

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

**OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION IN THE
EMPLOYMENT SECTOR: A CASE STUDY OF NAIROBI.**
KENYA

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BY

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Arts in Gender and Development studies of the University of Nairobi.

November, 2006



DECLARATION

I Susan Wambui Kahinga, Registration number N/50/P/7171/2002 do hereby declare that this project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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DEDICATION

*M*y study is dedicated to my dear Parents.

To my Mother who is an inspiration to the work I now present and the purpose of my study. For her struggles and her achievements in life and for being the fire and light in my life.

To my father for teaching me the values in my life and for my passion in education without whose guidance and inspiration I could not have completed this work.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS:

ICT- Information and Communication Technology

US- United States of America

UK- United Kingdom

ILO- International Labour Organization

ITEC- Information Technology

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ABSTRACT

Gender equality has been a contentious issue in Africa and more so in Kenya for a long time. Women have been disadvantaged in taking up positions equal to those of men in society due to a variety of factors including lower educational level, family responsibilities and gender specific roles and discrimination.

Our society has constantly discriminated women in taking up specific roles traditionally set aside for males making these particular professions gender stereotyped. Other occupations are seen as encompassing the nature of females and thus become female oriented. The girl child has for a long time had to leave her schooling to attend to marital duties as expected by society and family. Parents have married off their young daughters as a source of wealth thus finding investment into their education a waste of money.

However, with recent attention on the girl child's development in education and an increase in the fight for gender equality, there could have arisen a change in the occupational structure ignoring the traditionally stereotyped occupations for either gender.

This work examines the possible changes in the occupational structure with regard to traditionally stereotyped occupations. The first chapter is a general introduction giving background information, aims and objectives of the study. The second chapter basically examines the different theoretical approaches towards gender specific occupations and a review of results from previous studies carried out in occupational segregation in different regions. The third chapter describes the methodology of the study while the fourth and fifth discuss the results of the study and makes recommendations

CHAPTER 1

1.0 INTRODUCTION:

1.1 Background

What is occupational segregation?

Occupational segregation is said to exist when gender/race groups are differently distributed across occupations than is consistent with their overall shares of employment, irrespective of the nature of job allocation (Martin J. Watts, 2001).

Theories that attempt to account for the establishment and maintenance of segregation include those based on individual differences, including human capital theory; those that are based on ideas of discrimination by employers, including labor market discrimination theories; and those that take as their central premise, the notion of systematic barriers within organizations, including inter group and dual labor theories. No one theory accounts single-handedly for the establishment and continuance of gender segregation, together they help to make sense of these employment phenomena. There has been relatively little empirical research to test these theories at organizational level.

There are therefore a number of influences, which affect occupational segregation and research shows that they are mutually reinforcing. Decisions made by individuals contribute to the perpetuation of occupational segregation, but perceived occupational segregation in turn influences individuals' choices.

Occupational segregation remains one of the strongest influences on young people's choice of career, with individuals preferring those occupations in which they see their gender represented. However, according to Miller (2004), this is not a static process, there is evidence that girls (and to a lesser extent, boys) become willing to consider a wider choice of occupations as they become older. Unsurprisingly, ability, attitudes and interest all influence career choice but attitudes and interest have a stronger influence on job choice than ability.

Parental attitudes continue to have a significant impact on career decisions of young people. This is particularly the case amongst some minority ethnic communities. Parents influence decisions both directly, through their views on appropriate jobs, and indirectly through their influence on the development of young people's attitudes to school subjects. The teaching style adopted in schools is a further factor, which influences the perception of school subjects, particularly the sciences. The advice and guidance offered to young people also affects this process, but research suggests that career advisors may not challenge career stereotypes and see this role outside their area of responsibility.

Women continue to lag behind their male counterparts in the development process despite the obvious social changes. More so in the employment sector a big gap is still felt in the involvement of women in decision-making positions in many organisations that have a direct impact on the economy of the country.

Women are unable to have an easy access to better paying jobs and to jobs they are qualified for. Women are discriminated against in their work places and therefore not accorded equal training and promotion opportunities as their male counterparts. Several women have to contend with sexual harassment from their superiors in order to keep their jobs or to get a promotion despite even higher qualifications than their male counterparts.

In spite of all the household responsibilities the woman has to deal with, the economic situation has dictated that women have to earn a living to supplement the household income. Furthermore, more households in recent times are becoming female headed-

households. Women therefore have to most of the time make decisions affecting their families or work.

Women also find themselves not suited or qualified for particular jobs an obvious disadvantage for them in the job market.

It is of significant economic importance that women are able to obtain same opportunities as men in terms of employment and are accorded equal treatment in doing so. Recent social changes have seen the family set up change from patriarchal to setups of a more diversified nature. The onset of single motherhood has added to the concept of female-headed households. Thus the traditional justifications of women in particular professions cease to serve any good to society. Women's responsibilities have tripled in the society making them justified to earn equally and obtain jobs and promotion opportunities equal if not more to that of their male counterparts.

According to Françoise Latour da Veiga-Pinto (1976) "Women have not participated as women, but as part of a system which was created without allowing for their inclusion in the exercise of power, and whose workings automatically lead to the strengthening of masculine power." (Research Symposium on Women and Decision-Making: a social policy priority- pg. 3)

Therefore women's exercise of power in the society is limited. This is reflected in the number of women in decision-making levels in organizations.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT:

This study was based on the hypothesis that despite increased empowerment of women especially in educational attainment and the gradual washing away of a prohibitive culture dictating attitudes towards different occupations there still existed a large gap in gender in terms of occupational structure. Thus there were still a large number of women to be found in the lower occupational structures in organizations and fewer in the middle and top levels. The fact that the number of educated women had risen and the fact that domestic responsibilities were now reduced due to the inclusion of the household aids had increased women's time to take part in more demanding occupations. However most women were not confident enough to take on the challenges faced in these types of jobs. The attitude from employers had also not changed despite various testimonial situations from women professionals who had started organizations and led them to success. My study set out to observe if there was any actual change in the attitudes accorded to different types of jobs by observing the occupational structure in different stereotyped industries in the country.

1.3 OBJECTIVES :

The study investigated how women were represented in proportion to their population despite equal qualification status as their male counterparts and offer recommendations to bridge the gaps. The main objectives for the study were:

Broad objective:

To study the horizontal and vertical occupational segregation by gender in the formal sector of employment.

Specific objectives:

1. To determine the involvement of women in male dominated fields and men in female dominated fields
2. To link educational attainment to the lack or gain of employment opportunities.

1.4 JUSTIFICATION

The project was proposed out of the increased nature of the feminization of poverty. More households were observed to be increasingly female-headed households. Increased population in the country had seen a higher ratio of females to males. The HIV/ Aids pandemic had also realized more females left without any breadwinners except for themselves. Difficulties faced by women in accessing jobs in a broad range of categories had limited their chances of better pay and thus better livelihood for them and their families greatly increasing women's never ending cycle of poverty and plunging them further below the line of poverty. Increased female labour participation would see more women increase their standards of living and those of their families. This could only be achieved if women were able to participate in all job categories.

The woman's state today as regards employment has changed.

Today women are protected by the legislature. Thus women have:-

- a) The right to vote in the majority of the countries.
- b) As concerns equality of remuneration between men and women, the ILO adopted a convention on the subject (No.100) in 1951.
- c) Education is also available to both men and women, in principal in all countries.

The developments in the definitions adopted by ILO with reference to Labour Force Activity have furnished an equal playing ground for progression for both men and women in terms of opportunities for employment. I will sample some of these definitions below:

Definition: Labour Force Activity:-

1. 1954 -Persons who perform some work for pay or profit.(ILO, 1976)
2. 1960-All persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services. (ILO, 1976)

3. 1982-All persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services and defined by the United Nations Systems of National accounts and balances (ILO, 1982)

According to these systems (of national income accounts), the production of economic goods and services should include all production and processing of primary products, whether for the market, for barter or for own consumption. (Women's participation in the labour force: A methods test in India for improving its measurement (Richard Anker et al, 1988 pg. 8)

Yet women were not adequately represented in decision-making. Even in trade union movement, women have great difficulty in securing proper representation, even in the branches of production where they are most numerous. Women who are at an equal playing level with men in educational qualifications find it hard to obtain these positions than their male counterparts.

According to all these recent developments in the protection of women's rights in the production process, there should have been a more significant change experienced by women in terms of employment exposure. However, according to recent statistics, this was not so. Women still experienced a gap in the kind of jobs they were able to access-income differentials, promotions and training opportunities.

According to the Analytical report on Gender dimensions volume XI (2002), proportions of the economically inactive males were considerably lower than females. In Nairobi, 25% of the unemployed populations were women while only 14.5 % were men. One of the reasons attributed to the low participation of women in economic activity was their low participation in decision-making levels.

According to the Analytical Report on labour force Volume IX, although females contributed 57.1 % of the unemployed, their share in active job search at the national level was only 34.7 %, which was about half the share of active male job searchers.

Could the reason behind this be the culturally attached attitudes towards working by women or was it more so the non-availability of labour markets for females thus the resignation to housewife duties? During the 1999 census, this disparity was attributed to lower educational levels for females as compared to men. The 1999 census gender analysis however showed that the unemployment rates for females in the early ages of 15-29 years were higher than those for males as compared to 1989 showing an increased female participation in the labour markets. The unemployment rate of even educated females' showed a higher disparity. Only 7.7% of the population aged 15-64 years of male university graduates lacked employment while 18.9 % of female university graduates lacked jobs-almost triple that of men.

Studies in Kenya had not ventured into the organizational structure and my study would be able to shed some light into vertical gender representation in organizations.

CHAPTER 2

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW:

According to the Human Development Report of 1995, women take on a larger share of the work-paid and unpaid. On average 53% in developing countries, 51 % in industrial.

I will now undertake to explain the various changes in occupational segregation at the various regions i.e. international, regional and national regions.

The first world countries seem to have made progress in the inclusion of women in once male dominated occupations. According to Martin J. Watts(2001), the US military has been successful in pursuing policies of integration and affirmative action. The process of integration began when President Truman signed executive order 9981 in 1948 ordering the equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services during his re-election campaign. The passing of the Women's Integration Act in the same year enabled women to be mobilized, but they were restricted to 2% of enlisted soldiers and 10 % of female enlisted soldiers. In 1967, this restriction was lifted, but female representation in the military did not rise significantly until the 1970's. Women's entry into the military was made easier in 1973 by a change in gender exclusion policies, following concerns about manpower shortages in a voluntary military. Many non-combat jobs became available for women, who are now also allowed to work on combat aircraft and ships but are excluded from front-line infantry, armor and artillery units, and other units and occupations, such as submarines and Special Forces.

The National Skills strategy noted that women as a group within the UK still lag behind men in terms of their skills and qualifications. Despite this, there is still no explicit strategy that address these identified skill needs of women.(Miller et al,2004)

According to 'Women...a world Survey 1985', the hourly wages of working women in manufacturing industries are on average three-fourths those earned by men. In 1950 there were 27 million more boys than girls enrolled in primary and secondary levels of education; in 1985 there were 80 million more boys than girls enrolled. Women are 50 per cent of the teachers in primary schools, 31 per cent in secondary schools and 26 per cent in higher education.

In developing countries, two-thirds of the women over the age of 25 (and about half the men) have never been to school.

Educated women rank higher in verbal skills than educated men but in the global community not including China, there are 130 million more adult women than men who cannot read and write.

Women account for half the students studying for advanced degrees in the humanities, education and fine arts; for one -quarter in the more powerful fields of law, engineering and medicine. Although they comprise fifty per cent of the enfranchised population, women hold no more than 10 per cent of the seats in national legislature. In one government in three, there are no women in the executive council which represents the highest decision making body of the country. In those cabinets where women are included, there is usually one woman.

A relatively large portion of the women's paid labor force is unemployed or under-employed.

There is more hidden employment among women. Large numbers are in the informal sector or involuntarily working part time. In the third world, an especially large proportion of women is known to be self-employed, often as vendors or on piecework at home.

In industrialized countries, women also represent the vast majority of part time workers. The nature of the work in service industries permits it and often, family responsibilities require it. The majority of employed women were found to be married. Even when employed, surveys showed that they continued to carry the main burden of household work.

Wage gap: There is a persistent substantial wage gap between men and women. ILO attributes the gap mainly to concentration of women in lower paying occupations rather than to overt differences in pay scales for the same or similar jobs. Aside from the blatant forms of direct discriminations which government legislation has helped diminish but not wipe out, indirect discrimination which results in lower pay levels persists in many forms, implicit in recruitment procedures and training and promotion policies which favor men.

In “Women....a world survey” the occupational segregation in the job market is in those jobs considered to be of lower responsibility and skill, therefore paid less. Relatively few reach management and supervisory levels. According to the survey, most women are involved in agriculture, industry and services. Within all the three major fields women are clustered in unskilled, dead-end jobs with low pay and little potential for training or advancement.

In agriculture, if cash crops are grown, women tend to do the back-breaking planting, weeding and harvesting; men to operate whatever mechanical equipment is available.

In the services, women are largely in menial jobs, primarily as domestics or in the informal sector, selling food and homegrown crops.

In industry they provide cheap assembly-line labor for the rapidly growing multinational operations in textiles, apparel and electronic products.

Women’s occupational concentration is seen to be associated with unfavorable work patterns: lower wages, lower status, and longer hours, fewer or no fringe benefits and less security.

A study done in Britain in 1951 showed a great disparity between male and female workers in the employment sector. The table below shows the findings of the study:

Table 1: Disparity in male and female representation in various occupational categories in Britain-1951

Type of Job	Male representation %	Female representation %
Road transport workers	14.2	Nil
Salesman, shop assistants	14.5	14.3
Fitters, machine erectors	14.3	Nil
Engineering foremen	14.4	Nil
Clerks, typists	15.4	15.3
Managers in industrial undertakings	15.6	Nil
Professional Engineers, architects	17.3	Nil
Teachers	19.1	19.6

(Source: Occupation and Pay in Great Britain, 1951; page 8)

The status of managers who were women also showed a low distribution in various sectors:

In the Public Service only 15.4 % of the managers were women. There were 32.0 % of women employed as secretaries and registrars of companies, institutes and charities. In the textiles industry and textile goods; leather and leather goods, female representation stood at 11.2 %. Women in transportation took 42.4 % of the employees while those in retail and wholesale businesses were 20.7 %. Female bank managers and inspectors were very few represented at 0.7 %. However, there was a higher representation of females in service industries and more so in restaurants at 67.5 % and in hotels and public houses at 46.0%.

Occupational segregation in the developed countries centers especially in the service sector, which has absorbed the bulk of women's influx into the labor force. A study carried out by Sivard R.L. showed how narrowly focused the job concentration is. In Austria for example (1981) 63 percent of women worked in six out of 75 occupations. In Sweden, out of 270 occupational categories in the census, more than 40 percent of women were in just five jobs: secretary, nurse's aide, sales worker, cleaner and

children's nurse. The study also established that those jobs, which were common for women generally, included very few men. In the Swedish list for example, there were nine women for one man.

Sivard also found that there was relatively little change in the degree of occupational segregation though there had been some gender cross-over i.e. women entering fields previously confined largely to men and vice versa, their representation was in low numbers. Comparatively women filled very few management positions and in top management they were extremely rare.

Miller et al's study on occupational segregation across Europe concentrated on occupations that were the most strongly segregated i.e. construction, engineering, plumbing and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) (all male dominated), and childcare (female dominated)

Vertical segregation according to Theme H. serves as an invisible barrier to women's progression to more senior levels. Statistics from several countries showed that less than 10 percent of directors in British companies are women, and that women only make up 30 percent of management positions (excluding directors). Horizontal segregation in this study was used to also find out how many women were channeled to specific occupations and vice versa. In the UK for example women were found to comprise 69 percent or more of administrative and secretarial occupations, personal service and sales and customer service occupations, while men make up more of managers and senior officials, skilled trades, and process, plant and machine operatives. Women were also found to be under-represented in ITEC (electronic and communications) occupations.

According to Aili Mari Tripp's study of the occupational distribution in Tanzania, 1988 (in "Unequal burden") from a sample of 287 people the findings brought out worrying figures in the disparity in men's and women's activities.

Table 2: Disparity in male & female representation in various occupational categories in Tanzania-1988

<u>Type of Work</u>	Gender representation		
	Women	Men	Total (percent)
Informal work	66	68	67
Employed	9	36	23
Retired	0	8	4
Farming	72	44	59
No occupation	13	0	7

Bina Agarwal's study of India in "Unequal Burden" showed the female labour force participation in all India to be at 24.4 %

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Occupational segregation is important because it is a major source of labour market rigidity and economic inefficiency. Excluding a majority of workers from a majority of occupations, is wasteful of human resources, increases labour market inflexibility reducing an economy's ability to adjust to change. With the globalization of production and intensified international competition, these factors have assumed greater importance. Occupational segregation by sex is detrimental to women. It has an important negative effect on how men view women and on how women view themselves. This in turn negatively affects women's status and income and consequently many social variables such as mortality and morbidity, poverty and income inequality. The persistence of gender stereotypes also has negative effects on education and training and thus causes gender-based inequalities to be perpetuated into future generations.

Theories formulated focus on factors related to labour supply which generally focus on why women "prefer" certain types of occupation (e.g. they may "prefer" those with flexible hours in order to allow time for child care) and factors related to labour demand which focus on why employers generally "prefer" to hire women or men for particular occupations and why women and men have different opportunities for promotion and career development within firms.

I will concentrate on the two theories outlined below:

1. The neo-classical, human capital model
2. Feminist/ gender theories

2.2.1 The neo-classical, human capital model

It assumes that workers and employers are rational and that labour markets function efficiently. Therefore workers seek out the best paying jobs after taking into consideration their own personal endowments (e.g. education and experience), constraints (e.g. young child to take care of), and preferences (e.g. a pleasant work environment).

Employers on the other hand try to maximize their profits by maximizing productivity and minimizing costs to the extent possible, but because of competition and efficient labour markets, they pay workers their marginal product.

On the **labour supply** side, these theorists stress the lower levels of female human capital in terms of both what women bring to the labour market (less education, less relevant fields of study e.t.c.), as well as what they acquire after joining the labour market (less experience than men owing to intermittent or truncated labour market participation due to marriage and/ or household/ child-care responsibilities). Thus according to these theories, women rightfully receive lower pay than men because of their lower productivity.

The productivity-related variables of education and labour market experience are believed also to affect women's choice of occupation. Women would rationally choose occupations with relatively high starting pay, relatively low returns to experience, and relatively low penalties for temporary withdrawal from the labour force- including occupations which are flexible in terms of entry and working hours.

Arguments against these theories:

1. Women's labour force commitment has increased greatly in recent decades.
2. The amount of household and family-based work, which needs to be done, has fallen in recent years owing to increasing age at marriage and falling fertility as well as the use of household aids (washers, cookers, and vacuum cleaners e.t.c).
3. The increasing incidence of female-headed households all over the world (Anker quoting Buvini, 1995) implies that ever more women need to work continuously simply to earn a living. These various changes imply that women are gaining greater labour market experience, which means that according to these theories, should lead to major changes in the types of occupation women prefer and are offered. Despite all these changes, occupational segregation by sex remains very high all over the world.
4. Amongst the most important occupations, many male dominated ones (e.g. transport driver and auto mechanic) do not require more experience or continuity of employment than many female dominated ones (e.g. secretary and other clerical worker.) If anything the opposite is true. Being a secretary requires considerably

more knowledge and skills and makes more mental demands than being a delivery truck driver, yet secretaries receive lower pay.

On the **labour demand side** according to these theories, many of the factors influencing women's and men's preferences for particular occupations also influence employer's preferences for female or male workers. Thus jobs requiring a high level of education are more likely to be offered to men than to women as are jobs where experience and on-the-job training are relatively important. Both these arguments are questionable where both sexes have now achieved similar levels of education and labour force participation.

Women are considered to be higher cost workers (even when the same wage rate applies) because of the supposedly higher, indirect labour costs associated with women workers. This should affect the type of job employers offer women, depending on the relative importance of each of these factors for each occupation. (For example women said to have a higher rate of absenteeism.) Women are said to be late to work more frequently and to have higher labour turnover rates, which can be an important indirect cost. Women workers may also require separate toilet facilities at the workplace for themselves and crèches for their children. Women are sometimes said to be less flexible than men as regards being able to stay late or to work on official leave days. Again according to recent studies conducted by Anchor and Hein, 1985 and 1986, the differences in absenteeism in male and female workers proved to be minimal. This was attributed to the greater likelihood of men leaving for another job and of women leaving their jobs for family reasons.

Labour laws and regulations sometimes directly affect the demand for women workers. Protective legislation sometimes prohibits women from working in certain occupations or under certain conditions. (e.g. night work- provisions of the ILO's Night Work (Women) Convention, 1919(No. 4); from working underground in mines (Underground Work (Women) Convention, 1935 (No. 45); or from carrying heavy loads(the Maximum Weight Convention, 1967 (No. 127). Although these laws aim to protect women, they are no longer relevant because of the invention of machines, which can be easily operated by either gender and introduction of safety devices and should therefore be changed.

Labour laws can increase the comparative cost of employing female workers. For example, paid maternity leave increases the cost of women workers relative to men and so can become an indirect form of sex discrimination if employers have to bear this cost.

2.2.2 FEMINIST/GENDER THEORIES

They are mainly concerned with non-labour market variables which economists take as given. A basic premise of gender theories is that women's disadvantaged position in the labour market is caused by, and is a reflection of, patriarchy and women's subordinate position in the society and family. In all societies, household work and childcare are seen as women's chief responsibility. The fact that these societal norms and perceptions bear little relation to the daily lives of many women, men and families do not detract from their influence on people's behavior and their contribution to gender-based discrimination against women.

This division of responsibilities and the patriarchal ordering of society are instrumental in determining why women usually accumulate less human capital compared with men before entering the labour market- that is why girls receive less education than boys, and are less likely to pursue fields of study, such as sciences and crafts, of greater relevance to the labour market. Overall, women are perceived as having lesser need for labour market skills. These same influences are also instrumental in explaining why women acquire less labour market experience, on average because many of them withdraw from the labour force early, and many others withdraw from the labour force temporarily.

Gender theorists list out 13 characteristics commonly attributed to women, which may have an effect on occupational segregation, by sex. They are divided into three groups of stereotypes (positive, negative and other).

The five "positive" stereotypes are: a caring nature; skill and experience in household-related work; greater manual dexterity; greater honesty; attractive physical appearance. These characteristics are said to help "qualify" women for the following occupations: nurse, doctor, social worker, teacher, maid, housekeeper, cleaner, cook, waiter,

launderer, hairdresser, spinner, weaver, knitter, tailor/dressmaker, midwife, sewer, typist, cashier/book-keeper, salesperson, accountant, receptionist, street vendor and shop assistant.

The five negative stereotypes are: disinclination to supervise others; lesser physical strength; lesser ability in science and mathematics; lesser willingness to travel; and lesser willingness to face physical danger and to use physical force. These characteristics negatively affect women's acceptability in various occupations, which consequently helps ensure that they become typically "male" occupations. They would in effect disqualify women from the following types of occupations: manager, supervisor, government executive officer/ administrator, legislative official, construction worker, miner/quarrier, well driller, physical scientist, architect, engineer, mathematician, statistician, aircraft officer and worker, ship officer and worker, transport equipment driver/operator, fire-fighter, police officer and security guard,

Three other stereotypes are identified namely: greater willingness to take orders, greater docility and lesser inclination to complain about work or working conditions, lesser inclination to join trade unions, greater tolerance of monotonous repetitive work; greater willingness to accept lower wages and less need for income; and greater interest in working at home. These stereotypes have a greater influence on the general characteristics typifying "female" occupations (such as low pay, high flexibility, low status, less decision making authority) than on disqualifying women for particular occupations.

Gender theorists also point out how cultural restrictions contribute to the establishment of what is acceptable work for women and how in some countries they effectively bar women from certain occupations. Among Muslims, *purdah* effectively forbids women from interacting with unknown men in public. As a result, many Muslim women are discouraged from taking sales jobs except in shops where all customers are women; women are excluded from factory jobs except when the entire factory workforce is female

CHAPTER 3

3.0 METHODOLOGY

Research being “an inquiry into the nature of the reasons for and the consequences of any particular set of circumstances”, the research methods used inquired into the occupational structures in various perceived stereotyped industries.

The methods used were both qualitative and quantitative. The two methods removed the bias associated with each kind of method. It also helped to bring out the various objectives of the study. This helped to obtain primary data on what proportions of the sample studied were in the various occupations and measured attitudes attached to certain occupations by both the employer and employee.

3.1 DATA COLLECTION

STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE METHOD:

A structured questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions was used for the study.. The questionnaire obtained data for job titles, gender engaged in the job activity and job related qualifications .A sample questionnaire is provided in the Annex section.

INTERVIEW METHOD:

It was not possible to obtain all answers as per my questionnaire without a personal interview with the supervisors of the employees in the organizations picked up. The time limit in doing my study also propelled me to seek direct answers from the interviewees and therefore the two methods were combined. I found this an advantage, as I was able to probe further and avoid questions being left out.

3.2 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

A sample of the population for the study was picked from the various industries in Nairobi City and not more than five kilometers for the central business district.

The study concentrated on various industries where more women were expected to have higher representation in all occupational categories and the various industries where women were expected to have lower representation in all occupational categories. A neutral industry in which no gender specification was assumed yet was chosen.

SAMPLING FRAME:

As the study concentrated on particular stereotyped occupations i.e. teaching, nursing (“female dominated”), engineering (“male dominated”) and the ICT as the neutral industry, I picked out the various companies offering these occupations. I then used the directory, as my sampling frame. The companies forming the sample were located within the central business district of Nairobi and not more than 5 km from it. Since the objectives of the study were to establish gender representation in occupations selected, questionnaires were administered to supervisors/human resource managers.

Schools in Nairobi: Three schools were chosen with a total sample of 109 teachers. The questionnaires were administered to the heads of departments who supervised the teachers.

ICTs

Three companies were chosen for the study with a total sample of 36 ICT professionals. The companies had small populations and thus the director/C.E.O’s answered the questionnaires.

Hospitals: I picked out two major hospitals in Nairobi (Kenyatta National Hospital and Nairobi Hospital) with a total sample of 2059 nurses and 249 doctors. Data was collected from the human resource department head.

Engineering: I picked out at least 6 Engineering companies for the study with a total sample of 350 engineers. Again data was collected from the heads of departments and supervisors of the engineering companies.

3.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS:

This study also took into account ethical considerations while being conducted.

A prior call to the various companies was made to inform of intention and allow the heads to be conversant with the objectives of the study. This brought an added advantage, as collecting information with their prior approval was easy and avoided time wasting.

The questionnaire was precise and clear to avoid the feeling of embarrassing the company and time wastage on their part.

Companies were not required to give their names to remove any feeling of victimization in the final analysis and would only give information relevant to the study.

Companies were also made aware of their rights to any information felt as confidential or that, which could be of potential harm to the company if exposed.

Companies through their directors made an informed decision about whether or not they wished to participate in the study.

Details of the study were given in the introduction letter including identification of me the researcher, number of companies involved, benefits of the study and purpose of the study.

3.4 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY:

The study was limited to the employment sector. It targeted various occupations in the employment sector that were seen as gender stereotyped (teaching, nursing, and engineering) and a relatively new field (the ICT industry)

The targeted population sample was chosen from Nairobi for the study as the city being the capital of Kenya had fewer limitations for full and equal employment due to a multi-cultural environment that is vibrant with all types of industry. The area also holds the

literate population of the country with the inclusion of both genders. Since my study hoped to capture changes in the organizational structure in view of changes in literacy (thus qualifications), the area was ideal.

The study had its limitations because I was not able to pick out other employment sectors in play.

The problem of cooperation also arose, as some companies did not want to spend time in answering the questionnaire and did not hand them back. Some also created a chain of bureaucracy and failed to fill in the questionnaire.

There was however a lot of cooperation from the companies that did answer their questionnaire as I was able to interact with the personnel departments to obtain the data as well as hold an interview with the employers. A lot of bias was removed this way.

CHAPTER 4

4.0 OCCUPATIONAL STRUCTURE IN THE EMPLOYMENT SECTOR

4.1 Data Collected

Data from the various fields studied is presented in the form of tables and figures showing the findings of the study.

Teaching industry:

Table 3 below shows the sex structure obtained in schools studied. There was a relatively higher representation of females in each of the schools at 61%, 60% and 65% for schools A, B and C respectively.

Table 3: Sex structure by school

School	Sex of the respondents		Total
	Male Teachers	Female Teachers	
School A	24 (39%)	37 (61%)	61 (100%)
School B	2 (40%)	3 (60%)	5 (100%)
School C	15 (35%)	28 (65%)	43 (100%)
Total	41 (38%)	68 (62%)	109(100%)

Hospital industry:

Table 4 shows the sex structure in the field of nursing in the hospitals studied. Hospital A had a higher number of nurses than hospital B. It should however be noted that Hospital A is a public hospital while Hospital B is a private hospital. The disparity in gender representation was highly notable in both hospitals as 82 % and 92 % of the nurses in Hospital A and B respectively were female nurses. Male nurses had a low representation of 18% and 8% for Hospital A and B respectively.

Table 4: Sex structure by hospital in nursing

School	Sex of the respondents		Total
	Male Nurses	Female Nurses	
Hospital A	298 (18)%	1381 (82 %)	1679 (100 %)
Hospital B	30 (8 %)	350 (92 %)	380 (100 %)
Total	328 (16 %)	1731 (84 %)	2059 (100 %)

Table 5 below shows the sex structure of doctors by hospitals studied. Results shown indicate a low representation of female doctors (29%) in hospital A against 60 % in Hospital B. The important observation made was that the private hospital (B) hired more female doctors than the public hospital (A).

Table 5: Sex structure of doctors by hospital

Hospital	Sex of the respondents		Total
	Male Doctors	Female Doctors	
Hospital A	156 (71 %)	63 (29 %)	219 (100 %)
Hospital B	12 (40 %)	18 (60 %)	30 (100 %)
Total	168 (67 %)	81 (33 %)	249 (100 %)

Engineering industry:

There was very low representation of females in the Engineering industry. Table 6 below shows that there was almost a 100% representation of males in 3 out of the 5 companies studied. The overall female representation in engineering companies was 3%. The engineering companies studied were mostly private thus the low number of engineers. However, company B was a public company with 318 engineers and only 4 female engineers employed.

Table 6: Sex structure by Engineering company

Engineering Company	Sex of the respondents		Total
	Male Engineers	Female Engineers	
Company A	5 (100%)	0 (0 %)	5 (100 %)
Company B	314 (99%)	4 (1 %)	318 (100 %)
Company C	3 (100%)	0 (0 %)	3 (100 %)
Company D	5 (56 %)	4 (44 %)	9 (100 %)
Company E	2 (67 %)	1 (33 %)	3 (100 %)
Company F	10 (83 %)	2 (17 %)	12 (100 %)
Total	339 (97 %)	11 (3 %)	350 (100 %)

Information and Communication Technology industry:

The ICT industry was studied as a new industry in the Kenyan employment sector the objective to find out if any gender stereotyping would be observed. Results from Table 7 indicate a low representation of females in the industry at an average of 17% indicating a trend of male stereotyping in the industry. All companies showed a high male representation with only company B showing a slightly higher female representation of 36%.

Table 7: Sex structure by ICT company

ICT Company	Sex of respondents		Total
	Male ICT professionals	Female ICT Professionals	
Company A	16 (94 %)	1 (6 %)	17 (100 %)
Company B	7 (64 %)	4 (36 %)	11 (100 %)
Company C	7 (88 %)	1 (12 %)	8 (100 %)
Total	30 (83 %)	6 (17 %)	36 (100 %)

Figure 1: Male representation in all occupations

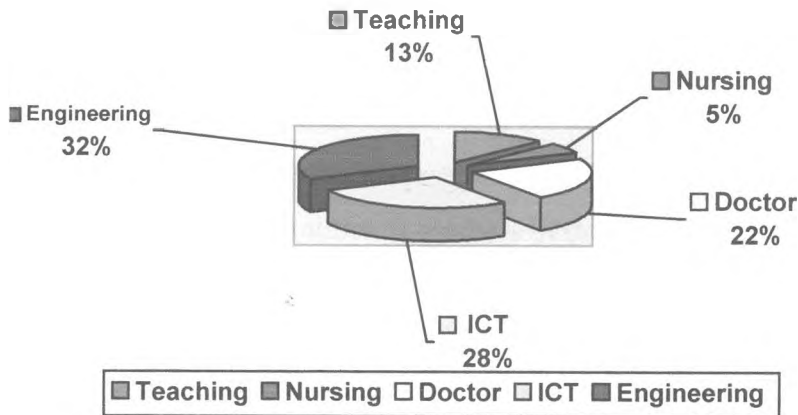


Figure 2: Female representation in all occupations

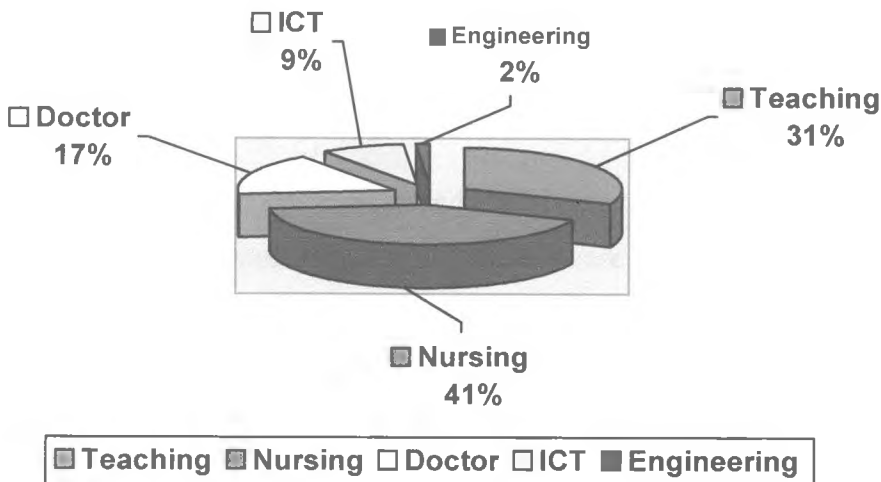


Figure 1 brings out a high representation of males in Engineering, ICT and Doctor Professions at 32%, 22% and 28% respectively. There is low representation of males in nursing (5%) and teaching (13%).

Figure 2 brings out a high representation of females in teaching and nursing professions at 31% and 41 % respectively. There is low representation of females in Engineering (2%) and ICT (9%).

4.2 DIFFERENTIALS IN GENDER REPRESENTATION IN OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES

To Differentiate between representation of both genders in the teaching industry

$$(X-Z)/W *100$$

Where X was larger gender represented (in this case female)

Where Y was lesser gender represented (in this case male)

And W was the total number of teachers in the schools studied

$$(68-41)/ 109 *100= 25 \%$$

This means that there were 25% less males represented in the teaching industry i.e. there were 25 % more females than males in the teaching industry, a gap that seemed to be slowly closing.

To obtain the differential percentage of gender in the nursing profession

$$(X-Z)/W *100$$

Where X was larger gender represented (in this case female)

Where Y was lesser gender represented (in this case male)

And W was the total number of nurses in the hospitals studied

$$(1731-328) / 2059*100 = 68 \%$$

The results show that there were 68 % more females than males in the nursing occupation making it a gender-stereotyped profession.

To obtain difference in representation of both genders in the profession of doctors:

$$(X-Z)/W *100$$

Where X was larger gender represented (in this case male)

Where Y was lesser gender represented (in this case female)

And W was the total number of doctors in the hospitals studied

$$(168-81)/249*100$$

$$= 35 \%$$

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The results show that there were 35 % fewer females as doctors in the two hospitals studied. The gender disparity here was not felt as much as in nursing.

To obtain difference in representation of both genders in the engineering profession

$$(X-Z)/W * 100$$

Where X was larger gender represented (in this case male)

Where Y was lesser gender represented (in this case female)

And W was the total number of engineers in the companies studied

$$(339-11)/350*100$$

$$= 94\%$$

This was the widest felt gap with males out numbering females by a gap of 94 %. The gap told of a negative perception of females in the Engineering profession thus the insignificant representation.

To obtain difference in representation of both genders in the Information

Technology profession

$$(X-Z)/W * 100$$

Where X was larger gender represented (in this case male)

Where Y was lesser gender represented (in this case female)

And W was the total number of ICT workers in the companies studied

$$(30-6)/36*100$$

$$=67 \%$$

The results show that there was a 67 % less representation of females in the ICT profession in the industry. This being a recent profession and one, which could be placed as, stereotyped in one gender points to an attitude development in the requirements for the profession.

4.3 GENDER REPRESENTATION IN THE HIERARCHY OF

ADMINISTRATION IN THE INDUSTRIES STUDIED:

School A:

Almost an equal playing field was observed in the teaching environment for this school at 53 % for males and 46 % for females. Arguments based on the earlier results and the theories supporting gender stereotyped occupations should have brought out a higher representation of females in administrative roles being the profession that is suited to their physical and psychological outfit. However an involvement by females in less scientific subjects and more in socially related fields (guidance and counselling, languages, careers e.t.c.) was observed.

Males on the other hand headed what were more science-oriented fields but it also needs to be pointed out that males held the three top positions thus were at a stronger position of influence in decision making.

School B

The results from school B showed that males held the two top posts of manager and head teacher too.

School C

Data from this school showed a higher representation of males at the top of the hierarchy, as was the case in the other two schools. The results were therefore consistent and showed a continuing trend of a male dominated occupational structure in the teaching industry. All teachers should have been able to compete at the same level due to their educational qualification, which was at the same level. In one case, one female happened to have the highest educational qualification (Degree) but was placed very low in the hierarchy. These results showed some amount of discrimination if the highest sought for factor would be the educational level. This was not necessarily true as the second in command was male and had a higher level of education as compared to the highest in authority.

Table 8: Hierarchy of administration in Hospital A

Sno.	Administrative position	Males	Females	Total Representation	Educational Qualification
1	Chief Nurse	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1 st Degree-Bsc
2	Deputy Chief Nurse	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	Diploma + Degree(Bsc)
3	Assistant Chief Nurse	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	12 (100%)	Diploma + degrees(Bsc)
4	Senior Chief Nurse	7 (9%)	71 (91%)	78 (100%)	Diploma + degree(Bsc)
5	Nursing Officer I	48 (14%)	295 (86%)	343 (100%)	Diploma
6	Nursing Officer II	76 (33%)	157 (67%)	233 (100%)	Diploma
7	Nursing Officer III	40 (20%)	159 (80%)	199 (100%)	Certificate
8	Senior Enrolling Nurse	2 (3%)	77 (97%)	79 (100%)	Certificate
9	Enrolled Nurse I	69 (12%)	501 (88%)	570 (100%)	Certificate
10	Enrolled Nurse II	13 (11%)	101 (89%)	114 (100%)	Certificate
11	Enrolled Nurse III	14 (30%)	32 (70%)	46 (100%)	Certificate
	Total	269 (16%)	1407 (84%)	1676 (100%)	

The results from hospital A above showed a gender stereotyped profession with the males having no representation in the top 14 positions taken by the chief nurse, deputy chief nurse and 12 assistant chief nurses. As we saw earlier there were only a very small percentage of males in the nursing profession. There was a noticeable link in position and educational level ranging from 1st degree from the top to diploma and certificate respectively towards the bottom. Recruitment procedures were very specific and the various administration levels were attained on educational qualifications.

Table 9: Hierarchy of administration in hospital B

Sno.	Administrative Position	Males	Females	Total representation	Educational qualification
1	Manager	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1 st Degree(Bsc)
2	Matron	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	2 nd Degree (Msc)
3	Assistant Matron	0 (0%)	3 (100%)	3 (100%)	1 st Degree(Bsc)
4	Charge Sisters	0 (0%)	11 (100%)	11 (100%)	1 st Degree (Bsc)
5	Sisters	2 (2%)	96 (98%)	98 (100%)	Diploma
6	138 senior staff nurse	8 (5%)	138 (95%)	146 (100%)	Diploma
7	Staff nurse	20 (13%)	131 (87%)	151 (100%)	Diploma
	Total	30 (7%)	381 (93%)	411 (100%)	

Data from hospital B showed the same trend as that of the first hospital with males not existent at the top of the hierarchy but slowly appearing in small numbers at the bottom. Level of education here also played a major role in the job category. The recruitment procedure and vertical movement in the hierarchy was largely dependent on educational attainments.

Table 10: Hierarchy of administration in engineering company A

Sno.	Administrative position	Males	Females	Total	Educational Qualification
1	Managing Director	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	2 nd Degree (Msc)
2	Structural Engineers	2 (100%)	0 (0%)	2 (100%)	1 st Degree (Bsc)
3	Civil Engineers	2 (100%)	0 (0%)	2 (100%)	2 nd Degree (Msc)
4	Water Engineers	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	2 nd Degree (Msc)
5	Engineer Technicians	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	3 (100%)	Diploma
	Total	8 (89%)	1 (11%)	9 (100%)	

Results from the table indicated a male dominated profession and therefore administration fell in the same way. The level of education also played a significant role in the hierarchy.

Hierarchy of administration in engineering company B

Results from this company showed an almost balanced gender representation both in the profession and in the administration levels.

Table 11: Hierarchy of administration in engineering company C

Sno.	Administrative Position	Males	Females	Total	Educational Qualification
1	Managing Director	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	2 nd Degree(Msc)
2	Head of Department Structures	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	2 nd Degree(Msc)
3	Head of Department civil works	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	2 nd Degree (Msc)
4	Civil Engineers	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	3 (100%)	1 st Degree (Bsc)
5	Engineers (structures)	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	2 (100%)	1 st Degree (Bsc)
6	Technicians	2 (67%)	1 (33%)	3 (100%)	Diploma
7	Engineers (water)	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	Diploma
	Total	8 (67%)	4 (33%)	12 (100%)	

This was a public company and showed an order in hierarchy based on educational levels. There was female representation at the top of the hierarchy and therefore little bias shown. However there were very few females in this company employed as engineers.

Table 12: Hierarchy of administration in ICT Company A

Sn o.	Administrative Position	Males	Females	Total	Educational Qualification
1	Managing Director	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 st Degree-Bsc
2	Software Director	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 st Degree=Bsc
3	Office Administrator	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	Diploma
4	Programmers	4 (100%)	0 (0%)	4 (100%)	1 st Degree Bsc + Diploma
5	Office assistant	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	Certificate
	Total	6 (75%)	2 (25%)	8 (100%)	

This company showed female representation at the lower levels of administration and mainly in support duties to the senior staff. The females were therefore not engaged in the ICT industry as professionals.

Table 13: Hierarchy of administration in ICT Company B

Sno.	Administrative Position	Males	Females	Total	Educational Qualification
1	Permanent Secretary	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	3 rd Degree-Phd
2	Senior Deputy secretary	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	2 nd Degree-Msc
3	Department heads	7 (87.5%)	1 (12.5%)	8 (100%)	1 st Degree-Bsc
	Total	9 (90%)	1 (10%)	10 (100%)	

Data from table 13 above shows low representation of females at the top of the hierarchy and vice versa for males. There was only one female head of department against 7 males.

Table 14 : Hierarchy of administration in ICT Company C

Sno.	Administrative Position	Males	Females	Total	Educational Qualification
1	Chief Executive Officer	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 st Degree- Bsc
2	Administration Manager	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1 st Degree-BA
3	Marketing Manager	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	Diploma
4	Technical Manager	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	1 st Degree -Bsc
	Total	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	4 (100%)	

Data from this table showed a higher representation of males in the management level at 75 per cent with female representation at 25 per cent. There were different qualifications attached to the different positions as is shown in the table.

4.4 GENDER AND WORK VALUES

The next section looks at analysis on perception ratings for each gender towards certain work values. This section brings out any prejudices held against either gender with regard to their generalized ability to uphold various working values expected from their employers and which give approval or disapproval for hiring, firing, demotion or promotion. The values were tested in a bid to prove or disprove the various theories on the hiring of particular gender due to already perceived positives or negatives in the values outlined. The values tested were as outlined below and the outcome and significance will be discussed separately.

- a) **Punctuality to work**- Punctuality to work plays a major role in the type of job one handles and employees with very demanding jobs would have to be very punctual. Females however could be affected due to family responsibilities.
- b) **Time flexibility**- various high paying jobs demand time flexibility from their employers. Employees who are likely to extend their working hours are more suitable for such jobs. Furthermore the extra money paid for such jobs is an attractive package.
- c) **Handling work stress**- Demanding jobs also come with a lot of expectations due to tight schedules and an employee's ability to handle this kind of stress positively will be an asset to the company and therefore easily promoted.
- d) **Team Playing**-The only way to rising up the ladder is through team playing, a quality that has been enhanced in organisations for effective running of affairs in the company. The ability to work well in teams is positive for employers and would be one that the employers would use to hire, promote, demote and fire their employees.
- e) **Flexibility of Location**- Companies, which have more than one branch or require frequent travel, require staff who are willing to work from any location on demand as need arises. An employer would therefore work comfortably with employees flexible in location.
- f) **Absenteeism**- Absenteeism leads to low production and inefficiency and employers would also use this characteristic as a reason for promotion, demotion or firing of staff.
- g) **Completion of work deadlines**- Work completed on time means the ability to move on to other projects and no backlogs for the company. Inability of staff to complete their

work on time is negative for the growth of the company and would be a reason for demotion/ promotion.

I will now discuss the outcome on the above values from my research.

1. Perception for male and female employees on: Punctuality to work

An overall 36 % of the companies rated their male workers to be punctual to work while only 14 % rated their female workers as punctual. However both male and female workers appear to be rated on the same level of punctuality with 43% of the companies giving an equal rating in punctuality to their male and female workers. On this value then neither gender can be denied the necessary benefits at work.

2. Perception for male and female workers on: Time Flexibility

Time flexibility for females came out to be perceived negatively with 71 % of the companies interviewed giving a fair rating for the females while only 28 % of the companies gave males a fair rating. Male workers got a 57% score on a high rating in time flexibility while only 21% of the companies gave their female workers a high rating on time flexibility. Only 28 % of the companies interviewed gave an equal rating for both their male and female workers. It can therefore be concluded that females are not generally perceived as being time flexible and would therefore not suit in a job requiring odd working hours. Most supervisors interviewed indicated that males easily accepted tasks performed above normal working hours and could therefore work on more challenging jobs. Females on the other hand would have to make decision with difficulty and delay and were therefore suited for less time demanding jobs.

3. Perception on handling work stress

An overall 43 % of the companies interviewed gave a high rating for their male workers in being able handle work stress and thus more able to handle very demanding jobs for a longer time while only 1 % applied for their female workers. Again females were portrayed here as less able to handle demanding jobs. In the few instances where males

got a poor rating on handling work stress, they were reported to result to drug abuse and alcohol when pushed to the wall.

4. Perception on the value of Team Playing

On the value of team playing ability, females got a higher rating than their male counterparts with 50 % while only 43 % of the companies gave their male workers a high value on team playing. This could be attributed to the social nature of females and the competition driven male. Based on this then, female workers should be able to get necessary benefits with regard to their team playing abilities.

5. Perception on : Flexibility of Location

Male employees were perceived as “Very flexible” in the case of change of location of job with 100% of the companies giving them this rating. A mere 37 % of the companies rated females highly in flexibility with 57 % of them giving females a “poor” rating in the case of flexibility of location. This however according to most supervisors was attributed to the family responsibilities carried by women. According to one supervisor in an engineering firm, “Most females will immediately drop the job and opt for another company if asked to leave current location. The decision is not theirs alone but the husband and children’s also.”

6. Perception on :Absenteeism ✓

In this category, 71 % of the companies reported their male workers to have a lower absenteeism rate than their female counterparts who were rated by only 50% of the companies as to having low absenteeism rates. However absenteeism did not feature as contentious factor as no company gave a high absenteeism rate rather the codes for low and moderate were used. This factor then showed that there would be no basis for gender discrimination in the award of benefits relating to low absenteeism.

7. Perception on : Completion of work deadlines

In this category, 100% of the companies gave their male workers a high rating on punctuality while females made a 71.4 % in the ratings. However the completion of work

deadlines was rated equally for both male and female workers at 71.4 %. This shows that both male and female workers were perceived to be committed to their work and therefore an asset to their companies.

4.5 FACTORS CONSIDERED BY EMPLOYERS IN HIRING, & AWARD OF BENEFITS

The next section concentrates on the last part of the questionnaire, which sought to find out considerations on the part of the employer in hiring and awarding benefits to their employees in the case of training, promotion and salary increments. The main aim of this section was to bring out the basis for discrimination (if any) in the hiring of staff to particular jobs and also in the promotion and award of benefits including training.

Considerations for: Hiring Staff

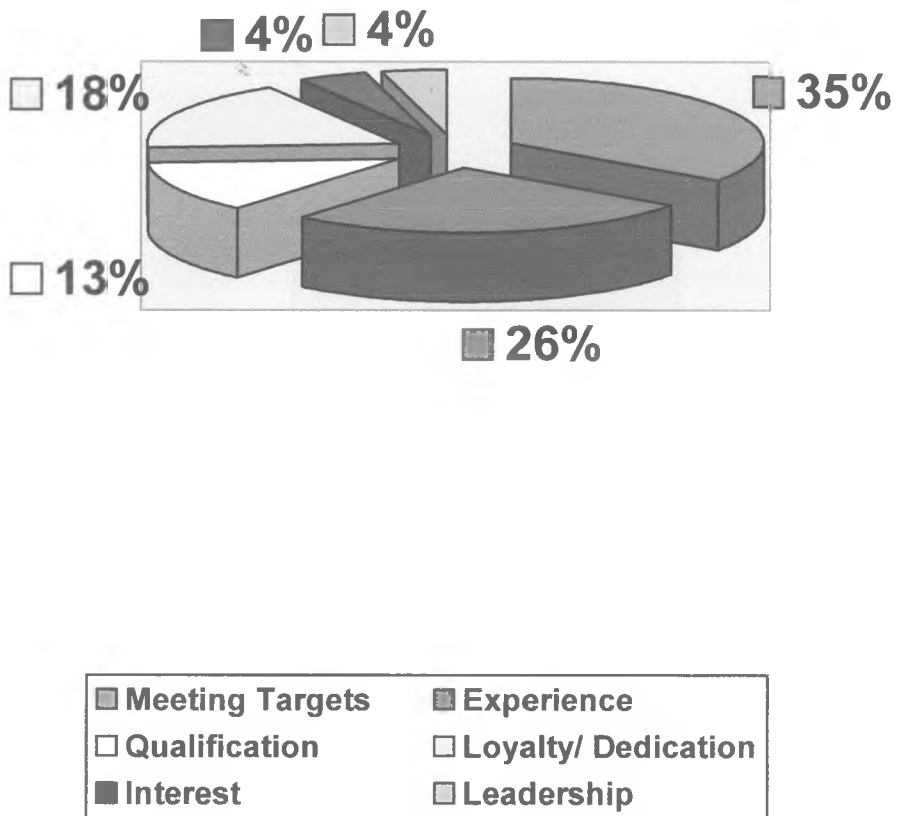
The basis for hiring of staff came out quite clearly with 71.4 % of the companies listing “Qualifications” of the employee to be considered first, followed by “Experience” and lastly “Gender”. In 86 % of the companies, the issue of “Gender” was not relevant at all while hiring staff. However 14 % of the companies were considerate of gender while hiring. In one company a change of policy to eradicate corruption had seen a higher preference for females in the workforce as they were seen to be more honest and with much more responsibility in their homes to risk corruption. In another company however, a preference for males was quoted when looking for efficiency in the work place.

Promotion of Staff:

Regarding this benefit, 57 per cent of the supervisors interviewed listed achievement of targets together with performance for consideration when offering promotion to staff. The experience held by the employee was placed second at 43 per cent while Loyalty/commitment and dedication were listed third place at 29 per cent. The qualifications of employee came in fourth place at 21 per cent.

Other mentioned contributors to consideration of promotion were listed as individual interest and leadership qualities.

Figure 3: Chart Showing distribution of factors in consideration for Promotion



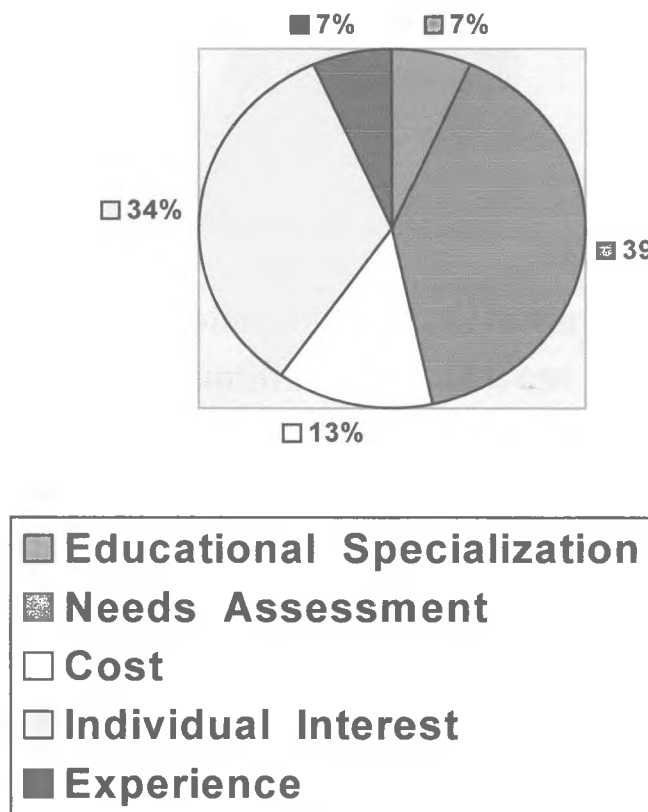
The figure above brings out meeting of targets as the single most important factor at 35% followed by experience at 26 %. The least important factors came out as interest at and leadership skills in consideration of promotion.

Training of Staff:

In regard to this benefit, 43 per cent of the companies quoted needs assessment procedure when considering training opportunities for staff members. The company had to show the

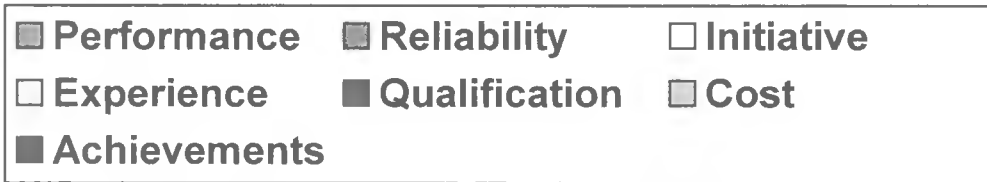
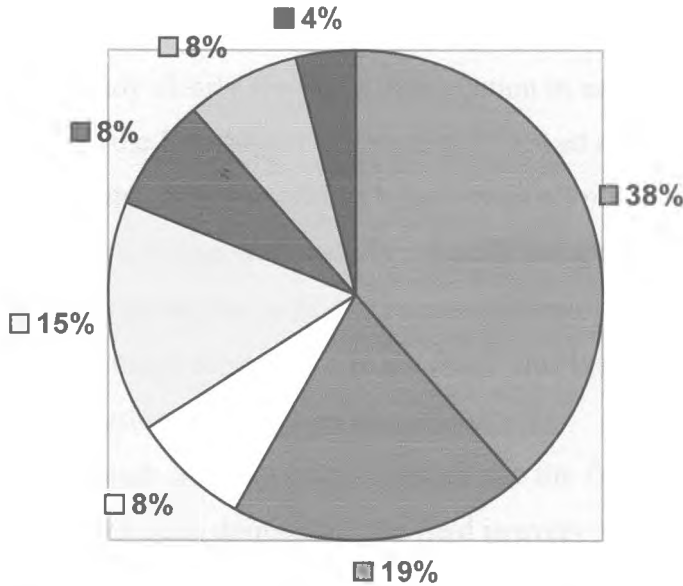
need for the particular kind of training before training was approved. The interest of particular employees was then considered second at 36 per cent while cost was seen as third factor considered at 13 per cent. Other factors, which came out, were educational specialization and experience

Figure 4: Pie Chart showing distribution of factors considered in selection for training.



Results from the figure show needs assessment to be the most important factor considered at 39% followed by individual interest at 36%, cost at 13% and lastly experience and educational specialization at 7% each

Figure 5: Factors considered in the award of salary increments and benefits



Salary Increment and benefits:

The conditions outlined by companies for the award of salary increment and other benefits including house allowance, travel and meals allowance, medical benefits e.t.c to its employees is important to the extent that there should be no discrimination. The results of the study done showed that performance of the employee was the single most factor considered when awarding salary increments and benefits to employees at 38 %. The least considered factor was achievements at 4%. The figure above displays the factors, which came out as important in the consideration for salary increments and other benefits.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results from my study clearly showed a demarcation in occupations with regard to gender. Occupations in the Kenyan society were still viewed as stereotyped occupations for specific gender groups. This was shown by a very small percentage of either gender being represented in occupations traditionally set-aside for specific gender.

The occupation of Engineering saw a higher representation of males and only a very small percentage saw women represented in the field. This is despite the obvious societal challenges and the inclusion of women in education.

The field in nursing though showing entry of males into the field however still showed a high demarcation with females dominating the field in every aspect.

The teaching industry showed an almost equal representation of either gender but demarcations were clear in the hierarchy of administration where despite an occupation seen to be in the hands of females their representation in administration was meager.

There was also a clear demarcation in fields of interest in the teaching industry with males on the technical subjects of Mathematics and Sciences and females in the Arts and Languages.

The ICT industry was meant to be a neutral gender occupation as this is a relatively new occupation where no gender specifications were made. However my study showed that the field was already emerging as a male dominated field. The ICT industry is growing everyday with all industries being required to be proficient in information technology. It is no doubt that this field holds a lot of opportunities for the youth. Females should especially not be left out of an opportunity to be in one of the fastest growing industries. It was interesting to note that no company had an “Equal Opportunity employment Policy”. Since the companies were interviewed in the understanding that they were traditionally “Gender Stereotyped professions” it was easy to assume that the lack of this policy is a factor that had contributed to discrimination in hiring of staff.

The conditions outlined for the selection of staff in training were very open to both gender and left little room for discrimination as only the individual and company interest were considered. Both male and female employees were able to contest for further training in their fields. The limiting factors would be their own interest in the training and the company's financial limitations.

However as seen from the results on the values of absenteeism, completion of work deadlines, punctuality, flexibility of location and time and the conditions outlined for the consideration of salary increments and benefits and promotion, females were at a disadvantage. This was because most companies did not rate their female workers well in terms of the above values. Females in fact scored low in the punctuality to work and flexibility of time and location and even in making deadlines. This showed that most of the females would fail to be considered for salary increments and promotions, as they would then not be reliable to their company, which was a factor, rated highly in salary increment.

Due to their family roles as we pointed out earlier, performance of females at work was affected. A male employee would be able to put in more hours to his job without interruption as opposed to his female colleague. This in itself was a disadvantage to earning a promotion or salary increment.

With experience rating highly as a third factor, women even seemed more disadvantaged due to work interruptions. In the private sector this meant possibility of losing the job. The chance of gaining more experience was limited due to non-flexibility of work location. Male workers would more easily earn a promotion or salary raise as opposed to their female counterparts.

Qualifications of the employee was one of the factors highly considered for a promotion or salary raise. Male and female employees would compete equally if qualifications were the only factor to be considered. From the results of the study most females were as educated as their male counterparts and some rated even better. However qualification came as a third factor after performance and experience therefore placing females at a disadvantage.

Overall, the attitude of the working population had not changed in its view of role placement and the ability of either gender to accomplish any role given to them and in their interest. Women too were limited by this lack of change in society burdening them

with their expected roles in society while challenging them with the difficulties of a modern society. Women were therefore caught in the hurdle trying to balance the two against a male dominated society.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

Based on my conclusions above, there needs to be a change in policy and attitude at three levels:

- The individual
- The Family and society
- The government

The Individual:

The greatest limitation in achievement was found in the individual and begged for a change in attitude and perception of various occupations. Each occupation should be viewed as a means to personal achievement and one that can be performed by any individual. In this respect both men and women should be open to all kinds of fields to create a more diverse employment sector and therefore create more employment opportunities. Parents need to stop telling children what to be but encourage them in all areas and leave them to discover their own interest. Girls should be encouraged to gain interest in technical subjects and boys encouraged in gaining interest in caring and nurturing.

The Family and Society:

Roles given to boys and girls at home, school and in the neighbouring environment are a strong factor in influencing their careers. Boys and girls should be given the same tasks to accomplish in order to remove the attitude associated with different roles. Parents should act as role models and be able to interchange roles in the house thus children will not identify themselves with particular roles but with the responsibility to fill a need. Society needs to stop shunning ambitious women who are interested in leadership positions and award these positions on merit thus women will feel encouraged to further their skills.

The government:

The role of the government will play a major role in enforcing what the family, society and individual attempt to do.

1. The government needs to take affirmative action in ensuring all females and males qualified in “Stereotyped Professions” are employed in such organisations.
2. An “Equal Opportunity Employment Policy” should be made mandatory for all employers.
3. A non-discrimination policy should be put in place in all work places to ensure all workers are protected in their work places and are not harassed for being in the “wrong” profession”
4. The Government through its Education Ministry should re-introduce in their primary curriculum the technical and home care subjects (Craft and Home Science) to give every boy and girl skills in performing any role in their homes.
5. The government should put in place a Programme to award scholarships to males and females who want to pursue fields in which their gender is under represented. This will wake society into a new era of competitiveness.

Other recommendations have been brought out in earlier studies conducted in “Occupational Segregation”. I have outlined a few of them below:

- 1. Reductions in working hours- Shorter working hours have** been found to be a contribution to health and quality of life. Additional non-work time permits individuals to spend more time with their children to take part in a wider range of leisure activities and to be more socially active (Michael White, 1987). The large entry of women into industrial and commercial work force and the unsuitability of existing working schedules for many women who are seeking to combine paid work with child rearing have been found to be unfair for them. The role of fathers in child rearing needs to be considered and both fathers and mothers given shorter work

schedules to be able to cope and help each other in their family responsibilities. This kind of adjustment would create an equal competitive ground for both male and female workers.

2. **Legislation in control of wages, salaries----the need for a women's bureau**-The Government in its sessional paper (pg. 63) acknowledged the inequalities encountered by women and recommended the establishment of a well-staffed women's bureau within the Government to monitor and to promote their better integration into the economy. It also recommended that the Government undertake a full scale general review of the status of women with a view toward outlining steps which should be taken to assure an optimum contribution on their part to the nation's political, social and economic development. The women's bureau would ensure that women's working conditions are not used as a tool against them in the acquiring of a promotion or salary increment.
3. **Putting in place non-discriminatory policies**- by following the example of the United States Employment services by adopting a policy of obtaining from an applicant only that information which is necessary to determine his/her qualifications for employment and facilitate job placement. To directly deal with discrimination (against minority groups including women) policies with concerns outlined below should be implemented.
 - a) To promote employment opportunities for all applicants on the basis of their skills, abilities and job qualifications.
 - b) To make definite continuous effort with employers with whom relationships are established to the end that their hiring specifications be based exclusively on job performance factors.
 - c) To enable an Equal Employment Opportunity environment (U.S Commission of Civil Rights Employment, 1961. Pg. 115)

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

A STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION IN THE EMPLOYMENT SECTOR: THE CASE OF NAIROBI, KENYA

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Company Type – a) Service (Hospital or School) b) Information Technology
 c) Construction e) Engineering
2. Any mission & vision statement adapted by the company? (a) yes b) no
3. If Yes to Q 2 write down the statement adopted and when it was adopted.

4. Any organizational philosophy followed by the company? (a) yes b) no
5. If Yes to Q 4 write down the philosophy adopted and when it was adopted.
6. Number of employed staff (in figures)
7. Number of teachers/ doctors/ nurses/engineers/ construction workers/ ICT professionals (in figures)
8. Number of male teachers/ doctors/ nurses/engineers/ construction workers/ ICT professionals (in figures)
9. Number of female teachers/ doctors/ nurses/engineers/ construction workers/ ICT professionals (in figures)
10. Outline hierarchy of administration by filling the table below

Position	Number of males	Number of females	Educational level (fill as certificate, diploma, 1 st degree, 2 nd degree e.t.c
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			

11			
12			
13			
14			
15			
16			
17			
18			
19			
20			

11. How would you rate your female employee's performance through your interaction with them? Indicate by marking one choice in the following values below:

- a) Punctuality to work –a) often punctual c) always punctual d) never punctual
- b) Time flexibility - a) very flexible b) not flexible c) fairly flexible
- c) Handling work stress- a) Very good b) good c) moderate d) poor
- d) Team playing - a) Very good b) good c) moderate d) poor
- e) Flexibility of location(if required to perform task in an area outside current location)
 - a) very flexible b) not flexible c) fairly flexible
- f) Absenteeism from work a) High b) low c) moderate
- g) Completion of work deadlines: a) punctual b) late

12. How would you rate your male employee's performance through your interaction with them? Indicate by marking one choice in the following values below:

- a) Punctuality to work –a) often punctual c) always punctual d) never punctual
- b) Time flexibility - a) very flexible b) not flexible c) fairly flexible
- c) Handling work stress- a) Very good b) good c) moderate d) poor
- d) Team playing - a) Very good b) good c) moderate d) poor
- e) Flexibility of location(if required to perform task in an area outside current location)
 - a) very flexible b) not flexible c) fairly flexible
- f) Absenteeism from work a)High b) low c) moderate
- g) Completion of work deadlines: a) punctual b)late



13. Mark in order of preference your considerations when hiring staff on the following aspects:

- a) Experience
- b) Qualifications
- c) Gender

14. What conditions do you outline for your staff for promotion?

15. What conditions do you outline for your staff selection in training?

16. What conditions do you outline for your staff for salary increments and benefits?
(use the back of this page to answer)