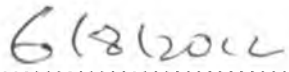
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DECLARATION BY THE SUPERVISOR

This research project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor.


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.....

Date:

DEDICATION

I sincerely dedicate this project to my family especially my mum and dad for their support and prayers throughout this course.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Christopher Gakuu for his great assistance in designing and compiling this research project. Special thanks go to all my lecturers who tirelessly took me through the whole course. I cannot forget the respondents from Timau horticultural farms for assistance in data collection. Special thanks go to Javan kiira for the patience during the whole study period. Special thanks go to Hon. Kilemi Mwiria for the logistical support in the entire study period.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BSCI	:	Business Social Compliance Initiative
EPZ	:	Export Promotion Council
ETI	:	Ethical Trading Initiative
FPEAK	:	Fresh Produce Exporters Association of Kenya
GOK	:	Government of Kenya
HCDA	:	Horticultural Crop Development Association
HEBI	:	Horticultural Ethical Business Initiative
ICC	:	International Code of Conduct
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
IMF	:	International Monetary Fund
IPM	:	Integrated Pest Management
KHCP	:	Kenya Horticulture Competitive Project
USAID	:	United States Agency for International Development
PPEs	:	Personal protective equipments

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ABSTRACT

Despite modernization of production, horticulture remains a labour intensive sector, with labour accounting for 50-60 percent of farm costs. A significant amount of this employment is temporary and female. Gender segregation is common with men occupying more senior permanent positions and women concentrated in more insecure temporary positions. The temporary class of workers does not benefit from the security and legislated entitlements of permanent employment, and often do not even receive those benefits to which they are legally entitled as temporary workers. Better incomes and employment conditions are generally found at higher levels of the hierarchy. Workers at the lower end especially the non-permanent experience low wages and increasingly insecure employment. It is in this perspective that the research study intended to investigate what factors have contributed to these unfavorable labour conditions and how they affect personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.

The objectives of this study were to investigate the influence of training on personal income growth, influence of gender on personal income growth and influence of labour codes of practice used in the horticultural sector on personal income growth for women. Three farms were sampled using simple random sampling technique. A sample size of 100 workers was determined using stratified random sampling. These farms are located in Timau Division, Meru County. These farms were: Finlays, Tima and Lobelia. The research design employed was descriptive design. Data were collected using questionnaires and interview schedules. Data was analyzed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Results was presented in frequencies, percentages and tables. The results of the study indicated that the kind of training offered had little influence on employees income. The influence of gender on income growth was pronounced. Most of unaddressed gender issues limited personal income growth of women. However labour codes of practice issues had strong influence on income growth of employees. Based on study findings it was revealed that when labour issues were addressed personal income of women would be enhanced. However recommendation were made for further research on areas that were not exhaustively researched on.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study

Recently the Kenyan government unveiled its ambitious strategic plan named the Kenya Vision 2030; a globally competitive and prosperous Kenya. While vision 2030 depends on general growth for most of its impact, it articulates a range of actions in six specific sectors, agricultures being one of them.

According to EPZ agriculture accounts for about 20% of Kenyans Gross Domestic product with an estimated 75% of the population depending on the sector either directly or indirectly. The horticultural sub-sector of agriculture has growth in the last decade to become a major foreign exchange earner, employer and contributor to food needs in the country.

Horticulture is the leading country's source of foreign exchange a long remittances from Kenyan living abroad and tea exports. The sub-sector earned Kshs 91.6 Billion from sale of flowers, fruit and vegetables in 2011. This is 18% rise compared to the previous years. USAID Kenya Horticulture Competitive Project (KHCP)

Bruisma (2008) points out that most horticultural products in developing sub-Saharan countries are produced in small farms and often in labour intensive ways. He argues that with appropriate policies and technologies, horticultural production can contribute towards increasing the incomes of small scale farmers, expanding employment opportunities, enhancing rural development and important source of foreign exchange earnings.

Dolan, et al (2003) concurs with Bruisma on how commercial horticulture which provides the route out of poverty trap may end up ensuring temporary women workers in the some poverty trap. He points out that the indecent working conditions such as long working hours for low pay, and rare access to benefits such as sick pay, medical care and maternity leave . Poverty is compounded by women productive and reproduction roles. The benefits that enable women to balance unpaid caring work with paid work are often not extended to temporary workers. These temporary workers receive the lowest incomes Kritzinger and Barrientos (2004).

Smith, et al (2004) support the same view that women in temporary and contract employment status are likely to work for shorter periods in the year than men limiting their personal income growth.

Kritzinger and Barrientos (2004) contends that despite modernization of production, horticulture remains a labour intensive sector, with labour accounting for 50-60 percent of farm costs. A significant amount of this employment is temporary and female. Gender segregation is common with men occupying the more senior permanent position and women concentrated in more insecure temporary positions. This includes fixed- term contracts of between one and six months and casual day work. Despite the fact that many workers are employed most of the year and repeatedly return to the same employer they are still classed as temporary. They do not benefit from the security and legislated entitlement of permanent employment and often do not receive those benefits to which they are legally entitled as temporary workers.

However supermarket retailing has provided a potential route for addressing the vulnerability of workers in commercial horticulture. Many European Supermarkets. now have codes of labour practice which sets minimum rights of workers in relation to issues such as health and- safety, pay and hours of work, and which supplies have to uphold. Better codes of practice are based on core international labour organization conventions which cover discrimination and freedom of association as well as child labour and forced labour. However while codes benefits permanent workers they often fail to reach temporary migrant and contract workers and one weak in addressing gender issues .Smith et al (2004). This research study will thus investigate the nature of these labour codes of practice, their implementation and their audit to establish whether they have been effective in improving labour conditions for personal income growth of women workers in the horticultural farms.

Many studies carried out in the horticultural sector have all pointed out that the returns from employment and products have reduced poverty levels. However no single study has exhaustively looked at how unfavorable labour conditions have limited the personal income growth of women workers. Further the study will investigate

whether training of horticultural farm workers influence employment status and level of income for women workers. The study will further explore the influence of culture and Gender on employment status of women. Sexual division of labour will be looked at. Gender stereotyping and gender roles will be studied

1.2 statement of the Problem

The 2004 Kenyan Poverty Reduction strategy paper (IMF 2005) states that poverty in Kenya had risen from about 48.8 percent in 1990 to 55.4 percent in 2001. In total over 20 Million Kenyans were living below the poverty line. The non-income dimensions of poverty also worsened during the same period (IMF 2005), It is against this background of widespread poverty that the research study aims at understanding the contribution of horticultural industry to poverty reduction .

Some studies have been done to show how horticultural subsector contributes in poverty reduction. McCuNoch and Ota (2002) report the results of a household survey in which they attempt to establish the linkage between export horticulture and poverty reduction. They present evidence that shows households involved in export horticulture have a significantly lower incidence of poverty especially in rural areas.

Dolan and Sutherland (2003), present data from field study in 2001 where majority of workers interviewed felt that working in the horticultural industry had made a positive impact into their lives. However, Kenyan horticultural, industry depends on migrant and female labour, Dolan et al (2003). These workers are pushed away from their homes due to land fragmentation and high unemployment. However, with regard to the industry capacity for poverty reduction , the greatest limitation is the use of high levels of non- permanent work arrangements which implies a situation of low income and insecurity in employment. The most affected people are the female who have to juggle between productive and reproductive roles.

According to Smith et al. (2004) majority of workforce in Kenyan horticultural farms is female who form over 75% of total labour force. He points out that many of labour rights issues have a specifically gender dimension. Women occupy insecure and temporary positions while men are concentrated in more permanent senior positions. This has brought disparity in income. Timau division has several horticultural farms

where women specifically are faced with the harsh labour conditions highlighted above. However no single study which has exhaustively researched on the relationship between employment conditions and personal income growth. It is with the above evidence that this study attempts to fill the research gap by investigating the influence of labour conditions on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose for the study was to investigate the influence of labour conditions on personal income growth for women working in horticultural farms, a case of Timau Division , Meru County.

The study findings will provide information to guide relevant authorities and horticultural farm owners and all those in the value chain to address labour condition issues to increase the income of workers and improve the farms productivity.

The study will also make recommendations that can be further researched by other scholars in the field of horticulture.

1.4. Objectives of the study

- i. To assess the contribution of training on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms in Timau.
- ii. To assess the influence of Gender on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms in Timau.
- iii. To assess the influence of labour codes of practice on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms in Timau.

1.5 Research Questions

- i. How does training influence personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.
- ii. How does Gender influence personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms

iii. In what ways does the labour codes of practice influence the personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.

1.6. Significance of the Study

The study intend to benefit majority of women workers in horticultural farms especially in creating awareness on their legal entitlement pertaining to working conditions.

The study findings and recommendations would assist policy planners in formulating policies that would improve the working conditions of workers in horticultural sub-sector.

The findings would also serve as an eye opener to consumers of horticultural products especially the European retailers on the efficacy of labour codes of practice they are involved in formulating .The findings will establish whether these codes have any relevance or necessity in improving labour conditions in horticultural industry.

1.7. Delimitations of the Study.

The study took place in Timau Division. The division is cosmopolitan with very many migrant workers coming in search of employment from the vast horticultural farms in the division. The area has several horticultural farms, where some are locally owned while others are owned by foreigners. The study sampled three farms and collected data from a sample of 100 workers. The sample composed of the management and all categories of workers that is; temporary, casual, permanent and seasonal workers. The main objectives was be to investigate the influence of labour conditions on personal income growth of women working in these horticultural farms.

1.8 Limitations of the Study.

The study was limited by several challenges; time to cover exhaustively the labour conditions of workers in horticultural farms.

Also some managers were not willing to reveal some sensitive information that touches on the labour conditions. The researcher overcame this by applying a number of data collection techniques including questionnaires and interviews. The population of the workers was so large and the researcher used a sample of one hundred workers spread

across three horticultural farms. However the respondents who never cooperated to volunteer information were convinced that the information would be used for academic purpose only and not for any other purpose.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

It was assumed that the information given by the respondent by use of questionnaire and interviews was truthful. It was also assumed that the sampled population of workers gave a representative picture on the ground. It was also assumed that data collected would be accurate enough to meet the research objectives.

1.10 Definition of significant Terms

In this study certain terms were commonly used. The terms are as follows:

Labour conditions: Conditions under which an employee is subjected to such as: Fair wages and salary, hours of work, freedom of association, gender considerations, maternity protection, health and safety and other employment benefits an employee should be legally entitled to.

Personal income growth: An increase in workers total earnings from salaries, wages and other benefits generated from their labour supply.

Labour codes of practice: Voluntary agreements drawn up at company, industry or multi sector level to outline basic social or ethical standard and protocols to maintain basic working conditions for all employees.

Ethical Trade: Umbrella term for all types of business practices that promote socially and environmentally responsible trade as well as financial responsibility.

Occupational segregation: Distribution of employees based upon demographic characteristics, most often gender both across and within occupations.

Employment status: The rank of job held: either as permanent, casual or seasonal basis.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter has briefly examined the literature that is relevant to the study. The chapter elaborates some of the factors that influence labour conditions in horticultural farms so as to enhance income growth. Specifically it discusses the influence of gender, the role of training and the application of labour codes of practice. The literature has given an overview of women labour from other countries and finally in Kenya. A conceptual frame work has been drawn and a theory relevant to the study has been identified.

2.2 Women labour in Kenya and selected African countries

2.2.1 Causes of differential wage gaps

Studies on gender differentials in earnings have traditionally used the methodology developed by Oaxaca (1973) for decomposing the wage differential into the effects of discrimination and the effect of individual characteristics. Oaxaca (1973) argues that discrimination against females can be said to exist whenever the relative wage of males exceeds the relative wage that would have prevailed if males and females were paid according to the same criteria. His results indicate that although the concentration of women in lower paying jobs produces large male–female wage differentials, a large proportion of the differentials are attributable to discrimination. Oaxaca’s methodology has been criticized for not addressing the index number problem (a question of whether it is the male or female wage that should be considered as the non-discriminatory wage) and also for ignoring the possibility that the wage gap is affected by the sectors in which men and women are employed.

Neumark (1988), Cotton (1988), and Oaxaca and Ransom (1994) focus on the index number problem, while Appleton et al. (1999) address both problems. Neumark (1988) extends Oaxaca’s methodology to derive an alternative estimator of wage-based discrimination based on the assumption that within each labour category, the underlying utility function is homogenous of degree zero with respect to labour inputs from each category. The author observes that the effect of discrimination is to redistribute wages

only within each type of labour and that the resulting estimate of wage discrimination is sensitive to differences in the distribution of characteristics across men and women. Neumark's approach has been adopted by Glick and Sahn (1997), Paternostro and Sahn (1999), and Appleton et al. (1999), and modified to different countries.

Glick and Sahn (1997) analyse gender differences in earnings in Guinea. They separate earnings from three activities: self-employment, public sector employment and private Sector employment. Their results indicate that education plays an important role in allocating labour force participants among sectors and that there is heterogeneity in the Urban market and wages differences by sector. Women are found to be less likely than men to be wage employees than men. These results tend to support findings by Meng and Miller (1995), Groshem (1991), and Schultz and Mwabu (1998).

In a related study for Romania, Paternostro and Sahn (1999) find increasing returns to education and experience to be significant for both males and females. They also find higher incidence of discrimination in rural areas and at lower levels of education. Orazem and Vodopivec (1995, 1999) use a related approach to show that though women in Estonia and Slovenia were less mobile across jobs, they gained relative to men from changes in the structure of wages and employment brought about by the transition to a market economy. These results support earlier studies, which argue that education is the most important determinant of differentials in earnings and labour market participation (Bigsten and Horton, 1997; Appleton et al., 1990; Behrman and Wolfe, 1984; Collier, 1990; Knight and Sabot, 1990; Mwabu and Evenson, 1997).

Appleton et al. (1990) argue that the gender differential in access to jobs in Côte d'Ivoire is confined to the private sector, which is attributed to low educational levels mapping onto lower wages and therefore onto a lower supply response. The author observes that discrimination in the labour market gives rise to three of the observed gender biases: First, controlling for education, women are less likely to work for wages than men. Second, parents are less likely to invest in the education of girls than in that of boys.

Third, women are less educated and hence less likely to be in the labour market. Using a similar approach, Maglad (1998) applies the Mincerian human capital earnings function to estimate wage earnings and female labour supply functions for Sudan. Bigsten and Horton (1997) use evidence from Ethiopia, Uganda and Côte d'Ivoire to show that there are low levels of female schooling owing to discrimination and biases in the educational system.

Manda (1997) argues that education is more important in influencing female than male participation decisions. Collier (1990) asserts that once in the labour market, women earn equal pay to that of men, controlling for their characteristics. Nevertheless, women are less likely than men with similar characteristics to enter the labour market, but gender differences in participation narrow as education increases.

In a study of Indonesia, Deolalikar (1993) finds that males earn significantly more and participate more in the labour market than females at all levels due to average differences in levels of schooling. Job tenure and experience also influence labour force participation and the gender wage gap.

Appleton et al. (1999) argue that lack of experience and discrimination against married women are plausible explanations for greater gender differential.

Behrman and Wolfe (1984) also find that experience plays a substantial role in determining labour force participation and earnings, as well as in sorting among sectoral labour force participation.

Meng and Miller (1995) report that job tenure has a strong and positive impact on earnings in aggregate, while job experience has a moderate positive effect on earnings.

Negatu (1993) supports these studies and argues that experience and the nature of the labour market itself lead to differences in labour market participation by gender.

Dabalén (2000) shows that in Kenya, women with the least skills saw their position worsen relative to men with similar skills, even as women with the most skills were gaining ground on comparable men.

Lack of assets not only leads to lower participation by women but also constrains girls' access to education. Alderman and King (1998) indicate that the absence of cash earnings in many societies limits the ability of women to realize and remit market returns from their education and thus reduces the signals to girls and parents about the desirability of girls' education. This argument supports Appleton et al. (1990), who say that asset incomes have a negative impact on work decisions and participation rates.

Bigsten and Horton (1997) also argue that biases within the family affect the amount of human capital women acquire and that girls get less education because parents think the benefits accruing to sons will be higher and thus may have pro-son bias.

Neitzert (1994) argues that women's participation in the paid labour market is curtailed relative to their male counterparts because the labour market provides incentives that tend to reproduce the existing sexual division of labour in which women specialize in household and subsistence production and men participate in market production. This structure does not encourage families to keep their daughters in school for long since a daughter at home might release her mother for income-generating opportunities.

Demographic and social barriers affect women's participation in the labour force. Negatu (1993) argues that differences in labour supply behavior usually arise from disparities in productivity endowments, including demographic variables such as age, sex and marital status. Childcare responsibilities are also said to have a negative impact on women's market participation (Maglad 1998), but Behrman and Wolfe (1984) and Appleton et al. (1990) argue that this impact is insignificant.

The studies reviewed above attribute gender differentials in the labour market to both discrimination and differences in endowments and characteristics. The characteristics include differences in educational attainment, resulting mostly from barriers in access to education by women, job tenure, skills and experience, domestic responsibilities, age, and marital status. Our study will contribute to the literature by exploring the Kenyan

case, which is under-researched. The following section will review the factors that have either direct or indirect influence on labour conditions of women working in horticultural farms so as to improve their for personal income .

2.3 Gender

2.3.1 Gender discrimination

The concept of gender tends to be widely applied to differentiate between men and women. According to Henslin (2003), the sociological significance of gender is that which the society uses to control its members .Gender is therefore a creation of the society, and has to do nothing with the biological characteristics that distinguish between males and females .According to Chaudry and Ramadhan (2009), gender refers to socially constructed roles and responsibilities of men and women. Wage discrimination is the discrepancy of wages between two groups due to a bias towards or against a specific trait with all other characteristics of both groups being equivalent. In the case of gender inequality, wage discrimination exists between the male and female gender. Historically, gender inequality has favored men over similarly qualified women Paul (1994).

Jacobs (2000) argues that income disparity between genders stems from processes that determine the quality of jobs and earnings associated with jobs. Earnings associated with jobs will cause income inequality to take form in the placement of individuals into particular jobs through individual qualifications or stereotypical norms. Placement of men or women into particular job categories can be supported through the human capital theories of qualifications of individuals or abilities associated with biological differences in men and women. Conversely, the placement of men or women into separate job categories is argued to be caused by social status groups who desire to keep their position through the placement of those in lower statuses to lower paying positions.

According to human capital theories which refer to the education, knowledge, training, experience, or skill of a person which makes them potentially valuable to an employer. This has historically been understood as a cause of the gendered wage gap but is no longer a predominant cause as women and men in certain occupations tend to have

similar education levels or other credentials. Even when such characteristics of jobs and workers are controlled for, the presence of women within a certain occupation leads to lower wages. This earnings discrimination is considered to be a part of pollution theory. This theory suggests that jobs which are predominated by women offer lower wages than do jobs simply because of the presence of women within the occupation. As women enter an occupation, this reduces the amount of prestige associated with the job and men subsequently leave these occupations. The entering of women into specific occupations suggests that less competent workers have begun to be hired or that the occupation is becoming deskilled. Men are reluctant to enter female-dominated occupations because of this and similarly resist the entrance of women into male-dominated occupations (David, et al (2001)). The gendered income disparity can also be attributed in part to occupational segregation, where groups of people are distributed across occupations according to ascribed characteristics; in this case, gender occupational segregation can be understood to contain two components or dimensions; horizontal segregation and vertical segregation. With horizontal segregation, occupational sex segregation occurs as men and women are thought to possess different physical, emotional, and mental capabilities. These different capabilities make the genders vary in the types of jobs they are suited for. This can be specifically viewed with the gendered division between manual and non-manual labor. With vertical segregation, occupational sex segregation occurs as occupations are stratified according to the power, authority, income, and prestige associated with the occupation and women are excluded from holding such jobs. David et, al (2001)

As women entered the workforce in larger numbers since the 1960s, occupations have become segregated based on the amount femininity or masculinity presupposed to be associated with each occupation. Census data suggests that while some occupations have become more gender integrated (mail carriers, bartenders, bus drivers, and real estate agents), occupations including teachers, nurses, secretaries, and librarians have become female-dominated while occupations including architects, electrical engineers, and airplane pilots remain predominately male in composition Cotter (2000). Based on the census data, women occupy the service sector jobs at higher rates than men. Women's

overrepresentation in service sector jobs as opposed to jobs that require managerial work acts as a reinforcement of women and men into traditional gender roles that causes gender inequality. Hurst (2007)

Once factors such as experience, education, occupation, and other job-relevant characteristics have been taken into account, 41% of the male-female wage gap remains unexplained. As such, considerations of occupational segregation and human capital theories are together not enough to understand the continued existence of a gendered income disparity. Massey (2007)

Cotter (2001) believes that the glass ceiling effect is also considered a possible contributor to the gender wage gap or income disparity. This effect suggests that gender provides significant disadvantages towards the top of job hierarchies which become worse as a person's career goes on. The term glass ceiling implies that invisible or artificial barriers exist which prevent women from advancing within their jobs or receiving promotions. These barriers exist in spite of the achievements or qualifications of the women and still exist when other characteristics that are job-relevant such as experience, education, and abilities are controlled for. The inequality effects of the glass ceiling are more prevalent within higher-powered or higher income occupations, with fewer women holding these types of occupations. The glass ceiling effect also indicates the limited chances of women for income raises and promotion or advancement to more prestigious positions or jobs. Women are prevented by these artificial barriers from receiving job promotions or income raises, the effects of the inequality of the glass ceiling increase over the course of a woman's career. Cotter (2001)

Other authors, especially Paul (1994) have also cited statistical discrimination as a cause for income disparities and gendered inequality in the workplace. Statistical discrimination indicates the likelihood of employers to deny women access to certain occupational tracks because women are more likely than men to leave their job or the labor force when they become married or pregnant. Women are instead given positions that dead-end or jobs that have very little mobility. Burstein (2001)

In Third World countries such as the Dominican Republic, female entrepreneurs are statistically more prone to failure in business. In the event of a business failure women often return to their domestic lifestyle despite the absence of income. On the other hand, men tend to search for other employment as the household is not a priority. Sherry (2000)

The gender earnings ratio suggests that there has been an increase in women's earnings comparative to men. Men's plateau in earnings began after the 1970s, allowing for the increase in women's wages to close the ratio between incomes. Despite the smaller ratio between men and women's wages, disparity still exists. Census data suggests that women's earnings are 71 percent of men's earnings in 1999. Cotter (2000) The gendered wage gap varies in its width among different races. Whites comparatively have the greatest wage gap between the genders. With whites, women earn 78% of the wages that white men do. With African Americans, women earn 90% of the wages that African American men do. With people of Hispanic origin, women earn 88% of the wages that

2.4 Training

2.4.1 The role of training.

Studies by Cole (1997) showed defined training as a learning process which is aimed at impacting knowledge and skills to enable the employees execute their work task better. Trainings at work are normally task or job centred (Bach and Sisson 2000). There are various reasons why training is accorded to employees such as efficiency enhancement, (Freudenberg and Herper 1998), work health and safety for machine operatives (Fadier and Ciccotelli 1), maximization of product and services sales (Goldhar and Jelinek 1983) and competency building (Klingstam and Gullander 1999)

According to Trevor (1991), trainings should improve the staff skills and change their attitudes towards trends at work. Additionally, training can motivate the workforce to higher levels (Benson & Dungis 2003). Organizations that prioritize training have been known to attain higher mission performance. (Law and Kelton 1991) Training bridges the gap of work performance versus the work goals attainment (Cook and Wall 1980,) as shown in appendix IV (Sieber 2004). Dessler (1998) defined planned training as purposeful intervention that will impact knowledge for realizing better job performance. In this case, the organizations HRM should have a system and policy of identification of

training needs such as regular appraisals so that the precise learning objectives can be defined and attained (Slack 2001).

Bradley (1992) on the other hand noted that the importance of training by ambitious employers had been realised as early as three decades ago. During this period many organizations expanded and subdivided their operations in order to meet vision and missions (Slack 2001). In this process, many employers were keen to monitor the progress of their employees and created the human resources department which saw the need of trainings as one of the major solutions for productivity attainment (Warr 1979).

A psychologist Skinner (1953) who is also a professor at Harvard University carried out various experiment. In one case he sought to establish what factors are capable of reinforcement of human behaviour by strengthening their responses. The study concluded that this is possible when the employees have positive stimuli.

Cole (1993) emphasized that ability to reciprocate what has been learnt in previous work experience is as good as the learning process itself. This observation relies on previous experience that basic ideas will be internalized by the learners. Thereafter the same knowledge has the potential of being transmitter by positive or negative modes. However, most learning processes stress on the ability to retain knowledge. Thus, if skills are the centre of missions, the implication is that the process must have well laid out instructions, plans, contents and evaluation after the learning process (Congress of the United States Office of Technology Assessment (OTA 1990).

Trevor (1991) noted that the full benefits of training can be ascertained by assessing the organizations net return on investments. Therefore a training process should have univariate, bivariate or multivariate effect on the employees' performance targets. However, the process starts with training needs assessment and appraisal so that specific objectives can be outlined in order for the organisation to attain maximum returns (Youndt et al 1996).

Organisations that have a rich pool of well trained staff will be able to make more progress towards their missions and visions because the staff will be able to execute

challenging tasks of work while returns from investment also increase (Baines et al 2005).

According to Armstrong (1992) a successful management program is one that prioritizes on the employee needs and responds to them in time. He also stressed on the need to structure the trainings so that various groups can be targeted at a time.

Mullins (2005) underscored the need of evaluating training process along the related objectives in the measurement of the performance. This process has the aim of evaluating how much positive impact the training has on the organizational process. Tornighton (1998) emphasized that critical identification of the training needs in alignment to it strategies should be able to standardize the employee individual needs. This process will be done by various job evaluations and assessment of staff performance.

Training will enable the workforce to gather higher skills for executing professional skills as the employees strive to rise to higher roles with higher compensation. (McManus, et al 2004). Training will arm the employees with portable skills that will boost their motivation so that they can acquire descent work conditions and compete effectively in the liberal markets (ILO 2008).

Other than improving the productivity, training has some positive impact on the employees' life as it integrates with the organization sustainability. This will also create both internal and external competitiveness among the workforce following the skills that have been acquired (ILO 2008, p. 2). Training will accord the workforce a lot of benefits if the training objectives recognize the work conditions, the workers' rights, needs for next trainings, higher career growth prospects, more income and generally improved quality of life (ILO 2008,).

Training will enable the organization to attain higher productivity following skills that staffs acquire on investment diversity, efficiency innovations and market leadership. The working society environment also stands to gain from training as a result of social equity, globalisation and market expansion. (ILO 2008, p. 3). Training will only lead to increase productivity if both direct and indirect variable are in harmony with the economic and social factors (Berryman and Vaughan 1988).

Organizations that value training as a culture are capable of motivating the employee with paid training offs. Organizations that embrace training as an equal opportunity policy stand to gain when social workforce bargains are on the table because the employees will be willing to receive changes flexibly (ILO 2008) organizational change because the workforces are confident in taking up new opportunities arising from the change process (ILO 2008, p. 8) This observation is based on the realizations that training will mitigate the negative factors that are abounding in the process of a change period by closing the gap between performance and productivity (Freudenberg and Herper 1998). Studies have in the past attributed poor performance to a mismatch between training course contents and actual job executions. Thus, ILO (2008) noted that training course contents must be aligned to the prevailing and projected skills requirements. Within organizations, there are various levels of employees who must be constantly trained (McManus, et al 2004). These are transferred, displaced, new and older workforces (Collision 2002). Transferred workforces require training to induce them to the new location or duties. Displaced workers need induction training. New workforces need fresh training starting from the organization culture. Older workforces need training to improve their investment skills, achieve better work quality and adapt to upcoming technology and skills (ILO 2008).

A study was done in 2004 amongst CEOs to establish how organizations can achieve high performance, agility, flexibility and adaptability for organizations competence. This study found out that this was possible when trainings are carried out. Yet just over 15% of the CEOs were okay with the training initiatives in their organizations. (Meredith & Benton 2005). There was no doubt from the study that training leads to high performance, good leadership and deep employee engagement (Accenture & SAP 2004).

According to Accenture and SAP (2004), the higher work performance can be achieved by basic scheduled training that will enable the employees to make a step 17 towards the anticipated organizational changes. These trainings need to keep in trend with industry developments and an objective evaluation system of the training should be in place.

Training should be regarded as a continuous learning tool and should be initiated every time there is a change in organizations systems with management leadership. It is the

responsibility of the management to set up a training schedule for the available opportunities in the organizations. The management should outline that training along the expected learning outcome and objectives. The feedback process from the training is for the purpose of uniformity and satisfaction with the contents versus that work experience (Accenture & SAP 2004). Studies by Alavi et al (1988) established that the computer era in organizations was on the rise from the 1980s. Therefore, many organizations have been trying to acquire various types of trainings to conform to the changes in the workplace environment. There is evidence that the current decade has realized a rise in computer training needs for organizations going by the cost of investments (Van Buren & Erskine 2002).

2.5 Labour Codes of Practice

Codes of practice are voluntary agreements drawn up at company, industry or multi sector levels to outline basic social or ethical standards and protocols. The codes contain basic human rights in work places based on ILO conventions. This research will aim at identifying the type of codes used in horticultural farms and whether they are effective in dealing with labour conditions. Their efficacy will be indicated by improvement in Health and Safety, employment security, gender issues and their effect on wages paid to workers.

2.5.1 Ethical Trade

Ethical trade has a relatively short history dating back to the mid 1990s, a period which was marked by a wave of criticism of multinational companies and their global trading practices (Klein 2000; Christian Aid 1996). Blowfield (1999) in a comprehensive review of ethical trade provides a widely accepted definition of the term. He suggests thinking of ethical trade “as a term that brings together a variety of approaches affecting trade in goods and services produced under conditions that are socially and/or environmentally as well as financially responsible” (Blowfield 1999). He divides approaches to ethical trade into enterprise initiatives and labelling initiatives. Enterprise initiatives most often use codes of practice as an instrument to foster ethical trade whereas labelling initiatives are mostly independently managed certification programmes. Ethical trade should not to be equated with fair trade and a clear distinction needs to be made between them. The aim of

ethical trade is usually to regulate global supply chains according to ethical minimum standards with regards to environmental protection and labour rights (Hughes 2004). The aim of fair trade, on the other hand, is usually a more fundamental transformation of global trading relationships in favour of local producers (Fridell 2006). Most authors see the drivers behind the emergence of ethical trade as emanating either from globalisation or the realm of consumption. Barrientos (2000) for example argues that ethical trade represents a progressive outcome of globalisation. For her, ethical trade has potentially positive developmental impacts as it represents a limit to downward pressures on labour standards. Trends and developments in the realm of consumption like green and ethical consumerism are widely regarded as a key driving force behind ethical trade (Klein 2000, Crewe 2004). Hughes (2004) identifies the press, campaigners and supermarkets as the main driving forces behind ethical trade.

Notwithstanding its short history ethical trade has attracted its share of academic criticism. Most critical perspectives direct their critique at what they perceive as a lack of real participation by the South in ethical trading initiatives. Hughes (2001) accuses ethical trading initiatives of lacking genuine participation from the South in the establishment and monitoring of codes of practice. Another line of critique portrays ethical trade as a fig leaf for multinational companies providing them with an easy tool for shielding of criticism without making substantial changes to their business practices in the developing world. DuToit (2002) calls this the “ethics effect” of ethical trade. He presents a post-structuralist critique of ethical trade, calling it “a globalising technology of ethics” that allows for the operationalization of Corporate Social Responsibility. One of the most troubling aspects of ethical trade for (DuToit, 2002) is that it may simply normalize and regularize existing power relations through the creation of a depoliticizing and consensual discourse. A similar vein of critique is pursued by Freiberg (2003) who argues that ethical trade resembles a “neo-colonial civilizing mission” that allows northern retailers to control their southern suppliers without absorbing the cost of compliance with new ethical trading standards. Despite these critiques many authors believe that ethical trade can be a valuable tool to steer globalisation and make a positive contribution towards development (Heeks 2000; Barrientos 2000). The existence of

several high level initiatives suggests that ethical trade is more than just a short lived public relations exercise. On an international level the Global Reporting Initiative, a UNEP-sponsored organisation, is currently developing auditable standards for environmental and social reporting. On a European level the Business Social Compliance Initiative (BSCI) is promoting ethical trade and in the United Kingdom a high profile example is the Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI). Such initiatives indicate that ethical trade may become the norm for many industries. Gereffi et al. (2001) even suggest that the 21st century may see voluntary certification schemes as the main response to global social and environmental problems.

The above literature review shows that there is already a substantial body of literature on ethical trade. What is however largely missing from the literature are, to the best of my knowledge, case studies that provide a systematic account of the effect of ethical trade on sustainable development in its three dimensions of economic development, social development and environmental protection. One of the aims of this dissertation is to contribute towards filling this gap in the academic literature on ethical trade.

2.6 Theoretical framework

The study was based on the theory of employment, interest and money which was developed by John Keynes. The theory is related to the study and has been summarized below.

According to Keynes (1936) monetary policy affects employment and production in the short run because prices respond to changes in the monetary supply. If the money supply falls, people spend less money and the demand for goods falls consequently. Because the prices and wages are inflexible and they do not fall immediately, the decreased spending causes a drop in production and lay off of workers. The menu costs are small in individuals in an average firm but they have implications on the whole economy.

According to this theory the level of employment is determined by the spending of money, otherwise known as aggregate demand. Competitive markets cannot deliver full employment in the long run. Unemployment in labour markets encourages savings. One cannot assume that full employment is the natural equilibrium state of a monetary economy. It is the underemployment or under investment that is likely to be the natural

state unless some active measures are taken .One implication of the theory is that lack of competition is not the problem and measure to reduce unemployment by cutting wages and benefits are futile. According to the theory some micro economic level actions if taken collectively by a large proportion by individuals and firms can lead to inefficient aggregate macroeconomic outcomes when the economy operates below its potential output leading to an economic downturn. This results to losses of output due to unnecessarily high levels of unemployment which results from the reactive decisions of producers. In such a situation government policies could be used to increase aggregate demand thus increasing economic activity and reducing unemployment and inflation.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework illustrates the labour Conditions variables influencing personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.

The independent variables will be Gender influence, Training Influence and labour codes of practice. The dependent variable will be personal income growth for women working in horticultural farms. Government policies form the moderating variable.

Conceptual Framework

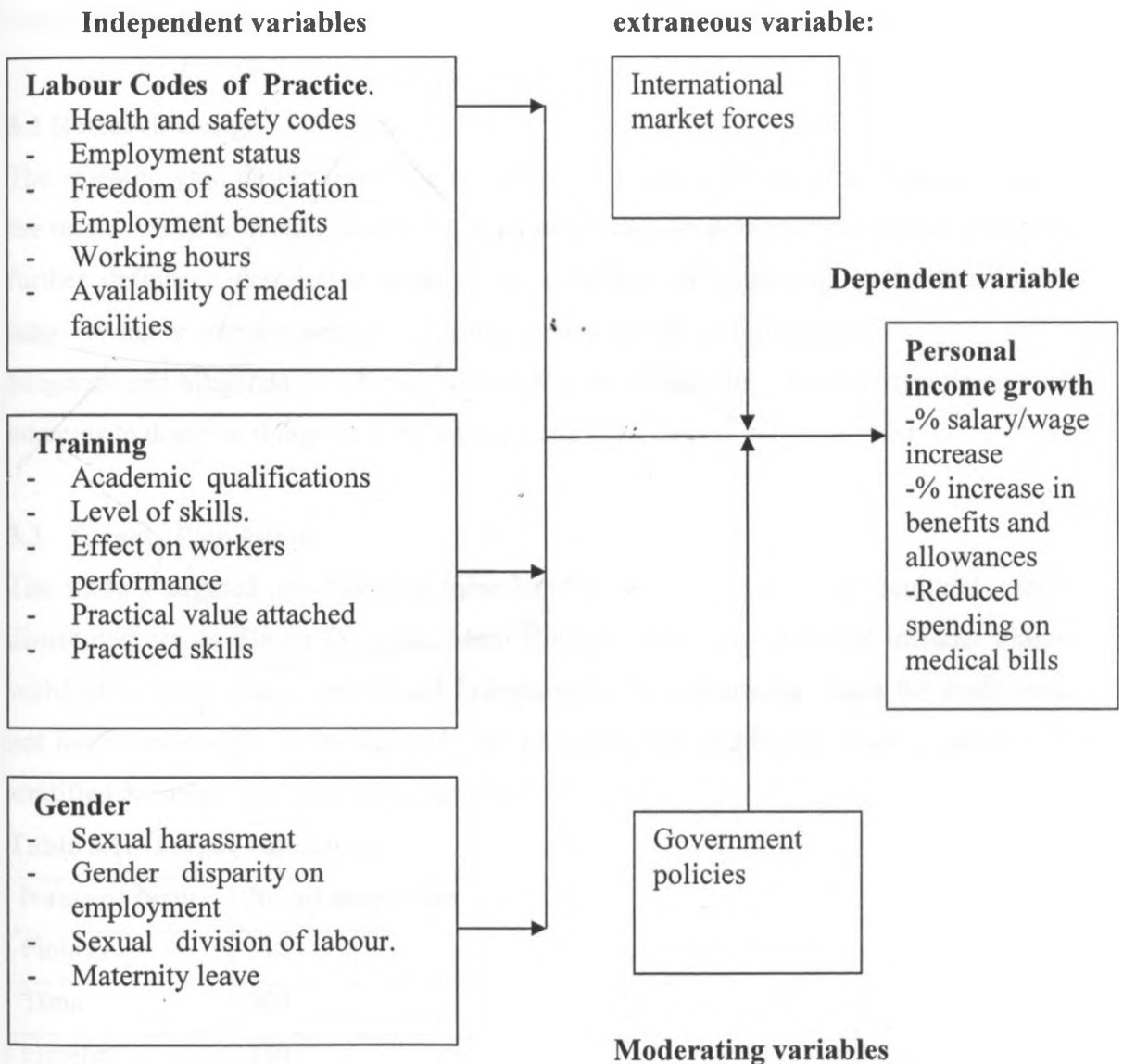


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology that were used in the study to collect data to answer the research questions. It covers the research design, target population, sampling technique and sample size, research instruments , validity and reliability of research instruments, and data collection method .The chapter also explains the data analysis methods.

3.2 Research Design

The research used descriptive research design. A research design is a program to guide the researcher in collecting, analyzing and interpreting observed facts (Orodho, 2003). He further defines a descriptive research as a method of collecting on information by interviewing or administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals.

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), supports this view by asserting that this type of research attempts to describe things such as behavior and attitudes the way they exist.

3.3 Target Population

The study targeted one thousand three hundred workers in three horticultural farms distributed across Timau Division, Meru County. The farms included include: Finlays with 510 workers, Tima with 360 and Lobelia with 430 employees. Since the study could not interview everybody because of time limitation, few employees were sampled using stratified technique and purposive sampling.

Table 3.1: Target Population.

Name of farm	No. of employees
Finlays	510
Tima	360
Lobelia	430
Total	1300

3.4. Sampling Procedure

A sample is a smaller group obtained from accessible population(Gall and Borg, 1981) In this study a sample was be carefully selected to be a representative of the whole population with salient characteristics. Sampling procedure refers to the process of selecting subject or cases to the included in the sample (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999).

The underlying principle is that by selecting on element in the sample a conclusion can be drawn about the entire population. (Gay, 1992) suggest for descriptive studies 10% of the target population will be enough.

In order to get a proportional representation of the targeted respondent, stratified random sampling and purposive sampling was be employed. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) purposive sampling allow the researcher to use cases that have required information with respect to the objective of the study. The researcher used three farms as the basis of forming the strata. The three farms that were sampled had a total population of one thousand three hundred workers according to their management. The farms were selected using simple random sampling. Management was selected using purposive sampling. Since the three farms did not have workers with homogeneous characteristics, stratified random sampling was be used to sample workers. The sample to be studied comprised of one hundred workers distributed across the three farms. This was due to the limitation of time and resources. The sample to be studied was allocated proportionately according to Kothari (2004)

The following formula was used: If p_i represented proportion of the population included in stratum I, and n represented the total sample size, the number of the elements selected from stratum I were $n \cdot p_i$ Kothari (2004). The sample size will be calculated as follows.

The sample size (N) =1300 which was divided across three (3) farms that formed the three strata.

$$\text{Finlays } (N_i) = x/1300 \times 100$$

$$\text{Tima } (N_{ii}) = x/1300 \times 100$$

$$\text{Lobelia } (N_{iii}) = x/1300 \times 100$$

Table 3.2: Target Population.

Name of farm	No. of employees	Sample size	Percentage
Finlays	510	39	39
Tima	360	28	28
Lobelia	430	33	33
Total	1300	100	100

Source: Horticultural Farms human resource records. (2012)

3.5 Research instrument

Data was be collected by use of questionnaires and interview schedules. The questionnaires used were both open ended and close ended in order to encourage in depth responses to be captured. There were two sets of questionnaires: One for management and another set for general workers. An assistant researcher was trained to assist in data collection. The local administration was informed about the research by use of introductory letter sought form them.

Guided interview schedules were used to collect data from workers who could not understand the content in the questionnaire. The collected data was edited and coded. The SPSS program was used to analyze the data. The analyzed data was presented using percentages and frequency distribution tables.

3.6 Instrument's Validity

Validity of an instrument represent the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure (Borg and Gall, 1983).The tools used for data collection were questionnaire, focus group discussions, interviews and observation. To enhance the validity the researcher conducted a pre-test. This was done by research assistant on a few selected workers. The questionnaire and interview schedule questions were based on the objectives of the study to ensure all questions were relevant.

According to Mulisa (1988), about 10% of the cases which represent the target population in all major respects can used in a pretest.

3.7 Instrument reliability

Orodho (2003), states that reliability of a measurement concerns the degree to which a particular measuring procedure gives similar results over a number of repeated trials. To test the reliability the researcher used test re-test method. The researcher aimed at determining the consistency or reliability coefficient. A pilot study was conducted. The questionnaires and the interview schedules were administered two times to selected specific employees during the pilot study. Time span was allowed between the first and second test. The scores from both test periods were then correlated and stability assessed. The correlation was tested using person's product moment coefficient correlation. The coefficient of reliability was found to be high signifying test re-test reliability.

3.8 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis entails categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing of data to obtain answers to the research questions. Once data was obtained, it was checked to ensure completeness, accuracy and uniformity. The data was then edited and coded. The researcher used statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) to analyze data. Descriptive statistics and cross tabulation was used to analyze data. Cross tabulation was used to establish the relationship between dependent variable and the independent variables.

The results were presented in tables in form of totals, mean, percentages, frequencies and graphs.

Table3.3 OPERATIONALIZATION TABLE

Research Objectives / Questions	Types of Variables	Indicator	Measure	Data Collection	Level of Scale	Analysis Approach
To explore the influence of training on personal income growth of women workers	Independent variable Training	-Workers Level of training. -Type of skills possessed by workers -Effect on workers performance level -Practical value attached -Practiced skills acquired	-Certificates attained.	Interview	Ordinal	Qualitative
			-No of certificates	Questionnaire	Ordinal	Qualitative
			-Rating by the workers	Questionnaire	Ordinal	Qualitative
			-Improved efficiency -No of applied concepts	Questionnaire	Ordinal	Qualitative
				Questionnaire	Nominal	qualitative
	Dependent variable Personal income growth	-Change in income	-increased chances of promotion - % of salary and wage increment -% of increase in benefits and allowances -% of reduction in spending on medical care			

To what extent does Gender influence income growth of women.	Independent variable Gender	-maternity leave	- no of days on maternity leave	Questionnaire	nominal	Quantitative
		-Provision of sanitary towels	-Frequency of provision	Questionnaire	nominal	Quantitative
		-sexual harassment	-No of cases reported	Questionnaire	nominal	Quantitative
		-Gender disparity on employment status	-No of women in management	Questionnaire	nominal	Quantitative
		-sexual division of tasks	-No of women in management	Questionnaire	nominal	Quantitative
		-sexual division of tasks	-No of women performing different tasks	Questionnaire	nominal	Quantitative
How does labour codes of practice influence personal income growth of women.	Independent variable Labour codes of practice	-Freedom of association	-No of workers in trade union	Questionnaire	Nominal	Quantitative
			-No of workers disputes registered by trade union	Questionnaire	Nominal	Quantitative
		-health and safety facilities	-Frequency of using personal protective equipments	Questionnaire	ordinal	Quantitative
		-Availability of medical facilities	-No of workers treated	Interview	ordinal	Quantitative
			-Duration of workers medical check up	Questionnaire	Nominal	Quantitative

		-working hours	-No of working hours per day -No of overtime hours of work	Questionnaire Questionnaire	Nominal Nominal	Quantitive Quantitive
		-Employment status of workers	-No of permanent workers -No of casual workers	Questionnaire Questionnaire	Nominal Nominal	Quantitive Quantitive
		-Employment benefits and allowances	-Total amounts in shillings	Questionnaire	Nominal	Quantitive

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION.

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with data analysis presentation and interpretation of the study findings. The findings were based on all the data collected including primary as well as secondary data collected from the field. The main objective for the study was to investigate the influence of labour conditions on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms. A case of Timau division, Meru Central District. The data was analyzed regarding general information (gender ,age, marital status and education level) of the respondent. The research objectives covered include: consideration of gender influence on personal income growth, influence of training and the influence of labour codes of practice. Descriptive statistics and logical regression was used to analyze data.

4.2 Response rate

A total of 100 questionnaires were distributed for the study. Out of these 94 respondents filled and returned them representing a response rate of 94 % of the target population. This was made possible by the fact that the researcher delivered the questionnaire personally and waited for the respondents to fill them.

4.3 General information of the respondents

Table 4.1 Gender of the respondent

	Frequency	Percent
Male	33	35
Female	61	65
Total	94	100

Author(2012)

65% of the respondents were female while 35% were male.

Table 4.2 Respondent Marital status

	Frequency	Percent
single	27	28.7
married	67	71.3
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

Majority of the employees (71%) in the farms were married while 28% of them were not married.

Table 4.3 Age of the respondent

	Frequency	Percent
10-18 years	11	11.7
19-25 years	11	11.7
26-30	53	56.4
31-40	13	13.8
41 and above	6	6.4
Total	94	100.0

Author(2012)

Most of the respondents were aged between 26 and 30 years with a frequency of 56% . A further 78% aged less than years, only 6% of the workers were aged above 40 years.

Table 4.4 Education level of the respondent

	Frequency	Percent
primary	35	37.2
secondary	40	42.6
college	17	18.1
university	2	2.1
Total	94	100.0

Author(2012)

Majority of the respondents had only attained secondary education with 42% followed by 37% with primary education while 18% had college education. Only 2% had university education.

Table 4.5 Respondents who attended training

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	79	84.0
No	15	16.0
Total	94	100.0

Author(2012)

84% of the respondents stated that they had attended training while 16% of the respondents stated they had never attended any training

Table 4.6 practical skills acquired from the training received

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	36	38.3
No	22	23.4
No Answer	36	38.3
Total	94	100.0

Author(2012)

The table above shows that out of those who had undergone training, 38% of the respondents stated that they had acquired practical skills from training received while 23% stated they had not acquired any practical skills from training.

Table 4.7 importance of the practical skills acquired.

	Frequency	Percent
Better chances of promotion	36	38.3
Better chances of salary increment	50	53.2
Better planning skills	8	8.5
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

On the importance of practical skills acquired 53% believed that the skills would lead to salary increment while 38% stated that it would lead to better chances of promotion while only 8% stated skills would lead to better planning skills.

Table 4.8 Extent the skills have improved work performance

	Frequency	Percent
Little	30	31.9
Much	49	52.1
very much	13	13.8
not at all	2	2.1
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

52% of the respondents stated that the skills led to much improvement on work performance while 31% stated that the skills led to little improvement on work performance. 13% stated that the skills had very much improved their work performance. However only 2% stated that not at all did the skills improve work performance

Table 4.9 Effect of skills acquired on salary increasing

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	29	30.9
No	65	69.1
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

Based on whether the skills had any effect on increasing the salary, 69% stated that the skills had no effect on salary increase while 30% believed the skills had effect on increasing their income.

Table 4.10 Responses on cases of sexual harassment witnessed on women?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	58	61.7
No	36	38.3
Total	94	100.0

Based on witnessing cases of sexual harassment on women,61% of the respondents agreed while 38% denied having heard or witnessed cases of sexual harassment.

Table 4.11 whether sexual harassment negatively affects work performance

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	57	60.6
No	37	39.4
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

From the table above 60% of the respondents formed the majority who believed sexual harassment negatively affected their work performance .However 39% of respondents never thought that sexual harassment negatively affected their work.

Table 4.12 whether expectant mothers allowed maternity leave with pay

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	29	30.9
No	65	69.1
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

69% of respondents who were the majority stated expectant mothers were never allowed maternity leave with full pay while 30% agreed they were allowed maternity leave with full pay.

Table 4.13 women provided with sanitary towels

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	26	27.7
No	68	72.3
Total	94	100.0

Author(2012)

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72% of the respondents disagreed that women were provided with sanitary towels while 27% agreed women were provided with sanitary towels

Table 4.14 Relief of financial burden by regular provision of sanitary towels

	Frequency	Percent
agree	48	51.1
strongly agree	32	34.0
No answer	14	14.9
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

From the table above 51% of the respondents agreed that provision of sanitary towels relieves women of some financial burden while 34% strongly agreed

Table 4.15 Responses on work assumed to be for men and for women in this farm

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	58	61.7
No	36	38.3
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

61.7% who formed majority of respondents believed that there was work assumed to be for men or for women. 38% never believed there was work for men and women in the farms

Table 4.16 frequency of using personal protective equipment

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	51	54.3
No	42	44.7
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

54% of the respondents stated that they used personal protective equipment while spraying and handling chemicals. 44% stated they never used personal protective equipment.

Table 4.17 Whether is overtime work paid for

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	22	23.4
No	72	76.6
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

76% of the respondents stated overtime work was never paid for. However 23% stated overtime work was paid for

Table 4.18 Responses on whether salary is sufficient to meet household needs

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	20	21.3
No	74	78.7
Total	94	100.0

Author(2012)

78% forming Majority of the respondents stated that the salary they received was not sufficient to meet their household needs. However 20% agreed the salary was sufficient to meet their household needs.

Table 4.19 whether salary is regularly reviewed since you started working

	Frequency	Percent
yes	26	27.7
no	68	72.3
Total	94	100.0

Author (2012)

Some 72% of the respondents stated their salaries were never regularly reviewed since they started working in the farms.27% agreed that their salaries were regularly reviewed.

4.4. Cross tabulation of variables

1.To assess the contribution of training on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.

Table 4.20. Did you attend training * Do you think skill have effect on income

			Do you think skills acquired would have any effect on increasing your salary?		
			Yes	no	Total
Did you attended any training	Yes	Count	21	58	79
		% within have you attended any training	26.6%	73.4%	100.0%
	No	Count	8	7	15
		% within have you attended any training	53.3%	46.7%	100.0%
Total	Count	29	65	94	
	% within have you attended any training	30.9%	69.1%	100.0%	

Author(2012)

A majority of those employees, 53% who never attended training also believed that skills acquired would have some effect on increasing their salary. However 73% of those employees who had attended training believed that this would not have any effect on increasing their salary. This could be associated to the fact that after training they did not see actual salary review while those who were not trained thought that their salary would be reviewed upon undergoing some training. Thus we conclude training dint have much effect on salary review.

Table 4.21:Attended training*Importance of practical skills acquired

		If yes how important are the practical skills acquired.			Total	
			better chances of promotion	better chances of salary increment	better planning skills	
have you attended any training	Yes	Count	32	42	5	79
		% within have you attended any training	40.5%	53.2%	6.3%	100.0%
	No	Count	4	8	3	15
		% within have you attended any training	26.7%	53.3%	20.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	36	50	8	94
		% within have you attended any training	38.3%	53.2%	8.5%	100.0%

Author(2012)

Some 53% of those never attended training believe that once trained they stand a higher chance of increasing their earnings but as seen from above discussion this may not be necessarily the case. A minority 6% believed that training equips them with better planning skills. This could be attributed to a marginal fraction of employee's in the management among the total population of workers sampled. We note here a tendency of a positive inclination to those who have attended training and desire for an increase in personal income growth.40% of those

employees who had attended training felt that this would lead to some sort of promotion e.g. from casual to permanent.

Table 4.22 practical skills acquired*salary increase

			Do you think skills acquired would have any effect on increasing your salary?		
			Yes	no	Total
Have you acquired any practical skills from the training received	Yes	Count	12	24	36
		% within Have acquired any practical skills from the training received	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	No	Count	4	18	22
		% within Have acquired any practical skills from the training received	18.2%	81.8%	100.0%
	No answer	Count	13	23	36
		% within Have acquired any practical skills from the training received	36.1%	63.9%	100.0%
Total	Count	29	65	94	
	% within Have acquired any practical skills from the training received	30.9%	69.1%	100.0%	

Author(2012)

81% of those employees who did not acquire any practical skills in training believe that this would not have any effect on increasing their salary. This is in tandem with previous result above that those who have been trained have not witnessed any actual change in their personal earnings. A further 66% of those employees who had acquired practical skills believed that these skills would not translate in any way to an increased personal income. This can be due to

the fact that these skills so attained only enables these employees perform their on job tasks. We thus do not attribute practical skills acquired to an increase in earning.

Table 4.23: Extent of improved performance by the skill*Effect on income

			Do you think skills acquired would have any effect on increasing your salary?		
			yes	No	Total
To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	Little	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	8 26.7%	22 73.3%	30 100.0%
	Much	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	12 24.5%	37 75.5%	49 100.0%
	very much	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	7 53.8%	6 46.2%	13 100.0%
	not at all	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	2 100.0%	0 .0%	2 100.0%
Total	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	29 30.9%	65 69.1%	94 100.0%	

Author (2012)

73% of those employees who felt that the skills acquired had little effect also felt that these skills would not have any effect on increasing their salary. A further 75% of those employees who felt that the effect were much had the same opinion. This again is in line with the arguments above that training did not necessarily have a direct effect to eventual change in personal income growth.

Table 4.24. Extent to which skills improved performance* importance of the practical skills

			if yes how important are the practical skills acquired.			
			better chances of promotion	better chances of salary increment	better planning skills	Total
To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	Little	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	10 33.3%	20 66.7%	0 .0%	30 100.0%
	Much	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	23 46.9%	20 40.8%	6 12.2%	49 100.0%
	very much	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	3 23.1%	8 61.5%	2 15.4%	13 100.0%
	not at all	Count % within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	0 .0%	2 100.0%	0 .0%	2 100.0%
Total	Count	36	50	8	94	

% within To what extent have the skills improved your work performance	38.3%	53.2%	8.5%	100.0%
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Author (2012)

2. To assess the influence of labour codes of practice on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.

Table 4.25. Provision of sanitary towels* salary sufficient to meet your household needs

		in your own opinion do you think the salary you receive is sufficient to meet your household needs			
			yes	No	Total
Do you agree that the provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden	Agree	Count	13	35	48
		% within Do you agree that the provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%
	strongly agree	Count	6	26	32
		% within Do you agree that the provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden	18.8%	81.3%	100.0%
	NA	Count	0	14	14

% within Do you agree that the provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden	.0%	100.0%	100.0%
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Total	Count	19	75	94
	% within Do you agree that the provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%

Some 81% of those workers who believe provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden also believe that their salary is not sufficient. A further 72% of those workers who are of the opinion that their salary is not sufficient still believe that provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden. This could be associated to the fact that these same women spend some of their earning in buying this sanitary pad hence the deficit. A minority 21% of those workers who believe their salary is sufficient further believe provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden. These could be associated to top level managements. We thus conclude from the information above that provision of sanitary towels influences the eventual personal income growth of women in the farms

Table 4.26: paid maternity leave*whether salary sufficient

			in your own opinion do you think the salary is sufficient to meet your household needs		
			Yes	no	Total
Are expectant mothers allowed maternity leave with pay?	yes	Count % within Are expectant mothers allowed maternity leave with pay?	4 13.8%	25 86.2%	29 100.0%
	no	Count % within Are expectant mothers allowed maternity leave with pay?	15 23.1%	50 76.9%	65 100.0%
Total		Count % within Are expectant mothers allowed maternity leave with pay?	19 20.2%	75 79.8%	94 100.0%

Author (2012)

A majority 76% of those are expectant mothers who are not allowed maternity leave with pay believe that their salary is not sufficient. This is due to the fact that these women employees use part of their savings to cater for the loss in earning while in maternity leave. A further 86% of those employees who believe that their salary is not sufficient believe that this is not due to unpaid maternity .We associate this to some permanent employees who earn this maternity leave allowances but still have some other deficit in their earnings. Thus we note an association of those employees who do not receive maternity leave allowances to deficit in insufficiency of household income. We further conclude that unpaid maternity leave affects the eventual house hold income of families. However this applied to only those employees who do not get this allowance.

Table 4.27. Paid overtime*Salary sufficient

			in your own opinion do you think the salary is sufficient to meet your household needs		
			Yes	no	Total
Is overtime work paid for?	Yes	Count	7	15	22
		% within Is overtime work paid for?	31.8%	68.2%	100.0%
	No	Count	12	60	72
		% within Is overtime work paid for?	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	19	75	94
		% within Is overtime work paid for?	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%

Author(2012)

A majority 83% of those workers who do not think the salary is sufficient to meet their household needs also believe that their overtime is not paid for. A further 68% of those workers who are of the opinion that their salary is not sufficient stated that overtime is paid for. This could be associated to the fact that these same women spend some of their earning while doing overtime.

Table 4.28. Frequent use of personal protective equipment* salary is sufficient to meet your household needs

			in your own opinion do you think the salary is sufficient to meet your household needs		
			yes	no	Total
Do you frequently use personal protective equipment when handling chemicals and when spraying?	yes	Count	10	41	51
		% within Do you frequently use personal protective equipment when handling chemicals and when spraying?	19.6%	80.4%	100.0%
	no	Count	9	33	42
		% within Do you frequently use personal protective equipment when handling chemicals and when spraying?	21.4%	78.6%	100.0%
Total			19	75	94
		% within Do you frequently use personal protective equipment when handling chemicals and when spraying?	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%

Author(2012)

78% of those workers who do you believe that the salary is not sufficient to meet their household needs also dint use frequently personal protective equipments while handling chemicals and when spraying. This could be attributed to increased cost of medical attendance associated to exposure to chemicals. We thus note that lack of protective equipments while handling chemicals as claimed from the data contributes to insufficiency of income at personal level. In conclusion we note some factors that contributes to personal income growth as, unpaid overtime, lack of protective gears while handling chemicals and unpaid maternity leave

3. To assess the influence of Gender on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms.

Table 4.29: witnessed cases of sexual harassment*sexual harassment hinders chances of being promoted

			do you think sexual harassment hinders chances of being promoted		
			Yes	no	Total
have you ever heard of cases of sexual harassment on women?	Yes	Count % within have you ever heard of cases of sexual harassment on women?	51 87.9%	7 12.1%	58 100.0%
	No	Count % within have you ever heard of cases of sexual harassment on women?	22 61.1%	14 38.9%	36 100.0%
Total		Count % within have you ever heard of cases of sexual harassment on women?	73 77.7%	21 22.3%	94 100.0%

Author(2012)

A majority 83% of those workers who do not think the salary is sufficient to meet their household needs also believe that their overtime is not paid for. A further 68% of those workers who are of the opinion that their salary is not sufficient stated that overtime is not paid for. This could be associated to the fact that these same women spend some of their earning while doing overtime.

Table 4.30: sexual harassment negatively affects your work* sexual harassment hinders chances of being promoted

			do you think sexual harassment hinders chances of being promoted		
			Yes	No	Total
Do you think that sexual harassment negatively affects your work performance?	yes	Count	51	6	57
		% within do you think that sexual harassment negatively affects your work performance?	89.5%	10.5%	100.0%
	no	Count	22	15	37
		% within do you think that sexual harassment negatively affects your work performance?	59.5%	40.5%	100.0%
Total	Count		73	21	94
	% within do you think that sexual harassment negatively affects your work performance?		77.7%	22.3%	100.0%

Author(2012)

Most respondents forming 89%, agreed that sexual harassment affected their work performance. The same number of respondents also agreed that sexual harassment hindered their chances of getting promoted. The results are in agreement with the above question on those who had witnessed cases of sexual harassment on women.

Table 4.31: Work for men and women*payment based on nature of job

			is your payment based on the nature of job you do		
			Yes	no	Total
Do you think there is work assumed to be for men and for women in this farm?	yes	Count	51	7	58
		% within Do you think there is work assumed to be for men and for women in this farm?	87.9%	12.1%	100.0%
	No	Count	22	14	36
		% within Do you think there is work assumed to be for men and for women in this farm?	61.1%	38.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	73	21	94
		% within Do you think there is work assumed to be for men and for women in this farm?	77.7%	22.3%	100.0%

Author(2012)

Most of the respondents 87%, stated that they believed that some work is assumed to be for men and also for women. Still the same number of respondents believed that payment is based on the nature of work one does. However even those who stated there was no men or women's work,77% still held the assumption of payment being based on the nature of work performed. It can therefore be assumed that some jobs earn higher income than others. We can therefore conclude that most jobs performed by women attract lower incomes therefore limiting their personal income growth.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study, conclusions were made from the findings and recommendations made.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of labour conditions on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms. case of Timau division Meru County .Despite horticultural sub-sector having contributed immensely to the nation GDP growth, the employees have remained poor on the contrary. Their personal income growth has been compromised to the extent of not being able to meet their basic needs. Majority of the workers were women who have to juggle between their productive and reproductive roles. The study therefore sought to investigate the factors that have influenced their personal income growth.

The study therefore investigated the influence of gender on personal income of women working in such horticultural farms. The study also sought to study the influence of training on personal income growth of women. The influence of labour codes of practice was also investigated and whether these codes are effective in addressing labour issues for personal income growth. In order to achieve these objectives, data was collected by use of questionnaires, interviews schedules and observation. Comments were also included to capture the respondents' personal opinion on various issues pertaining to labour condition.

The data collected was analysed by use of SPSS. It was presented in frequencies, percentages and tables.

5.2 Summary of the findings

The researcher wanted to find out the gender of the respondents to determine the total number of the males and females. The results indicated that 65% were female while 35% were male. On level of education attained by respondents 37.2% had primary education, 42.6% secondary college 20.2%, while only 4.3% had attained university education. On the age of the respondents, 11% were between 10-18years, 11% between 18-25years, 56% between 26-30years, 31-40years were 13% while only 6.4% were aged above 40years.

The research found out that out of the 94 respondents interviewed, 84% of them had acquired some form of training. 16% had never undergone any training in the farm. However training is a vital ingredient in upgrading the workers skills.

On the practical skills gained from training, 38% believed that the skills were practical while 23% never attained any practical skills. On whether skills had improved their work performance, 31% stated improvement was little while 52% said much 13% very much while only 2% said there was no improvement in performance. However 23% said that they never acquired any practical skills from the training. This was from the 84 respondents who had undergone training.

When asked whether they believed that training had led to salary increment, 30% believed that the skills led to had positively impacted on their income. However 69% stated that skills had no effect on their income in any way. However 36.4% of the respondents stated that the skills they acquired did not influence their income in any way. Most of the employees were emphatic that the skills were mere life skill or sometimes functional skills to just facilitate them perform their duties.

Some respondents also thought that the authorities were reluctant to impact relevant training for fear of losing employees to the nearby farms. When asked whether they witnessed cases of sexual harassment, 61% while 38% denied witnessing any cases of sexual harassment. When asked whether sexual harassment negatively affected their work 60% agreed while 39% said sexual harassment had no negative effect on their work.

When the respondent were asked whether expectant mothers were allowed maternity leave with pay, 30% agreed while 69% maternity leave was not paid for. When asked whether women were provided with sanitary towels 27% agreed while 72% stated sanitary towels were not provided. When asked whether they agreed that provision of sanitary towels relieves women of some financial burden 51% agreed while 34% strongly agreed. On whether there is work assumed to be for men and for women, 61% agreed while 38% disagreed. On whether personal protective equipment are frequently used 54% agreed while 44% stated they are frequently used. The researcher sought to know whether overtime work was paid for, 23% agreed while 76% stated that overtime work is never paid for. When respondents were asked whether the salary was sufficient to meet the household needs, 21% agreed while 78% strongly stated the salary was not enough to cater for household needs.

When respondents were asked whether their salary was ever reviewed since they were employed, 72% stated that salaries were never reviewed while 27% agreed that their salaries were regularly reviewed.

5.3 Discussions of the findings

After analysis it was found out that majority of the respondents were female with 65% and only 35% were male. The high number of females could be attributed to the need to supplement household income since women own least assets therefore and have no alternative other than seeking for employment in nearby horticultural farms. However most of them are employed as casuals meaning they are not legally entitled to some employment benefits.

On education majority of the employees have attained up to secondary level of education. This implies that few will likely rise to the level of management where incomes are higher. The lower education standards relegate women to lower employment status thus limiting their personal income growth.

In order to show the relationship between the objective variables cross tabulation was done. Training objective was cross tabulated based on the skills acquired and their effect on income growth. The results indicated that majority of those employees 53%, who never attended training also believed that skills acquired would have some effect on increasing their salary. However 73% of those employees who had attended training believed that this would not have any effect on increasing their salary. This could be associated to the fact that after training they did not see actual salary review while those who were not trained thought that their salary would be reviewed upon undergoing some training. Thus we conclude training did not have much effect on salary review.

However 73% of those employees who felt that the skills acquired had little effect also felt that these skills would not have any effect on increasing their salary. A further 75% of those employees who felt that the effect were much had the same opinion. This again is in line with the arguments above that training did not necessarily have a direct effect to eventual change in personal income growth. It can also be argued that for training to result to personal income growth of women, the content should be more focused on career development not mere functional skills. Those who response was that skill had influence on income may be in the management.

On labour codes of practice cross tabulation was done on specific issues that affected income growth of women. One major issue was on health and safety of women. Since women spend regularly on purchase of sanitary towels from their meager salary it was established whether such financial was relieved by employer

Provision of sanitary towels

Some 81% of those workers who believe provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden also believe that their salary is not sufficient. A further 72% of those workers who are of the opinion that their salary is not sufficient still believed that provision of sanitary towels regularly relieved the women some financial burden. This could be associated to the fact that these same women spend some of their earning in buying this sanitary towels hence the deficit. A minority 21% of those workers who believe their salary is sufficient further believe provision of sanitary towels regularly relieves the women some financial burden. These could be associated to top level managements. We thus conclude from the information above that provision of sanitary towels influences the eventual personal income growth of women in the farms.

Maternity leave

Maternity leave being a labour condition to some extent influences income. It was established whether expectant mothers were paid during maternity leave

A majority 76% of those are disagreed that expectant mothers are allowed maternity leave with pay believed that their salary is not sufficient. This is due to the fact that these women employees use part of their savings to cater for the loss in earning while in maternity leave. A further 86% of those employees who believe that their salary is not sufficient believe that this is not due to unpaid maternity leave .We associate this to some permanent employees who earn this maternity leave allowances but still have some other deficit in their earnings. Thus we note an association of those employees who do not receive maternity leave allowances to deficit in insufficiency of household income. We further conclude that unpaid maternity leave affects the eventual house hold income of families. However this applied to only those employees who do not get this allowance.

Use of PPEs

Use of personal protective equipment reduces medical costs caused by chemical exposure especially the pesticides. The use of PPE was cross tabulated against those who believed salary was not sufficient to meet household needs. The results were that 78% of those workers who do not believe that the salary is not sufficient to meet their household needs also did not use frequently personal protective equipments while handling chemicals and when spraying. This could be attributed to increased cost of medical attendance associated to exposure to chemicals. We thus note that lack of protective equipments while handling chemicals as claimed from the data contributes to insufficiency of income at personal level. In conclusion we note some factors that contributes to personal income growth as, unpaid overtime, lack of protective gears while handling chemicals and unpaid maternity leave

Overtime work

A majority 83% of those workers who do not think the salary is sufficient to meet their household needs also believe that their overtime is not paid for. A further 68% of those workers who are of the opinion that their salary is not sufficient stated that overtime is not paid for. This could be associated to the fact that these same women spend some of their earning while doing overtime. However it is a contravention of Employment Act not to pay overtime work.

Gender specific jobs

Most of the respondents 87% stated that they believed that some work is assumed to be for men and also for women. Still the same number of respondents believed that payment is based on the nature of work one does. However even those who stated there were no men or women's work, 77% still held the assumption of payment being based on the nature of work performed. It can therefore be assumed that some jobs earn higher income than others. We can therefore conclude that most jobs performed by women attract lower incomes therefore limiting their personal income growth.

Sexual harassment

Most respondents forming 89%, agreed that sexual harassment affected their work performance. The same number of respondents also agreed that sexual harassment hindered their chances of getting promoted. The study revealed that sexual harassment was a serious

problem facing female workers in the horticultural industry. The most targeted are young women ,widowed or divorced women .These women are in the lower wage category, lower status of job or precarious employment. The respondents explained that sexual harassment was seen as a display of power resulting to discrimination, coercion and degradation of women in having sexual intercourse without their consent. The effects of sexual harassment are resignation ,demotions, dismissal or biased job evaluation. The net result will result in suppressing personal income growth.

5.4. CONCLUSIONS

Personal income growth of women has been influenced by various factors. According to research findings, majority of those who attended training indicated that the skills they received had no impact on improving their income level .Most of the skills received were mere life skills. However considering majority of the workers had attained primary and secondary education; it would be difficult to impact career development skills. Still some employees believed that if proper skills were impacted it could result to betterment of their income.

On influence of gender majority of stated that some tasks were gendered .Most of the tasks performed by women were in the lowest wage bracket while the male gender performed tasks that were better remunerated.

Other gender based issues were sexual harassment. Majority of the respondents stated that sexual harassment had negative effect on their income particularly on promotion where female employees do not yield to sexual demands. It can be argued that decrease in cases of sexual harassment would positively impact on income growth.

On labour codes of practice, most workers claimed overtime work was never paid for. This limited them on extra income received other than salary. Also since majority stated maternity leave was never paid for, women suffered financially before they report back to work. Policies should therefore be formulated to guard against sexual harassment. Also employment Act should be enforced. Failure to use PPEs raised medical expenses on treatment. To lower incidences of these sicknesses, farms should make provide PPEs regular on basis

It can be authoritatively concluded based on the research findings that some of these labour conditions hindered personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms .

5.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. All promotions should be based on merit and gender balanced training is done to encourage women to come up to higher ranks.
2. Payment of overtime should be substantially improved to motivate workers and eliminate forced overtime work.
3. To avoid chemical exposure to workers PPEs should be provided and their replacement done regularly.
4. 60 working days maternity leave given to employees should be fully implemented with full payment.
5. Sexual harassment policies should be established in all farms to enhance discipline and protect female workers.
6. There is need to have workers medically insured and provided with medical treatment without having workers to pay for such treatment.

Areas of future research

There is further need for investigation on the effects of chemicals on the health of workers working in horticultural funds.

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APPENDICES

APENIX I:LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL FOR DATA COLLECTION.

**RUTERE MOSES
P.O BOX 68 - 60202
NKUBU.**

TO.....

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL FOR DATA COLLECTION.

I am a student at University of Nairobi pursuing a degree in Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management.

My research topic is on Influence of Labour Conditions on Personal Income Growth of women working in Horticultural farms A case of Timau Division . The information given will be treated in confidence and will not be used for any other purpose except academic only. Please respond as honestly as possible. Participation in this exercise will be voluntary. Please note there is no right or wrong answer to the given questions. Thank you in advance.

Yours Faithfully

**Rutere Moses
Mobile No: 0723 - 838 605**

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE

This Questionnaire is about investigating the influence of labour conditions on personal income growth of women working in horticultural farms .Kindly give truthful information by ticking the correct answer or writing in the spaces provided.

General information

1. Please indicate your gender

Female Male

2. Please indicate your marital status'

Single Married

3.If you a single parent, do you have children?

YES NO

4. Indicate your age bracket in years

(a) 10-18

(b) 18-25

(c) 25-30

(d) 30-40

(e) 40 and above

5. State your highest level of education

(a) Primary level

(b) Secondary level

(c) College

(d) University

(e) Post graduate

QUESTIONNAIRE ON TRAINING

6. Have you ever attended any training in this farm?

YES NO

7. If yes, how many times in a year?

Once twice more than twice

8. Who sponsored the training?

The Farm the Government

9. What was the training about? Please explain

.....
.....
.....

10. Do you think you acquired any practical skills from the training you received?

YES NO

11. If yes, to what extent have the skills improved your work performance?

Little Much Very much Not at all

12. In your own opinion, do you think training has any effect on improving your income?

YES NO

13. If yes, state how?.....

.....

QUESTIONNAIRE ON GENDER

14. Do you have a gender department in this farm?

YES NO

15. Have you ever heard of any Gender policy in this farm?

YES NO

16. If yes, how effective is it in responding to gender related issues?

Not effective Effective Highly effective

17. Have ever heard or witnessed any cases of sexual harassment on women?

YES NO

18. If yes, what could be the causes? Briefly explain

.....
.....

19. Are expectant mothers allowed maternity leave with pay?

YES NO

20. If yes, how long is the leave?

One month Two months Three months above three months

21. Does your farm have day care centers for breastfeeding mothers?

YES NO

22. If yes, in your own opinion do you think availability of these centers relieves women of any Financial burden?

Agree Strongly agree Disagree

23. Are breast feeding mothers provided with breast feeding breaks?

YES NO

24. If yes, state how long does one break take?

.....

25. Are women provided with sanitary towels in the farm?

YES NO

26. If yes, how regularly?.....

27. Do you agree that the provision of sanitary towels relieves the women some financial burden?

Disagree Strongly agree Disagree

28. Kindly state where you work

Greenhouse

Pack house

Office

29. Do you think there is work for men and work for women in this farm?

YES

NO

30. Please tick your employment status

Permanent

Casual

Seasonal

QUESTIONNAIRE ON LABOUR CODES OF PRACTICE

31. Do you have a trade union or welfare committee in this farm?

YES

NO

32. Are workers freely allowed to join the union?

YES

NO

33. If not, give reasons.....

34. Which class of workers is allowed to join trade union?

Permanent

Casuals

Seasonal

Everybody

35. Do you use personal protective equipment when handling chemicals and when spraying?

YES

NO

36. If yes how frequent?.....

Sometimes

At all times

37. Are workers medically checked regularly?

YES

NO

38. What medical facilities are available in this farm? Please explain

39. When do workers re-enter a sprayed green house?

After six hours

24 hours

Any time

40. How many hours do you work per day?

8hours 10hours Above 10 hours

40. Is overtime work compulsory?

YES NO

41. Is overtime work paid for?

YES NO

42. What is your salary scale?

DailyKsh

Monthly.....Ksh

40. Other than your salary, are you entitled to any other benefits?

YES NO

43. If yes what is the total amount of benefits in shillings?Ksh

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MANAGEMENT

44. Kindly indicate your gender

Male Female

45. What criteria is used when promoting workers? Please state.

.....
.....

46. Are men and women equally selected for training in this farm?

YES NO

47. Are you aware of Collective bargaining Agreement (CBA)?

YES NO

48. If yes, does this farm have such a CBA in place?

YES NO

49. If yes, when was it negotiated?.....

.....

50 What is the average monthly salary scales for the following class of employees?

(a) Manager from.....to.....Kshs

(b) Supervisors from.....to.....Kshs

(c) Casuals fromto.....Kshs

(d) Others (specify) from.....to.....Kshs

.....
51. Other than the salary paid to workers, kindly state other benefits and allowances given.

.....
52. State the kind of labour code of practice used in this farm?

.....